



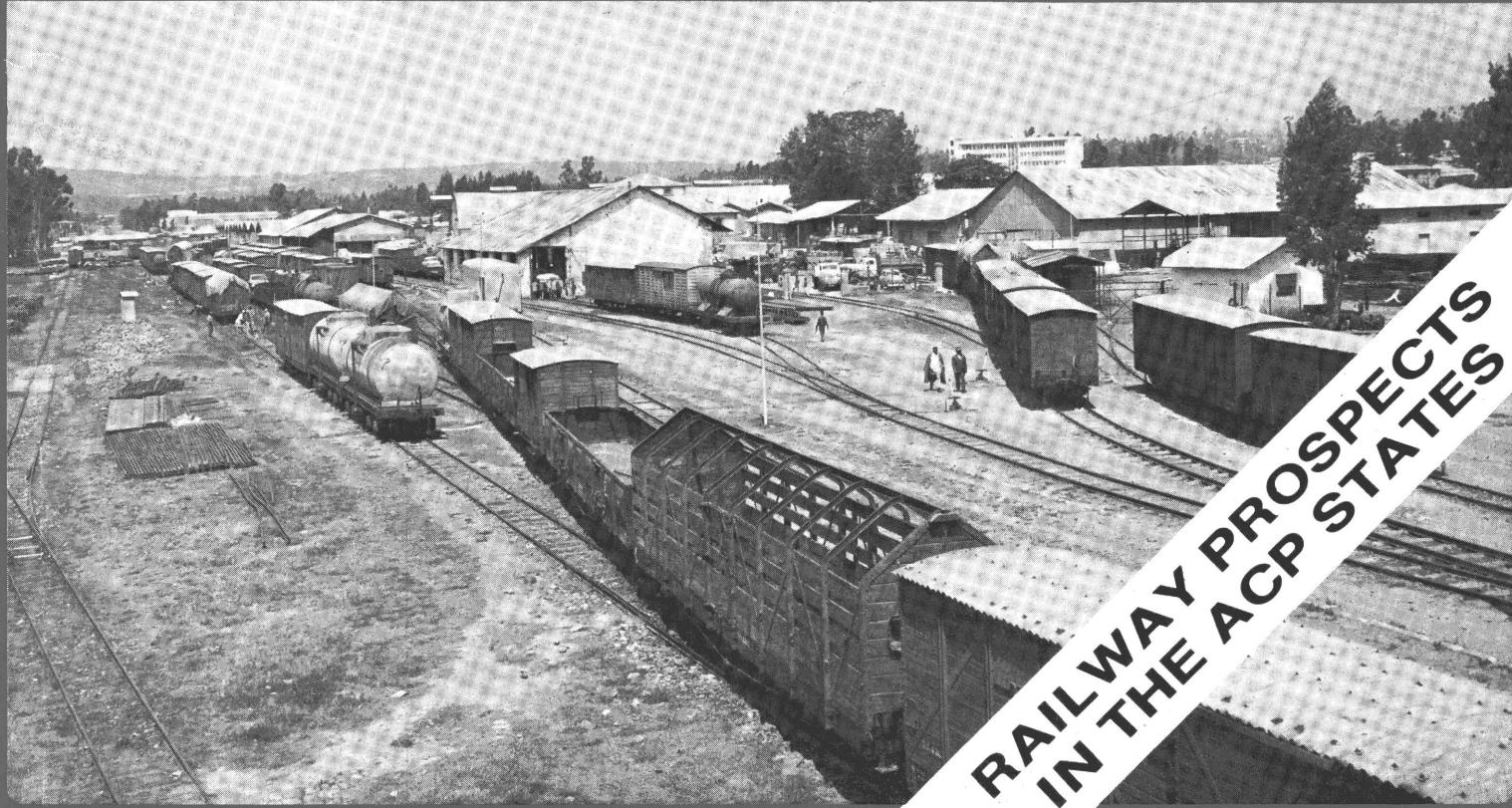
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the courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC—EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Published every two months

No 56 — JULY-AUGUST 1979



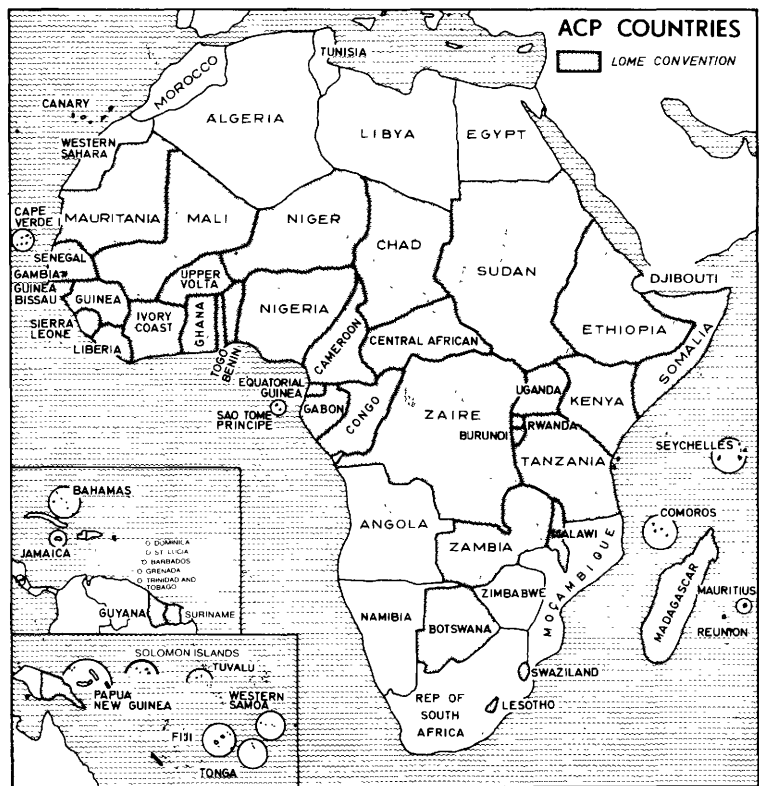
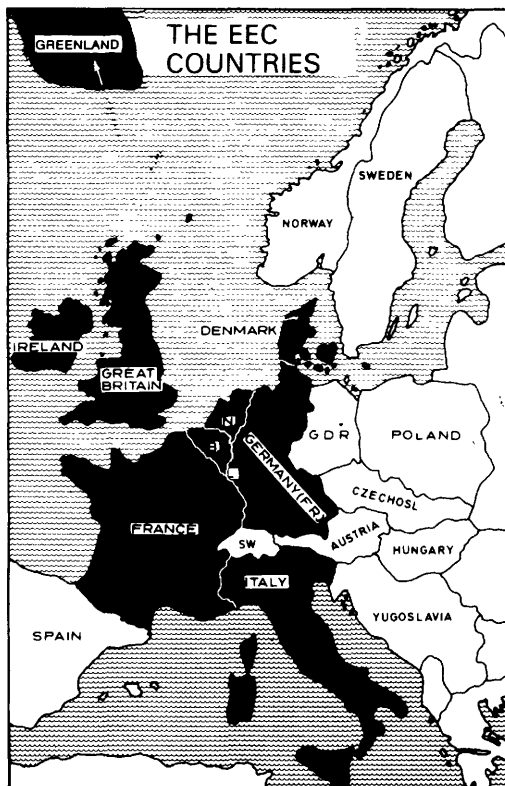
**RAILWAY PROSPECTS
IN THE ACP STATES**

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

THE ACP STATES

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



FRANCE

(Overseas departments)

Guadeloupe
 Guiana
 Martinique
 Reunion
 St Pierre and Miquelon

(Overseas territories)

Anglo-French Condominium of the New Hebrides
 Mayotte
 New Caledonia and dependencies
 French Polynesia
 French Southern and Antarctic Territories
 Wallis and Futuna Islands

NETHERLANDS

(Overseas countries)

Netherlands Antilles
 (Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao; St Martin, Saba, St Eustatius)

UNITED KINGDOM

(Overseas countries and territories)

Anglo-French Condominium of the New Hebrides
 Antigua
 Belize
 British Antarctic Territory
 British Indian Ocean Territory
 British Virgin Islands
 Brunei
 Cayman Islands
 Falkland Islands
 Gilbert Islands
 Montserrat
 Pitcairn Island
 St Helena and dependencies
 St Kitts, Nevis and Anguilla
 St Vincent
 Turks and Caicos Islands

This list does not prejudice the status of these countries and territories now or in the future.

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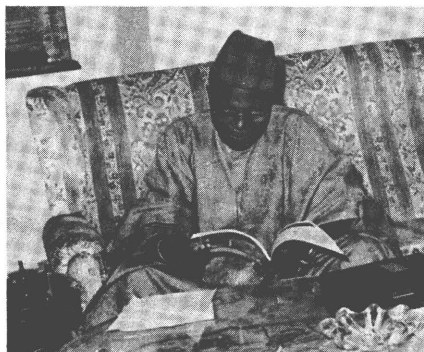
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Upper Volta — Despite a lack of resources which puts it among the world's poorest countries, Upper Volta seems confident of its future. Multi-party democracy has been established, showing that this is not a "luxury" in Africa, and in our feature General Lamizana's government explains the economic priorities to which the country's main efforts must be devoted if the difficulties are "to be overcome in freedom". **Page 7**



Barbados — Barbados is distinguished from its Caribbean neighbours by virtue of having only been colonized by the British, in 1627. This "harmonious" colonial background explains the country's solid tradition of parliamentary democracy. Economically industrious, the island is also a prime tourist destination and the average per capita income is relatively high. Prime Minister Tom Adams outlines his country's development objectives. **Page 16**

Europe — Farming is the main topic in this issue's coverage of the Community, which includes an interview with the chairman of the European Parliament's agriculture committee, Henri Caillavet. EEC farmers face a number of problems due to the pressure on a changing common agricultural policy and the prospect of more Mediterranean countries joining the Nine. Mr Caillavet suggests some improvements to the CAP in "a Community which needs a North-South dialogue within its own borders". **Page 49**



Dossier — The *Courier* published what amounted to an inventory of ACP railways some years ago. This time the dossier examines the main problems hampering the ACP rail networks and their prospects of improvement under coordinated national, regional and continental development policies. Rail seems the best transport choice in many ACP states, especially for the landlocked countries, but the networks are in many cases out of date and mismatched due to the variety of gauges. **Page 80**

The Arts — Perhaps culture best defines a person. The upsurge of interest in "folk" culture in Europe and the cultural recognition claimed by its minorities are echoes of a world-wide movement nowhere felt stronger than in the Caribbean. Writers such as Oruno Lara, Frantz Fanon and Aimé Césaire are now joined by Maryse Condé, whose latest book *La civilisation du Bossale* further advances the tradition of Afro-West Indian cultural awareness in the French-speaking Antilles. **Page 122**



Four current events

Among the many meetings, conferences and diplomatic events recently in the news, four warrant our particular attention. They are the third ACP-EEC ministerial conference in Brussels, UNCTAD in Manila, the signing of Greece's treaty of accession to the EEC in Athens and direct elections (universal suffrage) to the European Parliament.

The first of these, concerning the new ACP-EEC convention, will shortly be covered in a special issue of the *Courier*. There is a report on the UNCTAD results in our News Round-up. Both meetings reflect real difficulties: the undeniable need of one side and the economic problems of both developed and developing countries in an international situation made worse by soaring oil prices. But in both cases, there has been progress, stage-by-stage towards a difficult but genuine compromise in ACP-EEC cooperation and towards slower changes in UNCTAD.

The other two events are of direct concern to the Community. On 28 May 1979, the treaty whereby Greece joined the EEC was signed in Athens. The idea of ultimate accession was already contained in the 1961 association agreement that took effect in 1962 and this new treaty will come into force on 1 January

1981, once the parliamentary ratification procedures have been completed. We will then have a Community of 10, the first stage in the process of eventually creating a Community of 12. Here again, economic reality and a concern with what are often legitimate yet conflicting interests mean that it would be more difficult, without the indispensable precautions and inevitable delays, to reach the goal of including the two other candidates, Spain and Portugal. But it is clear that these events will strengthen the zone of political democracy constituted by the Community and bring the centre of gravity further south after the first enlargement of 1973.

When the Greek treaty was signed, Jean-François Poncet, President of the Council of Ministers, said, "Europe must continue to move towards the natural frontiers of its civilization". But it must do so without weakening the Community, as Commission President Roy Jenkins said, calling for a reinforcing of the institutions and a strengthening of common policy. Mr Karamanlis, the Greek Prime Minister, neatly summed up what is at stake in the building of Europe now and in the future. "We have reached the point of no return. Of course there will be differences of opinion as to the scope, the form, the procedure and the timetable for this achievement. But no one

can deny its historical necessity. If the countries of our continent fail to join their material and moral forces in one organic whole, they will unavoidably be relegated to the sidelines of history".

We had been waiting for the European elections for 20 years. For the first time, on 7 and 10 June 1979, 180 million people were able to vote by universal suffrage in international elections. The new European Parliament, with 410 instead of 198 MPs, has no more power than it did before, but the elections have given it moral authority that will enable it to do a better job. Many of the Nine's most important politicians have been elected and the Greek MPs will not be long in joining them.

Yet these events of May and June are only stages in a longer process. Nothing is ever perfect, after all. But they show that when there is the political will, when the practical issues are faced and that will is clearly expressed, firmly supported, generous and vital, there is a way, through compromise admittedly; but that can be acceptable to all concerned, provided the states and the people really feel their interdependence and are aware of their future together.

□

ALAIN LACROIX

“Telecommunications for all”

After World Telecommunications Day (17 May 1979), the rulers of the waves meet in Geneva in September

During the last three decades, since the introduction of public television services, the number of television sets throughout the world has reached 450 million and even surpassed the number of telephones in operation in the 154 member countries of the International Telecommunications Union (ITU)(*).

Telecommunications and the mass media

WARC-79 will be of particular importance for the development of radio, point-to-point, mobile and mass communications.

The last conference of this kind took place 20 years ago. WARC-79 will review virtually all of ITU's radio regulations including the table of frequency allocations. The conference will, among other things, have to deal with a great number of proposals from industrialized and developing countries which will call for an increase in high frequency (or short-wave band) allocations for broadcasting. This part of the spectrum, from 3 to 30 MHz, will also be sought by a great number of developing nations for basic telecommunications — much as industrialized countries now use landline, micro-wave and satellite telecommunication systems.

Sound and television broadcasting which, together with the written press, books and cinemas, form the mass media have become an essential part of modern life. The mass media — newspapers and broadcasting — are entirely dependent on telecommunications, for the rapid gathering of the information to be published in the case of newspapers, and as the actual bearer of the information in the case of broadcasting.

(*) The International Telecommunication Union is the specialized agency of the United Nations for telecommunications. It was founded in 1865 and has 154 member countries. Its headquarters are in Geneva.

17 May was chosen as World Telecommunications Day because it is the anniversary of the signing in Paris of the first International Telegraphic Convention which established the Union on 17 May 1865, 114 years ago, thus making the International Telecommunication Union the oldest of the intergovernmental organizations belonging to the United Nations system.

The forthcoming World Administrative Radio Conference, WARC-79, to be convened in Geneva for a duration of 10 weeks, starting on 24 September 1979, will be of capital importance to broadcasting and a great number of telecommunication services. The ITU explains what it's all about.

Nowadays a large proportion of the news published in the daily press is gathered and passed on to the newspapers by news agencies.

The big world-wide press agencies receive news from their correspondents situated all over the world and rediffuse it to editors with a minimum of delay. The collection and the diffusion of this information requires the use of powerful techniques of transmission.

For over 100 years now, the chief news transmission technique employed both by the press agencies and by individual newspaper reporters has been telecommunications. Of course, the techniques have not remained static and each new advance — the telegraph, the telephone, radio, satellite communications — has been quickly seized upon and used by the press with a view to improving their service to their readers.

At present the technique most used by press agencies is the teletype machine which is connected to another similar machine either by cable or by radio. The connection may be via the public telex network or by a circuit leased by the agency from the post office. But whatever the method of transmission between the two machines, the result is the same — the journalist types his news report on one machine and instantaneously, at the agency headquarters, the second machine reproduces what has been typed.

Another important use made of telecommunications by journalists is high-speed data and facsimile transmission. The latter means the transmission of photographs or other documents over the telephone network by means of special terminal apparatus.

In the last few years, newspaper publishers have been experimenting with



Stamps specially issued by the Federal Republic of Germany for a world telecommunications congress in 1969

systems designed to transmit the whole of their newspaper to a distant point for local printing. In this way more rapid distribution of the paper can be effected over great distances. Such techniques are in use in the Soviet Union for the transmission of newspaper pages to provincial newspaper printing centres. In the United States, pages of the Wall Street Journal are being transmitted by communication satellite from the Dow Jones regional composition plant in Chicopee, Massachusetts, to the company's production facility in South Brunswick, New Jersey. There, the reproduced facsimile is used to produce press plates for printing the pages.

These various techniques used by the press would be of little use without the existence of a world-wide network of telecommunications to ensure the rapid transmission of the information.

This world-wide network is now composed not only of cables and high frequency radio links, but also of communication satellites, microwave and troposcatter links. On the international level the planning of such arteries is done by the ITU's World and Regional Plan Committees, which try to ensure that the international network develops in the most efficient and economical way. This is done by establishing a "general plan for the development of

the international telecommunications network" based on actual traffic volume and short-term and medium-term forecasts of traffic between different centres.

Broadcasting

Nowhere is the revolution brought about by telecommunications more evident to the general public than in the field of broadcasting.

Many people living today can remember the time when broadcasting was non-existent. In the space of little over 50 years they have seen broadcasting grow from the first primitive equipment to the modern mass-produced transistorized receiver and the high-fidelity stereo receiver. They have also seen the invention of television and the development from the early 25

cm screen black and white receivers to the present day colour receivers.

This massive technical advance has led to no less spectacular social changes.

The amount of information now rapidly available to the general public through sound and television broadcasting has multiplied a hundredfold, leading to a greater awareness of other countries and peoples. In the fields of culture and education, the contributions of radio and television have been immense, broadening the outlook and enriching the lives of listeners and viewers.

Many countries have important programmes of educational broadcasting. An interesting project in this field which has received assistance from the ITU within the framework of the United Nations Development Programme was

the Indian Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE). This project involved the use of the American Applications Technology Satellite (ATS-6) to rebroadcast over a wide area instructional television programmes to television receivers in Indian villages. Each receiver had a specially designed "front and adaptor" and antenna capable of receiving television signals direct from the satellite.

The SITE programme was aimed at educating and enlightening the rural population in remote areas. The success of this opened up new vistas for the expansion of adult education, press services and literacy schemes.

Television and radio have the great advantage that they can reach people who cannot be reached by print either because they cannot read or because, as in certain countries, distribution facilities are not adequate.

But the results of broadcasting have not always been positive. Local cultures have sometimes disappeared under the influence of imported ideas. Popular television series broadcast in many countries are partly responsible for the increasing uniformity of dress throughout the world. Local dialects are disappearing under the influence of centralized broadcasting.

To help solve these problems and to ensure the maximum benefit from the mass media a great deal of sociological research still needs to be done. While a two-way communication transmitter and receiver of information fully controls its content, this is not the case in unilateral broadcasting.

One thing is certain, however, the technique of telecommunications has enabled undreamt of quantities of information to be brought rapidly to the attention of every man and woman on this globe.

During the last three decades, since the introduction of public television services, the number of television sets throughout the world has reached 450 million and even surpassed the number of telephones in operation in ITU's 154 member countries. More mass communication, more broadcasting and TV transmitters and receivers; more periodicals and newspapers, books and cinemas—we should see to it that these remain what they must always be: tools in the service of and at the command of man. In themselves they are nothing; only human beings, speaking through these media to other human beings, make them worthy of our attention.

As with other gifts of technology, it depends on the wisdom of mankind to use the powerful tool of telecommunications for the mass media for the benefit and enrichment of humanity.



N'sele satellite telecommunication station, Zaire

Telecommunications as a weapon against isolation

For the healthy person, the use of "mass" communication media is no problem: the equipment has been designed with him or her in mind. But there is another category of people for whom serious difficulties are raised: for instance, the handicapped who cannot easily make the movements required to hold a telephone, to dial a telephone number or even to enter a public callbox.

On the other hand, the telephone can play an important part in situations of physical or moral crisis: the emergency telephone can enable the physically isolated — aged, infirm or disabled people — to call for help; and the ordinary subscriber set can also be used by a distressed or lonely person to find somebody to tell his troubles to.

These various aspects of the same problem, the use of telecommunications to overcome isolation, will be discussed below.

"Full participation of disabled persons"

In 1976 the United Nations General Assembly adopted a resolution in which it proclaimed 1981 as the "International Year for Disabled Persons" with the theme "full participation". In so doing, the General Assembly decided to devote that year to the realization of a set of objectives designed to help disabled persons in their physical and psychological adjustment to society.

To attain these goals the United Nations General Assembly then established an advisory committee composed of the representatives of 23 member states appointed on the basis of equitable geographical distribution, to consider the draft programme for the Year for Disabled Persons.

The effective participation of handicapped people in daily and active life is too often restricted by the fact that modern public equipment (to mention only one example) is generally not designed for them. Consider, for example, the enormous flights of steps which have to be climbed to enter some public buildings and the agility required to board public transport vehicles.

This is equally true of telecommunication equipment designed for use by the greatest number, for the physically handicapped, in fact, constitute a minority group.

The problem, therefore, is to examine what steps could be taken to enable the physically isolated—the disabled, the aged, the hard of hearing—

—to make the best possible use of telecommunications.

A number of systems have been devised to enable people suffering from physical disabilities (restriction of movement, deficiencies of sight or hearing) to use telecommunication equipment, particularly telephones, and even to offer them employment in various telecommunication services; for instance, employing blind people as telephone switchboard operators. In some countries, telecommunication administrations, in cooperation with health and social services, have also studied how mass media equipments might be modified to make them accessible to the largest possible number of handicapped people.

For example, public callboxes have been specially adapted to wheelchairs, and telephones in public offices have been lowered. The use of keyboard telephones has proved most valuable for people with bad eyesight and those whose hands tremble. Special insets can be attached to telephones for the benefit of people with bad hearing.

With regard to bad eyesight, an electronic system for guiding blind pedestrians was recently brought into service in a shopping centre. The system consists of a portable receiver and of an underground cable following a specific route through the store. The receiver emits a low ticking noise while the user follows this route, but the sound changes as soon as he moves away from it. The system is derived from a technique used in a radionavigation system for shipping.

Studies conducted at the international level by the International Radio Con-

sultative Committee (CCIR), the permanent organ of the ITU dealing with the standardization of radio equipment, on the development of short-range hearing aids, should produce the international technical standards required for the design of radiocommunication aids for the deaf, which would then be internationally recognized. The following questions are being studied:

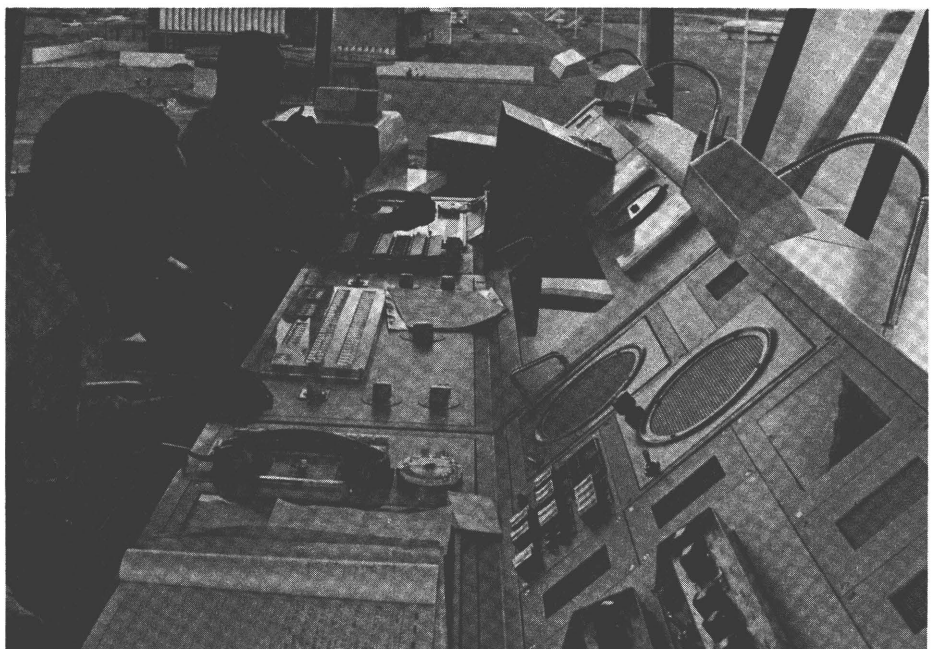
- 1) What are the most suitable technical characteristics of a short-range radiocommunication hearing aid system;
- 2) What interference is likely to be caused to other services by the widespread use of low-power radiocommunication hearing aids;
- 3) What protection is required from other services to permit satisfactory operation of radiocommunication hearing aids using an internationally common radio frequency channel;
- 4) What is the preferred frequency band and mode of operation for a short-range hearing aid system?

It should be noted that WARC-79 might decide, at the proposal of a participating country, to consider allocating frequency bands in the 3-4 MHz range to recognize internationally the need to allow the world-wide use of low-power radiocommunication hearing aids.

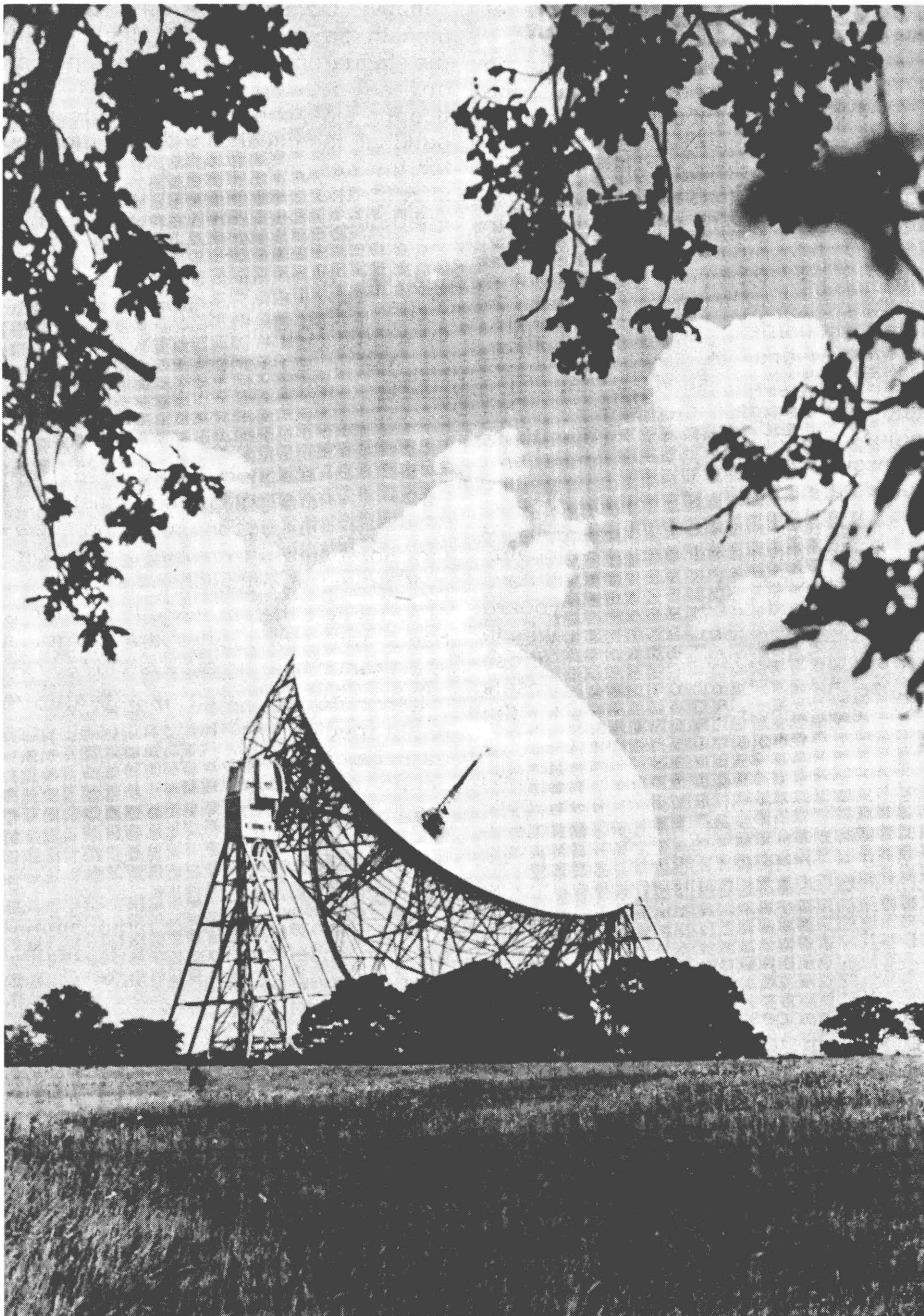
The advantage of these radiocommunication-based devices over traditional hearing aids is high-quality speech reproduction with less background noise.

In urgent cases: emergency telephone networks

To combat physical isolation. In rec-



Other forms of communication depend on telecommunications: the control tower at Bamako airport (Mali)



A European station picks the voices of the world out of the sky

ent years, real emergency telephone networks have been developed in various countries to enable people who are physically isolated by age, sickness or permanent disability to obtain help in emergencies.

In such distress call networks, it is generally possible to alert a special centre, which is on duty round the clock, without having to lift a telephone receiver and dial a number, both operations being difficult for a person who is suddenly taken ill or whose mobility is impaired. The alarms can be given either by a push-button installed near the subscriber's telephone which triggers a signal to the centre, or by remote-control whereby the signal is

triggered by a device which the person carries around with him or her.

The latter solution is particularly suitable for isolated people who do not have complete freedom of movement, either owing to a permanent physical disability or because they are subject to seizures which would prevent them from reaching the telephone. Such a remote-control device, worn, for instance, around the neck or the wrist, might easily be pressed by hand or by another part of the body and this would seem to be feasible even in cases where movement was very severely restricted.

The signal is transmitted by the subscriber's ordinary telephone line to the

emergency centre where distress calls are recorded. The source of the call can be identified from the signal. At this point there is no telephone conversation (to avoid line congestion), but the centre can, on receiving the signal, call the subscriber to enquire what kind of help may be required. If the subscriber is prevented from replying by his condition, the centre has a file containing information on his state of health, the name of his doctor and other data calculated to facilitate rapid intervention.

To combat loneliness. The telephone is important not only in cases of physical emergency, but can also be used to call for assistance in the event of spiritual or mental distress, particularly in the large industrial cities, where many people suffer a feeling of alienation among the crowd and have difficulty in communicating. In such cases (which are becoming increasingly common: in December 1977, one call per 300 inhabitants was recorded in a large city of western Europe), the telephone offers the advantage of being able to talk to someone without meeting or seeing them. "The caller" does not know the "respondent", who may be a volunteer or a professional psychologist and is there to provide a sympathetic ear and to defuse the crisis.

Private or official "helping hand" associations have thus been set up in many countries on all the continents to respond, in complete anonymity, to calls of this type. The calls are received either at private homes or in hospitals and specialists are generally on call round the clock.

Points to be made in connection with this telephone service are as follows:

- the introduction of pulse-metering for local calls may create a problem, since these conversations are sometimes rather long. Some telecommunication administrations have therefore assigned to these services special numbers whereby the caller need pay only the initial charge;
- the addresses of the centres where the calls are received are not listed in its directories;
- since anonymity is absolutely essential, the videophone cannot be used for this service;
- many of these calls are made from callboxes;
- the peak hours for the use of this service vary according to the life style of the country concerned. As a general rule, however, calls are most frequent in the early evening (after the factories and offices are closed) and during the night;
- the quality of the respondent's voice is very important, as is a knowledge of foreign languages in cities with a large immigrant population. □

UPPER VOLTA

Priority to water resources, agricultural development and reafforestation

Interview with President Lamizana

General Sangoulé Lamizana has been in power since 1966 and was elected President of the Republic in April 1978 in a free election. Under his presidency, Upper Volta means to show that democracy is not the prerogative of the developed countries.

One of the major current concerns is to mobilize the whole country in the cause of national development. In this, President Lamizana's most spectacular success is to have won the support of the main opposition party, the UNDD, through the intermediary of its "inspirer" Maurice Yameogo, from whom General Lamizana took over as head of state.

► *What has been happening in Upper Volta over the past few months has given hope to a whole generation of Africans. How is the new democratic system working out?*

— It is working out very well. As you know, our institutions were set up nearly a year ago now and our main task at the moment is to resolutely tackle the problem of the economic and social development of our country. And we are tackling it courageously. I say "courageously", because the start of the Third Republic was the start of a difficult period.

There is monetary disorder and there is a constant deterioration in the terms of trade, which by no means makes the job of the leaders easier in a country like ours which is badly placed geographically and faced with difficulties of all kinds. But as far as we are concerned, I can tell you that our work for progress in Upper Volta is unremitting.

► *In Africa some people think a multi-party system accentuates national divisions and makes it difficult to mobilize the country to work for devel-*

opment. Has this been the case in Upper Volta?

— In any country where there is a multi-party system, there are always people who fish in troubled waters. But, as you know, I am working to achieve national unity, and indeed political unity because all our people and all our leaders are aware that everyone must be involved if we are to achieve proper economic and social development. I think that people right across the political spectrum in Upper Volta agree that we must get everyone involved. This was abundantly clear in my recent tour of the country. I talked to all sorts of people and I don't think that there will be any systematic opposition in this particular field. Everyone agrees that we can get off to a good start. Everyone thinks so. The people elected their representatives to deal with their development problems and we think that there is no question of a spirit of division hindering our progress.

► *The general feeling is that the 1978 elections were completely free*



President Sangoulé Lamizana

and democratic. Yet there was a poor turnout. Does this mean that people are tired of politics or have lost interest?

— Neither, I don't think. Something particular to our country caused the low turnout. Upper Volta has been afflicted by drought for several years now and although the elections were planned for what we thought would be a dry period, it rained. At that very moment. In April last year, after years of drought, it began to rain and our farmers were more interested in the rain and their land than in politics.

Election day was a day of heavy rainfall and so, even in the most out-of-the-way areas, people went to work in the fields instead of to vote. It was an unfortunate coincidence, but there was no lack of interest or any systematic abstention.

► *The drought was serious and Upper Volta had to import food despite being a mainly agricultural country. What is the situation like this year?*

— Not so bad as it was last year, for example, or in 1973, the catastrophic year when we lost a large percentage of our livestock. There was no water for the people and so of course none for the animals either. Rainfall this year has been more or less favourable, although some areas have had none at all. But apart from these areas, where there has been nothing to harvest, most of the people across the country have had quite good results. I say quite good, because we haven't had a normal period with really full harvests. We cannot all say that we have filled our granaries.

The cereals shortfall was about 60-70 000 t and so once again we have had to call on the friends and international organizations that usually help us in cases like this.

► *What can you do to avoid the effects of these climatic hazards?*

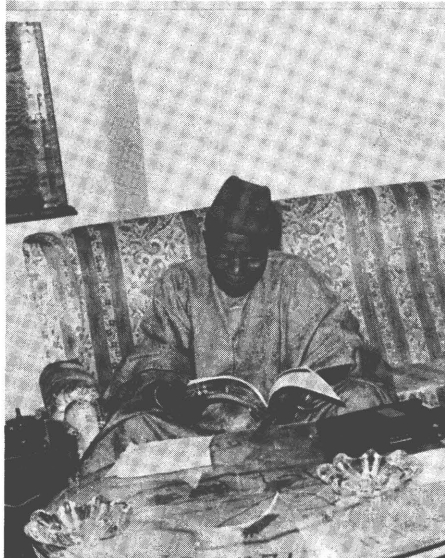
— Our geographical situation is such that we have many priorities. There has been a drought for nearly 12 years now and our main campaign has been against desertification. We must not let the country be taken over by the desert. So we have to get international opinion interested and get help with controlling our water supplies. We ourselves have had to take many water policy decisions. We must at all costs save some of the rain that falls on Upper Volta in July and August. This

would improve the water table and provide supplies for both rural people and their cattle. We also have to replant trees. We have already started this. It has been found that the increasing population needs an increasing amount of firewood and that demand rises when rainfall is short. All this has a considerable effect on the development of plant life. But it has to be admitted that it is the people that are destroying our vegetation. A tree does not grow up overnight. It has to be planted and tended and left to develop. So there has to be an intensive campaign to retimber the devastated areas of Upper Volta. And for this we need more help from our friends.

► *Some of your young people are unable to find jobs and have to emigrate, mainly to the Ivory Coast and Ghana. What steps has the government taken to ensure their security and to attract them back home?*

— The problem is not a recent one. Many of our people do go to the Ivory Coast and Ghana to work during the slack periods, the dry seasons, that is to say. But many of them start to come back in April or May to farm again, as they remain very attached to their land. If they go abroad from November to March, it is to look for work in the dry season when they have practically nothing to do at home, particularly if they are not craftsmen. So they go, only to return in April or May. And then they leave again later.

We have asked our partners, those friendly countries, to introduce certain social measures to enable our emigrants to find work and to ensure



President Lamizana was particularly interested in a Courier article on a family cooker which economizes up to 75% on fuel wood

protection for them and whatever goods they acquire during their stay abroad. One agreement has already been signed with the Ivory Coast and another with Gabon. But there are always gaps to be bridged. We are negotiating with these countries with a view to further agreements and big improvements in the status of the migrant workers, who we feel, make a positive contribution to the economic development of the host countries.

► *Upper Volta has high-grade manganese reserves that are still to be exploited. Do you think you could start mining soon?*

— We have set up a company to mine the manganese at Tambao, and even to build a railway to the mines. This railway, I think, could also open up this part of the Liptako Gourma. We are anxious to develop the area and we think the railway would help open up the whole region, which includes our brothers in Mali and Niger as well as Upper Volta itself. There would be no point to the Abidjan-Niger railway if it stopped short of Niger. So we are dealing with two distinct problems: the problem of opening up the region, which could boost the development of the Liptako Gourma area, and the problem of exploiting the manganese reserves.

We also have other mineral resources that could be exploited within a year or two, if it was possible to solve the transport problem.

► *What resources?*

— Iron, for example, and lime. And we think we could well build a large cement works in the area. So we have got more than just manganese. Manganese prices at the moment seem to have dropped, industry no longer needs it and this is putting our partners off; but only for the time being, I think. One of these days people will need manganese and then we can capitalize on our deposits.

► *You mentioned opening up the Liptako Gourma area. Are there any plans for improving communications in your landlocked country?*

— Our main aims at the moment are to ensure that we can get to the sea, in



A national priority: drought control



The last rains were satisfactory, but there are still pockets of drought

particular to Benin, Togo and the Ivory Coast, and then to improve the main highways between the other land-locked countries in the region, i.e. with Mali, Niger and Upper Volta. We have a vast roads programme. Just recently we held a quadripartite meeting in

Ouagadougou to deal with the problem of road and rail communications. We have no choice in the matter. We simply have to develop this sector.

► *What will be the effect on Upper Volta of the French and German decisions to write off your debts?*

— We were delighted with this decision, which is extremely important for us. The international economic situation is such that countries like ours are suffering and that we are extremely anxious about the future, particularly with all these price rises, the deterioration in the terms of trade, the monetary disorder and the soaring cost of oil. This is why the decision taken by France and Germany (and by Canada and the Netherlands, I might add) is an excellent thing for us. It will mean that we have a greater opportunity to take a firm step towards achieving other projects for which it was difficult to find the money.

And perhaps it will also mean we can improve the social situation of our people, as the budget can now make allocations for this. It is a very healthy decision.

► *The EEC is one of Upper Volta's closest partners. How does the Upper Volta government hope to channel Community aid?*

— Our dearest wish is to make further progress with the development of our infrastructure. I have mentioned road infrastructure and, without roads, development is out of the question, particularly in the modern world. Here in Upper Volta, the top priority is the development of agriculture and stock-raising. The Community has done a lot to help us here and we think it will continue to do so, as we have many projects to control water resources, build dams and sink boreholes. I have just toured the country and people everywhere want water.

So we must save as much water as possible and have as many wells and boreholes as possible for agriculture and livestock. We think the Community will continue to make an effort here. And we also have to deal with the problem of education and of training for cadres. These, roughly, are our main concerns. □

Interview by
AMADOU TRAORE



"The top priority is the development of agriculture"

Overcoming the difficulties, in a free society

Upper Volta is one of the 25 poorest countries in the world. Its problems of underdevelopment are worsened by the fact that it is landlocked and by the years of severe drought in the Sahel. But in spite of all this (and perhaps even because of it) and since the multi-party system seems to be the only way of getting the most out of everyone, Upper Volta has opted for genuinely democratic institutions. Having laid the political foundations, the country can set a direct course for development; yet for some time to come this will amount to no more than "getting enough to eat and drink", to quote the Prime Minister, Joseph Conombo.

Emigration in peace time is a fairly good indication of the economic climate of a region or a country and Upper Volta knows this, which is why the problem of migrating workers has become one of its major concerns. When the government answered the opposition's question about this during a television programme in May, it admitted that it had no miracle solution that would reverse the trend overnight. An estimated 1 500 000 Voltaics are now working in the Ivory Coast and Ghana. In 1976, there were about 2 000 of them in Gabon as well. Migration to these countries continues.

This is a long-standing problem, of course. It started during the colonial era when Upper Volta was split

between the Ivory Coast, Niger and French Sudan (Mali) and the French administration used the hardworking, tenacious and persevering Mossi farmers to develop plantations in the Ivory Coast and land belonging to the Niger office. Then there is seasonal emigration which is generated by a need to find work for the eight-month period between two harvests. But the trip abroad often turns into a stay of several years, particularly since the Sahel drought and the unreliable rainfall puts the crops at risk.

As it is unable to stop the flow of emigrants, the Upper Volta government has tried to safeguard the interests of its people and their goods in the host

countries. But this is a difficult task, as success depends on the goodwill of the host countries. Agreements have been signed, of course, but implementation is another matter. However, emigration can have its good points. "If every emigrant sent as little as CFAF 1 000 home every month, our balance of payments problems would be over", one senior Voltaic official said. But the present situation is far less rosy. Since 1973, emigrants have been sending less money home and the total amount dropped from CFAF 6 834 000 million in 1973 to CFAF 5 669 000 million in 1974 and 5 500 000 million in 1975, the last year for which the Banque Centrale des Etats de l'Afrique de l'Ouest has figures. So what more natural reaction, then, than for Upper Volta to try to slow down the flow immediately and to stem it completely in the not too distant future?

Taking up the challenge

There is no easy answer. The government has learnt from experience that you cannot just decree an end to emigration. Its present tactics, the only realistic ones under the circumstances, are to remove the cause of emigration, which means solving the country's main problems—a real challenge, as these are the problems that encourage people to leave.

The first and most important challenge is to feed the hungry. Essentially, Upper Volta is an agricultural country but it can no longer produce enough food for its people. There is the drought, of course, but there is more to it than that. The Mossi plateau, for example, the area in the centre-north of the country where rainfed crops are grown, is overpopulated, often with as many as 300 people to the km², and the shortage of land leads to deterioration of the soil as fallow periods get closer and yields (500 t sorghum per ha) get smaller.

There is better land in the south-east and south-west, with only a tiny population. But the drawback here is that the area is infested with simuliid, the dreaded blackfly that spreads river blindness. In 1977, in spite of all the food aid it received, Upper Volta had to import 52 016 tonnes of grain worth CFAF 3 263 000 million. Last year there was a satisfactory winter and an estimated harvest of 1 156 911 t cereals (millet, maize, sorghum and rice), but there are still pockets of drought and the cereals shortfall is estimated at 52 t.



Upper Volta hopes to achieve self-sufficiency in food by growing more rice

Prime Minister Joseph Conombo: "Union is vital"

► *Upper Volta faces considerable economic difficulties. Isn't your government at a disadvantage in tackling them since it only has a majority of two in the house?*

— Numerically speaking, yes. But parliamentary splits and European-type calculations don't come into it in our case. For whatever their political colour, all Voltaics face the same problems of shortage of food, primary infrastructure and infrastructure for education and health. Our problems aren't those of the overfed. What we have to do is to find enough to eat and drink. These are the basic needs that no one can do without. My government is trying to get everyone from every party to join with it to find enough food and water for our people and then to give them health care



and provide education for our children, who are faced with problems every single day of their lives. All the political parties, whether or not they are represented in the house, are aware that these are the basic truths in the cause of which we must all unite. And unless we unite, the investors won't come, we won't get aid and we won't get transfers of technology. We are realistic. Union is vital and the parliamentary opposition knows it. □

The second challenge, closely tied to the need for expanding production, is to halt the advancing desert. This means full control of water resources to provide supplies for both people and livestock and for irrigation. But the antidesertification campaign also involves taking immediate, stringent measures to economize on firewood. And vigorous reforestation must be undertaken, since, at the present rate, the destruction of Upper Volta's plant cover will be irreversible in 15 years' time.

Lastly, there is a large employment problem. "The human ant-hill", as Upper Volta has sometimes been called, has a population of more than 5 500 000, increasing by 2% every year.

In addition to the unemployment in the towns (there are only 45 600 wage-earners), there is a chronic job shortage in the country areas, where crops only need attention for four or five months of the year.

The development of the Volta valleys

Upper Volta aims to produce enough cereals for domestic requirements by the year 2 000 and has therefore decided to develop rain-fed cultivation of millet, maize and sorghum as much as possible by introducing selected seeds, using fertilizer and generalizing animal-drawn tillage via a new agricultural credit policy. It has also decided to expand rice-growing wherever possi-

ble, particularly by developing the land below rural dams by means of a system of irrigation and drainage. Hundreds of hectares have already been or are being improved in this way by the ORD (regional development boards) in Yatenga, Kaya and Fada Gourma.

But the focal point of the policy to provide enough food and keep the rural populations settled is, undeniably, the Volta valleys development scheme (AVV), a gigantic enterprise which, once complete, will cover 10% of Upper Volta, almost 27 000 km². The idea is to develop areas now free of river-blindness by moving in families to farm 9-15 ha each. The plan is to set up 20 000 families to grow rain-fed crops and 20 000 to grow irrigated crops. For the moment, only 1 800 families have been provided with their plots by the project. Their yields are high (according to one Voltanic official, 1 200 t sorghum per ha, as compared to 500 t on the Mossi plateau). Of course, all the farmers use draft tillage and get advice from the many supervisory staff, who are anxious to preserve the quality of the land and who insist on crops being rotated. But this structure is expensive. Between 1971 and 1977, the development programme is estimated to have cost more than CFAF 4 000 million. The process is also a fairly slow one and itself depends on headway being made with the river-blindness eradication scheme.

It is perhaps for this reason in particular that the food self-sufficiency target has been fixed for the year 2000. This distant date seems to condemn Upper Volta, an essentially agricultural country, to needing food aid from the rich countries for another 20 years and more and, as this aid never completely meets requirements, to using the foreign currency it earns from selling cotton and groundnuts (where exports are possible) to buy cereals to bridge

"A unique example of cooperation"

M.G.K. Ouédraogo

**Co-chairman of the Joint
Committee of the ACP-EEC
Consultative Assembly**



► *How will your organization benefit now that many leading figures in European politics are in the European Parliament?*

— Their arrival is a positive contribution, as they are bringing their experience and everyone in Europe and the countries associated with it can see just what a wealth of experience it is.

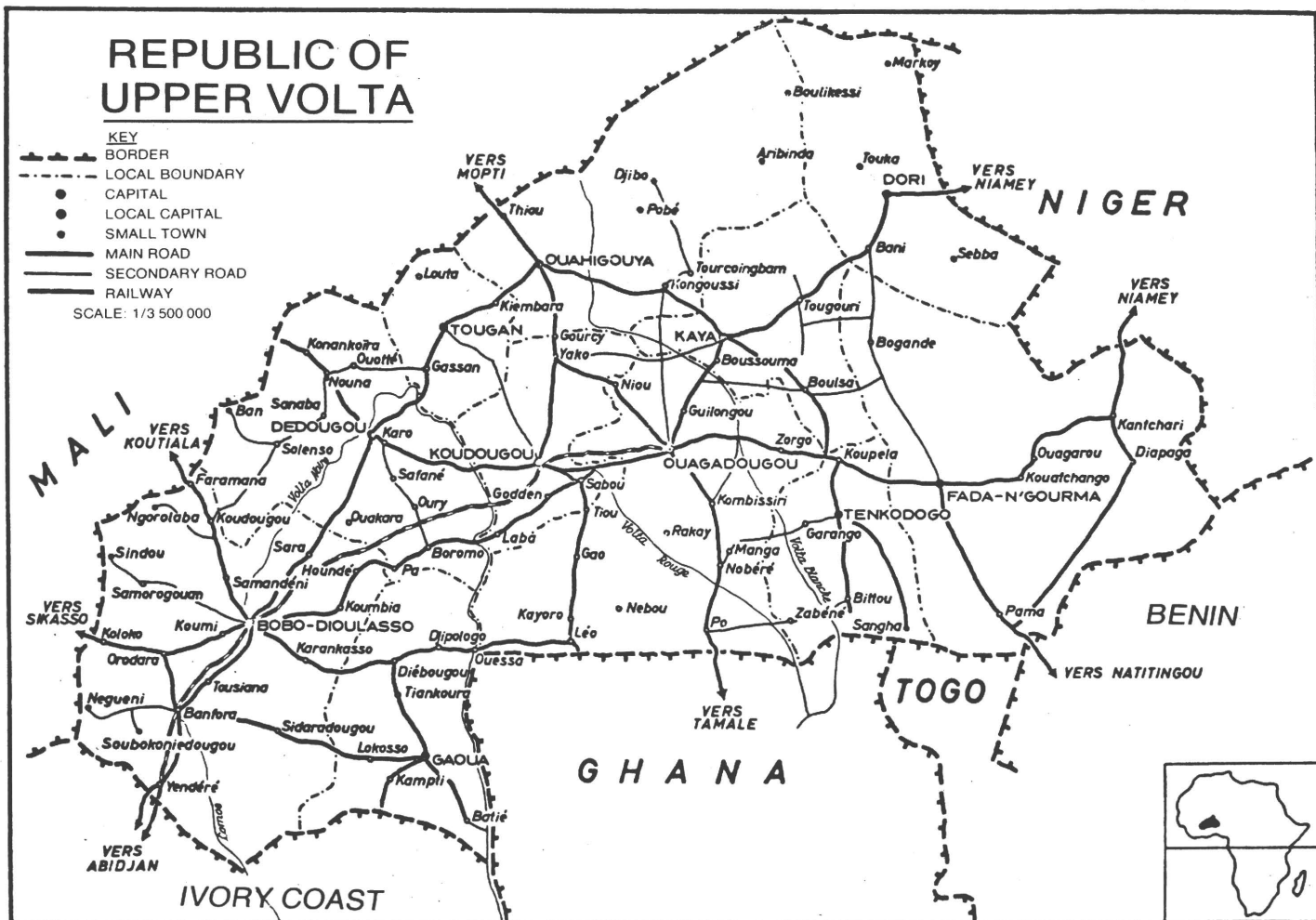
In their careers as statesmen, all these leading figures have had dealings with Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. By which I mean that they are familiar with the problems of the ACP countries and will lose no time in finding answers to them, as they are sure of the support of a continent-wide parliament with preroga-

tives to match the influence they each have in their respective countries.

► *The negotiations for Lomé II have reached the final stages now. How do you see ACP-EEC relations in future?*

— This question leads to another. Just what is the Lomé Convention? Well, to my mind, Lomé I is a unique example of multilateral cooperation between industrialized and developing countries. It is the story of how people from several continents came together.

To my mind, the future of ACP-EEC relations will involve confident, reciprocal solidarity, binding ACP and EEC countries together in frank and mutually beneficial cooperation. □



the gap. The Voltaic leaders are frank and do not deny this. PM Joseph Conombo said, "those who help us have got to understand that we ourselves want to be rid of this sickness called begging. We do not like it and the sooner we can stop it the better it will be for us as men. The year 2000 is a realistic date fixed with the present situation in mind. But if we can, we shall stop depending on other people well before then."

Positive factors

Over the last few years, the drought has caused a drop in the production of the country's main export crops. It has been partly made up for by the Stabex transfers which the Lomé Convention provides. In 1978, Upper Volta got Stabex payments of 1 169 977 EUA for 1977 and, in 1979, 2 345 590 EUA for cotton and 2 890 160 EUA for groundnuts for 1978.

But the agricultural picture of the last few drought-ridden years when cycles got closer and closer is not all black. Take market gardening. Exports of green beans, mangoes and peppers

to Europe have been increasing regularly and the future is bright. Sugar production is another source of satisfaction, having gone from 20 794 t in 1976/77 to 30 213 t in 1977/78, an increase of almost 46%. This production fully covers Upper Volta's domestic needs and always provides exports for the neighbouring countries. Extension is possible but seems to be linked to the signing of firm delivery contracts with foreign clients. The possibilities of extension on the domestic market seem to have been exhausted. There are many other positive factors as far as economic development is concerned.

Upper Volta is right to bank on stockbreeding, a sector which is now recovering from the wholesale losses of the 1973/75 drought. Exports of live animals reached 19 636 t in 1977, as against 7 226 t the year before. In 1978, a contract to supply 400 t of carcasses of meat was concluded with Nigeria. If this is a conclusive experiment, the idea could be spread over a much wider area.

Upper Volta has 150 million t of high-grade manganese reserves. For the moment, the country's mining part-

ners seem in no hurry to invest in the Tambao mines because there is a fair amount of this mineral in the world already. But it will not last forever. Add to this the active tradesmen who already control 35% of the country's emergent industry and who should concentrate on sectors that are more productive than property and speculation in the future and it is clear that Upper Volta is not as badly placed in the fight for development as might be imagined.

But the country's main strength is its democratic system. Since independence, it has experienced the two most common forms of government in Africa, the single party system and the military regime. So the Voltaics knew what they were doing in 1977 when they freely opted for a constitution that guaranteed the existence of several political parties. The new system is still in its infancy, but it seems out of the question now to stifle political discussion in Upper Volta where there are powerful unions to protect the workers' interests. This discussion will clearly lead to a proper understanding of the problems, which is the first step to solving them. Upper Volta has truly decided to overcome its problems in a free society. □ AMADOU TRAORE

The EDF and Upper Volta

Developing rural dams

The EDF agreed to provide 1 778 000 EUA over a four-year period (starting in 1976/77) for this purpose.

The work is scheduled for completion in 1980, but EDF backing will continue into 1980 to cover the early stages of agricultural production.

This project is a continuation of a previous scheme to develop 150 ha of flat land below rural dams and involves financing stage two of the work to improve 300 ha by irrigation and drainage systems to ensure full control of the water resources.

This is being done by the ONBI, the national dam and irrigation board.

Improved land is used to grow rice in the winter months, when some 1 500 families will be concerned, and at other times, depending on what water supplies are like, for market gardening, with a view to exporting produce once domestic demand has been satisfied.

The agricultural costs during the first year and the (decreasing) costs of specialized supervisors will be covered by the project.

It will also provide full financing for one-season practical and theoretical training schemes (for the supervisors) in areas that have already been improved and are being used for rice growing and market gardening.

The regional development organizations are responsible for developing the land in question.

The project also involves getting a fisheries/fish farming extension scheme under way in various reservoirs, behind dams where the land has already been developed.

The directorate for fisheries and fish farming is in charge of this.

Two technical assistants (a project leader and an agricultural engineer) will be sent out to the ONBI for the first two years of implementation from the Belgroma consultancy, which supplied an engineer to run the studies (3rd EDF project) and is still providing the board with technical assistance. □

Indicative programme projects: updated list

	'000 EUA	%	CFAF million
1. Rural development			
1. ORD schemes			
Yatenga ORD	1 577(*)		456
Comoé ORD	2 977(*)		860
Sahel ORD	1 730(*)		500
2. Water engineering schemes below rural dams	2 027(*)		586
3. Volta valleys development			
1st instalment (Mogtedo-Bombare)	2 496(*)		721
2nd instalment	9 042		2 613
4. Stockraising programme (* 275)	2 275		658
	22 124	33%	6 394
2. Economic infrastructure			
1. Ouagadougou-Tambao railway	15 000		4 335
2. Improvements and asphaltting on Ouagadougou-Koudougou highway	12 791(*)		3 697
3. Maintenance of roads already surfaced	1 800		520
4. Ouagadougou town drainage system (Moro Naba)	5 200(*)		1 503
5. Electrification of secondary centres	1 154(*)		333
	35 945	53%	10 388
3. Social development			
1. Study grants and training schemes programme	2 532(*)		732
2. Ouagadougou technical high school (* 90)	2 000		578
3. General studies and technical assistance (* 605)	2 783(*)		804
4. Trade promotion	500		144
	7 815	11%	2 258
4. Miscellaneous			
1. Microprojects (* 676)	1 154		334
2. Small & medium-sized business planning	962		278
	2 166	3%	612
Total	68 000	100%	19 652
5. Administrative costs	3 355(*)		970

(*) Projects committed.
1 EUA = CFAF 289.

SOS timber (*)

Upper Volta, which is already poorly off for natural resources, could see its tree cover disappear completely unless stringent measures are taken at once.

Wood is the country's main source of energy, accounting for 95% of all power requirements, and, at the moment, an estimated 4.5 million m³ of firewood is required every year. In 1974, there were an estimated 77 million m³ of timber still standing and a relatively low annual growth rate of only 3.5 million m³. The progressive over-exploitation of timber resources to far beyond normal yields is destroying hundreds of thousands of hectares of forest every year will wipe it out completely in 15 years if it is allowed to go on.

The process can already be seen quite clearly near the big towns, particularly Ouagadougou, where the forests have been almost completely destroyed for up to 100 km around. Only useful trees are left standing. To meet needs in Ouagadougou alone, 20 000 ha of natural forest is cut down every year.

Deforestation is a process that gathers spontaneous momentum and the situation in Upper Volta will be irreversible unless something is done about it at once.

Since 1972, the government, with help from various sources (including France, Germany and the UN) has started a number of schemes to plant fast-growing exotic species around the big towns; 7 000 ha have been replanted so far and this figure should be up to 20 000 ha by 1983. This has a psychological and a technical effect, but both are so limited as yet that there will be no measurable influence on the firewood problem. For Ouagadougou's needs alone, 60 000 ha of plantations will need to be felled by 1963.

So something has to be done about it. The Upper Volta authorities are laying particular emphasis on two measures:

1. Cutting wood consumption by using more efficient methods of cook-

ing that improve the energy yield. A clay wood-burning stove, built on the spot (consisting of a fire pot with a perforated top to cook on and a small chimney to draw the fire), would use half as much wood as the three-brick open fire system.

Germany has agreed to a project to introduce and produce many such stoves, beginning soon, and craftsmen will therefore have to be trained and kitted out to build them.

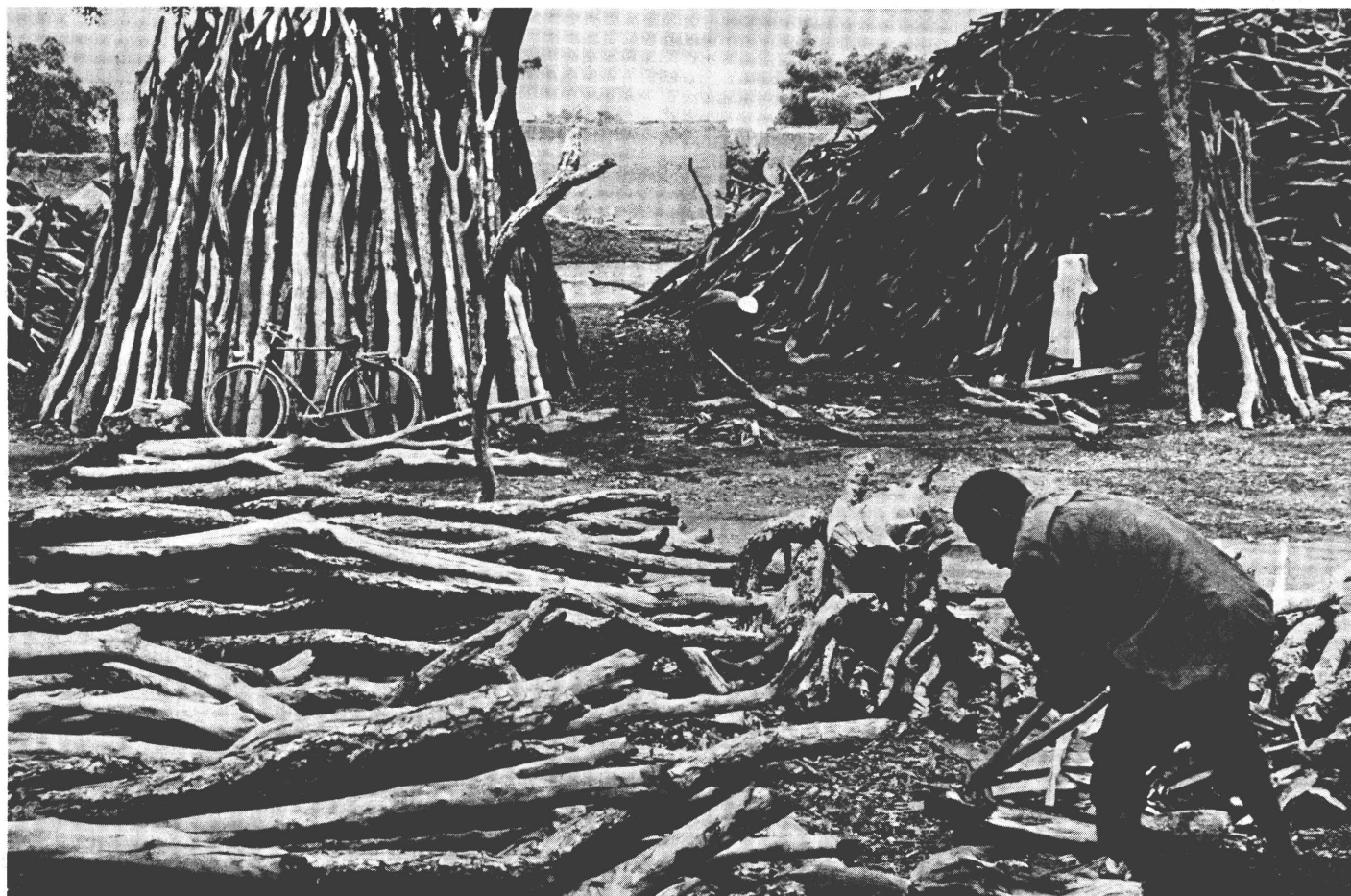
2. Using other fuel.

Alcohol, a good substitute for firewood, at least in the towns, could be made from molasses from the Banfora sugar plant.

At the Upper Volta government's request, the EDF is now financing the study and testing of alcohol stoves. The results should be available at the end of the year. The first estimates suggest that alcohol could replace 50% of the firewood now used in the capital, i.e. 30 000 ha of plantations. □

J.C.R.

(*) By Jean-Claude Rossey, economic counselor in Upper Volta.



The timber market in Ouagadougou

Community aid to Upper Volta

Million u.a./EUA CFAF '000 million			Million u.a./EUA CFAF '000 million		
1. Pre-Lomé			Pre-Lomé total		
1st EDF	28.2	6.9	141.8	38.5	
Yaoundé I	30.1	8.4	Lomé total		
Yaoundé II	43.6	12.1	78.6	27.5	
Food aid pre-1976 (1971-75)			3. Additional to Lomé		
	32.3	(*) (25.7) 9.0	CIEC special scheme		
Cheysson Fund (1974-75)	3.3	0.9	6.4	1.8	
Emergency aid to the Sahel (1974)	4.3	1.2	Food aid		
			15.6	(*) (8.6) 4.5	
2. Lomé Convention			NGO cofinancing		
Indicative programme	68.0	19.7	1.1	0.3	
EIB	4.4	1.3	4. Total assistance		
Stabex	6.2	1.1	Since 1976 (EDF 2 + 3)		
Regional cooperation	(16.6)	(4.8)	97.5	28.2	
			Since 1st EDF (EDF 1 + 2 + 3)		
			239.3	66.7	

(*) Domestic market price (in brackets: world market price).
 (**) Exchange rates: 1st EDF: 1 EUA = CFAF 245; Yaoundé I-Yaoundé II: 1 EUA = CFAF 278; Lomé: 1 EUA = CFAF 289 (December 1978).

Developing market gardening

The financing agreement for the project to develop market gardening in Upper Volta, with an EDF commitment of 346 000 EUA, was signed on 15 December 1976.

The project is in two parts:

- the establishment of a 30 ha seed station at Bazèga, 80 km south of Ouagadougou;
- the development of a market garden in the Basseko area, near the capital, involving creating 80 individual plots of about 30 ares each.

The ONBI, the national dam and irrigation board, is responsible for developing the seed farm and UVO-CAM, the union of farmers and market gardeners, for managing it.

The Ouagadougou ORD, the regional development organization, is in charge of the Basseko market garden.

The results for 1977/78 were very satisfactory indeed as, although sowing was late (mid-December) because of a delay in completing the installations, 80% of the market gardeners (i.e. 57 people) earned more than CFAF 100 000.

Seven farmers (about 10%) lost their crops because of a water shortage, their wells not going down far enough into the water table, and their earnings were negligible.

Six farmers had a deficit, as the cost of growing and tending the crops was more than the resultant harvests brought in. This was mainly because the land had only recently been brought under cultivation and was of poor quality, particularly as far

as humus was concerned, and because the traditional-style market gardeners had not properly mastered the new and different agricultural techniques.

The case of one of the two volunteer peasant farmers, in the Poukin test zone, who was able to be equipped in time, is worthy of note. He achieved a net income of almost CFAF 600 000 (CFAF 593 930 to be precise), most of it from a 25 are potato patch which yielded 5.4 tonnes.

The results for 1978/79 should be even more satisfactory. Sowing was earlier this time (around 23 October) and conditions, in particular the chill of the cold season, were better for the crops, especially the green beans, and should make for higher yields and a longer period of production.

(*) From the Commission delegate in Upper Volta.

BARBADOS

“A middle to high income developing country”

An interview with Prime Minister J.M.G. “Tom” Adams

As the most eastern of all the Caribbean islands, Barbados is to a certain extent different from most of its neighbours because historically it is one of, if not the only Caribbean island which has known only one colonial power, Britain. Discovered in 1536 by a Portuguese mariner, it only became a colony in 1627. In contrast with most neighbouring countries, the colonial planters actually settled on the island.

This is one reason why the parliamentary system is entrenched in Barbados, which has enjoyed the right of representative government since 1639 when its first parliament—the third oldest in the Commonwealth after Britain and Bermuda—was established. Barbados achieved its independence on 30 November 1966.

After winning the September 1976 general election as leader of the Barbados Labour Party, J.M.G. Adams, universally known as “Tom”, succeeded Errol Barrow of the Democratic Labour Party as Prime Minister. In fact this 47-year-old lawyer continued the family legacy—not unlike Michael Manley in Jamaica—as his father, Sir Grantley Adams, was the first premier of the island and equally the first premier of the West Indies Federation which lasted from 1958 to 1962.

In this interview with the *Courier*, Prime Minister Adams, who is also finance and planning minister, comments on some of the Barbadian people’s aspirations and outlines the future development strategy of his country, whose problems are to a large extent very “Western”.

► *Prime Minister, in view of your country’s high per capita income (about US \$ 1800), can Barbados really be called a developing country?*

— It depends how you define “developing country”. In some senses Barbados is fully developed, because every square inch of its land area is put to some use, and its infrastructural development is very nearly complete. But Barbados is still not a rich country and its infrastructural development isn’t quite complete—there is still a great need for modern housing in the island. We are quite happy to accept the description of “middle to high income developing country” because we think the phrase “developing country” has a connotation which is well understood by people in the First World of Western Europe and North America, and indeed well understood generally in the modern international phraseology.

► *To what extent do you feel yourselves affected by the fact that many*

donor agencies use per capita income as a criterion for attributing aid?

— It affects us very adversely. In any case, use of the per capita income parameter is difficult because it means that the better you do, the less worthy you are considered of getting aid. But it affects us in this way: small, densely populated countries are able to put together an infrastructural and educational system, and social services, more easily than immense countries in continental masses with small populations. They therefore tend to have higher per capita incomes than much larger countries. Indeed, if you leave out the United States, Canada and Australia, you can almost argue that the density of population goes with high per capita income. The agencies fail to take into account various things such as the limitations of market size, which make it very difficult for small countries to develop industries that can lead to industrial take-off—developmental take-off—because they

haven’t got much of a domestic market and very often, even if they enter into regional arrangements, they are not able to put together a large enough regional market either. It is an important drawback and it is one of the points that we constantly put to the international agencies. When they look at per capita income alone, they really are penalizing the micro-states and the small island states. States with dense populations in a small area may be able to look after themselves as regards the basics, but they still need help to grow further.

Sugar, the all-round crop

► *Given the uncertain world market conditions, will sugar continue to be the basis of Barbados’ productive sector?*

— Year in, year out, for 300 years, those who have had to deal with agriculture in Barbados insist that of all tropical crops, sugar provides the greatest return per unit of cultivated area. You may need more labour to cultivate sugar than some other tropical crops or many northern crops, but certainly the returns per acre compared to the inputs have consistently been shown to be greatest with sugar. This being so, I think sugar will be produced in Barbados for many years. This is not to say that diversification is undesirable; all governments in Barbados in the last 15 years or so have tried to diversify. But the expertise we have required here in sugar is not likely to be thrown away. I think the day is not far off when the use of sugar cane for purposes other than production of sugar for food will become much more widespread than at present. In Britain there is a lot of research going on in the use of sucrochemicals, that’s chemicals for plastics in other industries. We’re looking at this with great interest and I can foresee that we will have to try to take part in it at some stage. The production of alcohol from sugar cane, although not yet as profitable as the production of sugar, has great potential importance as a fuel for internal combustion engines. These are things we are looking at and which we expect will encourage us in continued sugar production.

Cutting back the food import bill

► *How can the food import bill, which for 1978 was over BD \$ 100*



Prime Minister J.M.G. "Tom" Adams

million, be reduced, and what are the general prospects for agricultural and fisheries development?

— How the food import bill can be reduced is the \$ 100 million question that we are constantly asking our experts. There is a limit to the range of crops which can be produced in tropical conditions and on an island of only 430 sq. kms.

I don't anticipate that we will ever have huge herds of big mammals like cows; probably the tropics don't suit cows anyhow, and certainly we don't have the pastures that you associate with countries where beef production is really substantial. The same thing, but to a lesser extent, goes for our other needs.

However, over the years we have endeavoured to be self-sufficient in a fundamental protein in food, which at the moment is chicken and, to some extent, fish—we're trying to do our best with fisheries development to ensure that even the big appetite for fish that we have in Barbados can be satisfied by local efforts. Where vegetables and other things that can be grown in the tropics are concerned, we have very serious marketing difficulties. We are still at the stage of swinging between gluts and shortages with the vegetables principally eaten in Barbados. I think we now produce something like half of our own vegetables. We think that with the improved facilities that will come from efforts now under way, we will improve the possibilities of giving farmers guaranteed prices and markets so as to allow for all-year-

round production.

These are the directions in which we are moving at the moment to aim at greater self-sufficiency in food.

► *In the last 10-15 years, about 10 000 acres have been withdrawn from cultivation for other development purposes. Is it true that they are to be put back under the plough?*

— Yes, well, this became a political issue and unfortunately it was seen as such for a long time. But the real damage caused by the ostensible release of agricultural land in sub-divisions of approximately hectare-sized lots is, I think, now well recognized.

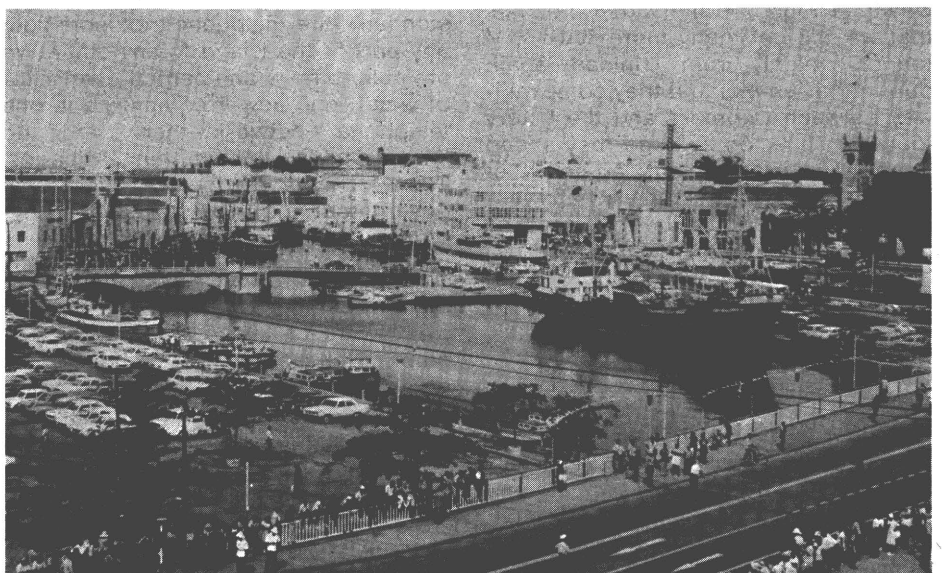
Various sugar plantations, some of them marginal in the low-rainfall areas, were released from plantation and permission was given to sub-divide them, but these sub-divisions very often were sold not to peasants, as Europeans would understand the term, but to well-off people who wished to build a home on a hectare of land. And so they were lost to agriculture. We are trying to bring the plots that have not yet been built on back into agricultural use and in the marginal areas, where most of these lands lay, we are trying to encourage extensive irrigation. Paradoxically, the driest parts of Barbados have substantial reserves of underground water and the best prospects of irrigation.

We are developing an integrated rural scheme, with overseas funding, which will irrigate many of these drier areas. We are trying to develop marketing schemes as well, which will make it worthwhile to grow vegetable crops on these abandoned farmlands. I wouldn't like to say exactly how many acres are involved, but sugar production on the island has fallen from a peak of 200 000 tonnes as recently as 1967 to the region of 100 000, depending on the weather, at present.

The future of Barbados' booming tourist sector

► *Tourism is the other pillar of the Barbadian economy. Are you satisfied with it so far, and what of its future?*

— Oh, I'm satisfied. Tourism has brought great development to the island. It's brought employment—direct employment plus a steady level of indirect employment in construction, transportation, the retail business and so on. I am very satisfied that it has not



View of Bridgetown, capital of Barbados, the easternmost Caribbean island

produced the social dangers and tensions of which tourism is accused in other countries, and I am also satisfied that in Barbados it hasn't resulted in the exclusion of locals from the best Barbados has to offer. The areas of dissatisfaction, such as they are, would be the relative dominance of foreign ownership of the larger tourist facilities. But we are building up local ownership, at the lower level first, and hopefully local and CARICOM—that is regional—ownership of bigger hotels will very soon come.

The prospects for the future: I expect that Barbados' tourism will continue to expand and I think that there is room for expansion still. It is true that this season we were getting very close to the limit, as determined by the number of hotel beds, but I think the tourist construction business is responding to the increased demand and I have no doubt that by next tourist season there will be between 1-2 000 extra beds. They will be needed to cope with the expected 10 to 15% increase in tourists over this year.

The promotion efforts to diversify the areas from which we get our tourists have been very satisfactory and I expect that for the future they will be intensified too. You may know that we are trying to get more tourists from Europe.

► *At a certain point a country has to make up its mind whether it is aiming for mass tourism or luxury tourism. Has Barbados come to this point yet?*

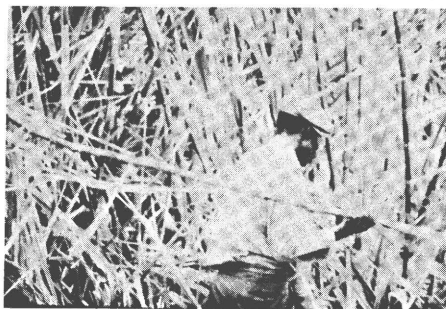
— Well, those who advise me tell me that we are still comfortably holding on to the luxury tourism idea, although especially from Canada I see the tour operators that are associated with mass tourism. I expect we will get a less affluent tourist in the summer and a wealthier tourist in the winter. I expect that we will get many more CARICOM tourists, mainly from Trinidad, again during the summer and they come midway between the mass and the luxury tourist. I think on average they spend more than Canadians but certainly a lot less than Americans and perhaps less than Europeans as well. I think that the mix we have received so far is reasonable and I think that our attachment with the luxury market is well illustrated by the fact that it is the expensive hotels which fill first.

“We're not Malthusians”

► *Your country has one of the world's highest population densities. Does that present any special problems in developing the economy? Do you need a population policy?*

— We need an active population policy. We have had a population policy for 25 years and the population has increased very little in the last 10 years, in two years of which, in fact, it has actually declined. Next year's census will give definitive figures. But we have a very low rate of population increase for what is called a developing country.

The first part of the question I have to give an equivocal answer to. Any country with population density of the order of Barbados has to think seriously how far it can go before it bursts at the seams. We're not Malthusians these days. In Barbados long ago the Malthusian day passed; long ago it became impossible for the local population to feed itself off the local land, even by trading. We've had to do more than just produce sugar and buy food with the proceeds of the sale of sugar.



Sugar is the main productive sector of the Barbadian economy

So, to that extent, we have a problem; but, on the other hand, the density of population in Barbados has contributed to the quality of the infrastructure. When you live in a place with as many people as there are here it means that no village will ever be very far from electricity or piped water or schools; nowhere is very far from the capital; we are able to regard the whole of Barbados as one area for transportation purposes and charge a single standard fare for public transport from any part of the island to any other. We are able to have one central distributor of water, one power company and one telephone network—there are no long-distance calls within Barbados. We were able to do away with local government and there is only one governmental structure in Barbados.

All these are the advantages of a high population density. The EEC is well aware of this. I don't think Belgium, Holland or Luxembourg are regarded as countries which are going to make themselves poor because they've got a dense population and it is noticeable that as the population of West Germany has got more dense than that of Britain, so Germany has become wealthier than Britain. So high population density has advantages as well as disadvantages.

Reducing unemployment by improved skill-training

► *Your country faces a serious unemployment problem. Is there any hope of dealing with it in the short term?*

— Barbados once had a population boom which is now reflected in unemployment for school-leavers. I don't think our population density in itself has caused the unemployment. The population boom was in the 1950s and unemployment was at its lowest in 1960. It again became very low in 1970, but the oil crisis and world economic conditions were responsible for its going to 22% in 1975. To some extent, improved economic conditions have now brought it down, to almost half that during last year. School-leavers everywhere are the population problem and they are an exceptional population problem in Barbados. There are a lot of school-leavers. Yet the number is now beginning to decline—we are over the hump.

But unemployment is also due to the fact that the need to give extended training to school-leavers, to take them past the age of 15 and up to the age of 20 or 21, if necessary by school training rather than apprenticeship, was not recognized until comparatively recently. When our government came into power, one of the first things we did was to institute in-school training schemes for children who were still leaving school at 14, and we think we have done away now with anybody even wanting to leave school at that age, without making it compulsory; 16 has become the *de facto* school leaving age. We are building a polytechnic, creating skill-training centres and expanding skill-training in the schools to carry children past the age of 16 or 17, even carrying them forward for a couple of years, when really they should be learning the skills needed at a different age, rather than have them turned loose onto the labour market. We have a particular surplus of people wanting clerical and other white collar jobs. There is no shortage whatsoever of jobs in agriculture, in fact you cannot get the unemployed to cut cane or to do the exacting jobs involved in intensive vegetable cultivation. We are now realizing that there is a shortage of artisans; in fact there has been a shortage for many years, perhaps since the 1960s when too many of them emigrated to Britain. But we are now recognizing it. It is becoming a constraint on the construction industry—the answer is training at school, training at a polytechnic and apprenticeship, which takes the school-leavers off the labour market and gives them

something which is needed when they come back to it. These are the short-term, medium-term and long-term solutions. Improved skill-training is a general necessity—it isn't just a solution to an immediate unemployment problem—and this is what is being urgently built up.

Communications not a major problem

► *Islands in general and small islands in particular suffer from serious development constraints in transport and communications. What about Barbados?*

— Barbados is quite well served in transport and communications, not as well as we were in sea transport but relatively well in the air, despite particular times when people can't get to and from Miami and occasions when it is difficult to get to and from Europe. These matters are recognized and very often the constraints develop because of unexpected demand; it is a market matter rather than a long-term matter. We have few complaints about international telecommunications in Barbados. I wouldn't have thought communications was a major problem. I hear complaints from time to time that people find it difficult to get a ship, and the West Indies Shipping Corporation has been founded with a view to getting better shipping communications between the islands. The Japanese never seem to have any trouble getting a ship to bring cars from Japan, but I know that sometimes it is difficult to get transportation generally for Europe. But it has not so far been put to the government as one of the major imperatives.

Small islands disregarded?

► *Do you think the industrialized countries pay enough attention to the problems of small islands and, in this respect, what changes can the Caribbean Group of Development bring about?*

— I don't think the industrialized countries pay enough attention to the problems of small islands at all. They think small islands have palm trees and beaches and natives, that they are better off than the Sahel countries or the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and therefore, in effect, that their problems can be ignored. We have suffered a lot from this. I hope that the Caribbean Group of Development can bring about changes of approach—this is related to the same per capita test that you referred to earlier, as many of these small islands have a high per capita income.

But many also have very close relationships with metropolitan countries, much closer than the former continental colonies have. Barbados really has no traditions other than its own immigrant traditions. Our traditions are related to the traditions of the people that came here and found an empty island and settled in it. And therefore our expectations have developed as have the expectations of the people who live in Britain and the United States. I don't think it is unreasonable to assume that in Barbados the poorest family is not looking for food or schooling or clothing. We are a very well clothed community and also very well fed community, according to the statistics, Barbadians are looking for a refrigerator, a record-player, a television, a motor car, a trip to the United States or Britain once a year if possible. In other words, they are looking for exactly the same consumer goods that people are looking for in Western Europe and the United States. They say that you can acquire needs, and the needs which you acquire are sometimes more pressing than the needs which others think you should objectively have. Well, when you acquire needs for consumer goods, you really want those a lot and you don't want to be told that your per capita income is so much higher than the per capita income of the people in Chad, that you

should be content with what you have and all the aid must go to Chad. I think these are problems of small islands. They may seem like selfish problems, but they are problems to which not enough attention is really paid. No matter at what stage of development you are, you want some sort of assistance and encouragement from outside. I hope the Caribbean Group will bring about the changes but I think its principle task, in these early days, is to help those unfortunate countries in the Caribbean which have fallen into serious economic difficulties, mainly on balance of payments. I think a lot of the development aid so far assigned is going in this direction.

Towards a new tax haven

► *There is now a bill being prepared for turning Barbados into a new tax haven along the lines of the Singapore model. What is the future of this tax haven? Is this the direction in which the future of Barbados lies?*

— The tax haven is not intended for individuals sheltering from high income taxes in their own country. It is intended to be attractive to banking institutions and trust companies, to companies which are themselves already international in character, perhaps



Tourism is booming in Barbados: BDS \$ 270 million from 316 833 visitors in 1978



Premier "Tom" Adams and EEC delegate Graham Kelly

dealing with large sums of money which they prefer to receive outside their home country. That is the type of investments we are aiming at under this tax haven scheme. For instance, I don't see why Eurodollar operations couldn't take place here.

The Bahamas and the Cayman Islands have no taxes at all and although that has its special attractions, it also has its special drawbacks. We will be a tax haven, not a completely tax-free location. We are going to charge small taxes on profits so that investors here can get the advantage of double taxation agreements. It means you are going for open investors, for a bank that is not just an offshore bank but has a proper operation in its own country. That is our target. I'm not meaning to be critical of any other West Indian island, but I think that you fall into serious danger as soon as you allow a bank that has no standing in its home country to come to your country and set up a principal office. If people are reputable they will have built their reputation in a major industrialized or commercialized country.

As far as the future development of Barbados generally is concerned, this is a very big question. Apart from the improvement of tourism, there is the expansion of the manufacturing sector, which is the fastest growing sector of the economy at the moment. It's a mix; we have local manufacturers catering for a local and regional market and also enclave and offshore industries—for instance, electronic industries from the United States taking advantage of lower wage rates for skilled labour in Barbados than in North America. We have this mix and we are trying to expand that as a part of our development strategy. The financial strategy involved in the tax haven is twofold. We are trying to create more white collar employment and we are also trying to help the government's fiscal position by small taxes on what we hope will be a high volume of

taxable transactions. They are the development strategies that we are using to expand the economy.

Within the economy, the expansion of social services is right at the forefront of the government's plans. We are planning a national health service along the British pattern, which should be coming into force this year or next year. We are also planning very substantial improvement of housing. Apparently Barbados is the leading country in the world in the percentage of people who own their own houses, but that is one of these very misleading and dangerous statistics.

Many of these houses are wooden and no longer fully conform with the aspir-

Financial assistance from the EEC to Barbados (mid-June 1979)

(in EUA)

	Indicative Programme	Of which finance committed
1. National Programme		
1.1 Agriculture		
Technical assistance in solar cooling for the Central Agronomic Research Unit	25 000	25 000
Central Agronomic Research Unit	663 000	25 000(*)
Oistins fisheries project	1 100 000	150 000(*)
1.2 Economic and social infrastructure		
Community health centre (construction and extension)	402 000	402 000
1.3 Education and training		
Multiannual training programme	287 000	287 000
1.4 Miscellaneous		
Tourism promotion project	100 000	100 000
Trade promotion project	100 000	100 000
1.5 European Investment Bank		
Barbados Development Bank	2 500 000	2 500 000
2. Regional Programme		
— Common services for Windward and Leeward Islands	3 000 000	—
— Technical assistance to Caribbean Development Bank	1 500 000	440 000
— West Indies Shipping Corporation	4 500 000	140 000(*)
— Caribbean Agricultural Research and Development Institute (CARDI)	1 500 000	1 500 000
— Regional grain project	3 800 000	100 000(*)
— Caribbean Tourism Research Centre	230 000	230 000
— Regional fisheries study	15 000	15 000
— Development of the University of the West Indies	3 000 000	3 000 000
— Leeward Islands Air Transport	6 200 000	28 000(*)
— Technical assistance to CARICOM Secretariat	200 000	200 000
— Technical assistance to the Caribbean Food Corporation	300 000	30 000(*)
— European Investment Bank loan to the Caribbean Development Bank	3 000 000	3 000 000
— European Investment Bank loan to the Caribbean Investment Corporation	1 000 000	1 000 000

(*) Preliminary studies.

ations of people or the desirability of modern development. We are therefore trying to improve the housing.

Ground between two mills

► How do you view overall cooperation with the EEC so far?

— I am extremely happy with overall cooperation with the EEC. I don't want to praise Mr Kelly unnecessarily, but I must say that the EEC's local representative here has been a first class choice because of his knowledge of the area and problems of the people. The government of Barbados is very pleased that we have quickly been able to develop projects in association with the EEC. Sugar is the only area where I would hope for more understanding—we get plenty of cooperation in this if frank discussion of the problems is equivalent to cooperation. We in the British West Indies have never had the volume of aid that has been lavished on former French and Dutch colonies by the governments of France and the Netherlands. Britain has not been particularly generous with her West Indian colonies, not since the House of Commons voted £ 20 million on the abolition of slavery, to pay for the slaves, and that was in 1834. I don't think that £ 20 million has ever been given for any single project in the West Indies, far less the perhaps £ 1 000 million than it would be in latter day money, and I wonder if the government of France, in its resolute attitude towards the interests of its sugar beet growers, is perhaps being a little unkind to the growers of sugar in the former British colonies in the ACP countries.

It's all very well to say let sugar grow in Martinique and Guadeloupe because France spends a lot of money on Martinique and Guadeloupe, I know they are not colonies but you know what I mean. Britain does not spend that kind of money in former sugar colonies and we therefore need the possibility of continued favourable markets. We really need it, and we are constantly ground between two mills: the mill of the interests of the sugar beet growers of the continent, and the mill of the British consumer's interest in cheap sugar. It seems to me that these two particular mills grind us and the brakes imposed by the presumed conscience of the former metropolitan power seemed to have very little capacity to stop all sugar cane producers from being ground away. That's a thing about which I have strong feelings, and I fear that the feelings are becoming historical now because the trend is very clearly set for the future. □

Interview by
Roger DE BACKER

Land of "pride and industry"

Barbados—the name is said to have originated with the Portuguese who christened the island "Los Barbados" after the beard-like fig trees which grew there at the time—is the easternmost of the Caribbean islands. In the words of its tourism promotion people, it is pear-shaped, "just 21 miles long and a smile wide" (14 miles wide, actually).

Neither its small size nor its lack of natural resources, apart from an excellent water system, have prevented Barbados developing a relatively prosperous economy which makes it even more of an "island" among the Caribbean islands. Although its traditional sugar sector is in decline, tourism is booming and manufacturing industry has become its fastest growing sector. Any visitor to Barbados soon gets the feeling that "things work" there and that the country has fully responded to its national motto of "pride and industry".

Cool and careful

After a rapid recovery from the 1974-75 world economic recession, Barbados saw a 3% real growth of its GDP bringing it, per capita, to the fairly high level of US \$1800. According to Dr Courtney Blackman, the governor of the Central Bank of Barbados, there are three main reasons for "Bajan" prosperity: "we in Barbados have always succeeded in managing our affairs a little bit better than our neighbours, basically because we put heavy emphasis on education, our infrastructure has always been kept in very good condition and because politics in this country has always been stable and productive. A cool and careful approach to overcome problems is perhaps the most common characteristic of the Bajan population, the only resource that we dispose of". It is a fact that there are few differences in approach to the country's development between the two political parties, the BLP and the DLP. The previous government lasted for 15 years.



Courtney Blackman, governor of the Central Bank of Barbados

Barbados also has a good deep water port, is expanding its international airport and has a road network of 1 464 kms out of which 1 368 kms are surfaced. A 98% literacy rate—one of the highest in the world (as is the population density of 589 per sq. km)—reflects the country's long-standing emphasis on education, which is free up to university level. Barbados has also one of the highest per capita investments in health services.

Its only natural resource—apart from the "human factor"—is underground water of very good quality, which allows a daily consumption on the island of about 23 million US gallons (1) or about 95 gallons per person per day. Tourists obviously account for a good deal of this daily consumption, which is about double the world average of 47 gallons.

"Small is beautiful"

The late Dr Schumacher was one of bank governor Blackman's "gurus", inspiring his approach to Barbados' development strategy: "I believe that the economies of small scale have helped us in the past and will help us in the future. Despite its present boom, tourism can no longer be the only growth sector; our real future lies in the expansion of an export-oriented light manufacturing industry, where the growth of employment possibilities is greatest. Perhaps the only thing that could threaten the survival of Barbados as a country is unemployment". According to Dr Blackman, "the main weakness of Barbados lies in its relative lack of entrepreneurs". Yet it can take full advantage of being small

(1) 1 US gallon = 0.83 imperial gallons = 4.546 litres.



George Reid

Permanent secretary for trade and industry

to the extent that "on the one hand, we can shift our resources very quickly to keep pace with technological progress, since they will not be tied up by big enterprises such as a steel industry; and on the other hand, we will never be challenging for a large proportion of anybody's market, so we will not suffer from any kind of retaliation as, for instance, is the case with Japan or Taiwan".

In the tourist industry the potential increase in the productivity of both capital and labour is limited, so the expansion of the manufacturing sector seems more appropriate to reduce the island's relatively high level of unemployment (about 12.4% from January-March 1978 as compared with 15.2% for the same period in 1977).

The tourism boom

Even if the "many sides of Barbados", as another tourism slogan puts it, do not seem to be the priority for development, the islands' sun, sea and sand nevertheless brought in a record 316 883 visitors (not including cruise ship passengers) in 1978 to fill the 11 000 available beds. Staying there for an average of 8.7 days, they brought in about BDS \$ 270 million in revenue. This represented an increase of 17.7% in the number of visitors in 1977 and a 41.3% increase over 1976.

As Jean Holder, the director of the Caribbean Tourism Research and Development Centre (a regional tourism body, based in Barbados) explained, "Barbados has succeeded very well in diversifying the origin of its tourist flows". CTRC is involved not only in a study of the European market for Barbados in particular (100 000 EUA) but also in a comprehensive tour-

ism development plan for Bonaire. There is an overall study of European tourism demand for the Caribbean (230 000 EUA as a regional project). In fact this is the first regional tourism study for the Caribbean and its importance "cannot be underestimated", says Mr Hodder.

Barbados' major tourism flows in 1978 and their respective growth rates as compared with 1977 are: Canada 29% of the total visitors (+ 8.6%), followed by the USA with 27% (+ 21.4%); the UK/continental Europe had a 21.2% share with a 39.1% increase; Caricom, essentially from Trinidad and Tobago, increased by 12.6% to total 55 594 visitors, 17.5% of the total.

Last year 52% of the tourists visiting Barbados did so in the off-season from May to November. Overall the hotels achieved a 58.2% bed occupancy rate.

Barbados' tourism success is probably the result of a number of resources: apart from its own tourist assets, combined with a stable "climate" in the widest sense, tourism in general has been recovering; added to that, its traditional UK market and its fairly new continental European market were hit by a particularly severe winter (as were Canada and the USA) which made people look for "a place in the sun". It was also helped by the air fares battle that started on transatlantic routes. In the words of Dr Blackman, "the UK joining the EEC and Barbados itself becoming an ACP has probably led to the beginning of a breakthrough, from a promotional point of view, for our tourism from Europe". In fact Barbados' drive to diversify the origin of its tourist flows through active promotion, as well as its attempt to level out the so-called

off-season, is of fairly recent date. So far the results of its promotion campaign, certainly on the European market, give hope of further growth.

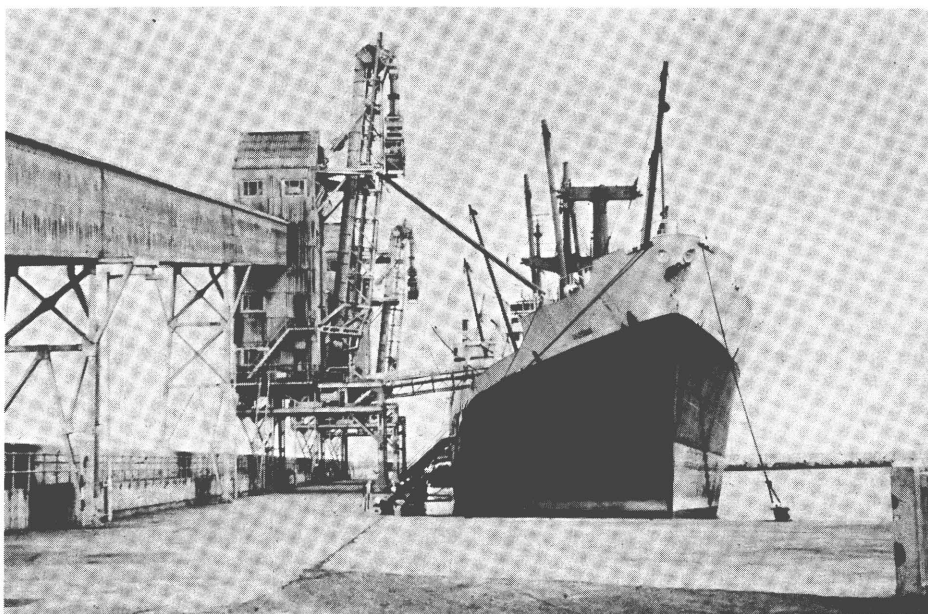
Fighting unemployment through industrial expansion

Even with the rapid growth of tourism, more jobs have been created in recent years in manufacturing. To a large extent, increased exports of manufactured goods, such as electronic components and garments, have made up for the decline in sugar exports.

Last year's index of industrial production recorded an overall 4.2% growth rate as compared to 2.9% for 1977. The Industrial Development Corporation has launched an ambitious development plan for the 1978-82 period, the major aim of which is the creation of 5 000 new jobs during the period. Yet as Richard Leslie, general manager of the Barbados Development Bank, pointed out, "the country is hindered in its industrial development by the fact that it needs to import all the basic materials". In fact 65-70% of BDB loans have gone to tourism development and only about 20% to manufacturing industries. As a banker Mr Leslie has developed "an excellent relationship with the EIB, with whom the negotiations on a 2.5 million EUA loan have been very rapidly concluded". Dr George Reid, permanent secretary for trade and industry, pointed out the difficult problem of rules of origin for ACP exports to the EEC. "Many of our manufacturers will have to make a serious effort to comply with the EEC



Making electronic components: "our real future lies in the expansion of an export-oriented light manufacturing industry"



The port of Bridgetown, part of the extensive infrastructural development of Barbados

conditions of access, unless the EEC agrees to some derogations which could make it easier for us to sell on the European market”.

From an energy point of view, Barbados currently produces about a quarter of its own oil requirements, but as Steve Emtage, director of finance and planning, pointed out, “there are geological indications that we may have other areas with similar characteristics to where we get our oil now, so we will carry out a seismic survey; there are also reasonable prospects for an expansion of natural gas”.

Sugar dominates the agricultural sector

For agriculture minister L. Brathwaite, the real long-term objective is to produce more food locally rather than have more oil. “One day it will be recognized that real power lies in food and in that respect I hope that Barbados, although a small country, will be a powerful nation. I firmly believe that the future holds much for agriculture”, he said.

At present Barbados is a heavy food importer—the tourist sector necessitates a lot of these imports—but the trend is to diversification of local production with two major objectives: substitution of food imports through the intensified production of sweet potatoes, yams, cabbage, carrots, beans, etc. and the promotion of export crops for the regional market, such as onions and fruit crops (citrus, mangos, etc.). Fisheries will also be given more attention and here the EEC has a 1 million EUA fisheries development project at Oistins in the pipeline.

“It will not, of course, be easy to move from the sugar plantation system into food production. The latter is even more based on an adequate water supply and regular rainfall and until now we have not made use of our groundwater for agricultural purposes”, Mr Brathwaite said. The EEC is also financing new facilities worth 663 000 EUA for the Central Agronomic Research Unit in order to assist the government in its diversification target.

In the past Bajan people moved away from agriculture. There used to be about 30 000 wage earners in this sector at the peak of production each year, now there are only about 8 000 left. There are also about 20 000 peasant farmers and quite a number of part-



WILLIAM ALLEYNE

L. Brathwaite
Minister of agriculture

timers (“back yard farmers”). But, according to the minister, this trend and the lack of interest in agriculture has now stopped and is even being gradually reversed by encouraging young people already at school level to go into agricultural production.

In the sugar industry there is, however, a problem in finding cane cutters (cutting by hand is predominant in Barbados). Neville Osborne, director of the Sugar Producers’ Association, confirmed that “this year, due to the upsurge of the economy in tourism and construction, it will again be difficult to find recruits for cutting the cane”. Minister Brathwaite sees it as a sociological problem: “people do not want to cut cane on the island, not because of wages but because of social attitudes. We will have to introduce some patriotism in order to cope with this problem”.

Overall agricultural production declined in 1978 to 9.7% of GDP, compared with 10.8% in 1977, and this was essentially due to the decline in sugar production and exports, drought and cane fires. Total production fell from 117 911 tonnes in 1977 to 99 256 tonnes in 1978 and, in terms of value, sugar exports decreased by BDS \$ 3.5 million to BDS \$ 42.1 million in 1978. The share of sugar in total domestic exports dropped from 33.5% in 1977 to only 25.4% last year. According to Dr George Reid, Barbados, which has a 49 300 white sugar quota (about half of the country’s exportable availability under the Lomé sugar protocol), “gets about BDS \$ 360 per tonne of sugar marketed in the USA and about BDS \$ 700 for sugar marketed in Europe; the average price for all sugar exported is about BDS \$ 500 per tonne, but production costs amount to above BDS \$ 650, so really our sugar industry is looking for a better world market situation.

“We are also concerned that the conditions of access for our sugar to Europe remain favourable”. For Neville Osborne, “the profitability of the industry is less important than its overall role in the economy of the country. The industry now needs to buy new machinery, which will certainly be a heavy burden”.

Alternative uses of sugar

Apart from “the need for a better price for our sugar in general”, as Mr Osborne emphasized, the authorities are now undertaking a detailed analysis of the industry’s outlook to define future policies. Alternative uses of sugar cane are getting a lot of attention: use of sugar chemicals for plast-

ics; production of power alcohol; use of molasses for animal feedstuffs; production of building hardware out of sugar cane, etc.

Leroy Roach, manager of the investment unit in the finance ministry, explained that "a lot of research is being carried out in the field of separating the outer pith of the cane from the rest—with a minimum loss of actual sugar production—to make a compressed board material out of it, suitable for building purposes. The economic viability of the separation process is now being studied and then the compressed board will have to be used in a demonstration building unit".

The rum problem

Most visitors to Barbados are rapidly confronted with the "difficulty" of making a choice between the large and appetizing variety of rum cocktails and punches the Bajans make.

Yet as a rum producing and exporting country (1978 value of rum exports totalled BDS \$ 6 million), Barbados is in a difficult situation within the context of overall Caribbean rum exports to the EEC. In contrast with the rum producers from the French overseas departments of Martinique and Guadeloupe, who produce rum only from the sugar cane, Barbados uses molasses to do so—and therefore also has the revenue of actual sugar production. Dr Reid hoped Barbados "would be able to market more rum in future in Europe", but any expansion of local rum production would require molasses to be available. "From our point of view, if

we could import molasses from another ACP like Guyana and we could then blend more rum here, that rum should still qualify as an ACP product under the rules of origin". As Dr Reid emphasized, "Barbados understands the difficulties of the 'French' rum distillers—who may not always be the most efficient in terms of straight economics—a position that should be recognized. We should press for free access for our rum but, given the present quotas, reasonable growth margins should be put forward in order to allow us to reply to the increasing demand in the European market—a survey in West Germany showed the interest for the light rums that we produce".

Although Bajan direct rum exports have declined over the past year, a lot of rum is also being shipped now in bulk to the UK where the actual blending is increasing.

An active international role

Barbados is known to act as a kind of spokesman for the eastern Caribbean islands, especially in defending the case of the LDCs, but the country also generally plays an active role on the international scene. It is non-aligned, but not a member of the non-aligned movement; it is very much "pro-Caricom", where it is one of the prime supporters of the flagging integration movement in the Caribbean. It wants to restructure the Organization of American States more to the needs of the Caribbean and Latin American sub-regions. In the Commonwealth it chairs the committee that deals with the Belize problem and in the UN it has

just become an active member of the ECOSOC and takes a strong stand on human rights (position of women, strongly anti-apartheid and anti-racial discrimination). It shows a growing awareness of its Spanish and Portuguese-speaking neighbours (Venezuela, Colombia, Brazil, etc.) and also for countries like Suriname. Finally, it is very concerned with moves towards a new international economic order.

Barbados shows an increasing interest in the EEC. A full mission is being established in Brussels, a tourism promotion office has been opened in Frankfurt and charter flights, for instance, link Barbados to Luxembourg. In July this year the Industrial Development Corporation will open up an office in Brussels to promote joint venture investments.

A widened relationship

From all points of view the relationship between Barbados and the EEC has been widened. The "non-political ties through the Lomé Convention", as Central Bank governor Blackman describes them, have brought Barbados not only closer to EEC member states other than the UK, but also to other nations, especially in Africa, with whom relations were only tenuous before. The EEC and Barbados also play an active role in the Caribbean development group, which brings together all the major donor and receiving countries of the area.

To Leroy Roach, "the Lomé Convention has been a learning experience for both sides. The procedures, once we got to know them, were in fact very flexible as long as we were ready enough in presenting well prepared projects. The Lichfield health centre, for example, was completed in nine months. For the next convention we will definitely prepare our indicative programme better". Steve Emtage, director of finance and planning, thinks that "since, and perhaps through, our accession to the Lomé Convention, Barbados has become better known in Europe and this can only be to our advantage from all points of view. It can bring industrial development by attracting possible European investors, not to speak of our tourism image".

Even if "O island in the sun" was made famous by Jamaican singer Harry Belafonte, its Bajan author Irving Burgies certainly had his own country in mind when writing the song about this small though not at all somnolent island. Despite its own particular problems, most of them very "Western", it has an obvious desire to "make it". □

R.D.B.



BARBADOS INFORMATION SERVICE

Fisheries development will be getting close attention, notably with the EDF-backed Oistins project

Statistical summary and selected economic indicators

Area: 430 sq. kms.

Population: 253 100 (end 1978).

— annual growth rate: approx.

— 0.07%.

— density: 589 inhabitants per sq. km.

Capital: Bridgetown.

Political status: independent member of the Commonwealth since 30 November 1966.

Language: English.

Political parties: Barbados Labour Party; Democratic Labour Party.

Currency:

Barbados Dollar (BDS \$).

Parity 1 BDS \$ = 0.5 US\$ (fixed since July 1976); 1 BDS \$ = 0.38 EUA (June 1979).

Member of: UN, Caricom, Organization of American States, LAES, Commonwealth, ACP.

Economic indicators:

Gross Domestic Product

At factor cost (1978):

— Total: BDS \$ 937 m

— Per capita: BDS \$ 3703 (US\$ 1852)

— Originating from production:

Wholesale & retail trade: 18.7%

Government services: 16.1%

Other services: 16.3%

Manufacturing: 13.4%

Tourism: 11.6%

Construction: 7.3%

Transportation & storage: 6.9%

Sugar: 5.5%

Other agriculture/fishing: 4.2%

Public Finance (1978)

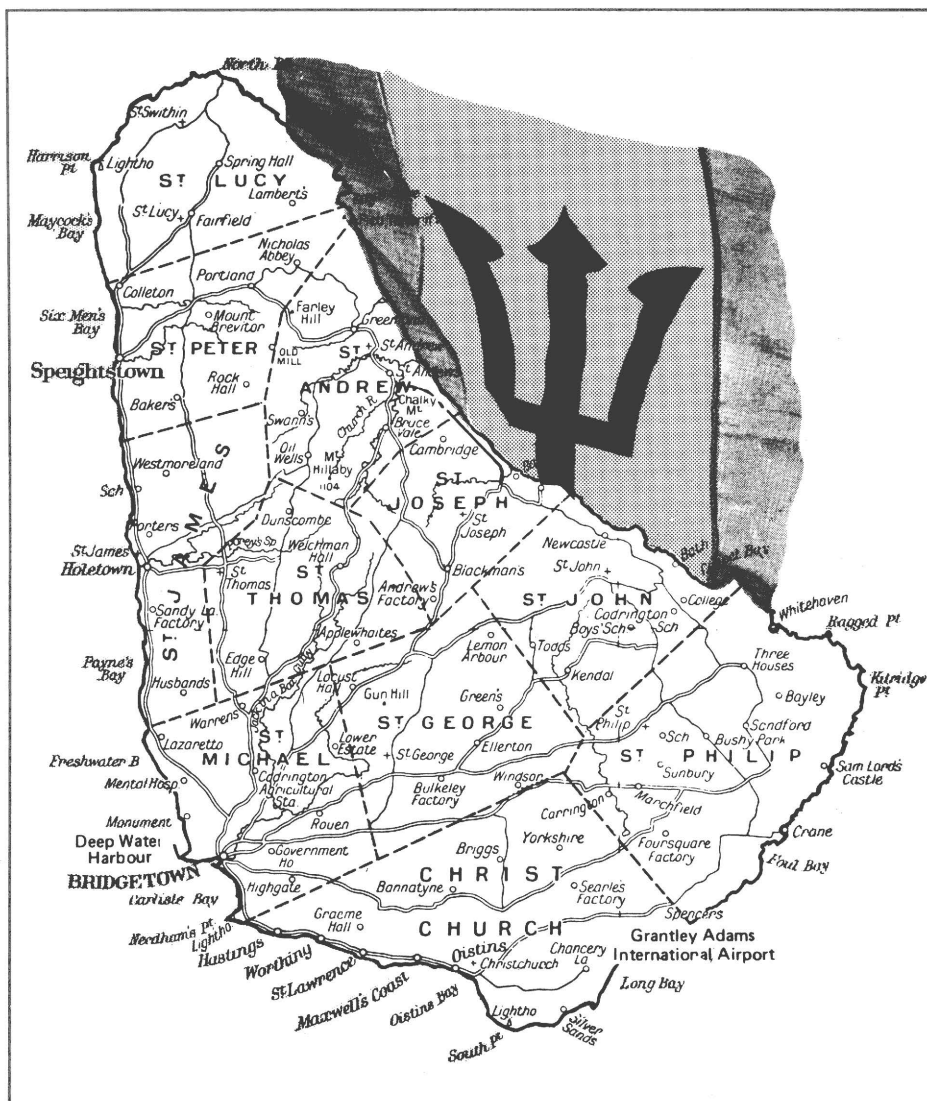
— Government revenue: BDS \$ 287 m

— Government expenditure (recurrent): BDS \$ 260 m

— Government expenditure (capital): BDS \$ 69 m

— Public debt (December 1978): BDS \$ 372 m

of which foreign debt: BDS \$ 89 m



Foreign trade:

Domestic Exports (1978)

Total: BDS \$ 186 m

Major items	BDS \$ m	% of total
Sugar	47.0	25.3%
Molasses	6.7	3.6%
Rum	6.0	3.2%
Chemicals	9.3	5.0%
Garments	40.6	21.8%
Electrical components	37.9	20.4%
All other products	38.5	20.7%

Imports (1978)

Total: BDS \$ 554 m

Major items by SITC sections	BDS \$ m	% of total
Food & beverages	122.7	22.2%
Crude materials	12.0	2.9%
Mineral fuels	42.7	7.7%
Vegetable oils & fats	7.5	1.8%
Chemicals	21.2	4.9%
Manufactured goods	79.6	19.0%
Machinery & transport equipment	109.2	19.7%
Miscellaneous manufactures	93.4	16.9%
Textiles	27.0	4.9%

ST LUCIA

The 57th ACP country

by Graham NORTON(*)

The Caribbean's newest independent nation, St Lucia, formerly an associated state of the United Kingdom, has applied for full membership of the ACP group. Already the 40th member of the Commonwealth of Nations, St Lucia would be the 57th ACP country.

St Lucia became independent on 23 February 1979. With a population of about 120 000 and an area of 238 square miles, its prospects are considerably brighter economically than most of its English-speaking neighbours in the Windward and Leeward groups.

Its most recent growth industry has been tourism which Mr John Compton, who led his country to independence and has become the first Prime Minister, has described as "fantastic".

But that industry's growth—which really took off in the early 1970s—had been preceded by an agricultural revival based upon what was at that time a new export crop, bananas. Bananas had taken the place of sugar by the late 1950s, and have, with Jamaican and the other Windward Islands bananas, supplied about 90% of the United Kingdom's market for that fruit. In spite of the severe droughts which have plagued the Windward Islands through the 1970s, the banana industry is now recovering. Under the Treaty of Rome, and the Lomé Convention, special arrangements are in force to ensure that St Lucian and other Caribbean bananas continue to preserve their long-established position, so vital to their domestic economies and their export earnings, as the traditional suppliers of bananas to the United Kingdom.

St Lucia's other economic base is a rapidly developing manufacturing sector, which Mr Compton has said is now as important in terms of export earnings as bananas. St Lucia's future industrial role is linked to a factor

which in the past gave the island a supreme importance in the Eastern Caribbean—its magnificent harbours, especially Port Castries.

The location of St Lucia is strategically central in the Caribbean. The island lies between the French "department" of Martinique, to the north, and St Vincent, an island soon to be independent but at present a UK "associated state".

St Lucia, which is of volcanic origin, is made up of a central mountain ridge from which valleys run down to the sea. The coast and plains to the north and south are dry, but the higher land in the interior is covered with lush rain forests. Although the highest mountain is Morne Gimie (3 145 feet) the symbol of St Lucia is generally taken to be two mountains, the Pitons, which rise over 2 000 feet sheer from the sea at the island's second town, Soufrière, on the Leeward coast.

The flag of St Lucia is often called the Piton Flag. Designed by St Lucian artist Dunstan St Omer, it recalls not only these distinctive island landmarks but also the history of the island and its people. The flag is blue and in the centre are three superimposed triangles. The blue represents fidelity (for its adherence to the principles of the French Revolution, the National Assembly in Paris named the island "la Fidèle") and also the tropical sky and surrounding waters of the Atlantic and the Caribbean. The triangles are of three colours. The lower, gold, represents the Caribbean sunshine and prosperity. The others, black and white, stand for the two races whose cultures have made St Lucia living and working together in unity; in the words of the flag's official description, "the dominance of negro culture associated with that of Europe".

The people of St Lucia were formed out of that 18th century crucible, the sugar boom in the Caribbean. Originally inhabited by fierce Caribs, who ate their enemies, white settlers, both English and French, began arriving at the beginning of the 17th century. The Caribs were eventually cleared from the island and, to supplement the Eur-



John Compton
St Lucia's first Prime Minister

opean indentured labourers, African slaves were brought in.

The English and French fought harder than anywhere else in the Caribbean for St Lucia, which changed hands 14 times. The fertility of its soil and its strategic position, to the windward of the capital of the French Antilles, Fort Royal (now Fort-de-France) in Martinique, meant that the island was the key to mastery of the Eastern Caribbean seas.

During the 18th century, in time of peace, St Lucia was under French domination, but as soon as war broke out the English moved to occupy the island. When France joined in the American War of Independence and captured many of the British Caribbean islands, the British moved swiftly with their fleet to hold St Lucia and drove out the French. From Pigeon Island, off the north-west coast of St Lucia, Admiral Rodney kept watch on the fleet of Admiral de Grasse. When de Grasse moved with his fleet and thousands of troops, with the final objective of conquering Jamaica, Rodney sailed out, and, at the battle of the Saints, on 12 April 1782, he defeated de Grasse, capturing both the French admiral and his flagship, the *Ville de Paris*, the largest warship then afloat.

At the Treaty of Versailles, which

(*) St Lucia's press and PR adviser.

ended the war, St Lucia was returned to France and, under Baron de Laborie, a gifted and energetic governor, France poured money into St Lucia to make it a model of colonial development for its time. De Laborie died just as the French Revolution broke out, and St Lucia enthusiastically declared itself for the Rights of Man. The tricolour was hoisted above the capital, Castries (named after Louis XVI's minister of that name) and a deputy was elected to represent the island in the National Convention.

Slavery was abolished (but this was short-lived) by the Jacobins on 4 February 1794, former masters and slaves danced together, and new "revolutionary" names were given to the towns—Castries became "Félicité-Ville". Revolutionary tribunals and the guillotine were also introduced. Eventually, the British recaptured St Lucia, ceding it back to Napoleon for a few months at the Peace of Amiens, and then re-occupying the island in June

1803, to retain the ultimate sovereignty until 23 February 1979, when the blue flag of St Lucia finally replaced forever the Union Jack.

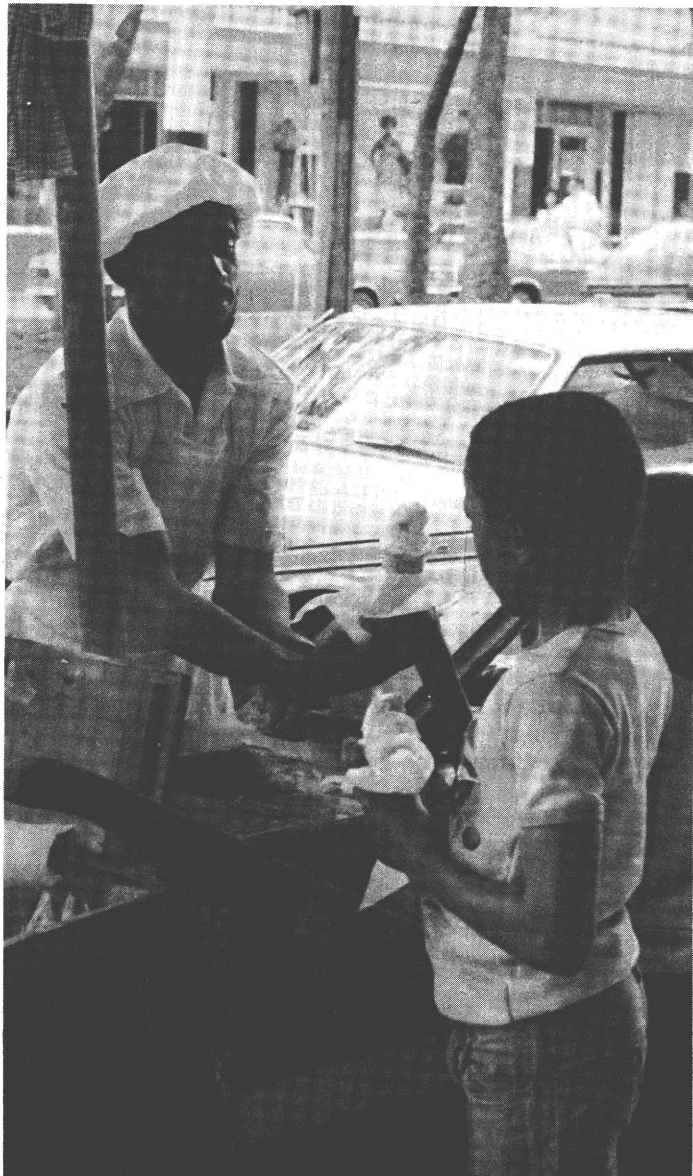
The British abolished slavery in 1834 and brought in East Indian indentured labourers to supplement the black field workers, many of whom no longer wished to work in the sugar estates. Instead they went to the hills, there to establish the small-holdings from which, as peasant proprietors, they have fed St Lucia. Later, they were to provide a substantial amount of the bananas for export.

In the 19th century St Lucia exported sugar, in diminishing amounts. Coffee, cocoa, rum, molasses and logwood were also important. By the last decade of the century Castries had been chosen as a British naval coaling and shore station and by 1888 the first of the garrison arrived. Batteries of heavy guns were mounted and military buildings in great numbers proliferated over the peninsula which dominates

the harbour of Castries, the Vigie. Today they are used for a variety of purposes. Those above the town, on the heights of The Morne, have become a fine higher education complex, housing among other institutions the Extra-Mural Centre for the University of the West Indies and a teacher training college.

The garrison was withdrawn in 1905 after the "entente cordiale" had become a reality. Castries remained a coaling port until the 1940s and this activity gave much-needed employment to the workers of the town. Now, with a port expansion project close to completion, Port Castries will once more become of international economic significance.

British administration saw the gradual emergence of parliamentary institutions in St Lucia. Local government began to be a matter entirely for St Lucians from the mid-1840s, with the establishment of the municipality of Castries. Gradually, an elective element



Selling ice cream in Castries and craftwork on the beach—small-scale business with a personal touch

was admitted into the structure of the colonial regime.

Political representation speeded up after World War II (in which many St Lucians joined in the fight against fascism). Unqualified suffrage for all over 21 was introduced in 1951, with the abolition of property qualifications. Other constitutional advances, and a full ministerial system resting on a majority of the legislature, were introduced. The office of chief minister was introduced in 1960 and for the first time the island's financial affairs were in the hands of a St Lucian member of the legislature.

St Lucia had become an enthusiastic member of the ill-fated Federation of the West Indies, which collapsed in 1962. Leaders of both of the main political parties in St Lucia remain attached to the idea of regional cooperation and Mr Compton had made it the policy of his government to seek independence if possible "within the framework of a re-united West Indies".

But the dialogue between the smaller Eastern Caribbean islands, which followed the collapse of the Federation, proved inconclusive. Barbados became independent in 1966 and in 1967 St Lucia, together with five other former British Eastern Caribbean colonies, assumed the new status of an associated state, completely self-governing internally but, by agreement, leaving defence and foreign representation to the United Kingdom. This was an arrangement which St Lucia and the other states could terminate at will and indeed it had a certain flexibility: St Lucia and the other states represented themselves on Caribbean bodies, and sometimes in other matters.

Mr Compton said in 1967 that associated status was "a bridge over which our people may pass to full independence". While St Lucia attempted to achieve independence in cooperation and unity with neighbouring islands, it took part enthusiastically in the larger, functional proposals for cooperation between the English-speaking Commonwealth Caribbean nations—the Caribbean Free Trade Area, in 1969, and then, in 1973, the Caribbean Common Market and the Caribbean Community (CARICOM). The Caribbean Common Market, set up partly as a Caribbean response to the EEC, is made up of countries which are either signatories to the Lomé Convention itself or are covered by the decision taken by the EEC Council to extend to overseas countries and territories financial aid of a nature similar to that provided under the Convention.

St Lucia, while working for political

cooperation with its neighbours, has pressed on with its own infrastructural and general development. St Lucia has an annual birth rate of 2.5%, which means 2 200 new mouths to feed, new school places and new jobs to find every year.

The burden of coping with the education of such a large number, in proportion to resources, of school children is heavy, as it is the policy of aid donors that grants be used only in the "productive" sectors and are not available for social services. So the problem of population growth must be brought under control. St Lucia has built new schools, extended existing ones and replaced outmoded buildings. In the urban areas, some schools are now run on the shift system. And, in 1978/79, 2 300 new school places were provided.

Mr Compton holds that only growth will be able to provide for improved social and other amenities for the increasing population, and that it is necessary to "push on with a vigorous programme of development within the productive sectors of the economy, to attain a minimum annual growth rate of 5%".

Before the 1974 energy crisis, this was approximately St Lucia's rate of attainment. The improvements already made and planned for in some of the basic components of development, such as water and electricity, are in danger of being outstripped by the rate of development again and the government is now proceeding with new plans as a matter of urgency. The government has also embarked on the largest road construction programme the island has ever seen, especially as regards feeder roads in the rural areas.

The feeder roads are helping St Lucia to feed herself, and to eventually decrease the food import bill. They also help to get the primary agricultural products out for export.

Agriculture is, however, not so attractive to many young people in St Lucia and here the growth of the industrial and manufacturing sectors, which the Prime Minister has described as "spectacular", will be an important provider of employment as well as export earnings (where it already brings in about half the total value).

This progress in manufacturing, however, is expected to be dwarfed by the expansion predicted when the giant construction project now taking shape just a few miles south of Castries, at Cul-de-Sac Bay, is completed. Here the American Hess Oil Company has decided to dredge and build 5 000 feet of dock to accommodate supertankers, to build an enormous

"tank farm" on reclaimed and excavated land and, eventually, to construct one of the largest refineries in the Caribbean.

The spin-off for St Lucia will be huge. The construction is already bringing a very significant degree of employment and money into the economy. But it has brought something else too: a tremendous amount of confidence, a psychological boost to the island. Wasting no time in following this up, the government is creating a free zone in the Cul-de-Sac area for export-orientated industries. This will be completed sometime in 1980, when St Lucia will be the possessor of one of the largest free zones in the Western hemisphere, containing some 150 acres of prime industrial land adjacent to a port capable of handling the largest cargo vessels.

St Lucia is rapidly developing its links with many of the countries of the European Community, while continuing to foster those established by time with the United Kingdom. The EEC is St Lucia's largest trading partner (the Caribbean Community is in second place). Many tourists come from Germany, the UK, Italy and France and the number is expected to increase substantially.

The European Development Fund is now actively assisting St Lucia's future development with a programme in excess of 3 million units of account. Two of the projects concern the island's water supply, one with special reference to the development of agricultural production. Another is a project to reorganize and improve the existing agricultural estates on the island, while the government's feeder road programme has been assisted by a grant for 10 stretches of road from the EDF. The largest grant, of 1 million units of account, is for a livestock development project, to enable more beef and dairy products to be produced locally.

It should also be mentioned that the European Investment Bank, under the terms of the Lomé Convention, lends to the Caribbean Development Bank and the Caribbean Investment Corporation, both institutions associated with CARICOM, from whose resources St Lucia, like other CARICOM states, derives some benefits.

St Lucia is determined to take advantage of all the means available to advance its developing society and economy, and to bring a good life within the grasp of all of its citizens. St Lucians, a practical people, have achieved much over the past decade. They hope, in independence, to achieve even more. □ G.N.

The Sahel will only recover through the efforts of its own people

Interview with Ali Cissé

The long and drastic drought which hit the Sahel from 1968 to 1973 led to the creation of the Permanent Inter-State Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel (better known under its French acronym, CILSS). Under the auspices of this body, the campaign against desertification is getting under way. A strategy for the development of the Sahel countries and an anti-drought programme have been drawn up. But they are going to cost more than the CILSS member countries can afford.

International aid is beginning to come through in the form of food aid and finance for projects, but to the Sahel, it all seems to move too slowly. CILSS executive secretary Ali Cissé fills in the picture.

► *You recently sounded the alarm about the cereal shortage in the Sahel and the particularly difficult situation in the Cape Verde Islands. Has anyone responded to your appeal?*

— I must say that the international community has been slow to respond to the appeal we launched in Nouakchott on 15 December. And what help it has given is a long way short of the amount we said we needed. As I stressed at the press conference I gave in Ouagadougou on 29 March, the Sahelians are worried about the international response. They are very worried as they have a gap to bridge, and the situation is likely to be dramatic in regions where there was a large food deficit over the last agricultural year. The needs we expressed are real needs. It would be wrong to keep quiet about them. The people who criticize us today for asking for food aid would certainly be blaming us tomorrow, if we said nothing, for letting thousands of people die of hunger and pretending everything was alright. Well, it's what happened in the 1968-73 Sahel tragedy. There are difficulties for all the world to see. A genuine need to help people who have done all they can to provide for themselves but have still harvested nothing, for reasons quite beyond their control, is a special opportunity to see whether international solidarity means anything. So, in cases like this, we do not hesitate to call on the international community.

Cape Verde is a very special case, as it was the worst hit of all CILSS members by the last drought. It lost more than 90% of its production and now it

needs 66 500 t of food. The People's Republic of China, Italy, Belgium, the USA, the Netherlands, Germany, the UK and the EEC have so far responded to its appeal.

The case of Chad should also be emphasized, I think. This country is going through a difficult period and all communications have been cut since 12 February. It already had a cereal problem, with a 48 000 t shortfall, before the civil war broke out and our information suggests that the fighting has made the situation worse, particularly for the most vulnerable groups, the women, the children and the old people. This is why we have made it our business to draw the international community's attention to the situation in Chad so that help can be sent to both the victims of the drought and the victims of the civil war. The FAO has already responded to the appeal and taken steps to put stocks by, so they can be sent when conditions allow it.

► *Interest was expressed in 80% of the first round of CILSS projects, but firm commitments were made for only 30%. An even smaller percentage was actually paid over. Will the delays in financing the projects make it impossible to meet your target of food self-sufficiency in the year 2000?*

— The first round of projects adopted at the second Sahel Club annual conference in Ottawa (Canada) in May/June 1977 is certainly being implemented slowly, and the Sahelians deplored this fact at the third confer-



Ali Cissé

Executive secretary of the Permanent Inter-State Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS)

ence in Amsterdam (Netherlands) last November. They continue to deplore it.

Over the next few weeks, the CILSS president in office, President Diawara of Gambia, the CILSS coordinating minister, the president in office of the council of ministers, Mr Djibril Sène, Senegal's development minister, and myself will be touring round to speed up the payments of the extra money we need to carry out our first batch of projects within the prescribed five-year period.

I hope our partners will understand our haste and I am still confident we will get the first stage programme fully financed by 1980/82, the end of the five-year period. Remember the programme runs from 1978 to 1982 and we still have three years to go.

I should also say that the Sahelians are not just sitting back and waiting during this time. It is a serious mistake to imagine that the Sahelians sit back and wait for external aid to carry out the projects that will enable them to produce enough food of their own. The real situation is nothing like this. The Sahelians are hard workers and are convinced that aid from the international community is only a complement to their own efforts, on which they base their hopes. You could see this was true if you went and visited our people working in the fields. This would obviously give you a far better idea than anything I can tell you here in my office.

First and foremost, the Sahelians are counting on their own efforts to solve their food problems and to avoid having to rely on hand-outs. I can assure you that all the people of the Sahel are fully committed to the campaign to feed themselves. And they are counting on their own efforts first. Their efforts will increase every year. So, if the international community gives us the aid we need and if the weather stays good for a few years in succession, I am sure that the Sahel will reach its target of self-sufficiency in food well before the year 2000.

► *Don't you get the impression that the CILSS countries are running against the clock in the food race and that for the moment they don't look as though they are going to make it?*

— You are right. It is a race against time; a fight for survival. Desertification is on the increase, our ecological capital is deteriorating and the periods of drought seem to be getting closer and closer.

In the past, severe droughts only ever occurred once every 25 or 30 years, and minor ones every eight or 10. But, as you know, we had severe drought



Never again... yet "the periods of drought seem to be getting closer and closer"

from 1968 to 1973 and, with barely four years' respite, it hit us again just as hard in 1977.

Our problems are huge and nature is hostile, but we are not giving up. On the contrary. Sometimes today we are even more determined to fight than ever, and to use the resources that

nature itself provides to do it, by which I mean the considerable water potential of the Sahel, our rivers, our lakes and our underground supplies. Rational exploitation of this potential will demand a lot of money, a lot of human effort and a lot of technical means, which we don't always have. So we will not be able to do without the help of the international community. All the partners who are really anxious to help us build a better, more certain future, with less dependence on the whims of nature, know that the development of our river basins, our lakes and our underground water resources will have to be speeded up. Vigorous action has already been taken here. But we have not forgotten that, for many years yet, most of the Sahel's food will come from rain-fed cultivation. As someone wrote somewhere, for several years yet it is rain that will determine life in the Sahel. This is why we are so determined to implement the projects to produce rain-fed crops.

The countries of the Sahel obviously have enormous difficulties to overcome is they are to meet these aims. But, given their courage and determination, it is right to be optimistic. This is my profound conviction.

► *Simply by raising the price paid to the producer, Senegal improved its cereal production and ONCAD sold 103 000 t this year instead of the usual 17 000 t. Do you think these tactics should be tried in other countries of the Sahel?*

— Obviously, I can only say yes to this. Anything that will encourage peasant farmers to produce more cereals will bring us nearer to the basic CILSS target of self-sufficiency. I must



Groundnuts form part of a Sahel development plan

say that other countries of the Sahel have also raised the price they pay the cereal producers and the idea has been extremely fruitful everywhere. The importance of paying good prices to the producers will be the focus of the discussion of cereals policy in the Sahel at our Nouakchott meeting on 2-7 July. But it would be wrong to think that the success that Senegal and other countries have achieved is solely due to raising the producer's price. It would be wrong to forget everything the government has done to boost and production, the selected seeds that grow better in our climate, the fertilizer, the pesticides and the tools. It is a combination of all these things and the price rise that has given the very encouraging results we have had.

► *On this very spot five years ago, UN secretary-general Kurt Waldheim said three of the countries of the Sahel would disappear from the map in 50 years if nothing was done about it. Is this still true?*

— His anxiety is fully justified. The danger to the countries of the Sahel is obvious. But since 1973, people really have realized that the danger is there. First and foremost, the Sahelians themselves who are living through the drama and, as I said, refusing to give up and continuing the fight. And the international community has realized it and is making a much bigger effort to help the Sahelians save the Sahel. This realization and the vigorous action it is already generating make the picture a little less black. It would clearly be over optimistic to say that the danger is past

for good and all, but we know what needs to be done. The will to head the danger off is there, both in the Sahel and in the international community. In September 1973, at the constitutive conference of the CILSS in Ouagadougou (Upper Volta), President-Senghor said: "world opinion is aware of the problem, the international organizations have reacted, the UN has come to our aid and something has changed in the world. Something new has emerged. The idea of human solidarity. Everyone now understands that if thousands of people disappeared and a whole region of Earth, with its people and its culture, was struck off the map, something would be missing when those who give and those who receive, meet to build a universal civilization".

Right back in 1973, when the CILSS was first set up, both the Sahel peoples and the international community were clearly aware of what was involved and I must say that subsequent events have shown that they realized the Sahel had to be saved.

► *Crop and harvest protection is an important aspect of the CILSS programme. The International African Migratory Locust Organization, one of the bodies trying to control locusts, has been in financial difficulties. How is it placed at the moment?*

— I can tell you that boosting the organization potential is an important part of the CILSS crop and harvest protection programme and its various projects are being implemented with a million dollars worth of UNDP financing. But the organization is independent of the CILSS. We cooperate close-

ly with it and we support it in all its endeavours, but I can tell you no more than that.

► *Is there any danger of locusts reappearing in the Sahel?*

— I don't think so for the moment. A few months back it was feared that swarms might come across from East Africa, but the CILSS applied to the FAO in time for precautions to be taken to head them off. But it is impossible to say whether the danger has gone for good. What we can say, of course, is that we have to stay on our guard and, most important, that the means of the two locust control organizations have to be stepped up—which is what the CILSS, which is extremely interested in their activities, is doing.

► *The CILSS and the main governments are involved in fighting desertification and in trying to get international opinion and sources of financing moving. But have the people of the Sahel themselves got moving? Don't you think there is still a lot to do in this respect?*

— There is. In the anti-desertification campaign, as in all we do to reach our targets, we will never get the right results unless we involve the people, the craftsmen and the beneficiaries of all the schemes we have planned. Their interest and their active and responsible participation are vital to success, but obviously, there is still a long way to go here, as you said. The governments of the Sahel are continually trying to devise better ways of getting the people actively involved and taking responsibility for shaping their own future.

► *How does the CILSS plan to save energy until cheap solar power production techniques have been perfected?*

— We plan to popularize better stoves that should at least halve the amount of firewood the Sahelians now use to do their cooking. As you know, wood accounts for 90% of their energy requirements. The mission of experts we set up to cover most of the Sahel has already produced a report on these stoves and the ecology/forestry team will be discussing it at its meeting in Niamey on 25-29 June 1979. I shall keep you informed about the conclusions the meeting reaches about the report and what steps we will be taking to get the stoves, which should bring about substantial energy saving in the Sahel, into general use. □

Interview by A.T.



Cotton, one of the main export crops in Sahel countries like Upper Volta, is another drought victim

The UN Institute for Namibia

Since the General Assembly terminated South Africa's mandate over Namibia, the UN, through the Council for Namibia, has been doing all it can to pave the way for the independence of this vast country in the south-west of the African continent.

Realizing that Namibia would need public servants as well as infrastructure once it became independent, the council decided, in September 1974, to set up the UN Institute for Namibia, primarily intended to train the country's future administrators.

The institute is in Lusaka, the capital of Zambia, that haven for so many Namibians, in a building provided by the Zambian government. It was inaugurated on 26 August 1976, thus realizing the hopes of the international community. It has developed rapidly, not just as a centre for the training of young Namibians, but for research into the country's development strategy as well.

Organization and structure

Guidelines were laid down by members of the institute's senate, most of whom come from the Council for Namibia, the Zambian government, the UN, the OAU, and SWAPO, the South West Africa People's Organization headed by Sam Nujoma.

The day-to-day organization is in the hands of a management committee chaired by the principal, Namibian Hage Geingob, seconded by his assistant, Tanzanian Mark Bomani, and including the four deputy principals. In addition to these administrators, the institute has 25 teachers, most of them from Africa.

The original intention was to offer a two-year course of study, but a third year was added in 1977 and there are now 286 students altogether, 71 of them in the first year, 92 in the second year and 73 in the third year, plus another 50 on a 6-8 month secretarial course. Almost 40% of the student population are women, the result of a long liberation campaign which has clearly enhanced women's status and increased the extent to which they participate.

Generally speaking, students are expected to have completed their secondary schooling but, as Namibia's educational situation is far from good (98.18% of all black pupils are in primary schools and 97.8% of them leave before they complete their course, so less than 1% get to secondary school), entrance tests are held in maths, social science, including the situation in Namibia, and in English, the language of instruction.



First year students take a general foundation course and prepare to specialize in year two in constitutional, legal and judicial studies (19 of the 92 second-year students are currently taking this option), history, politics and cultural studies (18), economics (17), agriculture and natural resources (19) or sociology and education (19). Third year students go on courses in official departments in the countries and organizations that contribute to the institute's upkeep. At the moment, 16 of this year's 73 students are in Ethiopia, 20 in Tanzania, 36 in Zambia and one in the USA (at the Africa-America institute).

Aims and financing

The UN Council for Namibia has defined the aims of the institute as:

- to provide Namibians with the education and training they need and concentrate every effort, including those at political level, on the fight for freedom;
- to provide equipment for the organization and management of the various ministries and public services in an independent Namibia;
- to undertake and see through research in the institute's five departments of study;

— to produce reports on the various aspects of this research and any other documents of use to the liberation movement and the government of an independent Namibia;

— to publish, on the basis of the research carried out, the basic documents which the liberation movement and the ministers in an independent Namibia might need.

In addition to financing from some 20 countries, the institute also enjoys the official patronage of a number of organizations, including the UN, the UNDP, SWAPO, the OAU and the governments of Botswana, Tanzania and Zambia.

The Community contribution

It was these three governments which submitted a dossier for a regional project to the EEC, on the basis of article 48 of the Lomé Convention, with the aim of increasing the number of students for whom the institute could cater. The resulting grant of 500 000 EUA mainly went on buying transport, furniture and equipment, building new classrooms, renovating Maxwell Hostel (provided by the Zambian government as housing for 100 students), and buying and renovating the old Bwacha Hotel to be turned into a hostel for 76 students.

Future prospects

Hage Geingob, the principal, told the *Courier*, "the ultimate aim of all these Namibians is to go home to a truly independent country, after free elections run under international supervision. But the future of the institute will largely depend on how the political situation in Namibia develops and on what decisions our senate takes".

For the moment, students work for SWAPO or are sent to complete their studies elsewhere once they finish their courses in Lusaka. "Hence the need for grants", Mr Geingob stressed.

The institute's present mandate expires in 1981. If Namibia achieves genuine independence before this, the institute will be transferred to Namibia and the present buildings used as regional education infrastructure. Future developments will guide the senate in its decisions. In the meantime, Namibia's first administrators are ready to take over. □ R.D.B.

CID**Adapted technology for
ACP countries**

par Jean RAZAFINDRASOAVA (*)

The general awareness of the need to develop or adapt technology for the prevailing socio-economic conditions of the developing countries has stimulated worldwide interest in the concept of appropriate technology.

This has led to the design and commercialization of "intermediate" or "low cost" technologies for developing countries as a means of:

- creating more productive employment in rural and urban centres;
- reducing income disparities;
- raising the standard of living, in particular of the poorest countries and groups within countries;
- meeting the basic needs (i.e. food, clothing, shelter, health, education of the whole population);
- acceleration of growth in both qualitative and quantitative terms;
- fostering self-reliance.

The Centre for Industrial Development (CID) under art. 36 of the ACP-EEC Lomé Convention considers it desirable and vital that technologies of this kind should be identified, evaluated and the profile of their commercial application made known to the ACP countries.

Work has therefore been initiated to prepare an inventory of adapted technologies that are technically and commercially proven and could have a high application potential in the ACP states.

In a preliminary exercise, about 20 technologies were identified, as given in the table overleaf.

However, it was realized that this was by no means an exhaustive list and that many of the traditional technologies of developing countries which have become modernized in recent years were conspicuously absent from the list.

In a further attempt to limit the scope of the investigation to technologies that can pragmatically be transplanted to ACP countries, and to effectively lead to increased industrial production and social development, the following criteria were established:

- technology should relate to economic and social environments;
- technology should offer high added value and social rates of return;
- technology should offer developmental possibilities to least developed countries or sectors of the economy;
- technology should be product-oriented;
- technology should be of small or medium size, where size is measured in terms of investible funds.

This project has been moved to a second phase during which a study group of experts has been established. Membership of the study group is drawn from industrial consultants, research centres and the universities representing the United Kingdom, France, Netherlands, West Germany, Italy, Belgium and especially a number of ACP countries, from which a helpful and efficient contribution has been achieved.

The group will be expected to review the work already carried out, establish the strategy for proceeding with further global search of suitable adapted technologies and finally to prepare a comprehensive inventory of technologies thus identified.

Emphasis is put on technologies already proven in other developing and especially ACP countries which allow them to take advantage of the experience of these countries and set out solid factors on the evaluation of projects based on the related technologies.

The study group has held two meetings (in February and March) at the CID offices in Brussels. The meetings covered working programmes, the methodology, the selection of the first list of technologies under different sectors (see following table), and the allocation of tasks.

**Proposed list of adapted
technologies by sector
for evaluation****AGRO-INDUSTRY:**

Gari (manioc)
Yeast from molasses
Cane sugar production by open-pan sulphitation
Fishmeal production
Animal feed from molasses-urea
Dry bananas-baby food/Soy-ogi
Palm wine

MACHINES & MECHANICAL DESIGN:

Equipment for tropical agriculture
Machine tools
Stone-milling of wheat
Wheelchairs
Rice-mill

METALLURGY:

Foundry (iron and non-ferrous metals)
Workshop for repairs
Metal coating

CHEMICALS:

Ethyl alcohol from molasses
Re-refining of lubricating oil
Glue and gelatine
Soap (small scale)
Cocoa butter (for cosmetics)
Paper mill
Cashew nut oil
Finished leather
Mini-cement plant

BUILDING MATERIALS:

Ferrocement storage chambers for cereals
Tile making
Polymer mortar
Lime pozzolana concrete
Red clay pottery
Ceramic unit
Lime kiln
Thatch roofing
Laterite bricks
Precast funicular shells for mass housing

ENERGY:

Solar energy for cookers
Solar energy for driers
Solar energy for heating water
Solar energy for demineralization of water
Low cost collectors
Charcoal
Agro waste briquetting
Biogas

OTHERS & PRODUCTION SYSTEMS:

Matches
Cotton spinning, weaving
Cloth waste from garment industry for re-cycling
Knives

(*) Training and transfer of technology division, CID.

The envisaged Adapted Technology Inventory will be sent to ACP countries about October 1979, allowing them to speed up the pace of the realization of projects which could be of interest to them. The basic information contained in the inventory will enable them to take decisions, to get elements for an adequate evaluation, to know technology sources and the eventual technical, financial partners, etc.

This inventory will be a first step for the CID and its programme on adapted technology will be extended, due to the increasing needs in this field which has not been exploited enough.

The CID welcomes any proposals of suitable technologies from interested parties to be included in the inventory, provided they are presented on the basis of the evaluation criteria described hereafter:

1. The technologies identified within each process. This will range from one upwards.
2. The scale of production for each technology.
3. The direct and indirect material requirement for each technology, and the type and proportion of these which should be indigenously available vis-à-vis import requirements.

4. The energy requirements.
5. The basic sub-processes involved, from initial input to final output.
6. The workforce requirements including specification of skill levels necessary.
7. The infrastructural facilities which would be needed to implement the technology.
8. The delineation of minimum market size required to absorb the output of a given scale and technology.
9. The fixed investment requirements.
10. The pre-investment expense.
11. The working capital requirements.
12. The positions with respect to patents on particular technologies.
13. Possible promoters, support services and other facilities.

Candidate adapted technologies

Project	Capacity	Investment US \$	Employment
Sugar manufacture by open pan sulphitation (sugar cane)	1 200 t per year	200 000	53 permanent 125 seasonal
	2 000 t per year	261 000	70 permanent 205 seasonal
	2 900 t per year	325 000	77 permanent 255 seasonal
Rice milling	400 kg/h of paddy	30 000	11
Small-scale iron foundry	360 t per year	96 000	38
Manufacture of vegetable-tanned leather (cattle hides)	50 hides/day	135 000	41
	100 hides/day	230 000	71
Hydraulic presses and guillotines	Presses and guillotines	345 000	26
Re-refining of used oils	10 000 l/day of rerefined oils (= 3 000 t per year)	820 000	20
Lime pozzolana concrete	6 000 t per year	32 500	92
Glue and gelatine from the solid wastes of tanneries	1 t of glue per day	266 000	65
Carbonization of wood	5 kilns with a capacity of 4 m ³ of wood each (life = 200 firings)	20 000	4
Red clay tiles and pipes	1 500 to 2 400 articles/day	12 800	25
Ceramic unit	1 t/load	6 000	10
Non-ferrous metal foundry	20 kg of brass per day + 10 kg of aluminium per day	1 065	4
Manufacture of chrome-tanned leather (cattle hides)	200 hides/day	560 000	65
	500 hides/day	1 100 000	130
Manufacture of chrome-tanned leather (goat skins)	800 skins/day	620 000	77
	2 000 skins/day	1 200 000	150
Machine tools (engine lathes and bench drills)	Miscellaneous machinery	500 000	75
Bio-gas (digester)	1.6 m ³ to 6.75 m ³ per day	200 to 850	
Agro-waste briquetting (used as a fuel)	2 t per hour	215 000	24
Alcohol from molasses	15 000 l/day	3 080 000	45
	30 000 l/day	4 400 000	50
Stone-milling of wheat	650 kg per hour	52 000	11

Collaboration with other technology transfer programmes

In cooperation with the Austrian government, the UNIDO organized a workshop on fermentation alcohol used as fuel and chemical feedstock in developing countries. This workshop, held in Vienna from 26-30 March 1979, was attended by 120 participants from developing countries, industrialized countries and international organizations. The attendance of ACP countries, represented by managers and technicians from the cane sugar industry or petrol industry, was drawn from: Madagascar, Mauritius, Sudan, Kenya, Tanzania, Jamaica, Fiji, Trinidad and Tobago.

The aim of the workshop was to get assessment from the several experts who were present, on the various available technologies, specific problems and experience of interested countries in order to define actions to be taken to promote the production and utilization of fermentation alcohol.

Because of the relevance of the subject for the ACP countries, the CID has offered to contribute and to assist with the promotion of projects which will be identified in the field concerned. This offer was welcomed by UNIDO and some joint operations for promoting fermentation alcohol projects will be discussed in the near future between UNIDO and CID.

CID also participated in the International Conference on Solar Energy for Development organized by the Commission of the European Communities in Varese, Italy, from 26-29 March 1979. Over 300 delegates attended from all over the world.

The aim of the conference was to evaluate the potential contribution that solar energy can make to the energy needs of developing countries, particularly for rural applications. □ J.R.

Tribalism and development

by LUCIEN PAGNI



A semantic study of political speeches in the Third World would suggest that the countries there base their action on economic development. But a survey of their efforts would show, sometimes surprisingly, that economic development has not been a sufficiently mobilizing factor. Nor has it been the only subject of concern. If one section of the international press is to be believed, that influential section which expounds on certain ideas whether accepted or not, instead of explaining them and encouraging opinion, the lack of development, and in certain cases even economic regression, is partly due to there being too much diversity among the peoples of the Third World. The word "tribes" is used to mean this diversity and the "problem" of countries with tribes is "tribalism". The mass media would have us believe that tribalism is the root cause of the events and upheavals in the Third World and that it contributes, along with purely technical factors, to holding back their economic development.

This view of the economic and political problems of the Third World is often presented in a peremptory fashion and betrays great ignorance or else only a superficial knowledge of the countries concerned. Proceed by analogy, for example, and it emerges that all the countries of the world contain a variety of ethnic groups and that those which have achieved a proper economic balance are the ones which look upon their ethnic diversity as an asset rather than a handicap. Germany, Switzerland, Austria and the USA, for example, have quite varied populations, but no shortage of economic dynamism.

The same reasoning could and should be used in the Third World. First it should be realized that ethnic variety is an advantage (it is, after all, accepted and appreciated in cultural spheres) rather than a handicap and the cause of the sociological difficulties hampering development should be sought in other quarters. Such difficulties may be historical, administrative and economic, or intellectual.

Historically speaking, the non-industrialized countries have in common their experience of colonialism where, typically, the power of the colonialists was partly based on divisions and opposition raised between the tribes. This structure was mainly apparent in administrative and economic organization and it resulted in a kind of specialization by tribe. Peoples whose land was more suitable for agriculture or whose talents lay in this particular direction specialized in export crops (the only ones encouraged). Others made better admin-

istrative or military assistants, and so on. After independence, all these administrative and economic structures were maintained. In many cases they still exist today.

Hence the second source of difficulty. There used to be only one thing to do. Serve a power, even a bad one. Today, the idea is not to serve a power, but to serve one's country and to be entitled to something in return, in the form of good health and administrative services, good transport and communications, a decent income (for administrators, workers and peasant farmers), education for one's children and, most important, more consideration and respect for the ordinary member of the public.

The maintenance of the old organic structures, plus a bureaucracy that grows faster than in the industrialized world, has helped make the administration more unwieldy and to widen instead of reduce the gap between the public services and the public. Burgeoning red tape so often leads to people "having a word in someone's ear" and using tribal or simply regional contacts to get things done when they cannot claim to have friends in high places. To take three, fairly significant examples: in certain countries, there is a whole series of expensive administrative formalities to complete merely to obtain a national identity card; it takes several journeys of 10-30 km, all of them on foot, to obtain an ordinary authorization to hold a meeting or to carry out one's profession; parents really have to fight to get a place for their children in state schools or to obtain grants for them, and often have to use ingenious methods to get round the difficulties.

A simple analysis reveals that what is referred to as tribalism, hampers the development and running of the state and creates social and political tension is not the cause but the result of the way administrative and economic structures in general function. Ultimately it is the public who find themselves working for the administration, whether private or national,

and not the other way about.

Note that the industrialized countries too have seen their structures evolve in much the same way. But, unlike the countries of the Third World, they have always had the means of bringing things into line, one of them being public discussion of socio-political and economic issues.

This brings us to the third source of difficulty. A proper understanding of the problem is half the battle, but in the countries of the Third World, the opinion-formers do not always analyse social phenomena as a whole, regardless of the fact that this is their duty, as they are the most important cogs in the machinery of our new, so-called modern society. They accept that periods of trial and error are necessary but they do not ask the questions which would correct mistakes and bring about progress in development. The educated milieux are not therefore carrying out the vital task of analysis and information. And, to quote French pundit Marc Paillet, "without a flow of information, the mind is not properly irrigated and society loses its vitality". So the opinion-formers must stop the accumulation of errors. One mistake they should have corrected is the continuing use of the former colonial powers' way of thinking on this problem. But they have not done so and in these countries, too, tribal and ethnic variation is considered to be a serious handicap to development. It seems reasonable to say that this is a major error of analysis and that tribalism, so-called, is only the consequence of a set of structures which could be very much improved.

Some countries have already realized this. For example, according to Didier Ratsiraka, the President of Madagascar, those who think that some of his country's socio-economic and political problems are of tribal origin are making a big mistake. In his view, these problems are class problems, and European countries have similar difficulties that they call "regional problems", or "particular economic difficulties", or "cultural problems". This point of view is one of many elements of analysis showing that ethnic variety is more an advantage than a disadvantage as far as the future of the Third World is concerned.

But if they are to reverse the present trend, the Third World countries must do more than just lay the blame on the pre-established plan of analysis as it is reproduced in the international press. They are the only ones who can reverse the trend, by using their intellectual resources. Progress is also the ability to find satisfactory intellectual answers to sociological problems. □ L.P.

Living in Europe

For the third time this year, the *Courier* contains a section on Europe. This will now be a regular feature. There are two sides to cooperation and, under the Lomé Convention, this means an ACP side and a Community side. The *Courier* used not to deal with European problems, but snippets of information began appearing in the news round-up in 1978 and fuller coverage of Community affairs began early this year. Worthwhile cooperation, after all, means a full understanding of the economic, social, cultural and other aspects of the lives of all the partners involved.

The Europe section is an answer to the hopes of those involved in ACP-EEC cooperation and it will try to fill a gap, by explaining the different stages, the achievements and the problems of the building of Europe. We shall print short, simple articles on specific aspects, bring out the practical problems of everyday living in what is now the Community of 10, and provide food for thought on the place and the role of Europe in a rapidly changing world. The articles come under three headings: living in Europe, Community issues (the common agricultural policy this time) and Europe tomorrow.

Europe and the public

by Jean-Claude BROUWERS(*)

If the people of Europe have only a hazy idea of what belonging to the Community means, it really isn't their fault. There are three reasons for it. First, the people of Europe are inadequately informed, with the result that, in their everyday lives, they do not notice the advantages the EEC brings. Community activity is a complex thing to grasp, after all. Then, in discussions about Europe, weighty expressions such as "Europe of the tradesmen", as opposed to "Europe of the workers" or "Europe of the technocrats", are bandied about. Although it is right to wonder what Europe has done for the various socio-professional categories, it would be wrong to forget that Europe must be for all its people. So it is logical to wonder, on a general level, what rights (and this means legal rights, not material advantages or prerogatives) the people of Europe gain by belonging to the Community. Final-

ly, Europe has not so far managed to produce any external signs of unity, such as a European flag or a European passport, which would enable the man in the street to identify himself more with the Community to which he belongs. Obviously, by neglecting things of this sort, the Community has not been of any help in creating an image of a Europe with the kind of human and social aims that are more easily understood by the ordinary man.

Community information policy

It is often regretted that the people of Europe are not interested in unification. The Commission's regular "Eurobarometer" polls clearly reveal that, although the majority are in favour of Europe, it is only the specialists and a certain privileged minority that are really concerned.

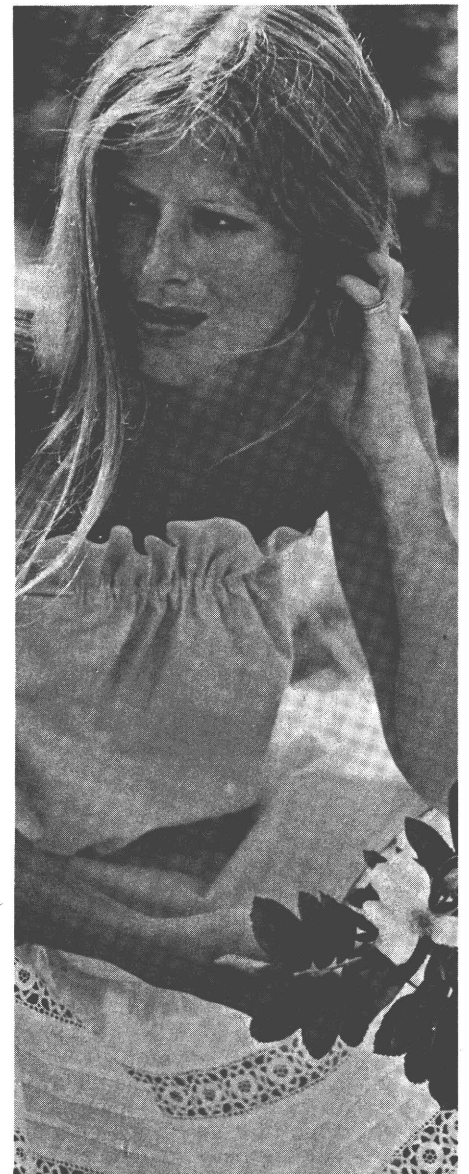
It is not enough for the Community that links the destiny of 260 million Europeans to be a real organization. It

Source: *Europe 79*, by a group of European officials. The fact that this was published by the EEC Information Office does not imply that the Commission accepts the opinions it contains. These are the sole responsibility of the authors.

(*) Member of the cabinet of commissioner Davignon.

(1) This is based on a report which Mr E. Davignon gave in Florence on 26 October 1978.

In theory, women have the same rights and obligations as men in the European Community, but inequalities persist, particularly as regards pay. Can this Danish girl get the same pay for the same job as her husband?





Has membership of the EEC brought people closer together across the barriers of age and nationality?

has to be seen to be a real organization. By everyone.

Why is the situation as it is? There are three reasons.

Neither the institutions nor the governments of Europe have given enough thought to improving the way European activity is presented to the public or to showing how the everyday decisions of the institutions are so many bricks in the construction of Europe. And the means (the information budget, staff and technical facilities, etc.) at the Commission's disposal are far too small compared to the size of the task. Lastly, information has tended to be centralized rather than regionalized.

Europe, unlike some other groupings, is not the result of any kind of revolution, which explains its lack of popular support. It is the outcome of the agreement reached by several important politicians who decided, just after the last war, that they would prevent any more major conflict on the continent of Europe. And, as well as being created in unusual circumstances, Europe has been built so far by institutions which, although totally original in conception, are not of a kind that can create a large following among the people. The Council of Ministers takes decisions in secret and each member state then tells its national press just how much it was able to get from the others in the final compromise. The European institutions do not have to justify their decisions to the public. There is the technical nature of the subjects they deal with. And so on.

Press coverage of Europe naturally tends to deal with events rather than achievements, i.e. European news (agricultural marathons, failures to reach decisions on such things as fish-

eries, etc.) rather than the genuine solidarity that is created slowly. As Robert Schuman said, Europe will not be built in a day. Of course, there can be no question of producing anodyne reports about Europe or allowing public opinion to think that the Community can always do better than the individual states. Quite the contrary, while emphasis must be laid on what advantages and other prerogatives the Community can provide for Europeans, the failures and negative factors caused by certain Community practices (seeking compromises that emphasize national aspects, allowing one-for-one policies to take precedence over genuinely Community schemes, etc.) must also be revealed.

So the Community must make a serious effort with information so as to bring Europe closer to the people, as Mr Tindemans proposed in this report on European union. All too often technocrats lose sight of the human and social dimensions of Europe.

This is why the European Council decided, at the end of 1977, to set up a European cultural foundation to promote everything that would generate greater understanding among the peoples, by concentrating on human contact, on youth activities, university exchange schemes, scientific debates and conferences, meetings between various socio-professional groups, cultural activities and information.

Alongside this, the Council, it will be remembered, set up a European foundation in Dublin to improve living and working conditions and a vocational training centre in Berlin. These two bodies are responsible, at Community level, for generating in depth discussion of the subjects which affect the citizen of Europe in his daily life.

Safeguarding the rights of the European

How many Europeans know that if they belong to one of the countries of the Community they benefit from the individual rights recognized in all the others? These rights, which the individual has by virtue of belonging to the EEC, enable us to assert, without fear of denial, that the Europe of the people exists and progresses every day. It is a long-term affair linked to European unification.

This year, 1979, is a particularly good time to deal with this important problem:

— Our Community is 20 years old and it is important to take stock of what it has done for the people of Europe and to show what it can do in the future.

— The Community is in the process of expanding to take in three new states which are particularly aware of the problem of the protection of the rights of the individual at this time.

— Lastly, the first elections to the European Parliament were held, on 7 and 10 June. This is very important, bearing in mind the role that the European Parliament intends playing in the future in the field of human rights (as the national parliaments do).

Although optimism would be out of place here, it would of course be wrong to be unduly pessimistic by thinking that the Community has got nowhere with protecting the rights of the individual.

To keep things clear, this section has been divided into three. Part one contains an assessment of the specific qualities of the Community's legal system, in particular how it relates to the national legal systems. Part two attempts to show how Community integration has given the people of Europe

three special rights. Part three outlines Commission doctrine and possible Community action in the future.

The Community's legal structures

The mere fact of belonging to the Community gives the individual new rights in accordance with the general principles of Community law. These provide him with additional protection (Community law in relation to national law).

There are three examples:

— the direct applicability of most of the provisions of Community law, for example the ban on charges equivalent to customs duties (article 13), on new quantitative restrictions and measures of equivalent effect (articles 31 & 32), the principle of non-discrimination (articles 48 & 52), the restriction on internal taxation (article 95), the principle of equal pay for men and women doing the same job (article 119), etc.;

— the fact that Community law takes direct precedence over national law regardless of the nature or the date of entry into effect of the national provisions;

— the specific recourse provided by the treaties to the Commission and/or the Court of Justice.

This last example warrants thorough analysis as it raises a delicate problem, that of individual recourse to the Court of Justice in respect of all Community legal acts, currently the subject of controversy.

Although it is easy to understand why the supporters of this move think as they do and to recognize that the Court already has organizational problems because of its work load, we do not think there is any need to alter the treaties. Articles 173 and 177 and the Court's interpretation of articles 178 and 215 (2) in fact give protection equivalent to that of a new specific right to institute proceedings.

In fact:

— Article 173 enables any physical or moral person to institute proceedings with the Court of Justice against any Community decision that affects him or her personally.

— Article 177 says that when such a case comes before a court or tribunal of a member state, that member state may ask the Court to give a ruling on the interpretation of the treaty and the validity and interpretation of all acts of the institutions of the Community.

— Articles 178 and 215 (2) say that anyone may apply to the Court to have any non-contractual damage by an institution of the Community made good, even where the damage is the result of a legal act which cannot be directly attacked.

This, in our view, shows that there is no need to alter the treaties and that it is perfectly possible to give the European citizen extra guarantees by improving and consolidating what already exists, i.e. by accentuating the evolutive nature of the jurisprudence of the Court.

What the people of the Community lack today, however, is perception of the rights they have under the present system. This means running a vast information campaign.

Results

Having presented this assessment of the specific qualities of the Community legal system, we should now provide a practical explanation of how the Community has improved the rights of the individual.

There is a distinction to be made here between the rights resulting from the foundations on which our Community is built and those which result from the implementation of common policies.

By belonging to the Community, the people of Europe have obtained a series of new rights which the treaties provide. Suffice it to mention the four great freedoms (of movement of goods, persons, services and capital) enshrined in the Treaty of Rome.

Yet it is clear that, as there is no federal Community structure, the Community institutions have, in applying these provisions, had to pay more attention (as in the case of the free movement of persons, which will be dealt with in detail below) to the "mobility" of people in the professions,

the doctors, architects and so on, rather than to establishing professional statutes that are valid throughout the Community.

The free movement of individuals first means the right for both the employed and the self-employed to move about within the Community. Any discrimination in pay and working conditions on grounds of nationality must therefore be eliminated.

This obviously implies the right to travel to take up a post or to carry out self-employed activity anywhere in the Community.

If free movement is to be more than theoretical, then workers and their dependents must get full recognition for all social security contributions paid anywhere in the Community. The same applies to pension rights.

Similarly, the Community has already acknowledged that one member state must recognize any practical experience in industry, craft and trade that workers have gained in other member states. In the professions (medicine, dentistry, nursing, etc.), some member states also recognize diplomas issued in others as equivalent to their own national qualifications.

Lastly, the free movement of workers could be directly impeded if they have children, in particular if there were restrictions on access to education. But free access to schools, in the same way as for nationals, is also provided for the children of any Community national, employed or otherwise, on the territory of all member states.

It would be wrong not to mention other examples of new rights, like the guarantee the Community provides the



Traditional Irish cottage in the Aran Islands—just as much a part of the Community as the office blocks of the EEC capitals



Keeping Europe on the rails is no longer only a man's job: railwaywomen in the Netherlands (left) and Britain

consumer to protect his health and ensure his safety (regulations on additives, colouring, medicines, cosmetics, motor vehicles and electrical equipment) and to safeguard his surroundings (regulation on the environment) and his economic interests (regulation on hire purchase).

By applying the common policies, the Community has also enabled new rights to emerge, which have national and/or Community legal protection:

— In the coal sector, for example, the Community has helped ECSC workers to retrain. Practically speaking, this has involved conversion grants being paid directly by the Community, housing allowances for migrant workers, etc.

— In the agricultural sector, it is impossible to overlook the farmer's right to legal protection from a market organization that guarantees a fair standard of living via a system of intervention grants.

— In the field of competition, it is worth noting that the people of the Community have the right, in both national and Community law, to revoke any contracts that restrict competition.

This is not an exhaustive list. The examples were chosen to highlight the positive contribution that the Community makes for the citizen of Europe in many fields.

The Commission's policy for the future

Fundamental rights. These are those we consider essential to our way of life. They have been designed to protect us against any unwarranted state interference and they include the right to

private property, freedom of religion, freedom of opinion, freedom to hold meetings, freedom of expression and freedom to choose a job or a profession.

More is called for than a summary of the results, as, although they are satisfactory, they could well prevent us from seeing what there is still to do in the field of basic rights.

There seems to be little point in dealing with basic rights outside the Community boundaries.

The preamble to the EEC treaty contains a series of principles which, in spite of having been set out in 1958 in a political climate (of cold war and decolonization, for example) quite unlike our own, are still valid today. They are:

- common action to ensure economic and social progress;
- a constant improvement of the living and working conditions of the peoples;
- last, but by no means least, a pooling of resources to strengthen peace and liberty.

These principles, to which one might add those common to all democracies, are still up-to-date and at the very heart of the Community.

Yet it is obvious that the statement of principles and fundamental rights is totally unrealistic if nothing is done to see it is adhered to.

Here, the Community has only very limited scope to deal with any infringement by the member states (which are sovereign as far as their own laws are concerned). The Community can only deal with the infringement of funda-

mental rights by national bodies when a provision of Community law is concerned.

However, as far as respect by the Community is concerned, negative rights (i.e. classic freedoms such as freedom of association) have long been protected by the Court of Justice and positive rights (social and economic rights, where they are mentioned in the treaties) are only outline provisions that require legal intervention from the Community if they are to be implemented.

Neither should one lose sight of the joint declaration of 5 April 1977 wherein the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission stressed the vital importance they attach to basic rights and said they undertook to respect them.

But there is more the Community could do to prove it really has decided to stick to its declarations, by adhering to the European human rights convention.

Many arguments have been put forward, both for and against this (mostly for) and it is clear that it would be perfectly possible to support the convention and that it would strengthen the Community's credibility in this field.

It is up to the newly elected European Parliament to list the fundamental rights, an important task which it should lose no time in undertaking. It would be in keeping with the traditions of all the member states.

Towards new rights. Apart from respect for fundamental rights, it is obvious that we should still run many

schemes to ensure that our idea of the Community can be perceived by as many Europeans as possible.

So, all Community action in the steel sector is part of an industrial strategy that should enable Europe to stand up to an unprecedented crisis and to again have competitive production apparatus whilst safeguarding employment. It is also clear that the Community has to develop "participatory rights" for workers if it is hoped to obtain a social consensus for restructuring and industrial conversion. The Commission has already presented proposals to boost worker participation in the firm to both the Council and the European Parliament, although the latter has yet to give its opinion.

In the fields of harmonization of laws (product liability, misleading publicity) and competition, the Commission is aiming to achieve a better balance between the demands of the producer and the protection of the consumer.

Lastly, as far as the free movement of individuals is concerned, the Community has to complete what has already been started, by taking the appropriate measures in respect of residents' permits, the protection of rights in the field of information, etc.

In conclusion, looking back, the record is far from negative, but there is clearly still a lot of ground to cover. Individual freedom is an ever-changing field littered with statements of good intention that ought to be put into practice.

We are set on a good course. There is no need for any upheaval. The main thing is to consolidate our achievements and realize the full potential of the treaties on which our Community is founded.

But all this will be pointless unless those for whom the effort is being made realize what they are getting. So, large-scale Community information campaigns will have to be run. The directly elected European Parliament will have a major role to play here. It will have a far larger audience now, as the citizens will also be able to make their needs and aspirations known and the Community can take on a greater human and social dimension than it has today.

Outward and visible signs of European solidarity

Why is there no European flag? Why was no European stamp brought out to commemorate the historic elections of 10 June? Why is there no Community passport? Why is 9 May (the anniversary of the Schuman declaration) not a holiday in all the member states?

The people of Europe need the answers to these and many other ques-

tions. They want EEC leaders to look into the problems and come up with the answers. External signs like these would be a practical way of showing that the people of Europe belong to the Community.

Why has progress in this field, which is of direct concern to the individual, been so slow? And what should we think of these external signs of Community solidarity? These are the questions for which we shall now try to find an answer, however incomplete.

A specific line of conduct is called for. Although we think the Community should be given support as regards external signs like a common passport, we do feel that the Community citizen needs to be put on his guard about the advisability of other such signs, like a European identity card or driving licence.

A Community passport is justified because the fact that 250 million people belong to Europe is worthy of notice both within and without the EEC. A standard passport would help create the idea of a Community within which Europeans can move about freely with no need of any other form of identification, just as they can in each of the member states. It would also mean that these same people would have an identical passport when they went outside the EEC to a third country and that nationals of third countries would only go through one passport control at their first point of entry (Paris, London or The Hague, say) and not at every frontier, as they do at present.

One obvious objection has been that the common market has already made it easier for criminals to move about at the same time. But this is not a decisive argument. We must, as Giscard d'Estaing said in December 1977, create a "European judicial space". So it would be better to build on existing Community legal foundations than to oppose the Community passport as some countries have done.

Similarly, we should also be pleased at the decisions that have already been taken on green (insurance) cards and duty-free entry. All these measures are aimed at facilitating trade within the common market. Although it is to be hoped that the amounts of duty-free goods will be raised gradually, more thought must clearly be given to the point of introducing a European driving licence or generalizing EUR plates.

The Community should not make harmonization an end in itself. Differences should be respected where they reflect the different temperaments, habits and cultures of the various countries and regions. It is possible to hope for a Europe of regions and communes and for harmonization

where it does not have a constraining effect on the citizen. We will never get a Sicilian to stop acting differently from a Dane. Fortunately!

Europe is a four-storey construction:

- the commune;
- the region;
- the state;
- the Community.

A Community passport

The first, immediate aim of this enterprise, the European passport, has not yet been achieved. There are three problems to settle:

- the reference to the Community on the cover;
- the choice of languages;
- the legal basis of the act establishing the passport.

This failure is all the more serious in that the operation so far has involved no more than substituting one document for another, without changing the holder's rights.

A good idea came up in 1974, but, and this point needs stressing, there was no support for it. The public was not told and the European Parliament was left out of it.

Faced with this situation, the Commission did not see fit to take the initiative in any other of the fields mentioned above.

The yacht "Treaty of Rome"

The "Treaty of Rome", manned by an 18-member European crew representing the nine member states, left Portsmouth on 27 August 1978 at the start of the round-the-world race. The aim of this operation, which the Sail for Europe association had made possible, was to get the public interested in direct elections to the European Parliament.

The yacht was an excellent means of reminding people that Europe existed and of representing in a major sporting event. It was one person's idea, but it got the support of the Community and the member states.

Some people think Europe has better things to do than advertize itself like this. But we think it is a good idea to fire the public's imagination with a certain number of well-chosen external signs. So we suggest that the readers think about the problem and that they, in turn, talk about them to the politicians who will be representing them tomorrow. Here are some examples:

- a European emblem;
- a European stamp;
- a European holiday on 9 May;
- European sports championships;
- a European Oscar. □ J.-C.B.

260 million consumers⁽¹⁾



The small shop-keeper is the day-to-day translator of Common Market policies for most Europeans

Intellectually, it would no doubt be much more satisfying to consider the prospects of a European political community or a European community of minds. However, although they got their political rights on 10 June this year, the people of Europe are still consumers first and foremost. They are consumers of goods and consumers of services. Man shall not live

by bread alone, but it is rather necessary.

The EEC, by definition, ought to be a vast market where the agricultural produce and industrial goods of the nine member states are arrayed for the housewife to buy at prices as cheap as the potential clientele is large. An ideal, of course. The European market would also need a consumer bureau to deal with problems and to make sure that

rules drawn up within the framework of "consumerism", that new expression, were properly respected.

In practice, the European housewife was probably the first to realize that Europe actually existed. Every day has a holiday flavour now southern fruits bring sun to winter tables and Italian wine lies side-by-side with French bottles in our cellars. The retailers lost no time once the barriers were down, and had it not been so, the European consumer community might never have developed so well.

As Brussels university teacher Jacqueline Poelmans said in a recent book⁽²⁾, the Treaty of Rome sets out to do three things for the consumer: raise standards of living, open markets and fight trusts, the last two being stepping stones to the first.

Increased trade, better prices, higher quality and fiercer competition are all beneficial to the EEC, but they have not always been seen as such, because of the simultaneous application of the common agricultural policy, the cornerstone, and now the stumbling block, of Community policy.

Buying things

The Europe of the consumer is not just a question of the dinner table and the shopping basket. Anything that can be bought or sold affects the people of Europe as consumers.

Here again, Europe is a reality. In 1958-72, for example, intra-Community trade in cars quadrupled, trade in refrigerators doubled and trade in washing machines increased sixfold. And 60-75% of the electrical domestic appliances made in the Community were also sold in the Community.

The growth of production and individual consumption, helped by higher incomes, plus better distribution and the effects of competition, have made these products more easily accessible to more people as prices, in constant figures even, have constantly decreased.

The EEC has often been accused of serving firstly the producers and merchants. But this is less and less true today, as, with its new political conscience, Europe is getting closer than ever to the interests of its citizens.

(1) From *La Libre Belgique*, 7 May 1979.

(2) J. Poelmans: *L'Europe des consommateurs* — Collection Europe — Fd Nathan, Editions Labor, Brussels — 174 pages.



A striking smile from a London nurse shows that pay claims are not always angry conflicts

The Consumer's Advisory Committee

Although the consumer as such was not involved in the Community decision-making process at the beginning, he has gradually been included. At the Paris summit in 1972, the Consumers' Advisory Committee was set up to represent the interests of the European consumer vis-à-vis the Commission and to give opinions on the common consumer protection and information policy. Its members are representatives of the European bureau of consumer unions (which combines the specialized organizations in each member state), family organizations, consumer cooperatives, unions and other people directly concerned.

At the same time, an environment and consumer protection service was also set up in the EEC's directorate-general for competition and the Commission was invited to produce the first action programme for consumers. A second programme is on the drawing board.

In view of the growth of potential markets, it would have been out of the question to leave the rules to the producers alone.

So far, Community action for the consumer has concentrated on the protection of health and safety (directives on additives, health inspection, pharmaceutical standards, reliability of common industrial products, etc.) and

the protection of economic interests (no directives so far but many are on the point of completion—correspondence courses, doorstep sales, hire purchase agreements, misleading publicity, product liability, labelling, etc.).

So is Europe of the consumer a reality? It nearly is. But the price of many products still varies from one country of the Community to another, because of exchange rates and because of protectionist tendencies from the past... and because of national taxes on everyday consumption. One of the results is that the frontiers we thought had gone for ever are still there—wine-lovers, for example, are unpleasantly surprised to find there is a mass of red tape to be unravelled if they are to take bottles from one country to another.

Be that as it may. The EEC is aware of the consumer, often to a far greater extent than some of the member states are. This tendency will doubtless be strengthened by direct elections, now that there are 410 European MPs who have much more to do with the day-to-day affairs than their predecessors did and who are faced with direct action from the pressure groups.

Now it is the consumer movements' turn to look beyond the shopping basket and make their presence felt (not just to be worthwhile but vital) in the debate on the European society of tomorrow that began with the June 10 elections. □

F.B.

Parliamentary questions

Parliamentary questions to the Commission are of increasing importance in the democratic control of the Community. They can be written or oral, debated or answered directly.

Although the European Parliament is the only really democratic institution of the Community, its powers, in theory, are far from being comparable to those of the national parliaments. But the European MPs have still managed to use the means available to them to exercise practical and effective control over the Commission and the Council of Ministers. For example, the European Parliament's system of questions and answers has expanded in an impressive manner in 20 years of existence and it was one of the most important forms of European parliamentary power before Parliament got real control over the Community budget in 1974.

Parliamentary questions serve many purposes. They are a means of information and of political control and they encourage the European commissioners and officials to act. And they have acquired greater scope and a significance they do not have in the national parliaments.

Irony comes easy when MPs are waxing solicitous about singing birds or deep in discussion about how to translate "as is" into Dutch. But the fact remains that all the big Community issues to be discussed have given rise to parliamentary questions of various kinds, written questions, oral questions with debate and oral questions without debate.

Written questions

Written questions and the answers to them appear in the Official Journal of the Community and get more publicity than the other kinds. They have a positive effect, as European officials know that at any moment they may be asked a question that will force them to justify their activity.

The EEC Commission and the Council of Ministers each have a division of their secretariat to deal with relations with the European Parliament and one of the jobs is to answer questions from



Parliamentary questions are only one aspect of the work of the European Parliament: much ground is covered in committee meetings like this one

the MPs. Obviously some of them complain that the Commission (which gets most of the questions) is slow to reply and fails to keep to the one month (two months for the Council of Ministers) time limit laid down in the regulations. They also complain that it sometimes dodges the issue with vague replies.

Oral questions

However, a European MP can always put an oral question to get explanations from the Commission if he feels the written reply was evasive.

Since 1973, the European Parliament has kept an hour at the beginning of the second or third day of every session for questions. The EEC Commission, the Council of Ministers and the conference of foreign ministers then answer questions in turn.

If an oral question is to be debated, it has to be introduced by one of the political groups, by a committee or by at least five MPs. Since journalists are present at European Parliament meetings, oral questions with debate get maximum publicity. They tend to be

more political than the written questions, dealing with such things as international relations, human rights, political prisoners, arms deliveries to South Africa and the war in the Middle East.

Written questions, however, usually deal with more complex and technical problems on economic and social subjects, consumer protection and so on, and a certain amount of research, and therefore time, is required to answer them.

Although the European Parliament began in a small way with only 41 written questions in 1958/59, there were 1 158 in 1976/77. In the same year, there were 490 oral questions without debate and 144 with.

Why do the European MPs ask questions?

Most questions, particularly the written ones, arise from regional or sectoral considerations. The representative of a textile-dominated industrial region will often ask questions about that particular area of the economy, just as the representative of a maritime region will defend the interests of fisherman. There will clearly be many questions to do with current events, such as the oil crisis, the Amoco-Cadiz, tariff barriers and so on.

The specialists

Some MPs have specialized in particular fields. Before being appointed Dutch defence minister and a member of the EEC Commission, Mr Vredeling



But the parliamentary committees do not only sit around discussing things in Europe. Here, a delegation of Euro-MPs visits Barbados, led by development committee chairman Colette Flesch (foreground, talking to Barbadian health minister "Billie" Miller)

Unexpected questions

Written parliamentary questions cover a variety of subjects, from technical matters to general policy. They are sometimes solemn, but they can also be amusing or unexpected, as the following examples show.

Mr Herbert (Ireland, European progressive democrat) — "Does the Commission agree that one of the obvious reasons why the per capita consumption of liquid milk is higher in Ireland and the UK than in any other member state is that milk there is still delivered to the door?"

Mr Willi Müller (Germany, Christian democrat) — "Can the Commission see any reason to doubt the estimates of Mr Howard, the Australian minister with special responsibility for Community affairs, to the effect that even if Australian cattle fly from Melbourne to Frankfurt by first-class jumbo jet, the price at the slaughter is still competitive compared with that of cattle subsidized in accordance with the common European organization of the market in beef and veal?"

Mrs Ewing (UK, independent) — "Can the Commission say what

quantities of raspberry pulp are imported from Poland and Yugoslavia and whether there are any quotas for this? Could these figures be presented in detailed manner so as to reveal the figures for the UK?"

Mr Schyns (Belgium, Christian democrat) — "Directive 75/726 of 17 November 1975 on fruit juice is a first attempt at the harmonization of laws which still involve a certain amount of disparity. Dimethylpolysiloxane, an additive which prevents frothing, is one example. Does the Commission really feel that this additive is essential?"

Mrs Krouwel-Vlam (Netherlands, socialist) — "According to an article in the *Volkskrant* of 21 February 1978, female prisoners serving long sentences recently applied to the president of the court at the Hague for remuneration equal to that of male prisoners serving long sentences. This request was rejected. Does the Commission think that article 119 of the treaty establishing the EEC (equal pay for male and female workers) also applies to the remuneration of work carried out by prisoners?" □

was in the European Parliament for a considerable period when he specialized in written agricultural and social questions. His record of almost 3 000 questions during his term of office still stands.

A look through the thick file of written questions shows, for example, that Mr Martens (Belgian, Christian democrat) specialized in agricultural questions, Mr Rhys Williams (UK, Conservative) specialized in financial and monetary questions, Mr Seefeld (Germany, socialist) in transport and Mr Glinne (Belgium, socialist) in social and development questions.

The breakdown of questions by sector seems to closely reflect the dynamism of the relevant European policy. So it is not surprising that written questions about agriculture, particularly agricultural prices, are at the top of the list. Over the 1974/75 period, they represented 10.6% of all written questions, although they have decreased slightly since the end of the marathon

sessions of 1968-72 and the major discussions of the Mansholt plan. But agricultural problems still fill page after page of the Official Journal of the EEC.

Written questions on social affairs come next, with 10.3% of the total figure over the 1974/77 period.

Another sector to have attracted an increasing amount of attention over the last few years is consumer protection. Standing up for the consumer's rights can only burnish the MP's image. Parliamentary questions have played an effective part in drawing the EEC Commission's attention to abnormal situations by helping to highlight cases of regulation evasion, monopolies, illegal agreements between producers and violation of the rules of competition. Specialists in European problems no doubt remember Chiquita bananas, Gervais-Danone and the Saint-Gobain Pont-à-Mousson group... The European Parliament's attention is often drawn by an unwarranted difference in the price of particular products in different countries of the EEC. For exam-



The European Parliament investigates many questions of interest to the Third World, such as the domination of the banana market by certain multinational companies

ple, it denounced Hoffman La Roche, the Swiss pharmaceuticals firm, for the exaggerated variations in the prices of its vitamins and tranquilizers in the different EEC countries.

One of the consequences of direct elections will obviously be a considerable increase in the number of parliamentary questions, especially written ones. First, because there are now over twice as many MPs and debates cannot go on for ever. Second, and this is most important, because the MPs will be asking more questions now they are directly elected; they are more motivated and they have a greater interest in defending the interests of the voters.

Some Commission leaders are worried that there will be three times as many questions, but although many MPs agree the increase will indeed be this big, they think it will only be for a given period. Lucien Radoux, the Belgian socialist MP, thinks there will only be a temporary build-up. "At the beginning, of course, everyone will be rushing to put questions". □

Migrant workers in Europe

How have foreign workers in Europe been affected by the economic recession that followed the 1973-74 oil crisis? The OECD has been monitoring the trends and its 1978 report (the sixth to be done by the SOPEMI agency) gives some idea of the situation up to early 1978.

The main OECD countries to employ migrant labour are the EEC countries (minus Italy, which is the biggest supplier, Denmark and Ireland), plus Austria, Switzerland and Sweden. Unfortunately Britain did not contribute to the 1978 report.

The main countries to supply foreign labour to those eight European "employers" are the six north Mediterranean countries (in order: Italy, Turkey, Yugoslavia, Portugal, Spain and Greece) which, in 1977, had five times as many nationals abroad in Europe as the three southern Mediterranean Maghreb countries (in order: Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia).

The main concentrations of foreign workers were of Turks and Yugoslavs in Germany and Portuguese and Algerians in France.

The most important fact to emerge from the report is that, over the 1973-77 period, while the total foreign populations in the eight principal host countries changed little, the percentage of the jobs taken by migrant workers fell by an average of more than 8%, to an average of 11% in 1977. In the biggest host countries (Germany, France and Switzerland) the average percentage of jobs taken by migrant workers fell by twice as much.

The fourth report (on 1976) defined the new model of intra-European migration as it emerged after several years of economic decline. It contained four main observations:

— The fact that the countries which traditionally welcome immigrants have stopped recruiting foreign workers

does not mean that all migration has stopped.

— Migrant workers still have a part to play in these countries and, when the governments stopped immigration, they tried to get the foreign workers on their territory better integrated, mainly by making it easier for them to be joined by their families.

— The foreign population therefore tends to increase, particularly since, demographically, it does not immediately fall in line with the population trends of the host country.

— The break in migratory patterns affected the established patterns of trade between the two groups of countries, and those which provided the migrants tend to be even less well placed than their partners to handle the employment crisis.

These observations, drawn from information collected by national correspondents, led the writers of the 1977 report to produce a document that differed from the previous ones. They put more emphasis on "stocks" of

migrant workers than on migratory "flow" and spent more time discussing second generation migrants, integration policies and new forms of relations between the two groups of countries. This report is similar. It attempts to come to grips with a changing situation that is increasingly difficult to describe in statistical and quantitative terms.

Since the report was first introduced, intra-European migration has decreased constantly to its present very small proportions. Relatively speaking, the downward trend seems to have levelled off. Although entries changed little in 1977 and 1978, exits (not necessarily people going home) from importing countries decreased. There were about 700 000 in 1977. This may partly explain the relative stabilization of stocks.

Table I is an updated version of data from all the annual reports and gives the figures for migrant workers in 1977. It has been stressed many times that these are estimates that should be viewed with caution. It would be wrong to try to make comparisons from one year to another and, worse, from one country to another. However, they do give a general idea of the situation.



Many Portuguese come to work in the Community countries. Soon this woman's child will no longer be an outsider but an EEC citizen

Table I — Migrant workers in 1977

	Austria	Belgium	France	Germany	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Sweden	Switzerland
Algeria	—	2 400	331 100	—	—	—	200	—
Austria	—	3 700	—	75 000	—	—	2 400	24 100
Finland	—	—	—	2 900	—	—	103 000	—
Greece	—	9 600	—	162 500	—	1 900	9 200	4 800
Italy	2 100	106 400	199 200	281 200	10 800	10 000	2 800	253 100
Morocco	—	22 200	152 300	15 200	—	29 200	600	—
Portugal	—	3 900	360 700	60 200	12 900	5 200	1 000	4 800
Spain	—	27 300	204 000	100 300	2 200	17 500	1 900	62 700
Tunisia	—	1 900	73 000	—	—	1 100	400	—
Turkey	27 000	17 000	31 200	517 500	—	42 400	4 200	14 900
Yugoslavia	131 000	—	42 200	377 200	600	8 000	25 800	25 400
Others	28 800	111 900	190 600	296 600	22 600	21 000	73 800	103 000
Total	188 900	306 300	1 584 300	1 888 600	49 100	115 300	225 300	492 800

Notes

Belgium — based on the April 77 census (1-13). Frontier workers are excluded.

France — result of the census (1-5). This figure is probably underestimated.

Germany — this includes the frontier workers.

Luxembourg — estimate by the Belgian correspondent.

Netherlands — holders of work permits.

Sweden — this includes resident workers who have expressed a desire to stay for six months or more.

Switzerland — established workers and those with one-year permits only (31.12.1977).

**Table II
Migrant workers from certain countries of immigration
working in other countries of immigration, 1977**

	Belgium	France	Switzerland	Germany	Switzerland	Germany
		excluding frontier workers			including frontier workers	
Belgian		19 900				9 200
French	41 200		37 000	(24 000)	(61 000)	43 600
German	9 900	22 900	46 000		(62 000)	
Dutch	26 800	5 000	4 200			42 700
Swiss		11 600				7 000
British	7 800	11 700	5 900			25 200

Note: The figures in brackets are estimates by the secretariat. The above figures should obviously be interpreted with care.

Table III — Migrant workers, 1974-1977 ('000)

	Austria	Belgium	France (1)	Germany	Luxembourg	Netherlands	Sweden	Switzerland
1974	218.0	278.0	1 900.0	2 360.0		163.4	200.0	593.0
1975	185.0	278.0	1 900.0	2 171.0	46.8	176.0	204.0	553.0
1976	171.7	316.8	1 584.3	1 937.1	46.8	140.5	235.5	516.0
1977	188.9	306.3	1 584.3	1 888.6	49.1	115.3	225.3	492.8

(1) The figures for 1974 and 1975 are the result of an extrapolation from a survey by the Ministry of Labour in October 1973. Those for 1976 and 1977 are estimates based on the 1975 census.

Note: These figures were taken from previous reports and should be used with caution. Those for the Netherlands have also been adjusted to exclude nationals from old Dutch territories. In order to ensure coherence with the data in Table I, the figures for Switzerland only cover established workers and those with annual work permits. If frontier (as on 31 December) and seasonal (as on 31 August) workers are also included, the following figures are obtained — 1974: 874.4, 1975: 723.8, 1976: 653.8 and 1977: 640.2.

It seemed useful to complete tables I, II and III to show how large a percentage of the working population is made up of migrant workers and how this percentage has developed since the crisis began.

The absolute figures make it clear that the main drop in numbers was in countries which had the largest work forces in 1960-70. This confirms how big an effect the crisis had on these workers.

We should add that, although at first migrant workers seemed less affected by unemployment than nationals, the situation has now reversed and seems to be deteriorating. This is not surprising, bearing in mind that there is a large contingent of migrant workers in the lower age groups, which are the first to feel the effects of a drop in employment.



Construction and other manual and sometimes menial jobs are often taken by foreign workers

stop immigration may help stabilize or even increase the number of migrants, as it affects the behaviour of the people mainly concerned: the employer will hesitate to send a migrant worker back home, as he will not be able to recuperate him if the need arises, and the worker himself will hesitate to leave and see what develops, rightly fearing that he will never come back.

To be truthful, we do not know how many migrants do return, and what few figures we have (see the report on the migratory chain, July 1978) should be viewed with caution. Many migrants from rural areas or from the services sector may be counted as working by their own authorities once they have a job, or are unemployed even, in the host country. It is not sure whether they keep this status when they go home and, obviously, they are not always recorded as unemployed when they do go back.

The cash which migrant workers sent home in 1977 reached almost \$7 500

million. Account must also be taken of the fact that, in some cases, the migrants probably preferred to keep their savings in a currency other than that of their country of origin because of the fluctuating monetary situation. They send as much money home as they did before the crisis and these amounts play an important part in the balance of payments in their home countries. Will this trend be maintained in the coming years once the migrant population stops changing and the drive to integrate foreigners into the host countries has taken effect?

This year, correspondents in the countries of emigration were invited to supply details of both the situation in their countries and the steps taken or planned to handle it. As the Kindleberger report showed in its analysis of the relation between migration, growth and development, measures of this kind will inevitably be of limited scope unless they are part of development strategies that involve international cooperation.

	Migrant workers as % of total working population, 1977	Change over 1974-1977 period
Austria	6	- 13
Germany	9.5	- 19
Belgium	8.4	+ 10.5
France	7.3 (1975)	- 16
Luxembourg	32	+ 5
Netherlands	3.7	- 29
Sweden	5.4	+ 12
Switzerland	16.4	- 17

Although migrant employment as a percentage of the working population has decreased, the total migrant population has grown or changed little since 1973. Switzerland, with a decrease of slightly more than 11%, is the only exception. This trend would seem to reflect a certain political desire mentioned in previous reports. While governments in the importing countries have confirmed their decisions to halt entry of first generation immigrants, they are trying to get those already there to settle, in particular by allowing them to bring in their families, a *sine qua non* of integration. The decision to

Table V — Total foreign population, 1973-1977 ('000)

	Germany	Belgium	France	Netherlands	Sweden	Switzerland
1973	3 966.2	774.8	3 873.1	282.5	397.5	1 052.5
1974	4 127.4	805.4	4 038.2	315.1	401.2	1 064.5
1975	4 089.6	835.4	4 106.0	344.9	409.9	1 012.7
1976	3 948.3	851.6	4 205.3	362.5	418.0	958.6
1977	3 948.3	869.7	4 237.0	n.a.	424.0	932.7

The report in fact contains a section on the policies the countries of immigration have introduced, with the cooperation of their partners, to link the return of migrants to their home countries with the development of these countries. But the section is a

short one, clearly reflecting the difficulties encountered and the limited scope of the usually one-off and experimental measures that are devised in a liberal manner. But they should be encouraged, as being the only measures to tackle the real question. How is it

possible to encourage migrants to go home if the partners involved in the old migratory exchange have not begun to solve the problems (lack of employment and/or inadequate income) that caused them to leave in the first place? □

Migrant workers: time to tackle their problem⁽¹⁾

Draw up a list of the dozen most dangerous or dirtiest jobs and the chances are you will find most of them being filled by immigrant workers from outside the Community.

The immigrants, in addition, generally have to work unsocial hours; they are badly paid and they are the first to be made redundant in times of recession.

They live mainly in ghettos, they are exploited by employers and landlords and are sometimes harassed by the police. Their problems multiply if they have entered the Community illegally.

These workmen, mainly from North Africa, Spain, Portugal, Yugoslavia, Turkey and Greece, have all come to West Europe in recent years to toil at some of the most demanding jobs that frequently are the backbone of industrialized economies.

They come because job opportunities at home are limited, because there were vacancies in Europe and because they hope to make enough to feed their families at home or to enable their children to acquire a higher education in the West.

These third country migrant workers, as they have been called, number about six million and represent some 5% of the labour force in the European Community countries. The families that also joined these workers in Europe bring the total of foreign residents to some 12.5 million.

The fact that their conditions of residence still vary from one Community country to another is a problem that the European Commission in Brussels would like to discuss and if possible to change so that national laws and situations are more identical.

Recruiting of foreign workers has virtually ceased and the experts feel that now may be the best time to try

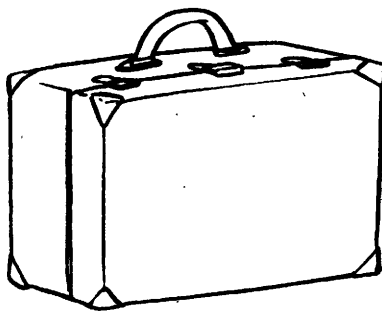
and achieve some general Community-wide policies in this field.

In a few years, the situation will be further complicated by the fact that Greece, Portugal and Spain—three traditional places of origin for foreign workers—will be entering the Community and will be on the way to acquiring unlimited access to all nine member states.

This would cause additional pressures on the already tense industrial labour situation in the Community, where there are currently six million—ironically equal to the number of third country migrant workers—unemployed.

European Commission vice-president Henk Vredeling, who is in charge of social and employment affairs, observed in a London speech recently that "the distorted development brought about by the uncontrolled migration of the 50s and 60s faces society with serious consequences..."

But he adds that, currently, "we have a breathing space which will enable us to consider the situation and lay down a new line of approach".



What is being sought is a joint policy on problems connected with foreign workers and their families. This approach would cover such matters as the training of migrant workers returning to their homeland, illegal entry and employment in the Community, the resumption of

recruiting from outside the Community when the economies of some member states make it necessary, the re-unification of families in the host country, and a number of other questions involving international treaties and accords.

In addition, the Commission has proposed five principles that should be considered during these discussions. They are: the need to ensure equality of treatment for workers from third countries who live regularly in the Community, the need to provide for the professional development of members of their families, the requirement that trade unions and employers be included in such policy negotiations, the prevention of illegal immigration and punishment of those who encourage it, and the need to consider the policies of the member states if there is a resumption of recruitment of workers from outside the Community.

What these negotiations would focus on would be ways of unifying the policies of the Nine on a number of specific legal and social areas. These would range from the conditions for entry and stay in a Community country to the welfare of the migrants and their families, including social security, housing, health and training.

Another related issue which should also be examined at the same time would be possible problems incurred by citizens of Community countries and their families who live and work in non-Community countries.

In discussing the need to work out an organized system of dealing with the issues, commissioner Vredeling has warned against the simple-minded reaction that would resolve the unemployment problem in the Community by simply throwing out the foreign workers.

He emphasized that the right of free movement granted by the Community at its creation was economically necessary and the "fulfillment of a great ideal" of opening national frontiers.

It should also not be forgotten, he added, that foreign workers have and are continuing to contribute to "keeping our production going and powering our standard of living". □

(1) From *Euroforum*.

Community issues

Agriculture

Henri Caillavet: "The Community needs a North-South dialogue within its own borders"

The European Parliament's agriculture committee held a seminar in Echternach (Luxembourg) in October 1978 to lay down guidelines for the new common agricultural policy (CAP) and to look into the strengthening of the role which both the Parliament and the committee play in this policy. In May 1979, farm committee chairman Henri Caillavet gave a report to the European Parliament on the conclusions of the seminar, suggesting changes to the CAP and provoking a good deal of reaction. The *Courier* asked Mr Caillavet what he thought about the CAP, particularly prices, the place of family smallholdings, the move to the towns, monetary compensatory amounts, protectionism and enlargement.

► *Mr Caillavet, does your report question the three basic principles of the CAP, that is to say the unity of the market, financial solidarity and Community preference?*

— We went to Echternach for joint reflexion, to work together, that is to say. When we had finished, we had a number of guidelines which I put into a report. Then the committee brought amendments and made changes and the final draft was produced and voted by a large majority.

The report that the European Parliament voted on after our work at Echternach and the discussions in the committee should be seen as a series of proposals. The plan is not a personal one. It is, I repeat, a joint production aimed at altering the common agricultural policy. We had noticed that serious discrepancies as regards certain products and agricultural income persisted in the Community and we

also wanted to be realistic and take account of the needs of the consumers, who wanted prices to be cut. So the Caillavet plan is a piece of general political cooperation, although I did most of the writing.

We recognized that the CAP had encouraged trade very substantially and that it was essential to maintain the three principles, the unity of the market, the financial solidarity and the common prices you mention. But we also recognized that the CAP had not lived up to all its promises, that changes were called for and that the report should include the proposals of all our colleagues. So we must continue with the CAP and respect its foundations. But we must amend it, particularly as regards the different regions and the different levels of agricultural income.



Henri Caillavet

Prices policy

► *Do you think that supporting production prices is sufficient to ensure that all producers in all regions get a fair income?*

— So far, the CAP has been more or less based on prices. Prices are extremely important, undeniably, but they are not in themselves enough to ensure that all farmers get a decent income. Why? Because some prices are guaranteed and others are not. Things produced in the north, cereals, animal products and milk, get price guarantees, but things produced in the south, fruit, vegetables, wine and flowers, don't—unless they are covered by the not fully satisfactory withdrawal payments. So we thought southern products should get the same rights and advantages as northern ones. This is one of the things we noted.

But as prices alone are not enough, we looked at the structures, that is to say the problem of the guidance section of the EAGGF. We found that barely 3% of a budget that represents two thirds of the Community budget was earmarked for guidance, i.e. for altering the structures. The guidance section was the poorrelation, the Cinderella of the budget. So we all felt that emphasis should be put on changing the structures, developing professional groupings as much as possible and encouraging specialized trade between the regions by reallocating land and revising the system of land ownership, i.e. by a complete reorganization of the market.

► *The credibility of the CAP has been undermined because it produces quantities for which there is no outlet. Is that a fair criticism?*

— Not quite. We sometimes produce too much, when the price is more than an incentive for certain products. And we sometimes produce too little. Which is why in our suggested alterations to the structures, we invited the farmer to produce things the Community currently lacks. We lack soya, so why not try and grow it in the regions that are right for it? We lack long grain rice, so why not increase production of that?

It is true that certain exaggerated prices do lead farmers to overproduce, but the real problem is at the level of what we call industrial agriculture. Industrial agriculture is agricultural production on a large scale, while other crops are still only produced on an individual scale.



Beefing about the common agricultural policy... French dairy farmers drove a cow into an EEC farm council in 1971. Cattle are a major element in the CAP

Industrial agriculture and family smallholdings

► *Don't you feel that industrial agriculture, with imports of substitute products like soya, is an increasing threat to the family smallholding?*

— Yes, this is a pertinent question. We import soya and it is zero-rated, although there ought to be a duty on it as it is needed for cattle feed. But the GATT agreements date back to a time when soya did not play an essential role in this respect. When we import soya, obviously the cattle don't need to be fed cereals, so we are forced to sell barley at the world price and this is a strain on our budget. So production is abandoned when substitute products are absorbed and industrial agriculture begins to appear in regions where there used to be none. There are real milk factories and pork factories today. What is more, most of the pigs come from East Germany.

Substitute products are sometimes vital, when, for example, the Community has a chronic shortfall or a deficit it can do nothing about. But obviously, if we feed our milk-producing cows American soya, the consumption of forage cereal crops will drop automatically. As a result, we pay dollars for non-essential products and we sell our own at a loss—i.e. at world prices—and this

increases the strain on the budget and costs the taxpayer a lot more. There is no doubt that we have to find different methods of marketing that take regional interests into account. I personally think that a quantum policy would help us over the problem of surpluses, i.e. it would help us control the industrial-type agricultural undertakings that are largely responsible for the present disorder.

► *So what sort of agriculture should we be encouraging? Industrial undertakings or family smallholdings? Or should we be improving both according to the advantages they present in different conditions of production?*

— I am a southerner and so naturally I would prefer to encourage the family concern. But it would be wrong to encourage just one type of agriculture. What we have to do is to harmonize the different types. Obviously, on the large tracts of land of northern Europe where mechanization is possible we must plant crops that will benefit from such methods. And in hotter regions or areas where farming plots are smaller, we must use the opposite approach and favour that exceptional institution, the family smallholding. It would be wrong to say that one farm must use secateurs and another tractors. Where tractors are needed we must have trac-

tors and where secateurs are needed we must have secateurs. The worst thing would be to try and mechanize farms that are unsuitable for mechanization and to keep family concerns where they would be unable to survive. So all types of agricultural production must be made to complement each other and any changes from one type to another must be properly harmonized.

The problem of monetary compensatory amounts

► *Do you think monetary compensatory amounts could be phased out quickly?*

— You know what the conditions were when we introduced them. When France was due to devalue, it did not want to do what it ought to have done and increase its agricultural prices, so, in order to avoid trouble, General de Gaulle refused to devalue. At the time, Jacques Chirac was in charge of the budget and Giscard d'Estaing was at the Ministry of Agriculture. The response was immediate. Our partners said they would therefore introduce amounts at the frontiers to compensate for the French devaluation. And when later on other countries devalued, currencies separated and, as there was no

fixed parity, it was natural to resort to compensatory amounts—and they have ruined the unity of the market and of prices. The amounts certainly are a hindrance to intra-Community trade. They used to be an advantage, an export premium for countries with strong currencies, but they were a handicap for those with weak currencies. I think we were right to bring in the EMS. It has established a turbulence-free zone where parities are more or less fixed, and it will enable us to re-establish the unity of the market and, therefore, of prices. It is vital to do away with the monetary compensatory amounts if we want to bring about a gradual expansion of agriculture in the Community and boost exports for the benefit of those who need better food.

Food aid

► *Should food aid be looked upon as a way of getting rid of Community surpluses?*

— Europe can feed itself, but the world at large is hungry. So we must realize Europe's full production potential and we must therefore ensure that international trade is coordinated and that Europe can become a storehouse for anyone who needs food. But we must not sell in bulk. We must not sell sacks of corn and hogsheads of wine. We must sell finished products. And the food and agricultural industries must be inside the Community and not outside, where they would ultimately be competition for our own products.

So a whole European trade strategy has to be implemented. The Echter-nach report in fact emphasized this very need to harmonize trade. I shall give you an example, sugar.

Sugar

We produce a lot of sugar and we have a four million tonne surplus at the present time. And we have an agreement with the ACP countries, through the Lomé Convention, whereby we take a percentage of their cane sugar production, amounting to about 1 300 000 t. But as their sugar prices were higher than ours, a shortage occurred. So, thanks to sweeteners, we implemented an isoglucose industrial policy. That is to say, we obtained sugar from maize. But this demanded heavy investment and the isoglucose has considerably increased our stocks.

► *I should like to add, Minister, that European investors have financed new sugar investments in Africa...*

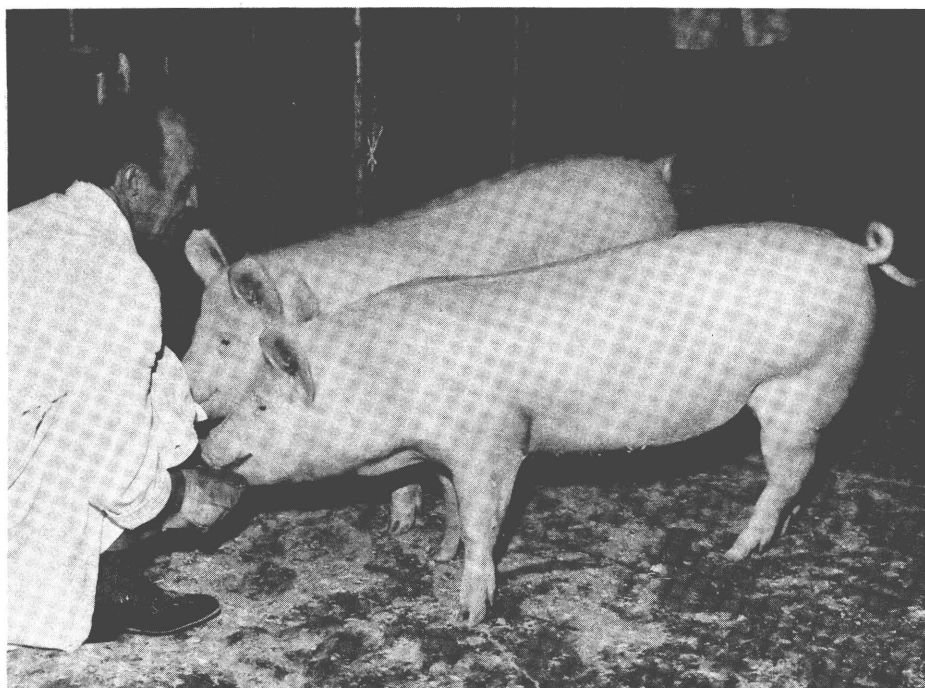
— I was just getting to that. We wanted to boost industrial expansion and stimulate European industry, so we sold ready-to-use factories to Morocco, Cameroon and Kenya. But when we did this, we also promised to take a large percentage of their sugar production, so, come 1980, we shall have 800 000 or even 1 000 000 t more of it. Which means that, if we had harmonized our industrial policy and our trade strategy, we wouldn't be in the situation we are now. This is why planning must be flexible and the aims must be defined

by the European Parliament with the full agreement of the Council of Ministers and the Commission. Then we can try, thanks to this harmonization, to adapt production to consumption.

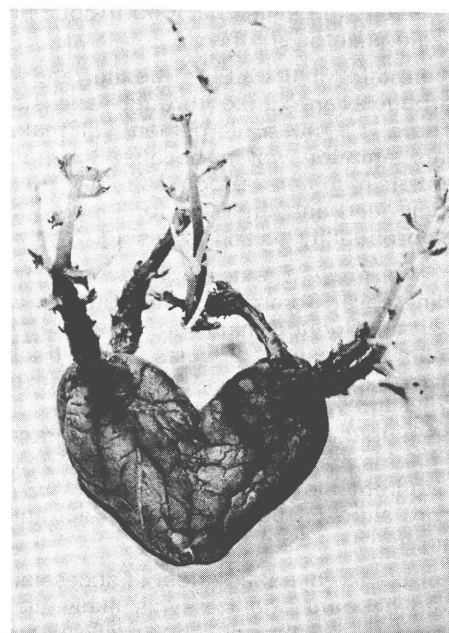
Employment and the move to the towns

► *The job situation in Europe is difficult at the moment and there are six or seven million unemployed in the Community. Don't you think that everything must be done to get workers to stay in the country areas and that the Mansholt plan we heard so much about a few years back is a complete non-starter now?*

— I think you have put it a little bluntly. Certainly, in view of unemployment we have to do all we can to avoid people leaving the rural areas. Family smallholdings are an absolutely vital stabilizing factor here and we must maintain them, for if a family concern disappears, one, two or three more people come onto the job market. So family farms are also a social imperative for the Community. But the Mansholt plan was an ecological plan in a way. It tended to protect certain reserves. But we don't seem to have reached the stage where we can abandon the notion of productivity. We can gain new productions that are vital to the survival of mankind. So I think we must use all the means available to avoid worsening unemployment, in particular by developing agricultural production, which is to say farms, whether semi-industrial or family ones.



Pig meat prices have also been a contentious issue under the CAP



The sprouting of the humble potato, a staple in the diets of several European countries

Enlargement

► You come from one of the southern regions of the Community. The EEC is in the process of enlargement to include Greece, Spain and Portugal. What effect do you think this will have on agriculture in the south of the present Community and what guarantees do you think should be taken under the circumstances?

— First it has to be realized that the June elections were nothing to do with enlargement. What we were doing here was voting for MPs to implement the treaty, the whole treaty and nothing but the treaty. At a later stage, of course, the problem of enlargement will have to be discussed, but apart from the French communists, all the big political parties, all the progressive democrats, think it is politically necessary to bring in other southern countries. I am from the south, so I am particularly sensitive to enlargement towards the south, which will strike a new balance in a Europe where northern countries now tend to predominate.

But the consequences of enlargement are not immediate problems. They will be discussed. The southern parts of the Community must be made competitive if the three new countries are to join. We obviously need to put our plans into action and the plan for the south-west that the President of France has mentioned seems to me to be a basic necessity. But more is needed than this. Big new budget appropriations, new structures and new schemes to develop, for example, the Garonne valley along the lines of the Rhône, should help us strike a balance so that the entry of Spain and Portugal is not a threat to the food-producing regions of the south.

Certain of the EEC's Mediterranean products are going through a crisis. There is a glut. Enlargement will make this situation worse, because the potential members produce more than they need and their production will in all probability go on increasing.

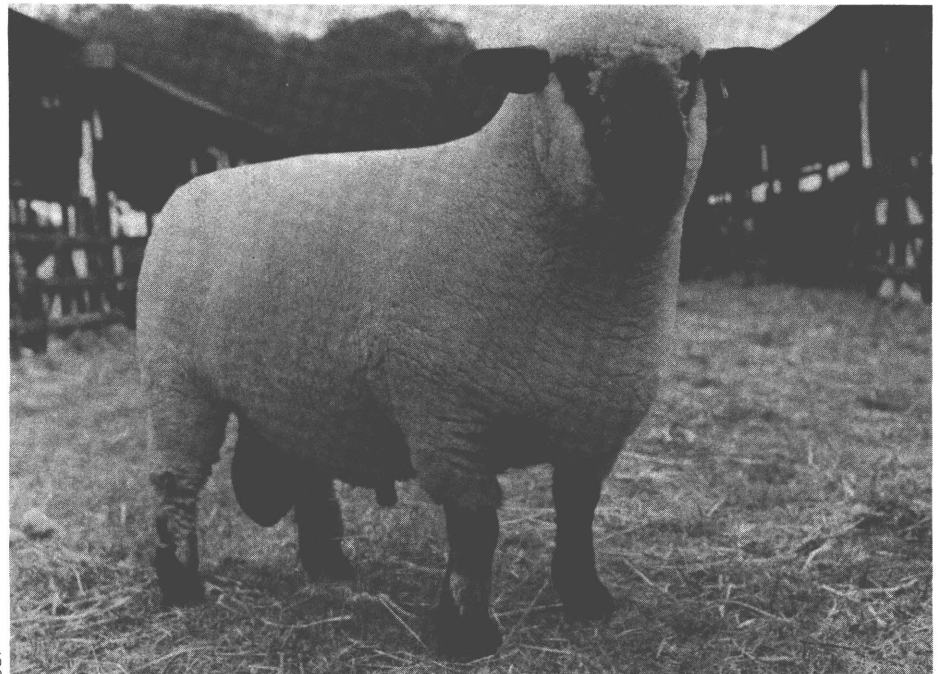
The present extents to which the Nine cover Community requirements of certain Mediterranean products are as follows: fresh vegetables 94%, fresh fruit (excluding citrus fruit) 79%, citrus fruit 43%, wine 103% and olive oil 78%. In the Community of 12, coverage of wine, vegetable, peach and pear requirements will be more than 10%, and almost 100% for olive oil and apples.

Take the dynamic effect of accession into account and it seems likely that the Community will soon have more surpluses to contend with. Extending the CAP support system to the new members and pushing up prices in the



Wine is going to be an even greater problem when Spain and Portugal join the Community

The high quality meat and wool of British and Irish sheep face strong competition from Australia and New Zealand





In agriculture the Community has its most comprehensive common policy, but the CAP can't improve the weather
Dutch soldiers help farmers to save a harvest from torrential rain

Nine will only serve to boost production. And let us not forget that it is impossible to say what the financial effect will be for the guarantee section of the EAGGF, which represents 67% of the Community budget.

A global Mediterranean region development plan will have to be devised to adapt agricultural structures, introduce conversion and diversification schemes and develop regional infrastructure and job creating investments in industry and services.

The various crops being grown in the Mediterranean areas should be listed and joint schemes should be discussed with the potential members to develop the sort of products the Community is short of, such things as soya, vegetable protein, forage crops and cotton. And other joint schemes should be run to restrict sensitive products like fruit, vegetables, table wine and olive oil.

Since they are opting for enlargement, the Community countries must shoulder the burden jointly so that it does not fall on agriculture and the southern parts of the EEC alone. A special chapter of the EEC budget should include appropriations for the various schemes attendant on enlargement. Aid from the various funds (EAGGF guidance, the regional fund and the social fund) should be stepped up and better coordinated, perhaps within a rural fund, as proposed by the European Parliament agriculture committee.

So the Community needs a North-South dialogue within its own borders. If the Mediterranean challenge is taken seriously, then accession will mean more trade in the long run, which will offset the problems that occur in the

early stages.

But this will take time. Transitional measures will be introduced and if, once they are complete, the threat is still there, then enlargement will have to be postponed. What I mean is, we have to be realistic.

Protectionism

► *Might the Community not be accused of protectionism, something you accused the USA of in your report?*

— Certainly not. We want to create a customs zone and there is nothing in the Treaty of Rome that says we have to accept all comers and a free-trade area where anyone can come and do as he pleases while people are protecting themselves elsewhere. When different social security systems are a threat to Europe, we are perfectly entitled to protect ourselves.

The agriculture committee feels that the USA often behaves badly. In 1977, it exported almost 6 000 million ECU-worth of agricultural produce and imported barely a quarter of this amount. The multinationals and the flagging dollar mean that the main markets of the world are flooded with American goods. And what's more, the Americans often dress up their quota systems as plant health regulations. This cannot be allowed to go on.

Harmonization and market organization don't rule out fair protection when we are under fire, in an insidious or a violent manner, from other economies. Postponing enlargement doesn't mean we want an autarkic policy. We want to make sure that one type of society is protected, but protection obviously

involves the harmonious development of all industrial and agricultural production and of craft and trade.

The UK's position

► *Mr Silkin, until recently the UK's minister of agriculture, wanted agricultural prices frozen while the machinery of the CAP was renegotiated, on the grounds that it places too heavy a burden on the Community budget and encourages people to produce surpluses. Do you think that, now there is a Conservative government, the UK position will change?*

— No, certainly not. They have said so and Mrs Thatcher has said so. She wants to alter, to renegotiate, part of the treaty. The Labour party wanted to and now the Conservatives want to. Both parties are British, after all. Obviously the economic structures of Europe need altering. They need completing and balancing. We must improve the disappointing aspects and keep the successful ones and give more encouragement to whatever has brought progress. But I still maintain that we cannot do away with certain essential mechanisms, mentioned earlier in this interview, that protect the agricultural interests of all the countries of the Community.

In this field, as in many others, Europe is a gamble. But it is also and above all a hope. If this economic wager, which is also an opportunity for us, is to be successful, we need clear thinking, courage, a great deal of solidarity and realism. □

Interview by A.L.

The Common Agricultural Policy (CAP)

It is no exaggeration to say that the CAP is the cornerstone of European policy. Often sharply criticized, it has nevertheless played a vital role in the development of the Community. Farmers and consumers, in other words all the citizens of Europe, know that for them, in their work and their daily lives, Brussels is not a myth. In spite of the importance of purely national measures and the sums still paid by the member states (in 1976 national budgets financed total expenditure of almost 11 000 million EUA whereas the Community budget for the CAP totalled 616 million EUA). The common agricultural policy plays a predominant role in this sector of the European economy(1).

Why a common agricultural policy?

Would it not have been better to confine action in this area to the free movement of agricultural products? No, because the problems facing agriculture in the industrialized countries demanded that refinements be introduced to the free trade theory on which the plans for European unity are based.

These problems are as follows: imbalance between supply and demand at world level (production and consumption varying greatly between the rich countries, often suffering from surpluses, and the poor countries, in deficit and often a prey to famine), the need to provide farmers with a minimum standard of living (not only for social reasons but also for ecological reasons and in the public interest), the extreme variety of special interests (in sector, in size and in region), the relative rigidity of animal and vegetable biology, climatic and atmospheric conditions, geographical factors and availability of arable land, tendencies to instability on agricultural markets (technical progress pushes supplies beyond demand), deterioration in the terms of trade to the detriment of agriculture (because an increasingly large quantity of agricultural products is required to purchase the means of production), the inelasticity of food consumption, and the diminishing share of agriculture in the gross domestic product.

(1) From the information service of the European Parliament (February 1979).

All of these problems, particular to the history of the last century of the industrial era, had incited the member states, long before the Community was created, to adopt varying degrees of planning in their agricultural policies. A number of these countries (including France and Italy) made the adoption of an agricultural policy a prior condition for their acceptance of the idea of the European Community.

Historical precedents, a relative lack of flexibility in production, the social requirements of those living on the land, fear of the endemic disorder of agricultural markets, these were the features which, at the time of the signing of the EEC Treaty in March 1957, led to the drafting of the bases and objectives of the CAP.

Legal bases and objectives of the common agricultural policy

Article 38 of the EEC Treaty: (...) the rules laid down by the establishment of the common market shall apply to agricultural products (...)

The operation and development of the common market for agricultural products must be accompanied by the establishment of a common agricultural policy among the member states.

Article 39: 1. To increase productivity

- by promoting technical progress,
- by ensuring the rational development of agricultural production,
- and the optimum utilization of the factors of production,
- in particular labour.

2. thus to ensure a fair standard of living for the agricultural community, in particular by increasing the individual earnings of persons engaged in agriculture,

3. to stabilize markets,

4. to assure the availability of supplies,

5. to ensure that supplies reach consumers at reasonable prices.

Article 110: 1. to contribute to the harmonious development of world trade,

2. to contribute to the progressive abolition of restrictions on international trade and the lowering of customs barriers.

In addition to the objectives laid down in the Treaty of Rome, the **Conference** of the member states which met at **Stresa** from 3 to 12 July 1958 added the following fundamental clarifications:

- the need for rational reform of structures, without calling in question the family nature of farms,

- a progressive fixing of common prices at a level which would provide a fair income without encouraging over-production,



Dairy and beef surpluses are financed by the CAP

- a rejection of agricultural self-sufficiency, by protection against external competition which was often unfairly distorted,
- development of trade.

Articles 40 to 46 set out the framework and the procedures for achieving the objectives laid down. Between 1958 and 1962 the Community institutions set up the basic instruments of the common agricultural policy. These procedures and instruments have given **his common policy its own identity and institutional machinery**, granting management powers to the Commission and creating special committees (management committees, committees on regulations, consultative committees) composed of representatives of the member states and of the social and professional interests involved.

Role of the European Parliament (EP): if there is one field in which the EP has played an important role in the drawing up of common policies, it is in agriculture.

After the Stresa Conference, own-initiative reports were drawn up by the Committee on Agriculture, in particular by Mr Vredeling, on structural problems (Doc. 41/59) and by Mr Lückner, on the basic principles of a common agricultural policy (Doc. 3/March 60). At the end of 1960 a resolution tabled by Mr Boscary-Monsservin (Doc. 70/60) was adopted; it outlined the common agricultural policy as viewed by a majority of the members of the EP.

Subsequently the EP has made its voice heard on all proposals for common organizations of markets and on the annual fixing of guaranteed prices. This annual debate always arouses great interest, not only among members, but in professional circles and the farming world in general.

In addition to these fundamental policy statements the EP is consulted constantly by the Council on proposals for regulations or directives.

The number of reports dealing with agriculture over the last 10 years totals 408.

The instruments of the common agricultural policy (CAP)

The common agricultural policy pursued for almost 20 years by the Community institutions is the result of the implementation of a number of measures in:

- market and price policy,
- socio-structural policy.

The principal instrument of the mar-

ket and price policy is **the common organization of the market (COM)**: all products (93.5% of final production) are covered by regulations on the organization of the market, called basic regulations (only exceptions: sheepmeat, alcohol, potatoes).

These regulations usually include:

— **the Community preference**, protecting the Community market from cheap imports and from fluctuations on the world market; it is achieved by:

(a) import measures, either levies or customs duties (CCT), either simple or with compensatory amounts or duties, sometimes even with the application of a safeguard clause prohibiting imports; the system of levies puts up an automatic protective shield against the sometimes very marked variations in prices on the world market (although the machinery can be reversed if common prices are lower than world prices, levies in these circumstances, as in 1973 and 1974, being imposed on exports to prevent shortages and thus protect European consumers);

(b) export measures allowing the Community access to the world market and dealing with the disadvantages caused by fluctuations on the world market; Community export aids, or refunds, are granted; however, they are not automatic and depend on the Community's trade policy and on the difference between world prices and Community prices;

— **the free movement of goods**, which is guaranteed within the protective shield thanks to the abolition of internal barriers (tariffs and quotas); it is an essential condition for establishing a single market and is accompanied by common prices; the two concepts of free movement and single prices have been threatened by currency fluctuations which have led to the introduction of "compensatory amounts";

— **the financial guarantee**, which is expressed through the European agricultural guidance and guarantee fund (EAGGF) which takes joint and theoretically unlimited financial responsibility (with no ceiling) for all intervention expenditure on the internal market or on export refunds ("guarantee" section of the EAGGF); it also extends to the structural sector, as a proportion of the expenditure incurred by the member states in this area is borne by the Community budget ("guidance" section of the EAGGF), although with a ceiling of 325 million EUA per financial year.

These instruments, which were all designed to achieve the objectives shown above, are not, however, implemented in the same manner or to the same degree. The COMs thus sometimes **differ markedly according to**

products (level of self sufficiency, storage facilities, fluctuation of production from one year to another) and the negotiating powers of the member states, which do not all have the same interest in protecting various sectors. Two other factors come into play: the type of organization previously existing in certain member states and the period when the COM was set up (experience of previous COMs or of a market situation). **The COMs can thus be differentiated according to the degree of financial guarantee they provide:**

(a) the support price which covers approximately 72% of production (cereals, rice, sugar, milk, beef and veal and pigmeat, table wine, certain fruit and vegetables and fishery products); the price guarantee may be permanent (particularly dairy products and above all cereals) through compulsory intervention, or only conditional (particularly pigmeat and fruit and vegetables), that is to say in accordance with previously determined criteria;

(b) supplementary aid to products covering approximately 2.5% of production, applied above all in cases where the rate of self-sufficiency is low (durum wheat, olive oil, oil seeds, tobacco); it is close to the system formerly used in the United Kingdom of deficiency payments;

(c) flat rate amounts of aid per hectare or per quantity produced covering only 0.6% of production, chosen because of the marginal or localized nature of production (cotton seeds, flax and hemp, hops, silk worms, seeds, dehydrated fodder); recently it has been combined with the preceding form of aid for olive oil and durum wheat;

(d) external protection alone, which covers 25% of production and concerns products which are not basic necessities (flowers, wine other than table wine, certain fruit and vegetables) or which are not dependent on the land (eggs and poultry).

The market organization policy, whatever the system chosen, operates primarily through the fixing of common prices (target prices, guide prices, threshold prices, sluice-gate prices, reference prices, intervention prices, basic prices, etc.). Currency fluctuations threaten this system, for they mean that all price levels have to be adjusted by compensatory amounts or representative rates⁽¹⁾.

The other instrument of the common agricultural policy is:

The socio-structural policy: which was initially (in 1964 and from 1966 to 1967) directed towards specific rationalization measures (**individual projects**).

⁽¹⁾ Hence the importance of the European monetary system (EMS), which came into effect on 13 March 1979 (see *Courier* no. 55).

It has also included certain common measures of limited scope (grubbing up of trees, slaughtering of dairy cows, surveys, producer groupings, reorientation of livestock herds, etc.).

Between 1968 and 1972 the Community undertook a comprehensive agricultural reform policy (Directives of April 1972 on the modernization of farms, the cessation of farming and occupational guidance and training; Directive of 1975 on hill farming and farming in less-favoured areas; 1977 Regulation on marketing measures and other measures for producer groupings; 1978 action programme for Mediterranean areas, information, irrigation and afforestation in arid areas).

Achievements and problems of the common agricultural policy

Achievement of objectives of the CAP: after over 15 years of operation, to what extent has the CAP attained its objectives?

Increase in productivity: this has been remarkable and indeed faster than for the economy as a whole (7.6% as against 5.4% during the period 1968-1973, for example), but is partly attributable to the decrease in the agricultural working population (farming, forestry and fishing), which fell, for the Six, from 18 million in 1955 to 9.5 million in 1973. For the Nine, between 1974 and 1976, the decrease was 0.5 million. Thus the agricultural working population (8.5 million in 1976) now represents only 8.2% of the Community's overall working population (for the Six: 18.4% in 1958; 9.2% in 1973; for the Nine: 8.9% in 1974).

The average annual rate of productivity increase has been fairly high (6.3% between 1968 and 1975), and during the decade 1961-71 an overall increase of 88% (as against 66% in industry) was recorded. However, the share of agriculture in overall gross domestic product is declining fast: in 1978 the 8.2% of the working population employed in agriculture produced only 4% of gross domestic product.

Standard of living and incomes of farmers: while there can be no doubt that farmers' incomes, despite year-to-year differences, underwent a net increase during the period 1968-1977, Community averages on macro-economic bases are in fact impossible to draw up—the methodological difficulties are such that any figure is subject to caution. Instead, reference must therefore be made to specific micro-economic data, which reveal extremely wide income variations according to sector, size of farm and the region in which the farm is situated.

Stabilization of markets: thanks to the "regulatory shield" of the COMs (levies, refunds, etc.), and the operation of intervention mechanisms it has been possible to avoid excessive price fluctuations on the domestic market. The monthly prices for common wheat, for example, varied by only 3% in the Community between 1968 and 1974 but by up to 11% on the world market and as much as 13% on the US market.

However, in certain sectors (milk products, beef and veal, certain cereals, sugar, wine and certain fruits and vegetables) increased productivity and the relative inflexibility of consumption can lead to structural surpluses.

Security of supply: supply is practically guaranteed for products required for human consumption (with the exception of oil seeds) at Community level (fairly high self-sufficiency rate, between 80 and 107, for a large number of products: cheese, common wheat, barley, poultry meat, potatoes, milk, eggs, beef and veal, pigmeat, certain fresh vegetables, butter, sugar, rice and certain fruits). Certain member states, however (e.g. Italy for animal products), have very large deficits, with deteriorating trade balances in agricultural products (serious inflationary factor).

Furthermore, the Community is still heavily dependent on external sources for supplies of proteins for stock-rearing, especially for production not dependent on land; it imports 80% of its soya supplies, 50% of its maize and a large proportion of its fish-meal.

Reasonable prices for consumers: the CAP is not a factor of inflation. Farm price support does not automatically have repercussions on the level of food prices to consumers, as these include costs and marketing margins independent of the prices paid to farmers, which represent only one-third of the prices of food to consumers. Moreover, most farm prices (index 210.5 in 1977—base 100 in 1970) have been rising more slowly than food prices and in any case the proportion of household budgets spent on food is declining (now only 26% on average).

Thus, assuming a 10% increase in common farm prices, the impact on the overall consumer expenditure of households would be only 0.6 to 0.7% and producers' own prices (determined by the market) would rise by only 7.6%. Indeed, recent events have given concrete proof of this. When world prices soared in 1974, the rise in food prices was only 10.4% in the Community, but 14.6% in the USA and as much as 29% in Japan.

Expansion of intra and extra-Community agricultural trade: the expansion

in intra-Community trade in foodstuffs is one of the most tangible results of the CAP. Intra-Community imports increased 271% between 1963 and 1973 and 53.8% between 1973 and 1977.

This increase has not been at the expense of world trade: between 1963 and 1973 agricultural imports from third countries more than doubled. In 1977 the Community continued to exercise a major impact on world trade in foodstuffs, irrespective of intra-Community trade: total food imports of the Nine represented 23.8% of world imports, their exports only 12% of world exports. The Community's net trade deficit in foodstuffs was 13 500 million EUA in 1977.

Problems: a policy pursued on such a vast scale and affecting so many—and sometimes divergent—interests, is bound to run into cyclical crises and be the subject of periodical attempts to revise or reform it. It has, however, already undergone several reviews: the Mansholt memorandum in 1968, the Lardinois memorandum in 1973 and the 1974-1975 stocktaking from which a number of observations have been borrowed, brought up to date and reproduced above. The Bremen summit in July 1978 renewed the Commission's brief to take stock of the state of the CAP.

Many argue that the CAP must be changed because it costs too much. The CAP is accused of inflating the Community budget and financing the accumulation of surpluses to the advantage of big producers and without providing any real benefit to small farmers and consumers. Others believe that the cost of the CAP is not excessive and that it represents a sort of insurance premium guaranteeing security of food supplies in the Community. It has even been calculated that the amount of the premium paid by the EAGGF-guarantee section (excluding compensatory amounts) works out at £0.32 per person per week.

Others have attacked the tensions and divergences, and even the discrimination caused by this policy, since it does not cover all products, all countries, all regions and all farmers with the same effectiveness. This is the position adopted by the partisans of the socio-structural policy, which ought gradually to take precedence over the market and price policy and contribute to the reform of European agriculture.

It would indeed seem that the future of the most advanced of the common policies will be determined by the manner in which the above problems are solved. □

Europe tomorrow

The good and the bad cards in Europe's hand

Ten years ago, the European Cultural Foundation launched its vast "Europe 2000" project, the basic theme of which was that Europe had not the slightest idea where it was heading, but it was going there fast. Now André Danzin replies: "unless the people of Europe take care, they are heading blindly for disaster, at breakneck speed".

Europe is "living in a world where the political balance is fragile. It has to submit to it, but with luck, it will keep it fairly comfortable for the next 10 or 15 years. Comfort is an anaesthetic, but if the breathing space is not put to good use then Europe could be politically and economically powerless more or less indefinitely", writes Danzin.

This cannot be ignored. These are not the words of someone irresponsible or uninvolved. André Danzin is the head of the computer research institute IRIA, a member of the Club of Rome and chairman of CERD, the European Research and Development Committee, the 18 "wise men" who advise the EEC Commission on its policy for science and technology. CERD members, who include two Nobel prize-winners, took part in the discussion of the report and it was they who asked for it to be published and for the Commission to take note of it.

The political rise and fall

Recent centuries contain many examples to help us understand the importance of the change Europe must make as a political and military power.

For 400 years, it has been conquering and occupying the planet. It built a vast empire which reached its apparent peak just before World War II. Apart from China, Japan and one or two countries of Asia, where Europe penetrated very little, all the continents have been occupied or exploited by European colonialists.

European expansion

The first phase was essentially Latin, a wave of Spanish and Portuguese who went, with the help of Italian maritime techniques, to the West Indies and South America. It lasted from the end of the 15th to the beginning of the 19th century, when Spain and Portugal lost control of their American possessions

but left behind their languages, their faith, their cultural stamp and a strong ethnic influence. Latin America is the child of Iberia.

The second phase, dominated by France, Great Britain and Holland, ran from the 17th to the early 18th century. The Iberian peninsula no longer ruled the waves and the north-west Europeans, who were more enterprising and more interested in finding new lands to live in, took over. The Caribbean changed hands. The French and the British fought over North America. Trading posts, also bases for colonization, were set up in India and Indonesia. Australia was discovered and called New Holland and France claimed rights over Madagascar.

In North America, the adventure led to the independence of the USA, whose original population from before the conquest virtually disappeared leaving almost only Europeans and the black immigrants brought in by force. The languages of West Europe, its culture, its various forms of Christianity (particularly puritanism), its enterprise, its spirit of invention and its ability to get

Is this another *Decline of the West* more than 50 years after Oswald Spengler wrote his work? Quite the contrary. The author is a man of action and he refuses to entertain embittered or disillusioned views. What he gives us here is hope, with the significant title of *Science and the Renaissance of Europe*.

West Europe is a limited area with a limited number of people. It is short of natural resources and energy supplies and it has a serious food shortage hidden behind its butter mountains. This Europe, that now only occupies a small place in the world, will only count qualitatively in the future. Europe's almost unique asset is the quality of its people, their diversity of culture, their high level of education and their dense communications. Which is why André Danzin does not hesitate to maintain that Europe may be the source of a new civilization based on a heightened capacity for scientific and technological innovation at the service of the Third World and a surge in cultural activity combined with a levelling off of consumption.

The book invites us to a discussion of society, at the time of the European elections. This issue of the *Courier* discusses "the good and the bad cards in Europe's hand"⁽¹⁾ and the next issue will look at a further article, "towards a second European renaissance".

all democratic forms of political power to work contributed to the explosion of the power of a new nation ready to conquer a virgin territory full of promise and ripe for agricultural development, rich in minerals and, ultimately, industrial potential. Their supremacy over Europe once confirmed, the Americans could be considered by Europeans and others as "Europeans made good".

After the apoleonic wars, Europe licked its wounds and plunged into the industrial revolution which was concentrated in the north and north-west of the continent. The expansionist campaigns were forgotten for nearly three-quarters of a century, only to gather momentum, with real force this time, after 1870. Almost all of Africa was conquered and shared out. All the countries of south and south-east Asia, apart from Thailand, became colonies or protectorates. The collapse of the Ottoman Empire in 1918 opened the allies the door to the Middle East and North Africa and, on the eve of World

⁽¹⁾ From *Trente Jours d'Europe*, December 1978.

War II, Italy overran Ethiopia, almost the last independent country of Africa. Australia, Canada and South Africa were side-by-side with the UK in a Commonwealth that spanned all five continents.

European domination was at its peak. The colonial powers, whose home countries covered no more than 1.8 million km², brought more than 50 million km² of overseas possessions, more than one third of the world, into their political systems and under their military control.

Withdrawal

But Europe was divided and World War II closed on a continent in ruins. The USA and the USSR took over the leading roles in the world.

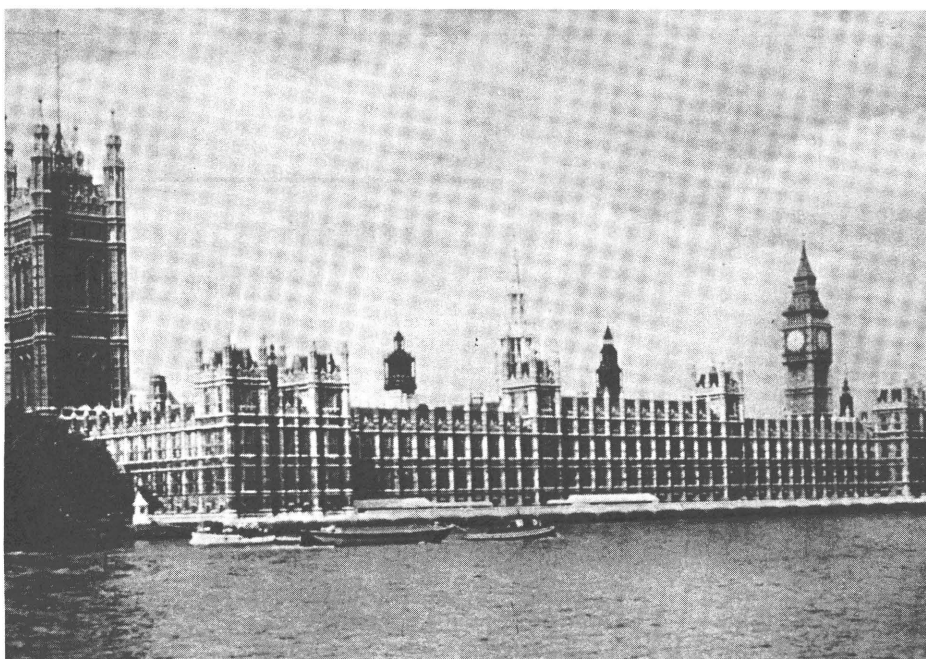
The war had given the dominated peoples a taste of independence and an idea of how to get it. The moral force that said that colonization was a good thing, as it brought civilization and technical progress to people who had none, did an about-turn and world opinion, amplified by the UN, came out in favour of the old colonies being independent. The Bandung conference in 1955 proclaimed the will of the Third World.

So, withdrawal from what remained of the positions reached over four centuries was a certainty. It was an inexorable process, not without its upheavals, that took less than 20 years and ended with the independence of the Portuguese territories of Africa in 1975.

Meanwhile, West Europe had looked up. The freedom of nations to run their own affairs is a self-generating cultural product in line with the ideas of democracy and the responsibility of physical and moral persons that the West considers as essential. And the idea that economic wealth and standards of living are a function of the yield of production and distribution systems, and not of the availability of commodities, also spread. Freed from the burden of its colonies, Europe was able to concentrate on its internal progress and on exports.

On 15 August 1971, without consulting its European partners, the USA took vital currency decisions and reasserted the absolute supremacy of the dollar. Europe failed to react.

In the autumn of 1973, the oil producers agreed to quadruple the price of the fuel that provided 57% of the energy supplies of the EEC. But this did not provoke unity on the new, now dramatically necessary, energy saving targets and the search for new sources of energy. Instead, national egoism ran



Britain's Houses of Parliament: pluralist parliamentary democracy and free elections are common to all EEC countries

riot. The powder barrel of the Middle East was flooded with arms to re-establish a balance.

There is no point in insisting on the weakness of the military positions of West Europe. Its navy no longer controls the Mediterranean and its army and air force depend entirely on American goodwill.

So the events of recent years have shown just how politically weak Europe is.

If it wants to defend its identity, it can only attack with its cultural strength and the competitive ability of its economy.

But people are still not willing to realize this. Most Europeans have no idea of the danger this political weakness puts them in. And their newly independent partners in the developing world are only gradually shaping their own identity, under the burden of economic dependence.

However, Europe's political and military weakness should help the people of the developing countries to see the Europeans as partners devoid of any imperialistic intentions (or powers at least) and as naturally complementary, on a basis of reciprocity.

Demographic weakness

The size of the population in absolute terms and in relation to the rest of

the world, its density in the space available and how it is divided among the various age groups are fundamental data in our understanding of certain economic and social phenomena. In this field, Western Europe is undergoing a complete change in its relations with the rest of the world.

For a long time, West Europe was the great source of manpower. At the end of the Middle Ages it was the most populous place in the world after China and India. Although the density per km² has never reached today's figures, Europe has always been concerned with



Danish Royal Marines officer: equal professional opportunities for men and women in the EEC

finding other territories for its people and this is one of the reasons for its overseas conquests.

The fertility of the Europeans generated considerable currents of migration which supplied the bases for the population of America, South Africa and Australia.

But although part of its population left for other continents, until the 19th century Europe remained a very highly populated area compared to the rest of the world. The trend was reversed in the 19th century. Western Europe's share of the world population gradually decreased until the '50s, and then a sharp decline began.

The reduced birth rate in Europe was offset by a surge in the population of the developing countries as spectacular progress was made with cutting perinatal mortality.

An insignificant place in the world

It is important to consider recent events and, more particularly, those events that can reasonably be predicted for the next 25 years.

Whatever the assumption, Europe's place, as the table (after Maesarovic-Pestel) shows, will be tiny, quantitatively speaking. It will only have a qualitative influence. The most heavily populated member states of the Community, the UK, Germany, Italy and France, each had more than 2% of the world population in 1950. Children born there today will see this figure drop rapidly to less than 0.6% unless the trends observed in recent years are confirmed

and the birth rate drops further. If the population is to be kept at the present level, we need 2.1 children per women. But in northern Europe, in particular, rates of 1.8% or less have been recorded and, if this trend continues, a country like Germany will find itself with less than 0.4% of the world population in 2050 (even if the developing countries make considerable cuts in their birth rates).

The relative demographic decline of northern Europe is not an isolated phenomenon. It can be seen in all the industrially-developed regions and it affects free market and planned economies alike. If the industrialized countries, except Japan, are roughly grouped into three (North America, the Soviet bloc and West Europe), it can be seen that, in the coming years, considerable demographic pressure from three zones (Latin America, south east Asia and the Arab world) will develop along their frontiers.

Geographical fragility

West Europe is a remarkably homogeneous geographical unit from the point of view of its temperate climate (even in the most northerly regions, which are warmed by ocean currents), its rocky coastline, its mountains and its rainfall (there are no extremes) and the ease with which man can cross it, urbanize it, farm it and industrialize it.

All its dimensions suit the farmer, the craftsman and the intellectual. No natural phenomenon is excessive. Distances are short. The longest river, the Rhine, is tiny beside the Amazon, the Mississippi, the Nile, the Yangtze and



Is the dramatic fall in EEC birth-rates due to the selfish preoccupations of a consumer society?

even the Volga. The Alps, with their morainic valleys, are far easier to cross than the Andes or the Himalayas. There is no desert and no jungle. There are no dangerous microbes or hostile animals. Nature and man, many men in fact, have lived side-by-side for centuries and only the flora and fauna that are useful have been tolerated.

This is why Europe has played such a large part in peopling the world and in shaping its civilization. But, because of the changes wrought by new technologies, certain drawbacks, of little import so far, now mean that serious thought and further efforts are required.

A limited area

West Europe is cramped. Its average density is the highest in the world. It is fairly badly off for rich and easily-accessible minerals. Intensive mining has been going on throughout history and the most accessible deposits are exhausted. What goes for gold, tin, diamonds, lead, mercury and coal also goes for more recently developed substances like bauxite. And then sources of fossil fuel are rare or difficult to get at (under the seabed) and the HEP potential is limited.

If Europe wants to mine the raw materials it needs, then it will have to devote more effort than most other big industrialized countries do, work less

Forecasts of demographic trends						
	World population		Population of West Europe		Population of EEC (Nine)	West Europe as % of world
	Low	High	Low	High		
1800	960		200			20.6 %
1850	370		242			17.5 %
1900	1 950		293			15.0 %
1925	2 300		320			13.9 %
1950	2 700		351		215	12.9 %
1975	4 120		404		259	9.8 %
2000	5 800	6 400	440	450	260	7.6 % 7 %
2025	6 800	10 400	460	490		6.7 % 4.7 %
2050	7 100	17 700	465	540		5 % 3 %

economically and use more energy to process low-grade ore.

The countryside is a fragile thing. The shores give onto shallow seas that are closed in or almost closed in. The rivers cross highly urbanized areas and so it is quite wrong for them to be used to carry off waste. The forests have been very little developed.

Certain new technologies (e.g. military research that may have important civil implications) have to be tested in large, empty spaces. So Europe is handicapped here and it is also handicapped because it cannot count on the power of its natural phenomena to recycle harmful waste, the huge rivers that provide unlimited water for cooling and the vast spaces where polluted air does not count.

In Europe, the price of land is an unpleasant economic fact. The proximity of towns means that decisions on sites for chemical complexes, oil refineries and nuclear power stations are delicate. Water for cooling is rare, the pollution of air and rivers has reached intolerable levels and the transport of products on the roads makes the traffic situation even worse. All these things push up overheads in industry and expenditure by the local authorities.

Europe's geophysical and cultural terrain is generally ill-suited to the gigantic proportions of the major industrial units. As cost prices are at present in mass production, this is an extra difficulty to be contended with.

Economic interdependence

With the degree of development of its agriculture, craft and industry and the advantages accruing from its political strength, Europe has been in a generally favourable situation over the past few years and its people have not been prepared for frugality.

Once out of the ruins of World War II (largely thanks to the Marshall Plan), it harnessed its manpower to work for industrial development and again rose to achieve one of the highest levels of consumption of products of all kinds. In the '50s and up to the mid-'60s, the countries of West Europe had no real industrial competition outside the USA, which was itself expanding, and imported products, energy and raw materials could be bought cheaply.

But clouds rapidly appeared on the horizon at the end of the '60s. Inflation and monetary disorder accompanied a break in the growth rates of most industrialized countries. In the autumn of 1973, Europe learnt that it would have to bow to certain suppliers, in

particular of gas and oil and perhaps of phosphates and other raw materials as well. In recent years, Japan, on its own account, and South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore (plus Indonesia and many other newly independent countries), with the help of foreign capital, launched a commercial attack on a wide range of industrial products because of a need to further their own development. Steel, cars, ships, clocks, watches, radios and TVs, electronic components, microprocessors, textiles and so on have all been under fire.

It is obviously impossible to foresee how trading positions are going to develop amidst rapid upheavals of this kind, where none of the partners has achieved its own balance. However, the statistics give an adequate idea of the current degree of economic dependence of the EEC.

Europe the factory

The table on extra-Community trade in 1975 gives the deficits in food products, raw materials, energy and commodities. Coverage varies from 12% to 40%. All the talk of butter mountains and milk lakes has perhaps made Europeans forget their food deficit,

although this is not the most alarming aspect. The shortage of raw materials and energy is far more serious in view of the considerable volumes involved.

In fact, Europe is behaving like a vast factory producing chemicals, manufactures and capital goods (85% of exports) for third parties from whom it buys most of its raw materials and energy and a large percentage of its food (58% of imports).

The inequality of the contributions that the various member states make to extra-Community trade, one of the characteristics of the present situation, does not preclude their common dependence on imported goods, as the table overleaf (same source) shows.

It is clear that Europe must keep its capacity to export manufactures and capital goods, to pay for the imports that are vital to the life of its inhabitants.

It matters little, some say, that this trade is uneven. If there are only marginal differences, let us organize an autarchy. This would be a major error of judgement. International trade is essential to the economic life of the Community. In 1975, general imports into the EEC represented 22.3% of GDP (25.5% in 1974) and the percen-



Textiles, a crisis sector in European industry

tage of world trade was considerable, being 37.6% of the total figure, including 18.2% for intra-Community trade and 19.4% for extra-Community trade. The US share was 12.9% and the USSR share 4.6%. If they were forced to do so, these two countries could live within their own frontiers without any major drawbacks. We in Europe could not.

The importance of research

Whom do we trade with? The geographical structure of extra-Community trade in 1975 is given (in %) in the following table:

Origin/destination	Imports	Exports
Industrialized countries	48	52
Developing countries	44	36
State-trading countries	7	11
Miscellaneous	1	1

Note the relative importance of trade with the developing countries. They are our natural partners as they partly

depend on our technology, our capital goods and our training for their specialists and we depend on them for our raw materials, our energy and our tropical agricultural products. But who can guarantee that this trade will be a long-term affair? Can even a very powerful European country alone control this vital trade when the developing countries tend to be used as pawns in the struggles of the superpowers?

This economic dependence on the stability of trade patterns (which are out of our control) is a fearsome thing. It explains why many Europeans feel that American protection is inevitable and many concessions should be made to it.

Research and development will obviously not provide all the answers, but they can be a factor of progress that will improve the situation or, at least, consolidate various factors of stability. If our industries are competitive and our techniques modern, they will continue to be in demand in the developing countries to whom we do not represent an imperialistic threat.

If technical research is used to get more out of our natural resources (solar energy, processing of low-grade ore, replacement products), to save rare products and find waste-free methods of consumption, it will also help to make West Europe less vulnerable.

The capacity for innovation

In a world where mass production is preponderant, Europe's opportunity is solely a question of the quality it can provide. This is why the ability to innovate is so important.

If a physicist who reached maturity in 1950 looked back, Europe's contribu-

Trends in extra-Community trade, by product (1975, million EUA)(1)

Category of product	Imports	Exports	Trade balance	Rate at which exports cover imports (%)
Total extra-Community	117 357	113 555	- 3 802	97
Food products	14 755	5 855	- 8 900	40
Drinks and tobacco	1 215	1 582	+ 367	130
Raw materials	15 367	2 111	- 13 256	14
Energy products	36 368	4 451	- 31 917	12
Vegetable oils and fats	782	450	- 332	58
Chemicals	5 055	12 843	+ 7 788	254
Manufactures produced from organic matter	17 033	24 824	+ 7 790	146
Transport machinery and equipment	15 635	50 104	+ 34 469	320
Other manufactures	8 213	9 271	+ 1 058	113
Products and transactions	2 934	2 064	- 870	70
Commodities	68 487	14 499	- 54 038	21
Industrial products	45 936	97 042	+ 51 105	211
Total	117 357	113 555	- 3 808	97

(1) 1 EUA = approx. \$1.32 in 1975.

Balance of extra-Community trade, by product (1975, million EUA)

	EUR 9	Germ.	Fr.	It.	Neth.	Bel/Lux	UK	Irel.	Dk
Total Community	- 3 802	+ 9 932	+ 902	- 2 126	- 3 709	- 1 210	- 4 787	- 382	- 617
Food, drink and tobacco	- 8 533	- 2 716	- 325	- 1 441	- 1 031	- 537	- 2 752	- 35	+ 304
Energy products	- 31 917	- 6 417	- 7 723	- 6 283	- 3 130	- 1 679	- 5 733	- 196	- 758
Raw materials	- 13 588	- 3 861	- 2 127	- 2 400	- 1 034	- 1 018	- 2 894	- 54	- 202
Chemicals	+ 7 788	+ 3 415	+ 1 085	+ 711	+ 898	+ 448	+ 1 188	+ 33	+ 10
Transport machinery and equipment	+ 34 469	+ 16 777	+ 5 525	+ 4 294	+ 840	+ 567	+ 6 205	- 95	+ 356
Manufactures	+ 8 849	+ 3 247	+ 2 541	+ 3 285	- 244	+ 1 065	665-		
Products	- 870	- 513	+ 122	- 292	- 8	- 56	- 136	+ 19	+ 1
Commodities	- 54 038	- 12 994	- 10 175	- 10 124	- 5 195	- 3 234	- 11 379	- 285	- 656
Industrial products	+ 51 106	+ 23 439	+ 9 151	+ 8 290	+ 1 494	+ 2 080	+ 6 728	- 116	+ 38

tion to science and technology would have revealed a superiority complex. The laws of classic mechanics, relativity and wave mechanics were discovered in Europe, just as quantum theory was perfected and the main experiments on corpuscular theory were carried out in Europe. West Europe came up with most of the inventions in the fields of electricity, the traction energy, radioelectricity, aeronautics and jet propulsion. The first nuclear explosion was due to the work and the genius of European physicists. And European superiority was also a deciding factor in the chemistry of carbon derivatives, the synthesis of nitrogen fertilizer, the production of aluminium and chlorine, medical aseptic techniques, chemotherapy, vaccination and serotherapy. Great Britain produced antibiotics. The genius of mathematical invention is essentially a European phenomenon.

Theoretical research— a cause of anxiety

It has only taken 25 years to destroy this fine self-confidence. And although Europe is still fairly sure of its inventiveness, it is already uneasy about its ability to translate the results of laboratory research into industrial and commercial products.

Attempt to predict Europe's future chances by looking at theoretical research and the general impression is one of anxiety although there is no lack of up-to-date knowledge. After a difficult period, theoretical research in the USA has taken off again; it has never eased up in the USSR and Japan has now decided to attack. But Europe's means have been decreasing constantly since the late '60s. However, the free movement of people and ideas means that the European scientist never has the impression of being out of things intellectually. So it is impossible to talk of a scientific gap. It remains to be seen whether this comfortable estimate in fact reflects the real situation, in particular since it is not backed up by the fact that Europe is still living on its past, without having felt the effects of cutting down on its scientific effort.

If we leave theoretical research and look further down the chain, at applied research and at development and industrial innovation, the impression varies very much with the specific field.

Power—the ability is there

In this field, the special subjects associated with political or military power, arms, space, aeronautics and nuclear energy, the Community countries are both remarkably well placed because of the quality of European

technicians and, at the same time, in a disquieting situation because of the small extent to which their successes have been exploited economically.

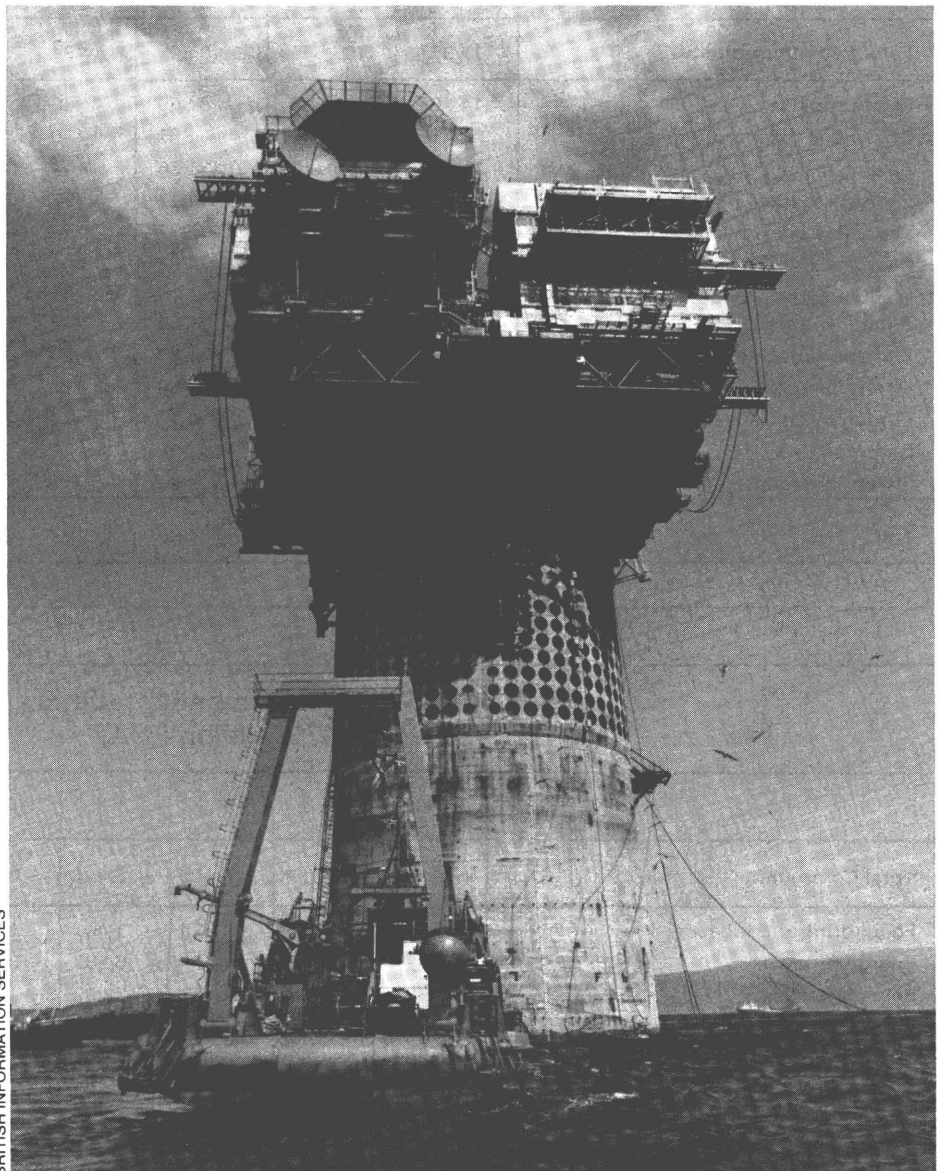
The UK and France have developed advanced arms with no outside help. Their electronic equipment is as good as the Americans'. Concorde is the first commercial supersonic plane and the Symphonie satellite shows the member states' ability to solve problems of spatial telecommunications. Europe is ahead as far as the techniques of using breeder reactors to produce electricity are concerned. But, in spite of all this, Europe still only occupies a very modest place in the world volume of power science.

In commercial aeronautics, European planes are low down on the world list and Concorde has shown just how many obstacles there are to achieving technical superiority in this sensitive field.

As far as quantity (and not quality) of nuclear arms is concerned, Europe's inferiority is well known, as is the fact that it lags behind on conventional arms, in spite of the fact that, for reasons attached to the quality of the products and to political independence, the European conventional arms industry is a major exporter.

Europe is poorly placed in the space race. It has made no significant contributions to the prestigious adventures of manned satellites, moon landings or planet probes.

What guarantee of independence is there with major problems involving satellites, i.e. with telecommunications, data transmission, broadcasting and television, meteorology, teledetection, vehicle tracing and military information? Yet the ability is there, as the success of the contributions to scientific space programmes shows.



BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES

Advanced technology is one of the strongest cards in the Community's hand. This 600 000 ton North Sea oil rig was built by an Anglo-French consortium

Nuclear energy— a clear advance

As far as the production of electricity from nuclear sources is concerned, European technicians have proved their ability, using freedom of design and engineering from traditional sciences and confirming that they are ahead in a number of major fields, such as fast neutrons and breeder reactors. But as well as marked US opposition to an autonomous export policy, there are manifestations of anxiety in the ecology movements.

Europe is probably staking its future on the availability of energy and it would be a good idea to do away with the present internal barriers that reveal a poor understanding of the overall problems to be contended with and the importance of giving assurance on the safety of reactors and the treatment of waste.

Europe's ability to design its own future and cover its own risks will depend, very considerably, on the quality of the effort it puts into producing nuclear-based electricity, on the agreement it gets from people on a proper understanding of the odds, on the size of the investments put into safety precautions and on its willingness to be both involved and heard in the control of the distribution of nuclear products.

The exploration and development of the oceans (collections of nodules, deep drilling, etc.) also belong in this section on power. It is not clear how these will be put to Europe's advantage in the future, in spite of the fact that Europe has been a successful pioneer in this field. During the 21st century, the oceans could well play a similar part in the economy of primary resources to that played by the discovery of new lands in the 16th century, but it will require human means and capital that are manifestly beyond the scope of any member state on its own.

Information science— a bad start

Anything to do with information is important. So it is vital for Europe to be able both to generate the new technologies whereby information can be collected, transmitted and processed and, even more important, to put them to good use for the production of its industries and services. This involves intelligence, intellectual mechanisms and human relations and it is therefore necessary to ensure that its use fits in with deep-seated cultural forces.

In this very complex field, Europe has not got off to a good start as

compared to the USA and Japan is also making its presence felt. With semiconductors, integrated circuits and software Europe is dealing, for the first time for several centuries, with techniques that are not primarily of its own devising.

Care must be taken not to set too much store by statistics, as they do not take certain possible reversions of technical and commercial positions into account. Innovations in this particularly unstable field can, in fact, produce surprises for which the Community can still take the initiative. However, the facts today are eloquent. As far as the distribution of computers is concerned, West Europe is in second place in value, a long way behind the USA. And as far as the commercial penetration for the supply of computers is concerned, there is a large difference between the situation of Europe (which is very much open to American imports) and of Japan (which tends to reserve most of its domestic supplies for national sources).

Microprocessors are small machines, commonly used in whatever figurework is required in trade, industry and accounting, as well as in intelligent automatic mechanisms where they provide the machine with a capacity for memory and logic. They are the result of complex physical processing operations which can be economically mass-produced and of delicate assembly operations for which Asian women are particularly gifted. In the international division of labour currently being effected, Europe's chances seem to be threatened by American and Japanese firms which sub-contract certain final operations to the various countries of south-east Asia that are open to free competition.

Traditional industries— no technological gap

Transforming an innovation into a commercial success is less of a problem in traditional industries.

One example is the car industry, which has adapted very well to the internal demands of the market. The size of European cars, their comfort and their petrol consumption are very much in line with the small distances they have to cover and with the need for energy saving. Such conditions are also found in many other countries, too, so the Community is a major exporter here.

A taste for quality is satisfied by the standard of colour TVs which, although produced later than the American

ones, are far superior to them. The development of safeguards, particularly in the health sector, has boosted the pharmaceuticals industry and certain specialized products such as hearing aids.

The German and Swiss chemical industries dominate in certain fields and Holland is well to the fore in civil electronics. And there are many more examples to show that there is not really a technological gap.

But in the future, the countries of the Community will have to pay more attention to Japan's inventive ability.

The need to be constantly more inventive, particularly with the automatization of mass production, is also of great importance in the textile industry, in plastics processing and in certain special sectors of food and agriculture, where work carried out by conventional means in countries with low labour costs can ruin our industries.

If there were no considerations of political independence to bear in mind, the basic industries (such as cement works, paper factories, sugar factories, oil refineries, chemical plants, plastics factories, artificial textile mills, fertilizer production units and aluminium works) would be better off in regions where there is cheap energy, high-grade ore or a low population density that reduces the risks of pollution. So it is not obvious that they would stay in Europe in an international division of labour that resulted from total freedom of movement of products made on the most economic sites. The only thing that will keep them competitive is innovation to reduce the effect of pollution, use of low-grade ore or saving energy. And this is a battle that is far from being won.

To sum up then, Europe, which has not shown up well in the power field and is lagging behind in information processing, also finds its ability to innovate in traditional industry being undermined. Yet the talent and the know-how of its specialists (who have met all the scientific targets assigned them) are apparently still as strong as they ever were.

The quality of its people

West Europe's almost unique asset is the quality of its people, who have the support of their culture, a combination of history, climate, the measured proportions of natural phenomena and the lack of any easily accessible material wealth of any size. Their culture involves dense communications, intel-

lectual contact and a clash of minds, due to the high density of a highly educated population in a small area. And it is the density, the communication and the education which help preserve the high quality.

West Europe is a cultural crossroads. The Greeks have left their mark on our art and our philosophy. Religion and the settlement of the Jews outside Palestine have given us a Hebrew heritage. We have the Latin influence of Roman law and we have a permanent flow of trade with the Arab world, with all its conflicts and its cooperation. All this has merged with Celtic and Nordic traditions to create *homo occidentalis*.

Internal strength

What typifies Western man most is his action, his participation in evolution and his refusal to give up. The melting pot of ideas and the growth of technology was first situated in the Middle East and in Greece. Then it moved further west and, ultimately, it shifted to north-west Europe. The European, as if motivated by inner strength and rich in economic power, seeks to act and to develop himself in the process. Hence the concepts of the value of work and satisfaction through abundance to which he is so firmly attached today.

For some time, religion was essential to the training of minds. Dechristianization, which started in the age of enlightenment, and the shorter period of religious impregnation in Scandinavia, have not prevented a certain idea of man, inherited from the past and shared by all Europeans, being established.

In this common idea, the notions of dignity, liberty and responsibility of both groups and individuals are very strong. The value of work is deeply entrenched in the popular conscience and the idea of effort is inculcated during childhood. The notion of freedom has progressed constantly, amid chaos, to become an essential value, one of those which justify the gift of life.

West Europe, which has tried all forms of government in its long political history, fundamentally rejects despotism and demands that the citizen be protected by law. This liberty gives free rein to the variety of languages and customs that characterize the checkerboard of regions and nations. Hence the importance attached to the human rights charter, the free movement of people and ideas, respect for religious and political opinions and freedom of expression. In order to protect its freedom of thought,

West Europe invented the idea of the separation of church and state, the opposite of what happened in places where Byzantine influence persisted.

But the European is also a social animal. He knows that success depends on obeying a certain number of rules which make life in a community possible and which provide a certain number of guarantees. He wants justice not to be arbitrary and to be backed up by laws that are common to all and respected by all. He expects to be democratically governed with a respect for rules, sometimes implicit but usually explicit, framed in a constitution. He claims the right to work and the suppression of excessive inequality.

Liberty and reason

The European is deeply involved in the constant, subtle interplay of freedom and reason. Freedom to do what he likes, even unsocial things, or to be a deliberate fraud or libertine. What encourages him to value his hopes for an organized existence also encourages him to respect the civic spirit and gives him a taste for effort and, in certain countries at certain times, for asceticism and puritanism as well. This conflict between freedom and reason finds different expression in north and south. But it is always there. Its brutal and excessive effects are never tolerated for long.

No plan for society could be proposed to the Europeans unless it set some store by the biological forces of growth and the spiritual forces of the civic ideal and allowed considerable leeway for the permanent and painful quest for a balance between social idealism and the right to aggressivity which also tends towards progress or, to put it less optimistically, towards adaptation to the conditions of the environment.

Like all civilizations before ours, Europe has always lived with elitism. The European elite, which has gradually expanded to take in a section of the bourgeoisie and, more recently, certain representatives of the middle classes, had acquired a highly-developed sense of material pleasure due to the abundance of agricultural and industrial goods. It had also learnt to live amidst cultural plenty, in a refined intellectual and artistic atmosphere, surrounded by old stones, beautiful and historic decorations and intellectual luxury. Life was impregnated with sensitive values. Seeing art treasures, sculpture and music, praying in artistically prized churches, walking through towns that were themselves museums and reading the vast literary output, had developed

the aesthetic sense of a growing section of the population. Europe put its art and its culture first and it preserved its diversity. Any plan for Europe must combine these spiritual needs, as a useful force, by extending their pleasures to the greatest number of people.

Europe is manifestly seeking a type of society that will give to all what used to be the preserve of the few. This underlying desire to bring everyone up to the highest level takes many forms. It implies meeting the demands of the unions, it explains why workers want to be involved in management decisions, it partly justifies the desire to overconsume and it results in a refusal to do manual work.

Europe and diversity

Europe dreams of a society where the class war is no more because elitism has disappeared and privileges have been spread to all the people. But there are blocked structures, some excessive inequality and a general failure to grasp the economic and technical constraints barring the way. The European does not understand the society in which he lives. He does not accept the limits, the complexity or the interdependence. He fears social innovation. And this gives rise to disagreement, exacerbated by conflicting ideologies, sustained misunderstanding due to different languages and fanned by the conflicting experience of the different partners, each of whom has usually lost sight of the general interest.

Conflict can be seen as a sign of decadence and a weakening of the forces of cohesion. But it can also be seen as a painful question, a difficult step towards social progress.

West Europe is, finally, characterized by diversity. The old Celtic, Scandinavian, Germanic and Latin cultures thrive to varying extents in different places. The influence of the Greek/Roman, Jewish and Christian worlds varies considerably. Some areas are dominated by protestants and others by catholics, while some have Roman/Germanic law and others common law. Some countries have strong colonial, maritime and continental traditions and others have not. Industrial, commercial and financial specialization varies. The regions are unevenly developed and they have different traditional trading partners.

One of the biggest problems facing the EEC is how to capitalize on this diversity, this collective wealth and, at the same time, develop the idea that a European identity really exists as something more than a simple association of economic interests. □

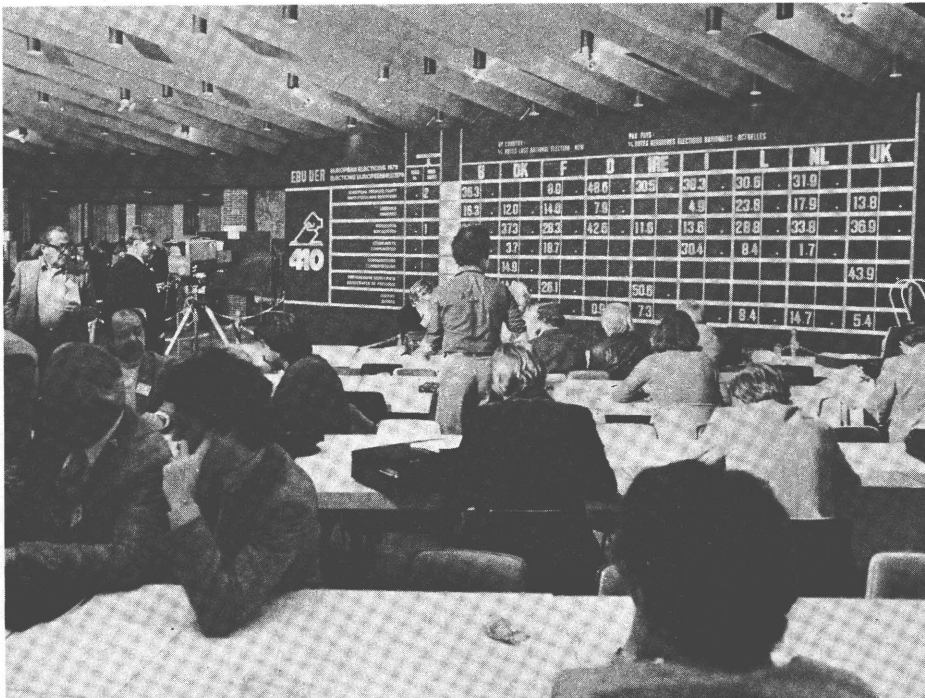
NEGOTIATIONS

The last session of the ACP-EEC ministerial conference on the renewal of the Lomé Convention was held in Brussels on 25 and 26 June. The meetings ended early in the morning on the 27th. The next issue of the *Courier* will give a detailed account of what happened.

A new European Parliament

In June 110 million Europeans went to the polls to elect the first ever directly elected European Parliament. The event was a milestone in the history of the European continent and the European Community. The new Parliament will meet in July when its 410 mem-

bers will begin five years of deliberations on all aspects of the EEC's policies, from economic union and agriculture, to trade, social policy and cooperation with the Third World. The results of the election, and the new personalities in the Parliament begin after page XIX.



The first results come in at the European Commission on 10 June 1979

SENEGAL



President Senghor

President Senghor of Senegal blamed the industrialized countries for the failure of development cooperation during an official visit to the EEC Commission in mid-June.

After talks with Commission president Roy Jenkins and other commissioners, President Senghor, in a press conference at the Brussels International Press Centre, said he was disappointed with the results of the various international conferences (such as the North-South dialogue and UNCTAD) between the industrialized countries and the Third World. These meetings had "turned sour" and the present situation was "getting worse", he said.

Even more than in colonial times, "it is the developing countries who are aiding the developed countries, instead of the other way round", President Senghor felt. This was due to trade imbalances and unequal terms of trade—which, he said, he had "been denouncing for 15 years"—through which the industrialized countries maintained a dominant position over the Third World suppliers of raw materials. The World Bank and Third World experts put the annual deterioration in the terms of trade at from 2.5 to 10%, he added.

President Senghor also considered it "intolerable" that the industrialized countries had only given 0.31% of their GNP to the Third World despite their commitment in 1971 to a UN target of 1.0%. The failure of development cooperation was not, as the industrialized countries would have it, the fault of the developing countries, but due to

Also in the yellow pages

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

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GENERAL INFORMATION

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EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

- XIX-XXII. European elections
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CID

- XXV. Business opportunities

"the national egoisms of the developed countries" (an expression coined by the French daily *Le Monde*), President Senghor said.

"The West has lost its Christianity and the gods of the new, 21st century civilization which is being foisted onto the whole world are material wealth and comfort... This is the uncomforta-

ble truth about Euro-America", and the Third World could not accept an economic system which kept the developing countries aside from progress, President Senghor said. He nonetheless thought the Lomé Convention was still the most positive approach to cooperation between Europe and the ACP countries. □

project programmes by expedited procedure.

Grant: 5 000 000 EUA
4th EDF

Mali

Seed protection and harvest conservation scheme—phase II.

Special loan: 1 040 000 EUA
4th EDF

This project constitutes the second phase of a seed protection and crop conservation scheme, the main emphasis of which this time is on the production of powder and liquid insecticides required by Malian agriculture.

The initial phase, financed by third EDF monies, enabled mass publicity to be launched to popularize the use of crop conservation and seed treatment products.

The aim of the project is to set up and run a workshop with an annual production capacity of approximately 600 t of powder insecticide and 2.5 million litres of liquid insecticide.

Gambia

Buniadu Albreda-Kuntair road.

Grant: 3 961 000 EUA
4th EDF

The project provides for the upgrading of the existing Buniadu-Albreda-Kuntair Road (56 km) through the improvement of the existing earth road into a secondary standard gravel road. The execution of this work is necessary in order to improve the conditions of transport on the Buniadu-Albreda stretch and to render the section between Albreda and Kuntair passable. At present a great part of this second section is not used by any vehicle due to its very poor condition.

The main aim of the project is to open up an agricultural area, thereby linking production areas and groups of villages with the existing main road and river network, enabling crops to be transported in a safer and more economical way to the buying centres and to the wharf of Albreda. Communications with Kerewan, the administrative headquarter of the region, will also be facilitated.

Burundi

Kayanza-Ngoze road.

Grant: 7 500 000 EUA
4th EDF

This project provides for the improvement and asphaltting of the present earth road between Kayanza and Ngozi (31 km) linking the province of Ngozi, the main coffee producing area, with the north-south highway and the capital of the country.

The replacement of the existing road by an asphalted road which is passable throughout the year will promote the marketing of coffee and consolidate supplies of food from other areas of the country to the population; it will also facilitate access by the population

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

EDF

Following the favourable opinion given by the EDF committee, the Commission took the following financing decisions under the 4th EDF in May and June:

Netherlands Antilles

Construction of a hotel school.

Grant: 3 500 000 EUA
4th EDF

The aim of the project is to build a hotel school on Aruba, one of the six islands which make up the Netherlands Antilles.

The school, with a small hotel annex consisting of fifty rooms, will be built to cater for approximately 250 pupils. It will offer training to three levels of education.

The cost of the project is estimated at Ant. f 9 053 000, or 3 887 000 EUA (1 EUA = Ant. f 2.329). The EDF contribution will be limited to 3 500 000 EUA, the remainder being covered by the government.

The aim of the operation is to provide the hotel trade with adequately trained staff so as to attract a growing number of tourists and thus contribute to the prosperity of Aruba.

Caribbean region (CARICOM)

University of the West Indies.

Grant: 3 000 000 EUA
4th EDF

The project provides for a range of training, building and equipment items for the science-based subjects, to which UWI is giving high priority. The overall theme of the project is the improvement of the use of the region's natural resources, with particular emphasis on agronomy, engineering and science.

Some general support items are equally included. Most items of the project would serve both the teaching of undergraduates, and research and applied studies at the postgraduate level.

The project will assist UWI, a strong and internationally reputed institution,

to improve the quality of its training and research, in order to make better use of its existing capacity. The project will thus help to improve the region's ability to use its own natural resources for its development.

Zaire

Drinking water supply for the suburbs of Kinshasa.

Special loan: 4 850 000 EUA
4th EDF

The aim of the project is to improve the living conditions of a population of some 350 000 inhabitants by constructing both a mains link between the N'Djili purification plant and the Makala reservoir and secondary and tertiary networks in the three suburbs of Selembao, Bumbu and Masina.

The main results are expected to arise from the higher standards of living and health in the districts and better reception structures for the families leaving the town to settle in the suburbs.

Fiji, Tonga and Western Samoa

University of South Pacific, agricultural and marine resources programme.

Grant: 3 200 000 EUA
4th EDF

The objective of the project is to establish a suitable infrastructure for the University of the South Pacific (USP) to permit the undertaking of various study programmes in the fields of agriculture, rural development and marine resources, and to reinforce regional educational facilities to the benefit of the peoples of the region. Programmes are designed to provide information which will be of direct economic application in the region, and which will simultaneously expand the basis for diplomate, undergraduate and postgraduate education. There are three components centred respectively on Fiji, Tonga and Western Samoa:

- Development of Marine Resources Centre, Fiji
- Rural Development Centre, Tonga
- Applied agricultural research programme, Western Samoa.

All ACP states and Overseas Countries and Territories

Overall authorization for the commitment for the financing of annual micro-

to the administrative and commercial centres of Kayanza and Ngozi and help stimulate the economic activity of this highly populated area.

Zaire

Musenge-Biruwe road.
Grant: 19 000 000 EUA
4th EDF

This project is a continuation of the Kisangani-Bukavu highway, for which the Community has already committed 14 000 000 EUA (for the Penetungu-Lubutu section, in July 1978). It provides a road that can be used throughout the year, linking the eastern frontier area of the Kivu province, which is relatively densely populated, with the river port of Kisangani and, therefore, with the country's transport networks. As things stand, the traffic between Kisangani and Bukavu has to use a detour that is 820 km longer than the direct route via Musenge-Biruwe would be.

Together with other road investments, this project will lead to a sharp drop in transport costs, which should stimulate the development of the Kivu-eastern region (which is now more or less cut off from the rest of the country).

Cameroon

Geotechnical studies for the realignment of the Eseka-Maloumé railway.
Grant: 1 555 000 EUA
4th EDF

The results of the project will complete the data the OCFT (the Transcameroon Railway Board) needs to draw up its technical dossier on the realignment of the Edéa-Maloumé section.

This will be the last section of the Douala-Yaoundé railway to be realigned, work on the Douala-Edéa stretch being carried out at the moment and the Maloumé-Yaoundé stretch having been completed in April 1978.

Congo, Gabon, Central African Empire

Realignment of the Congo-Ocean Railway (CFCO).
Supplementary financing. (Regional project.)
Grant: 3 700 000 EUA
4th EDF

This project concerns supplementary financing for the realignment of the Congo-Ocean Railway (CFCO).

The purpose of the CFCO project is to modernize approx. a hundred kilometres of the existing railway line, between Tchitondi and Loubomo, which is an important link in the transport system serving the Congo and its immediate neighbours, Gabon and the Central African Empire.

Besides the Community, the partners cofinancing the project are: Congo itself, France, Canada, the World Bank, the Kuwaiti and Saudi Funds, the ABEDIA and the ADB.

Senegal

Master plan for data processing.
Grant: 250 000 EUA
3rd EDF

The Organization and Methods Bureau (BOM) has decided to devise a coherent master plan for data processing that will ensure maximum returns and avoid a considerable amount of expenditure.

If BOM is to carry out this task, it must be provided with a small group of highly qualified and experienced specialists. The EDF has been asked for technical assistance, with a view to forming a team with various BOM leaders to devise the master plan and train local staff.

Senegal

Trade promotion programme.
Grant:
3rd EDF: 65 000 EUA
4th EDF: 725 000 EUA

The three general aims are to:
— diversify and intensify the patterns of trade;
— implement a selective import policy;
— promote exports.

There are plans to introduce four types of measure to help products penetrate external markets. They involve:
— taxation and customs;
— developing transport;
— financing exports;
— creating posts of commercial attaché.

Madagascar

Trade promotion programme.
Grant: 1 435 000 EUA
4th EDF

The aim of the programme is to encourage the development of Madagascar's external trade by contributing to the growth and diversification of production, by providing extension services for it and by stimulating exports to regional and international markets.

The programme will also mean that the country can be developed in a better balanced manner, by encouraging a fairer geographical distribution of economic activity.

Sierra Leone, Liberia, Gambia

Assistance to the Union Telecommunications and Postal Training Institute for the Mano River Union. (Regional project.)
Grant: 1 500 000 EUA
4th EDF

The Mano River Union has recently established a Union Telecommunications and Postal Training Institute, and plans are in progress for the construction of the required buildings, including halls of residence.

The institute will train, retrain, and upgrade skills of local technical personnel employed, or to be employed, by the different telecommunication and postal agencies of Sierra Leone and Liberia. Some participants from the Gambia are also expected to enroll at the institute.

As part of this programme the EDF is requested to provide funds for the recruitment of four advisers, as well as finance the purchase of furniture, tools and equipment, books and teaching aids, vehicles and the provision of fellowships.

Lesotho

Fixing an amount for the financing of a multiannual (1976-1980) training programme.
Grant: 3 531 000 EUA
4th EDF

The aim of this project is to contribute to the technical and professional development of Lesotho by providing technical assistance, in-service training, local courses and a comprehensive award scheme in Lesotho, Africa and Europe.

It helps Lesotho achieve its main manpower targets by training Basotho personnel who will localize posts currently being held by expatriates while, at the same time, strengthening government structures.

Comoros

Pilot project for soil protection and improvement in the Nioumakélé peninsula (Anjouan).
Grant: 650 000 EUA

The project requires technical assistance/extension services for three years, service buildings, a supply of equipment (vehicles, hand tools, means of production) and coverage of the cost of implementation.

The aim is to get the peasant farmers to make a voluntary contribution to the job of protecting the soil they till, with the aim of gradually introducing more intensive growing techniques later on, both in and around the area of the pilot project and over a much wider region. The ultimate aim is to help solve the food problems of the Nioumakélé peninsula.

Belize

Radio Belize rural broadcasting.
Special loan: 420 000 EUA

The objective of the project is to assist the Belize government to improve the transmissions of the national broadcasting system. Radio

Belize would be in a position to cover nearly the whole territory of Belize in sufficient quality of reception, the present situation being highly unsatisfactory. The project includes supply of VHF/FM transmission equipment to cover a 55 km range around Belize City, transmitters, rebroadcasting equipment for medium wave AM transmission to the rest of the country and studio equipment.

St. Vincent (Caribbean)

St. Vincent sanitary organization. Improvement project.

Grant: 810 000 EUA

The purpose of the present project is twofold:

to undertake urgent construction works at the Kingstown General Hospital to enable the institution to play a more effective role as the referral centre;

to establish a model regional health centre by providing new accommodation to provide the north and north-east region of the island with both preventive and curative health care. Moreover, this centre will provide resources, supervision and coordination to the district clinics within its region.

Ivory Coast

Technical assistance to the Ivory Coast foreign trade centre.

Grant: 300 000 EUA

The assistance will underpin the three basic objectives underlying the Ivory Coast's development strategy, as set out in the 1976-80 five-year plan, and summarized as follows:

- continuation of rapid growth;
- increasingly active participation of nationals in economic activity;
- increased well-being, notably through achievement of the people's social objectives.

Zambia

Mpika urban water supply.

Special loan: 2 020 000 EUA

4th EDF

As well as improving and extending the distribution system, the project will increase the supply capacity to cater for domestic, industrial and other needs up to the year 1991. It is estimated that by that date the population will have increased to about 22 000.

The works will comprise a new water intake from a river, a treatment plant, a pump house, 7 km of rising main, 3 km of balancing main to link two existing reservoirs, and roughly 7 km of new reticulation.

Ivory Coast

Development of village farms in the Kan valley.

Special loan: 3 640 000 EUA

4th EDF

The Kan valley scheme has a number of aims:

— to keep the active farming population of the region at the same level in absolute terms;

— to step up earnings;

— to help maintain this region's share of national value-added;

— to help make Ivory Coast self-sufficient in food;

— to bring processing and service points as close as possible to village communities.

Zambia

Cattle development area project.

Grant: 1 937 000 EUA

4th EDF

The project envisages the development of better animal husbandry methods in two areas within Zambia termed Cattle Development Areas (CDAs).

To this end existing extension and veterinary services will be reinforced and improved, with active farmer involvement. The number of cattle dips and watering points will be increased and demonstration areas will be established within the CDAs.

Zambia

Palabana Dairy Training Institute.

Grant: 1 230 000 EUA

4th EDF

The main purpose of the Palabana Dairy Training Institute project is the establishing of effective, practically orientated educational facilities for dairy training in Zambia. If Zambia is to continue the policy of providing milk to a wide spectrum of the population, both rural and urban, and reduce imports of milk and milk products, a substantial expansion in dairying must rapidly take place.

Thus the ultimate aim of the project will be an increase in national milk production and augmentation of farmer incomes.

Botswana and Zambia

Nata-Kazungula road (first section). (Regional project.)

Grant: 10 000 000 EUA

4th EDF

The project concerns the bituminization of a section of 180 km of the gravel road from Nata to Kazungula (total length: 300 km). This road is the only direct road link between Zambia and the densely populated south-eastern region of Botswana.

The objective of the project is to provide an all-weather link between the road networks of Botswana and Zambia and to facilitate the regional co-operation of the two countries.

Guyana

East bank Berbice road.

Grant: 3 526 000 EUA

4th EDF

The project provides for the construction of a bituminized road along the east bank of the Berbice river from Sisters to Sans Souci (22 km):

The road will facilitate the transport of people and goods between New Amsterdam and the settlements on the east bank of the Berbice river. Once this all-weather road is in existence, the agricultural potential of the project area will be revived and developed because of the easy, quick and constant access to the New Amsterdam market.

The new road and the revival of agricultural activities will stop the migration of rural people still living in the project area to the urban agglomeration of New Amsterdam.

Cameroon

Mineral prospecting in south-west Cameroon.

Grant: 1 246 000 EUA

4th EDF

The aim of the project is to assess the mineral potential of the soil and sub-soil in this south-western part of Cameroon. Preliminary work has revealed favourable geological conditions.

The project's overall objective is to develop the south-west as part of Cameroon's general mining development programme.

Madagascar

Establishment of a national higher management training centre.

Grant: 1 830 000 EUA

4th EDF

With a view to providing additional training for Madagascar's higher management staff and ensuring that they are all nationals, it is proposed to set up a national higher management training centre.

It will offer training in the form of short seminars. Initially, the help of international experts, to train their local opposite numbers, will be vital. All managers in state-controlled firms will have to attend courses at the centre.

Cape Verde

Exceptional aid.

Grant: 1 200 000 EUA

4th EDF

This aid has been granted because of the drought affecting the entire archipelago and causing a considerable drop in food crop yields.

Fiji, Western Samoa, Tonga

Containers for the regional shipping line "Pacific Forum Line Ltd". (Regional project.)

Special loan: 400 000 EUA

By providing 86 suitably insulated containers for use within the region, the project will maximize the benefit to be derived from regional shipping services in a specialized area.

The project will make a material contribution to the development of export in the member countries, by providing a modern and efficient system of transportation for goods requiring a specialized temperature control system. It will also ensure that part of the growing import of frozen goods to the islands will take place on own ships to controlled rates.

Chad

Rural extension training centre at Dougui.

Grant: 310 000 EUA

The aim of this project is to lay the foundations for an extension service to meet the requirements of rural development in the Sahelian region of Chad. The project is to establish in this region the prerequisites for launching an extension work programme to meet the specific needs of Sahelian farmers; the development of rural structures in this vast northern region of the country would thus be able to catch up with that of the southern regions.

Falkland Islands

Equipping the theatre block of the King Edward Memorial Hospital.

Special loan: 21 000 EUA

Further equipment for the theatre block should enable the medical staff on the spot to carry out certain surgical operations (notably general and gynaecological surgery) which have up to now been carried out in Argentina, and consequently reduce the resulting expense.

All ACP countries and OCT

Financing of the delegations in the ACP countries and the OCT in 1977 — Supplementary financing.

Grant: 184 886.46 EUA

Solomon Islands

Line of credit to the Development Bank of Solomon Islands (DBSI).

Special loan: 780 000 EUA

The DBSI is a fully government owned parastatal development bank, established for assisting economic and social development of the Solomon Islands, with particular emphasis:

— on promoting the participation of Solomon Islanders in that economic development;

— on rural development;

— on stimulating processing and industrial activities which might be expected to strengthen the economic independence of Solomon Islands.

SUGAR PRICES

Negotiations: + 1.5%

The negotiations between the Community and the ACP countries on the guaranteed price offered by the EEC for approximately 1.2 million tonnes of ACP sugar were concluded on 27 June. The Commission, on behalf of the Community, offered the same increase as the EEC agricultural Council gave the week before to Community producers of sugar, namely 1.5%.

The ACP countries accepted this in principle although the final texts still have to be drawn up and signed at a later date by ACP ambassadors.

Under the agreement the guaranteed price for raw sugar will rise from 27.81 EUA per 100 kilos to 28.23 EUA. White sugar prices will rise from 34.49 EUA per 100 kilos to 34.99 EUA. □

UPPER VOLTA

Tambao railway meeting

A meeting of the financial backers of the Tambao railway (linking the manganese mine at Tambao, Upper Volta to Abidjan, Ivory Coast) in which the mining partners of SOMITAME took part, was held in Paris on 20 June to study a scheme to relaunch the project on a new basis as well as examining the terms of reference provided by an economic study of the Nine.

This meeting follows on the visit in May by Mr Mahamoud, Minister of Public Works and Transport of Upper Volta, to the European Commission. The aim of his visit was to inform the Commission of Upper Volta's willingness to relaunch the project on a more economic basis. □

RUM

Duty free quota

The Community Council has passed a regulation whereby a duty free quota has been opened for rum, arack and

tafia from the ACP states, under the no. 7 protocol annexed to the Lomé Convention, from July 1979 to February 1980.

Despite an opinion to the contrary from the European Commission, the Council decided to keep the system of breaking down the quota into one part for the United Kingdom and the other for the other member states.

The contents of the regulation are as follows:

— the volume of the eight month quota is 117 404 hectolitres of pure alcohol;

— the first tranche, of 81 789 hl of pure alcohol, will go for consumption in the United Kingdom;

— the second tranche, 35 615 hl of pure alcohol, will be divided among the other member states as follows: Germany 22 332 hl, Benelux 4 543, France 4 238, Denmark 2 446, Ireland 1 777 and Italy 280.

At the same time, the Council opened a similar quota, for the same period, for rum from the overseas territories and countries.

This covers 52 996 hectolitres of pure alcohol, of which 50 100 is for Germany, 2 783 for the Benelux countries, 71 for the United Kingdom, 27 for Ireland and 5 each for France, Italy and Denmark. □

LESOTHO

Maseru airport funds

A meeting was held in Brussels on 18 June between representatives of the Lesotho government and representatives of aid organizations interested in financing the construction of a new airport at Maseru.

The initial study for the airport was financed by the Abu Dhabi Fund. The work is estimated to cost 30 million units of account.

The new airport will reduce Lesotho's dependence on South Africa and enable direct air links to be established on a regular basis with Mozambique, Zambia, Botswana and Swaziland. The new airport will be capable of dealing with large aircraft—medium range jets.

Attending the 18 June meeting were representatives of the African Development Bank (who were coordinating the meeting), the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa, the Kuwait Fund, Saudi Fund, and the OPEC Special Fund. Also attending the meeting were representatives of the European Commission.

The EEC has already earmarked 3 million EUA to support the project (Lomé Convention aid for Lesotho). The Arab Funds have yet to confirm how much they can contribute. □

JAMAICA

Exceptional aid

The European Commission has decided to grant Jamaica 275 000 EUA of exceptional aid to help flood victims.

Floods on 25-26 April affected 40 000 people in the western part of Jamaica. EEC aid will be used to provide relief supplies (tents, mattresses, blankets) as well as seeds and fertilizers for short term rehabilitation.

Far more serious floods reoccurred on 14 June in the same area. Part of the aid will be used to aid the new victims and there may be a demand from Jamaica for more aid. □

SUDAN/UGANDA

Exceptional aid

The Commission has agreed aid amounting to 274 000 EUA for 20 000 Ugandan refugees in various parts of southern Sudan.

The aid is to be provided as exceptional aid under the Lomé Convention and is in response to a joint request for funds from the Sudanese government and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). The aid will finance an assistance programme over a period of three months and will cover health, hygiene, transport and small types of equipment. □

EIB

Global loan for industrial development in Kenya

The European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term finance institution, has agreed to lend 5 million units of account(1) to assist medium and small-scale industrial projects in Kenya.

The funds are being provided in the form of a global loan to the Development Finance Company of Kenya Ltd. (DFCK) which will be on-lent, in agreement with the EIB, to help finance appropriate ventures throughout the country.

The loan has been granted under the Lomé Convention for a term of 11 years at an interest rate of 6.3%, after deduction of a 3% interest subsidy drawn from the Community's European Development Fund.

The Development Finance Company of Kenya was set up in 1963: shareholders are the state-owned Industrial and Commercial Development Corporation (ICDC) and three development agencies of Community member countries: the Commonwealth Development Corporation (CDC) of the United Kingdom, the Deutsche Entwicklungsgesellschaft (DEG) and the Nederlandse Financieringsmaatschappij voor Ontwikkelingslanden N.V. (FMO).

The EIB provided a first global loan for 2 million EUA in October 1976: this was used to help finance industrial projects in the chemicals, food and beverages and textiles sectors which are expected to provide about 1 350 jobs.

First EIB loan in Barbados will help to finance industrial and tourism development

The European Investment Bank has granted a loan for 2.5 million units of account(2) to help finance small and medium-sized industrial and tourism ventures in Barbados.

The funds are being provided in the form of a global loan to the Barbados Development Bank (BDB); they will be on-lent for appropriate ventures chosen in agreement with the EIB.

The loan—the EIB's first operation in Barbados—has been granted under the terms of the Lomé Convention for a term of 12 years at an interest rate of 7.40%, after deduction of a 3% interest subsidy drawn from the Community's European Development Fund.

BDB specialises in long-term finance for industry and tourism development and also, in certain cases, takes shareholdings in the companies it lends to. It was founded in 1969 and by March last year had provided the equivalent of 10.2 million EUA for a total of about 460 ventures.

The EIB loan will help the Barbados Development Bank expand its lending operations in the coming years, in particular for manufacturing firms which through their exports should help to diversify the country's economy.

This is the 14th global loan granted by the EIB under the Lomé Convention to help development banks in the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) states to expand their work of financing small and medium-sized ventures.

Loan for textiles mill in Cameroon

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention the European Investment Bank, long-term financing institution of the European Community, has granted a loan for 2.5 million units of account(3) towards the construction of a terry towelling mill in the industrial area at Douala in Cameroon. The loan carries

a term of 10 years and bears interest at 6.30%, after deduction of a 3-point interest subsidy, financed from the resources of the European Development Fund.

The borrower is Société Textile du Cameroun pour le Linge de Maison (SOLICAM), which is receiving technical assistance from the French TEXUNION company. The project involves construction of a terry towelling mill of some 850 tonnes per annum capacity, representing some 2.8 million metres of woven fabric and made-up articles, for sale exclusively on the Cameroon market and in CACEU countries (Central African Customs and Economic Union).

The mill will help to exploit the potential of what is for Cameroon a key raw material, cotton, and will probably create more than 200 jobs. The overall investment cost has been estimated at around 8.7 million EUA, one of the other sources of funds being the French Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique.

Annual meeting of the board of governors of the European Investment Bank

The board of governors of the European Investment Bank, composed of the finance ministers of the nine member states of the European Community, met in Luxembourg on 18 June under the chairmanship of Mr Hans Matthöfer (Germany).

The main item on the agenda was the Bank's annual report and balance sheet for 1978, which shows that finance provided for investment in industry, energy and infrastructure in the Community rose last year to 1 966.5 million units of account — 40% up on 1977 (1 401.3 million) and more than 80% up on the 1976 total.

Development finance outside the Community

Last year saw steady progress in financing activities in the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries which have signed the Lomé Convention with the Community. A fresh expansion of lending began under development finance arrangements drawn up between the Community and countries in the Mediterranean region.

Of the total amount provided—221.7 million EUA—the vast majority (173.9 million EUA) was lent from the Bank's own resources, in most cases with 2 or 3 point interest subsidies paid by the

(1) 1 EUA = 9.92 Kenya Shillings.

(2) 1 EUA = BDS Dollars 2.632.

(3) 1 EUA = approximately 290.5 CFA francs.

Community; 47.8 million was provided in various forms of soft loans or risk capital operations, financed from budgetary funds made available by the Member States and the Community and managed on their behalf by the EIB.

A total of 30 financing operations worth 132.4 million EUA were carried out in 14 African and two Pacific countries and in the Caribbean: in most of these countries the EIB was operating for the first time.

The finance was provided principally for industrial development, either for individual projects or via global loans to intermediary financing institutions, and to help develop energy resources.

In the Mediterranean area, loans went to Portugal (35 million EUA for various industrial projects), Greece (20 million EUA in a global loan), Yugoslavia (25 million EUA for constructing sections of the Trans-Yugoslavia highway), Turkey (6.3 million for a paper mill) and Lebanon (3 million EUA for a power station extension). □

SUGAR

Guyanese ambassador Samuel Insanally took his turn at pushing for a better ACP sugar deal with the Community at the last ACP-EEC ambassadors meeting, in the Bahamas.

Starting with the question of procedures, he pointed out that the sugar price negotiations had once again started at the last minute. This was due to internal EEC difficulties—ACP sugar is priced within the Community sugar price range, which had not been settled—and the ACP side, while recognizing these difficulties, wanted it recorded that they were not to blame for the delay, Mr Insanally said.

More importantly, "for the last two years, we have been denied the right conferred on us by the protocol to truly negotiate for a price", the ambassador said. As a result, "the ACP are now receiving a price for their sugar which has in no way kept pace with inflation, the prices of manufactured goods, and which, indeed, has fallen behind the increase in the sugar price received by EEC suppliers."

Calling for a better deal for the 1980s, Mr Insanally hoped the EEC would not use the low world market price as a reason for not paying "a proper price" for ACP sugar under contract to Europe. The EEC sugar surplus was, again, not of the ACPs' doing, and the ACP countries "have never accepted that there must be automatic equality between the ACP guaranteed (cif) price and the unilaterally defined lowest intervention price for EEC sugar", as this would leave no room for negotiation.

"Innumerable ingenious measures" had been implemented "to effectively reduce the ACP sugar price in relation

to EEC prices", Mr Insanally claimed. He mentioned storage levies, regionalization and quality premiums, the increasing cost of ocean freight, the non-application of the principle of retroactivity and the effect of a freeze in EEC intervention prices on the guaranteed commercial supplement which ACP suppliers have been receiving. While the guaranteed price for most ACP sugar had risen by 9% between the start of the sugar protocol and last year, the price for EEC suppliers had risen 16.5%, the ambassador pointed out. "Moreover, while the guaranteed price has scarcely increased at all in recent years, prices for manufactured goods exported from developed countries have continued to increase enormously".

The difference between the prices ACP suppliers obtained in the EEC and world market prices was not due to increases paid by the Community, so much as to the fall in world prices, which in turn was due largely to the EEC surplus, Mr Insanally stressed. "Finally, I would wish to emphasize once again the importance of sugar to the economies of the ACP sugar exporting states. The erosion in the real value of sugar prices has been, and continues to be, a matter of deep concern to us", he said. □

ACP EMBASSIES

Ghana's ambassador

Ghana's new ambassador to Brussels has just presented his credentials to the Presidents of the EEC Council and Commission. Mr Jacob Botwe Wilmot is no stranger to the Community scene, having been ambassador ad interim to Brussels in 1970-75 and taken an active part in the Lomé Convention negotiations.

He qualified in philosophy (London) and law (Legon) before being called to

the bar in Ghana. He joined the civil service in 1959 as assistant secretary to the Ministry of the Interior and held the same post at the Department of Foreign Affairs before going to Ghana's High Commission in Lagos as first secretary and head of chancery from 1961 to 1963. He then returned to the Ministry for Foreign Affairs as assistant secretary and director ad interim of the Eastern European division.

In 1964, he went to his country's permanent mission to the UN to be first secretary then adviser on economic affairs. He went back to Ghana in 1968, where he was head of the department of economic relations at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs until 1970, when he was appointed to Brussels.

In 1975, he again returned to Ghana, this time as principal secretary at the Ministry for Economic Planning and authorizing officer of the EDF.

Mr Wilmot, a family man with three children, is 45. □

ST VINCENT

300 000 EUA

The European Community is to grant 300 000 European Units of Account (East Caribbean Dollars 1 086 900) in emergency aid to the Caribbean island of St Vincent, following the new eruption of the Soufrière volcano, which began on April 13.

The aid will be in the form of immediate local purchases of food and emergency bedding for evacuees from the volcanic zone. Since April 13 there have been over 20 eruptions and the population of the area, around 22 000 people (nearly a quarter of the island's total population) have been moved to the south of the island. There 62 emergency centres (mainly schools) have been opened to them for temporary accommodation. □

Ambassador Wilmo presenting his credentials to Commission President, Roy Jenkins



J.J. DEBAIZE — CEE

UGANDA

The EEC aid convoy starts rolling again



Lorries wait by the roadside to take Community aid to Uganda

On 21 May(1) a team of EEC Commission officials visited Kampala to prepare for the implementation of an aid programme for Uganda.

Starting point

— The Community attitude to Uganda under the former regime was essentially reserved and pragmatic. Though the relations founded on the Lomé Convention were maintained, the dossiers that were prepared were seldom followed up by commitments.

— As a result commitments under an indicative financial and technical cooperation programme of over 73 million EUA amounted to only just over 5%, the bulk of the money being earmarked for a training programme and project studies. Uganda also received Stabex transfers on two occasions—in 1976 and 1977—involving a total of 5.4 mil-

lion EUA. Outside the framework of the Lomé Convention certain food aid supplies were scheduled for 1977 and 1978 but only 500 tonnes of milk powder was actually delivered, through the intermediary of CARITAS.

— Anxious as it is to assist in the country's economic recovery and meet the population's most urgent requirements, the Community can draw on an impressive range of means:

- major financial resources are available,
- dossiers have been prepared,
- the Commission delegation is on the spot, ready to act, and can count on the support of the delegations in neighbouring countries.

A three-phase plan

— The first phase—currently under way—consists of humanitarian emergency operations. With the 300 000 EUA granted by the Commission on 23 April as exceptional aid it has already been possible to buy and deliver 35 tonnes of corned beef, 12 tonnes of dried fish, medical supplies and lorries.

In addition, 200 tonnes of butteroil have been sent from Mombasa. Further food deliveries, comprising 100 tonnes of milk powder and 400 tonnes of cereals, are to follow. Lastly, the Commission has contacted the member states for the purpose of initiating the normal procedures for coordination of emergency aid.

— The second phase is now being prepared and is to be implemented very shortly. It will consist of a number of short-term operations designed to bring living conditions back to normal in the near future.

These operations might involve additional supplies of foodstuffs and pharmaceutical products, repairs to the telecommunications, water and electricity networks, restoration of the transport system, assistance to agricultural cooperatives and provision of technical assistance at all levels.

— The third and last stage will be the resumption and implementation of traditional development projects and financing decisions for several such projects might be taken by the end of the year. □

(1) At its June meeting the EDF Committee voted 18 500 000 EUA for Uganda.

St Vincent, although planning to accede to the Lomé Convention after independence (later this year) is at present a West Indies associated state on the list of non-independent overseas countries and territories.

It therefore is entitled to receive emergency aid under article 950 of the EEC Commission budget, rather than the Lomé Convention, which covers Community aid for disaster victims in developing and other countries. □

STABEX

On 23 May, 16 financing agreements were signed in Brussels with 13 ACP states under the heading of export earnings stabilization for 1978. This first instalment involves a total of 118.6 million EUA. Further requests are still being examined.

Over two-thirds of these transfers are the result of a fall in production

With the exception of three products (iron ore, sisal and pyrethrum) the export earnings from which were affected by the adverse economic situation, this first Stabex instalment for 1978 has

compensated for losses caused by unfavourable natural circumstances, such as the drought which had serious consequences for groundnut crops in several countries in the Sahel region.

Transfers to 12 recipient countries (in the category of the poorest ACP states) take the form of grants. Only Senegal is required to help replenish the system's resources.

Four countries (Gambia, Mauritania, Senegal and Tonga) obtained, in July 1978, advances totalling 27.67 million EUA, which will be deducted from the final transfers.

Since 1975 transfers under the Stabex system have amounted to 270 million EUA

This first instalment for 1978, on top of the Stabex operations for the first three years (1975, 1976 and 1977), brings transfers to a total of nearly 270 million EUA, the overall Stabex appropriation being 380 million EUA.

Since the system came into operation, 31 ACP states have received transfers, 22 of them in the form of grants (for a total of 160 million EUA).

Stabex transfers have been made in respect of 21 products or subproducts in most cases to offset a drop in production caused by natural circumstances (57% of the total amounts invol-

ved). Compensation for falls in export earnings due to the economic situation—43% of the amounts involved—has concerned only a small number of products (wood, sisal, hides and skins, cotton and iron ore).

Transfers to Gabon and Mali for 1975

The Commission took the following decisions in May:

— to transfer 6.7 million EUA to Gabon on account of the fall in that country's earnings from exports of wood in 1975;
— to make an additional transfer of 496 000 EUA to Mali, following a statistical adjustment.

These two applications were not made until 1977, in other words outside the time limit, which meant that the Commission was unable to consider them. However, following a good offices procedure, the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers, meeting on 22 March 1979, expressed the view that, allowing for the difficulties in starting up the system, these late applications could be examined as an exceptional measure.

An identical solution was adopted by the EEC Council for four late applications presented on behalf of three overseas territories (Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and Gilbert Islands), which resulted in four transfer decisions involving a total of 2 169 609 EUA.

Transfer to Sudan for 1977

The Commission has also decided to transfer 968 825 EUA to Sudan on account of the fall in that country's earnings from exports of groundnuts in 1977. This decision follows consultations as provided for in the Convention for cases where the fall in earnings from exports to all destinations is smaller than the fall in exports to the Community only.

Total transfers for 1977 now amount to 32.44 million EUA. □

Stabex transfers for 1978 — first instalment

Recipient ACP state	Product	Amount in EUA
Cape Verde	Bananas	429 500
Gambia	Groundnuts, shelled or not	2 488 664
Mali	Groundnuts, shelled or not	3 893 256
Mauritania	Iron ore	33 394 848
Rwanda	Pyrethrum	608 802
Western Samoa	Cocoa	780 625
Senegal	Groundnut oil	49 882 295
Senegal	Groundnut oilcake	15 224 094
Tanzania	Raw sisal	5 472 645
Togo	Coffee	946 290
Tonga	Bananas	244 919
Upper Volta	Cotton, not carded or combed	2 340 590
Upper Volta	Groundnuts, shelled or not	2 890 160
The Comoros	Copra	39 253
The Comoros	Cloves	180 299
Tuvalu	Copra	48 771
	Total	118 865 011

TRAINING

Planning human resources

A first seminar on planning human resources and training within development policy opened in Brussels on 11 June. It was organized by the EEC Commission development directorate for the benefit of senior French-speaking officials from Lomé Convention countries who are responsible for manpower planning in their national governments.

The Commission had the assistance of IFCAD, the development cadres training institute, with the organization and the seminar was intended to make the human resources planners aware in the widest sense, of what the problems

of education and training involved and how to use their resources better. Special attention was paid to the coordination of education, training and employment and to planning ACP cadre training with a view to making the very best of EDF-financed programmes and projects.

The seminar was one of the regional training schemes aimed, as the ACP/EEC Council stressed, at developing the training of cadres, particularly in the ACP governments and civil services.

Senior officials from Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, the CAE, the Comores, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Chad, Togo and Zaire attended this meeting.

A similar seminar for English-speaking ACP officials also in Brussels, is scheduled for 1-19 October 1979. □

ZAIRE/ZAMBIA

Benguela Railway

A meeting to discuss rehabilitation of the Lobito Route which is vital for two ACP states, Zambia and Zaire, was held in Brussels from 12 to 13th June 1979, with the support of the European Commission.

The meeting was attended by Ministerial delegations from Angola, Zaire and Zambia, and representatives of multilateral and bilateral financing institutions.

The three ministers of transport underlined the extremely high priority attached to the project, and considered an urgent implementation to be essential. The capacity offered by this route being a necessity in addition to that available on other routes.

During the meeting a number of delegations were able to indicate their readiness to contribute to the financing of the project. This response has enabled the proposal of an indicative financing plan for a first group of investments, mainly for rolling stock and spare parts. There were further delegations who indicated their interest in this project, without being able to specify their possible participation at the present time. These delegations will indicate their position later.

Proposals for an indicative financing plan have thus been established for investments amounting to 21.4 m EUA which will allow a rapid balancing of capacities along the route resulting in a maintainable overall capacity for international traffic of 70 000 tonnes per month. Further consultations will take place to secure the finance for group II investments amounting to 41.59 m EUA which would raise capacity of the route to 96 000 tonnes per month for international traffic.

In order to ensure a rapid follow up on these achievements, a restricted meeting of donors contributing to the group I investments will be organised in the near future to finalize the financing plan and to exchange any further information requested.

A general meeting will be organized in Brussels on 2nd October 1979 to review the implementation of group I investments and to coordinate further finance for the project. The Commission will coordinate the follow-up for this project. □

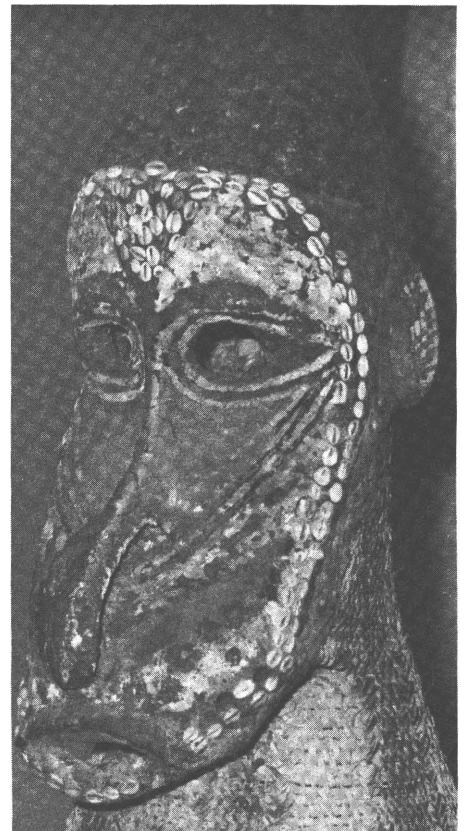
PAPUA-NEW GUINEA

Art exhibition at ACP House

Art from Papua-New Guinea was on display at an exhibition at ACP House in May. It was organized by Georgia Bernard (Jamaica), head of the ACP secretariat cultural division, with the help of the Papua-New Guinea mission in Brussels. Mr William Dihm, Papua-New Guinea's chargé d'affaires in Brussels, and Mrs Dihm were there, as were many ACP and European figures.

Other visitors to this, the first event of its kind to be held in ACP House, included Michel Anchouey, President of the ACP Ministerial Council, Martin Rekangalt, Gabon's ambassador to Brussels, Jamaican ambassador Donald Rainford, R. Ferrier (Suriname), the President of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors and Guyana's ambassador to Brussels, Samuel Insanally.

Mrs E.B. Mathe, the Botswanan ambassador, was also present, as was



Papua-New Guinea mask

Maurice Foley, deputy director-general at the EEC Commission development directorate, and Mrs Foley.

Many objects, dance masks, sculptures and so on were on display and the public was able to see that this country's art has very much in common with African art, as they are both essentially representative and mystic. □



From left to right, ambassador Rekangalt (Gabon), Mr Anchouey, current president of the ACP Council, Mr Konaté, ACP secretary-general and Mr Dihm, Papua-New Guinea's chargé d'affaires, with his wife

GENERAL INFORMATION

UNCTAD V

The fifth session of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development was held in Manila on 7 May-3 June 1979

An ambitious agenda

It covered almost the whole field of international economic relations: monetary problems, trade problems, the transfer of resources, the developing countries' debt, the integrated commodities programme, the transfer of technology, maritime transport and the special problems of the least-developed, landlocked and island countries. It was also proposed to analyse the possibility of international support for cooperation between the developing countries.

The developing countries (in a document drawn up at a preparatory meeting in Arusha, Tanzania) and the secretary-general of the Conference (in his introductory report) mentioned these questions in the context of the whole series of structural reforms that were required to bring about the new international economic order.

But although the aims were ambitious, the results of UNCTAD V were modest, in spite of the fact that important decisions were taken on a number of subjects (commodities, transfer of resources, special schemes for the least developed) and the conditions were fixed for later discussion of the points on which agreement was not reached.

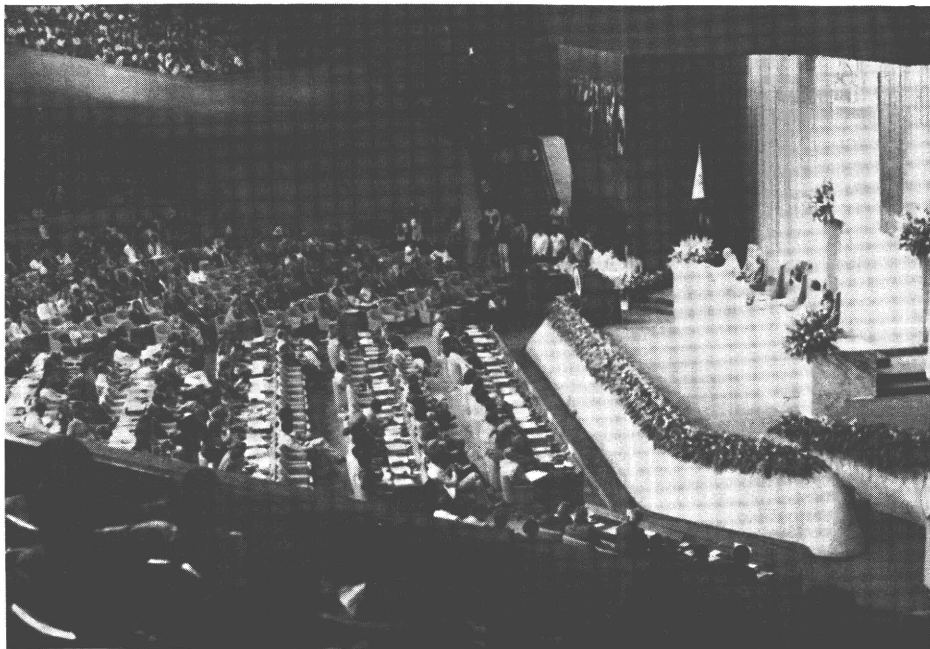
Widely differing views still persist on the management and development of the international economic order

The positions which the various groups of countries (developing, socialist and industrialized) at the Conference have adopted on the general features and system of management of the international economic order and on how it should be restructured are still very much at variance and the Conference did not manage to bring them any closer.

The overall conception, as it emerged from the texts that the group of 77 submitted for negotiation, involved institutional changes (preponderance of UNCTAD over all international economic institutions), a dirigiste attitude to industrial restructuring (negotiation of the transfer of industrial sectors from north to south) and mechanisms to monitor and control the developed countries' policies. All these are difficult to combine with the principles of the market economy that the developed countries reasserted.

Conversely, the developing countries thought that the group B countries' limited suggestions (in particular the proposal to organize global consultations on the interdependent problems of trade, development and monetary and financial affairs), which involved preserving the current economic machinery and making international economic relations more stable and more predictable, were inadequate.

President Marcos of the Philippines opens UNCTAD V



No consensus on the analysis of the international economic situation or on monetary problems

These differences of opinion hampered two particular aspects of the negotiation and no agreement was reached on items 8 and 12 (a) of the agenda.

Point 8 contained a proposal to assess trade and the world economic situation and to look into the sort of policies that would make it easier to change the structures. Developed and developing countries held fundamentally conflicting views on this crucial issue. The particular subject of energy was also debated. The industrialized countries wanted to see this included in the global consultation machinery (the subject of considerable discussion among the 77 themselves) that was to be set up. Although the industrialized countries' proposal was very moderately phrased and went beyond the problem of energy prices, it was badly received and the whole item was referred to the UNCTAD Trade and Development Board.

No agreement was reached on item 12(a), monetary problems, either. The negotiations were mainly concerned with the creation of a new, longer-term facility to finance the structural deficits of the developing countries' balance of payments, with improvements and liberalization of the IMF compensatory financing facility intended to help countries that had made a loss on their exports. It included the creation, within UNCTAD, of an international group of experts to study trends in the monetary situation to make it more favourable to the developing countries.

Although opinions were slightly less divided at the end of the Conference, disagreement persisted as the industrialized countries were anxious to avoid any UNCTAD interference in fields deemed to be the province of the IMF. The group of 77 therefore put forward a motion to set up (among other things) the above-mentioned group of experts and this was adopted by a majority, although most of the industrialized countries were against.

Trade and the adjustment of industrial structures

The industrial countries were the subject of bitter attack here, both in the statements made at the plenary session and in the negotiating group dealing with this point. The developed countries were accused of hindering access to their markets when developing countries got to the stage where their products were internationally competitive, of slowing down the rate at which their industrial structures adjusted and, lastly, of having failed to involve the developing countries adequately or take account of their interests in the multilateral trade negotiations.

The industrialized countries responded by reasserting their attachment to an open system of trade and by pointing out the increasing importance of north-south trade and the speed at which both these had developed in recent years. They also stressed the advantages that the developing countries would get from the multilateral trade negotiations.

There was a consensus on an important resolution on protectionism structural adjustment. It involved running an annual examination of trade and world production structures, possibly resulting in (non-mandatory) recommendations.

The overall assessment of the results of the multilateral trade negotiations for the developing countries was referred to the UNCTAD Trade and Development Board, as were various other items to do with trade in manufactures, in particular the one on trends in the GSP. It was agreed that a date should be fixed for a conference to negotiate restrictive trade practices.

A compromise resolution was obtained on transfers of resources...

The resolution, adopted by a consensus, reaffirmed the target for official development aid (0.7% of GNP) and listed the means of achieving it (e.g. donating 1% of the donor countries' GNP). It also recognized the need for a massive transfer of resources. However, the resolution as a whole contains little in the way of new, binding commitments on the part of the developed countries.

... but the problem of the developing countries' debt was referred to the permanent organs of UNCTAD

No agreement was reached here, in spite of the developing countries dropping one of their main claims (setting up an international debt commission) and the developed countries, with Community encouragement, taking a more open view.

Agreement on the integrated commodities programme

This programme will be run as part of UNCTAD's ordinary activities. Where necessary, it will include processed and semi-processed products.

The invitation to the UNCTAD secretariat to run a study on setting up a complementary facility to compensate for commodity export deficits was, however, adopted by a majority (although most of the industrialized countries were against, bearing in mind the studies being carried out by the IBRD/IMF development committee).

Various countries, including most of the EEC member states, said they intended to contribute to the second part of the common fund. All these statements of intention suggested that it would not be difficult to reach the aims fixed by the negotiating conference.

Technology: Adoption by consensus of resolutions on the four aspects discussed

These were industrial property, boosting the technological capacity of the developing countries, the brain drain and the code of conduct for the transfer of technology. On this last point, the decision to call an international conference was confirmed.

Maritime transport

A resolution was adopted on organizing the application of the code of conduct on maritime conferences which could now take effect since the announcement of the decision to accede to the code by the Community and other states.

However, a resolution on bulk transport was adopted by a majority, against the wishes of group B.

Adoption of specific measures for the least developed countries (LDCs)

The Conference adopted an action programme to start immediately (1979-1981) and a substantial action programme for the eighties.

Although the aim of doubling aid in three years was dropped, the immediate action programme involves mobilizing considerably increased resources for all aid projects in the short term.

The programme for the eighties covers all the main fields—changing structures, social needs, evolutive investments and emergency aid. It lays down the planning mechanism prior to adoption and there will be a special UN conference to deal with this.

Cooperation between developing countries

The Conference agreed to the principle of meetings by developing countries alone to decide their own cooperation.

These will be run within the framework of UNCTAD. Any group of countries which so requests is entitled to do this.

Institutional questions

The Conference adopted a resolution to improve the internal functioning of UNCTAD, within the framework of its present terms of reference. □

ECOWAS

Summit in Dakar

ECOWAS heads of state held a summit in Dakar on 28 and 29 May 1979. They mourned Mauritanian PM Ould Bouceif, who had been killed when his plane crashed into the sea en route for the capital of Senegal.

ECOWAS was set up in 1975. It combines 16 French-, Portuguese-, and English-speaking countries, ranging from Mauritania to Nigeria, and a total of 120 million people. Dakar was a decisive step forward, as it introduced three texts which will now enable the organization to move into its operational phase.

The first agreed covered customs tariffs of the member countries which would be consolidated for a two-year period starting on 28 May. It does not force the countries to cut their import duties, but they do have to agree not to increase them or to introduce any other charges. This is expected to help stimulate the expansion of trade.

The second text authorizes the free movement of nationals of CEAO countries within the ECOWAS community, without visas, for periods of up to three months.

The third text provides for easier contact between economic operators via the extension and improvement of the telecommunications networks.

The next conference of ECOWAS heads of state is scheduled for Lomé (Togo) on 28 May 1980. □

FISHERIES

EEC-Senegal fisheries agreement

On 15 June, Mr Djibril Sene, Senegal's rural development minister, and Mr Bernard-Raymond, French secretary of state for foreign affairs, representing the President of the EEC Council and Commission vice-president Finn Olaf Gundelach signed a two-year fisheries agreement between Senegal and the EEC.

The agreement, which took two years to negotiate, is of particular importance in that it is the first agreement of its kind that the Community has signed with a developing country and it is important that this country is one of the ACP group.

The negotiations were in line with the joint declaration on fisheries annexed to the Lomé Convention, but they also took full account of new factors:

— Since 1976, the Community as such has been responsible for this field and there had to be a harmonious change over from the national agree-

ment which France and Italy had previously signed with Senegal.

— The Community recognized the international practice of the extension of fishing zones up to 200 nautical miles. The maritime country concerned, Senegal in this case, is responsible for the preservation and exploitation of products within this zone.

— When the maritime country is, like Senegal, a developing country, it can ask for suitable compensation for issuing licences to fish in its waters, particularly as regards training for its fishermen and the financing of fisheries projects.

Ship-owners will pay for licences and the Community will pay Senegal a standard amount in return (which will be entirely separate from any sums obtained from the EDF).

— There will be special arrangements for tuna fishing, since this is a highly migratory species found in the high seas and the waters of more than 20 African maritime countries.

A fisheries agreement, with much the same guidelines, is currently being negotiated by Guinea-Bissau and the Community. □

FOOD AID

The Commission is proposing an increase in cereals food aid

The Committee on Food Aid functioning under the Food Aid Convention met in London from 25 June in order to examine among other things whether the volume of aid can be increased as from 1979/80 in the light of the views expressed in this matter during the negotiations which were to have ended in a new international wheat agreement.

The Commission's point of view is that the increase in food aid should not be delayed by continuing to make decisions in this matter conditional on an agreement on the content of a new wheat agreement.

The Commission is therefore proposing that, should the meetings in London not bring about a resumption of the conference of negotiations on cereals, the Food Aid Committee should be able to recommend to donor countries to implement as from 1979 the undertakings to increase the aid which they were prepared to enter into under a new agreement.

Community aid would rise from 1 287 000 to 1 650 000 tonnes, in accordance with the undertakings already entered into by the Council, representing an increase of 28.2%. Such a decision would enable the Community to contribute towards satisfying the growing requirements of many developing

countries where the food situation is particularly worrying.

Other donor countries, the United States and Sweden, intend to increase their commitments, whether or not a new agreement is reached.

The decision to increase the total volume of Community aid would be without prejudice to the way in which provision of this aid would be shared between the Member States and the Community as such.

It will be recalled that the current proportions are 720 500 tonnes for the Community and 566 500 for the Member States. □

EMERGENCY AID

India and Paraguay

On 12 June the Commission decided to allocate 100 000 EUA to the Catholic Relief Service for the supply of basic essentials to disaster victims in India (80 000 EUA) and Paraguay (20 000 EUA).

In the case of India, the aid is for the victims of the cyclone which hit the south-east of the country last month, resulting in one million homeless, 100 000 homes destroyed and plantations laid waste.

In Paraguay catastrophic flooding devastated several regions leaving 30 000 homeless, destroying livestock and crops and causing epidemics.

In both countries the aid will be distributed through the CRS. □

GATT

The Community revises its rules for imports

At its meeting on 8 May 1979, the Council adopted two major new regulations laying down the common rules governing imports from third countries belonging to GATT and from the state-trading countries respectively. The two regulations were published in the official gazette.

The first regulation dealing with imports from GATT countries marks a significant step forward in the development of the common commercial policy, which is an essential component of the common market. The second regulation makes corresponding improvements in the rules for imports from the state-trading countries. □

TEXTILES

The new scheme of generalized preferences for textile products

The Council has approved the main features of a new scheme of generalized preferences for textiles. The new arrangements will take effect from 1980, and will raise the total volume of preferential imports to 115 000 tonnes, an increase in real terms of 30% over the current year, and 70% over 1974, the first year when the GSP was applied by the enlarged Community. In the current economic climate, and given the particularly sensitive state of the textile industry, this, the largest single improvement in the GSP for textile products ever effected, shows the importance the Community attaches to encouraging exports from the developing countries.

The Commission's aim in putting forward changes for the textiles scheme in October 1978 was twofold; it wanted both to bring the scheme into line with the system of quantitative import controls set up when the MFA was renewed at the beginning of 1978, and to honour the commitments undertaken in the course of negotiating the bilateral agreements with supplier countries. Since there were now adequate quantitative controls on imports to prevent disruption of its markets, the Community decided to offer more generous tariff concessions. More specifically, the new scheme is designed not only to allow a greater volume of duty-free imports from developing countries, but also to ensure that each beneficiary country, particularly those which are least competitive, gets a fair share of preferential trade, and can therefore enjoy a real rise in export earnings.

The new scheme which the Council has approved achieves the bulk of these aims, and includes the following features:

— A new product classification by category, corresponding to the system introduced on a quantitative basis for the MFA agreements.

— A fairly considerable increase in the permissible volume of preferential imports from 88 000 tonnes in 1979 to 115 000 tonnes in 1980, comprising 106 000 tonnes for MFA products and 9 000 tonnes for non-MFA products. The increase in the total volume amounts to 30.7% in real terms, and the corresponding increase in value over the 1979 maximum for preferential imports (428 million EUA) is put at 120 million EUA.

— Individual shares are given to each beneficiary country which agreed to quantitative control of its exports under the MFA, so that these countries really get the benefit of tariff exemption. (For non-MFA products the old system of global ceilings plus maxim-

um country amounts of 30% to 50%, depending on the product, has been retained, and there are no individual shares).

— The shares are allocated to beneficiary countries in such a way as to ensure more favourable treatment for the least developed: individual shares are allocated as a percentage of the total volume of imports for 1977, in inverse proportion to a country's competitiveness and stage of development.

— The least developed countries, which appear on the list drawn up by the UN and include Haiti and Bangladesh, enjoy the same total exemption from duty as they do for their other industrial products.

Until the new scheme takes effect in 1980, the Council has decided to continue the present arrangements, due to expire on 30 June, up to the end of 1979, with a 5% rise in ceilings across the board. □

REFUGEES

Panafrican conference in Arusha

At the request of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees the Commission decided to contribute the sum of \$ 40 000 towards the cost of organizing the Panafrican Conference on Refugees, being sponsored principally by the Organization of African Unity and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (7-17 May 1979 in Arusha).

The Commission is participating in the work of the Conference as a token of the Community's intention to continue its action to help refugees in Africa.

Schemes under way or completed since 1976 have involved a total of \$ 78 million. They have varied in accordance with the particular needs of the refugees, for example:

— **food aid** in the form of cereals for dairy products to the value of some \$ 50 million for refugees from Zimbabwe, Angola, Zaire, Namibia, etc.;

— **bursaries and education:** under the Lomé Convention \$ 100 000 in bursaries has been granted to refugee students from Namibia and \$ 675 000 to the United Nations Institute for Namibia in Lusaka. In addition, \$ 4.7 million has been allocated for the expansion of the University of Botswana and Swaziland, which is taking in an increasing number of refugee students;

— **emergency aid:** some of this has gone direct to certain host countries (Botswana — \$ 95 000; Comoros — \$ 3 500 000; Congo — \$ 335 000) for refugee settlement schemes but the bulk of the funds (\$ 18 million) has been allocated to the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees to help refugees in the Horn of Africa and in southern and central Africa. □

THAILAND

Financial and technical aid

Under the 1979 programme of financial and technical aid for non-associated developing countries, the Commission recently took the first decision, which concerns Thailand.

The decision involves the approval of a grant of 600 000 EUA for a project to develop the cultivation in north-east Thailand of a variety of leguminous plant known as winged beans, which are similar to soya.

The cultivation of this crop should help to diversify agricultural production in this region, where it will constitute a valuable alternative to manioc, which is impoverishing the land and presenting awkward export problems.

Thailand also received Community aid in 1977 (1 million EUA) and in 1978 (2.7 million EUA). □

MAGHREB-MASHRAQ

On 11 May, the Commission took decisions to finance the following schemes from the resources provided by the Maghreb and Mashraq cooperation agreements. A favourable opinion had already been obtained from the Mediterranean ad hoc working party on 27 April 1979.

Jordan (A grant of 987 000 EUA)

Aid for the Royal Scientific Society.

Syria (A grant of 4 000 000 EUA)

Aid for the intermediate institutes of technology in Damascus and Alep. □

OAU

Two targets for Africa: political freedom and economic development — Edem Kodjo

OAU — Brussels celebrated the Organization of African Unity's 16th anniversary on 23 May at a reception given by local group leaders Kodjovi Dagadou, the Togolese ambassador, and Messaoud Ait Chaalal, the Algerian ambassador. Many European and ACP personalities were at the ceremony, held in the hall of ACP House. They included Michel Anchouey, Gabonese minister and president of the ACP Ministerial Council, Percival Patterson, Jamaica's deputy PM and foreign minister, and Edem Kodjo, OAU secretary-general, who was on an official visit to the Belgian capital.

In his speech, ambassador Dagadou welcomed the mounting interest in the problem of freedom in Africa, "a vital complement to economic cooperation between the ACP countries and the industrialized world". This cooperation should, the ambassador said, be the first step towards a different international order. The opening of an official OAU office in Brussels soon, along the lines of the one in Geneva, would emphasize the importance that the pan-African organization wished to give to the problems of decolonization and to economic cooperation with the Community.

Edem Kodjo returned to the political and economic problems that are the OAU's main concerns at a press conference on 24 May.

On the theme, "**Liberate Africa completely**", Mr Kodjo dealt with the "burning" political problems of the continent today, stressing that it was up to the OAU to liberate Africa completely. He then explained how the organization stood on Rhodesia, Namibia and South Africa.

As far as **Rhodesia** was concerned, the OAU rejected the internal settlements, so-called, which the OAU had denounced. Under the internal settlement, the Rhodesian constitution provided "a structure for inequality and iniquity", Mr Kodjo said.

This constitution, that was there for anyone to read, was no more than a disguise to mask racialist, colonialist power and it did nothing to change the fundamentals. Mr Kodjo gave some striking examples. There were ministries (defence, police, etc.) reserved for the white minority, there was a ban on African ministers appointing their own assistants and, above all, there was a European veto that could stand in the way of even the smallest reforms.

He again asserted the position of the OAU, which was continuing to support the Patriotic Front. And, he went on, "South Africa's support for the Muzorewa regime and the contradictory name of Zimbabwe-Rhodesia" were "proof that the country would never get the recognition of the independent states belonging to the OAU".

Mr Kodjo said he had put the EEC countries on their guard against any attempt to recognize the country and that his organization would take steps to ensure that the Commonwealth summit in Lusaka took a firm stand to prevent the UK's new Conservative government from recognizing the Muzorewa regime.

On the subject of **Namibia**, Mr Kodjo said that the OAU rejected all solutions other than the UN plan that the liberation movements, the OAU itself and the countries of the West had accepted.

On **South Africa**, Mr Kodjo said, no progress had been made towards abolishing racialism. The OAU would be continuing the fight against apartheid and it was encouraging to see the

UN demanding stronger sanctions against the South African government, in line with the OAU's wishes.

Economic development was the OAU's second main concern, the secretary-general said. So, as well as its purely political activities, the OAU was also working to promote economic progress in Africa.

Since the Monrovia conference, the OAU had rejected current economic theory on the different stages of development and was now planning for "development geared to man and his essential needs".

Before leaving Brussels, where he had talks with Belgian foreign minister Henri Simonet, Mr Kodjo stressed the practical nature of the Lomé Convention (now being renegotiated) as compared to UNCTAD, where good intentions were "often a substitute for action". □ L.P.

EIB

First EIB loans under the financial protocol between the European Community and Tunisia

Two loans totalling 24 million EUA (about 13.25 m. Tunisian dinars) have been granted in Tunisia by the European Investment Bank, the long-term financing institution of the European Community, for harnessing water resources in the north of the country and fostering the development of small and medium-scale industrial and tourism ventures.

The loans are the first to be made available under the financial protocol to the cooperation agreement, concluded between the Community and Tunisia in April 1976, which came into effect on 1 November 1978.

The protocol provides for 41 million EUA to be lent up to the end of October 1981 from the EIB's own resources (i.e. mainly from the proceeds of the Bank's borrowings on capital markets). The loans will generally carry a 2% interest subsidy financed from Community budgetary resources.

In addition to loans from the EIB's own resources, the protocol makes provision for 39 million EUA in the form of "soft" loans (term: 40 years, rate of interest: 1%) financed from Community budgetary resources and managed, in part, by the EIB as agent for the Community.

There is also provision for grant aid totalling 15 million EUA drawn from budgetary funds; part of this is to cover the interest subsidies on EIB loans.

The first two loans have been earmarked for projects accorded top priority by the Tunisian government in the country's development programme.

Northern water project

A loan for 12 million EUA has been made available for a period of 20 years to go towards infrastructure work entailed in carrying out a vast scheme for harnessing northern Tunisia's water resources.

The project involves construction of a dam at Sidi Salem with a reservoir storage capacity of 550 million m³. The initial aim is to irrigate 11 000 ha and to rehabilitate a further 6 000 ha of farmland to bring about an appreciable increase in crop yields and cut back the country's food deficit; the consequent upturn in agricultural activity should give rise to some 5 700 full-time jobs on the land.

These developments will also help to meet the growing demand for water for household and industrial consumption and, at the same time, power a 25 MW hydroelectric plant.

The bank's funds will go to financing relocation of 27 km of the railway line between Tunis and Algiers, east of Beja, which will be submerged as a result of flooding the basin created by the dam. The total cost of this relocation work, which is being cofinanced by the World Bank, is expected to run to 33 million EUA.

Smaller businesses

The second loan, also for 12 million EUA, has been granted to the Economic Development Bank of Tunisia (Banque de Développement Economique de Tunisie — BDET) for a period of 12 years.

This is a "global loan", from which funds will be drawn down by the BDET to finance small and medium-scale ventures in industry and tourism selected in agreement with the EIB.

The BDET was founded 20 years ago and is 60% owned by Tunisian shareholders (the government and public institutions: 39%); the other shareholders include the International Finance Corporation, Deutsche Entwicklungsgesellschaft, Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (France) and certain Arab financial institutions.

BDET plays an important part in furthering the government's policy of fostering development of industry and tourism and stimulating private sector investment.

The global loan formula has been employed by the EIB in most of the member countries of the European Community, as well as in Greece, Turkey, Jordan and, under the Lomé Convention, in several African and Caribbean countries. It is a flexible form of financing which gives the bank the opportunity to deploy funds in support of small and medium-scale capital projects.

First EIB loan in Syria goes to improving road network

The European Investment Bank, has lent 19.2 million units of account(1) to

help finance construction of a 530 km road in Syria linking Aleppo in the west of the country with Tall Kojak on the Iraqi-Syrian border.

This is the bank's first operation in Syria under the financial protocol to the cooperation agreement concluded between the Community and Syria on 19 January 1977 and which came into effect on 1 November 1978.

The protocol provides for financing totalling 60 million EUA, comprising 34 million EUA in loans from the bank's own resources (generally carrying a 2% interest subsidy financed from the Community budget), 7 million EUA in loans on special conditions (carrying a term of 40 years, including a 10-year grace period, and a rate of 1%, drawn from Community budgetary funds and managed partly by the EIB on the Community's behalf), and 19 million EUA in grants from budgetary resources, part of this grant aid being earmarked for interest subsidies on EIB loans.

The funds are being made available in two ways:

— a loan for 15.7 million EUA from the EIB's own resources (i.e. mainly from the proceeds of the bank's borrowings on capital markets); this carries a term of 20 years and a rate of 7.60%, taking into account a 2% interest subsidy paid from Community budgetary resources;

— a loan for 3.5 million EUA on special conditions (term: 40 years; rate: 1%), drawn from budgetary funds and managed by the EIB as agent for the Community.

The total cost of the project is put at almost 130 million EUA. In addition to the Syrian government and EIB support, the project is being backed by the World Bank and the Saudi Fund.

The sections of the road which the EIB is helping to finance are Tall Tamir-Qamishly (87 km) and Qamishly-Tall A'alo (65 km), which are scheduled for construction between 1979 and 1982.

The new road will improve links between the farming region in the east and the main population centres in the west of the country. It will make a substantial contribution towards reducing transport costs.

In giving a boost to agriculture and development of the region's other resources, the project will help to cut back on Syria's import bill and promote exports. It will also complete the new highway connection between Syria and Iraq.

EIB loan for construction of ore-handling harbour in Morocco

The European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term finance institution, has lent 40 million units of account(2) to help finance

construction of an ore-handling port at Jorf Lasfar between Casablanca and Safi in Morocco.

This is the bank's first operation in Morocco mounted under the terms of the financial protocol to the cooperation agreement concluded between the Community and the Kingdom of Morocco on 27 April 1976 and effective as from 1 November 1978.

The protocol provides for financing totalling 130 million EUA, comprising 56 million EUA in loans from the bank's own resources, 58 million EUA in loans on special conditions (carrying a term of 40 years, including a 10-year grace period, and a rate of 1%, drawn from Community budgetary funds and managed partly by the EIB on the Community's behalf) and 16 million EUA in grants from budgetary resources.

The funds are being made available to Morocco in two ways:

- a loan for 26 million EUA from the EIB's own resources (i.e. mainly from the proceeds of the bank's borrowings on capital markets); this carries a term of 20 years and a rate of 9.85%;
- a loan on special conditions for 14 million EUA drawn from Community budgetary funds (term: 40 years; rate: 1%) and managed by the EIB as agent for the Community.

The harbour at Jorf Lasfar is being constructed to cater for the projected upturn in phosphate rock exports, Morocco being the world's leading exporter of this particular ore. The country exported 18 million tonnes of phosphate rock in 1978 via Casablanca and Safi, but both of these ports will soon be unable to cope with the likely volume of future ore exports.

Handling capacity at Jorf Lasfar will be 10 million tonnes p.a. at first, rising to 40 million tonnes; installations have been designed to accommodate large ore carriers. The harbour should be commissioned by end-1983. Fixed investment costs are put at some 220 million EUA, which the Saudi Fund is also helping to finance.

EIB lends 69 million EUA for investment projects in Greece

The European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term financing institution, has granted five loans totalling the equivalent of 69 million units of account⁽³⁾ for irrigation, forestry and hydro-electric projects and industrial investment in Greece.

The loans were made under the second financial protocol to the association agreement between Greece and the Community, which entered into force on 1 August 1978.

Under the terms of the protocol the Community is to provide up to 280 million EUA as follows: 225 million EUA of loans from the EIB's own resources

(mainly the proceeds of borrowings on the capital markets); 10 million EUA of special loans (30 years at 2.5%) granted by the bank under mandate from the Community and using Community budgetary resources; 45 million EUA grant aid, also from budgetary resources, part of which will go to pay 3% interest subsidies on up to 150 million EUA of EIB loans.

Below are details of the new loans:

— **irrigation:** 25 million EUA for 20 years at a rate of 6.6% taking into account the 3% subsidies, granted to the state to help finance works (costing a total of 66.5 million EUA) involving the irrigation of 7 500 ha on the northern coast of western Crete.

The expected improvement in agricultural production (citrus fruits especially) should create conditions for more jobs and appreciably increase farmers' incomes in one of the most economically sensitive regions of Greece.

— **hydro-electric power stations:** 18 million EUA for 15 years at a rate of 6.05%, net of interest subsidy, granted to the Greek Public Power Corporation, which is responsible for electricity generation and transmission in Greece, towards construction of the Sfikia and Assomata power stations (combined capacity of 423 MW) on the lower Aliakmon in southern Macedonia. The total investment cost is put at 210 million EUA. The two power stations should come on-stream in the second half of 1982.

— **forestry resources:** 10 million EUA for 15 years at a rate of 6.05%, net of interest subsidy, granted to the State to allow more intensive exploitation of forestry resources in eastern Macedonia and in Thrace, between the Bulgarian frontier and the Aegean.

The investment (total cost 23.7 million EUA) is concerned in particular with improvement and extension of the network of forest roads so as to raise the annual timber yield by almost 230 000 m³; this will create between 1 000 and 1 300 seasonal jobs and increase the earnings of forestry workers.

— **industrial zones:** 6 million EUA for 15 years at a rate of 6.05%, net of interest subsidy, granted to the Hellenic Industrial Development Bank (ETBA), whose entire capital is held by the state, towards financing construction and infrastructure necessary for smaller and medium-scale ventures in the industrial areas of Salonika and Heraklion. The total cost of the construction programme is 14.9 million EUA.

— **small and medium-sized industrial ventures:** 10 million EUA for 13 years at a rate of 8.95%, in the form of a global loan to the Hellenic Industrial Development Bank towards financing small and medium-sized industrial ventures throughout Greece.

With a view to Greece's entry into the Community in 1981, the purpose of this global loan is to help diversification of industrial production and the moder-

nisation of small and medium-sized enterprises, improving productivity and encouraging decentralization.

This global loan is the second to be made by the EIB in Greece in recent months: in December 1978, 20 million EUA was lent to the National Investment Bank for Industrial Development (NIBID).

Since the entry into force of the second financial protocol, the EIB has therefore granted loans for a total of 89 million EUA for investment projects in Greece.

EIB loans for redeveloping the commercial port of Valletta, Malta

The European Investment Bank, the European Community's long-term financing institution, has agreed to lend the equivalent of 8 million units of account⁽⁴⁾ for expanding the commercial port at Valletta, Malta.

Funds will be made available under two separate operations:

- a loan for 3 million EUA from the EIB's own resources (chiefly the proceeds of its borrowings on capital markets) for 10 years and with a 2% interest subsidy financed from the Community budget;
- a 5 million EUA loan on special conditions (40 years at 1%) financed from budgetary resources, managed by the EIB as agent of the Community.

These loans, representing 40% of the estimated 19.8 million EUA total cost of the works, have been provided under the financial protocol concluded between the Community and Malta which entered into force on 1 November 1978.

New infrastructure works will comprise two quays (total length 340 m), a 35 000 m² storage area for container and roll-on/roll-off traffic plus an access road. The project also includes a 200 m extension to the commercial wharf to accommodate other traffic, along with two storage areas.

New handling equipment will comprise a wide range of tractors, trailers and lift trucks, as well as cranes for loading and unloading containers and goods.

The infrastructure works are scheduled for completion over the next three years, while the handling equipment will be installed as and when the quays and wharf are brought into use. By making it possible to cope with the expected 6% per annum increase in goods traffic, this project is essential for Malta's continued economic development both as regards supplies of goods and exports.

(1) 1 EUA = £S 5.31 (Syrian pounds).

(2) 1 EUA = approx. 5.33 Moroccan Dirhams.

(3) 1 EUA = Dr 49.73 (Greek drachme).

(4) 1 EUA = £M 0.490571.

MOZAMBIQUE

Emergency aid

The Commission has decided on the grant of emergency aid of 45 000 units of account to Mozambique.

This aid is in response to a request by the World Health Organization following the cholera epidemic in the Northern and Western regions of Mozambique. It will permit the supply of 2 million doses of vaccine. □

JORDAN

Emergency food aid

The Commission has decided to grant emergency food aid to Jordan in the form of 4 000 t of cereals. This decision follows a request from the Jordanian authorities prompted by the prospect of an 80% reduction in the next harvest because of drought.

The difficulties brought about by a poor harvest are added to by the fact the needs of displaced persons and refugees are already placing a heavy burden on the country's availabilities. □

FAO

World food programme committee approves \$289 million worth of aid to 16 countries

The governing body of the World Food Programme (WFP) has approved \$289 million worth of food aid for 19 economic and social development projects in 16 countries.

Ninety per cent goes to countries classified as least developed or most seriously affected by balance-of-payments problems: Haiti, Chad, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Botswana, Mozambique, Bhutan, Nepal, Afghanistan, India, Pakistan and Vietnam.

Nearly 60 per cent of the aid in money terms has been allotted to 10 economic development projects. Thirty per cent is for five projects for feeding vulnerable population groups, including primary-school children. The balance is for two projects each in support of education programmes and settlement of refugees.

WFP aid is used in food-for-work schemes and for meeting nutrition needs of infants, mothers, the old and the sick.

Details are:

India: For an ongoing project of supplementary nutrition for small children,

pregnant women and nursing mothers: \$57.4 million; help to workers building the Rajasthan Canal, northwestern India: \$12 million.

Pakistan: Irrigation: \$25.4 million; and watershed management: \$5.3 million.

Afghanistan: To continue a rural development project: an additional \$26 million.

Vietnam: Rehabilitation of the irrigation system in Nghe Tinh province: \$12.4 million.

Nepal: Continued feeding of mothers, infants and children: \$6.5 million.

Bhutan: Further aid to educational development: \$5.3 million.

Indonesia: Further aid to maternal and child health centres: \$4.5 million.

Botswana: Additional aid for feeding primary-school children and other vulnerable population groups: \$22.4 million.

Mozambique: Primary and boarding school students: \$3.9 million; help to Zimbabwe refugees settling in Mozambique: \$15.9 million.

Tanzania: Refugee settlement: \$5 million.

Ethiopia: Large-scale rehabilitation of forests, pastures and agricultural land: \$37.3 million.

Ghana: Additional aid to forest plantations: \$12.4 million.

Chad: Rural development: \$9.5 million.

Cameroon: Further aid to a large-scale project under the five-year development plan: \$10.4 million.

Tunisia: Erosion control: \$15.2 million.

Haiti: Further aid to a literacy programme: \$2.2 million. □

DAKAR SUMMIT

At a brief summit held in Dakar between the presidents of Senegal, Ivory Coast, Benin, Niger, Togo and Upper Volta, President Senghor of Senegal was elected current chairman of the West African monetary union.

It was their second summit, and they took the opportunity of congratulating the central bank of West African states, and the West African development bank on the way they were working. □

UNCSTD

A breakthrough in North-South relations?

The last major UN conference of the second UN development decade (1970-80) will be held in Vienna in

August. The Conference on Science and Technology for Development — UNCSTD — could provide an unexpectedly positive ending to a decade in which too many North-South meetings have turned sour.

In the wake of the disappointing UNCTAD talks in the Philippines, UNCSTD secretary-general Frank da Costa gave a press conference in June in Brussels, where he saw EEC officials as part of a final rallying tour before the delegates—there will be some 5 000 of them—start packing their bags for Vienna. It is still difficult to pin down the essential content of the wide-ranging science conference, but Mr da Costa made it clear that UNCSTD will at least be different in approach from most such UN set-pieces:

— It is not aimed at how to do things, but at how to get people to do things; the conference is "systemic" rather than "sectoral".

— The UNCSTD issues are world-wide, concerning developed as well as developing countries.

— "The conference in itself is nothing—it is the final round-up of years of invaluable preparatory work".

— UNCSTD "should be a breach in the wall put up at North-South negotiations, because it covers long-term issues in which the interests of both sides converge", Mr da Costa said.

Extensive preparations

The preparations began in earnest in 1977, three years after the conference was planned. After a dozen regional conferences and at least 150 meetings, a vast amount of paperwork is now being distilled into the UNCSTD Action Programme, due to be published in early July, which will contain 100 or more recommendations. Broadly, they will aim at:

— Strengthening national scientific and technological capacities.

— Restructuring the international framework to aid national efforts.

— Identifying the role of international organizations in promoting science and technology for development.

Better understanding

What has been achieved in the preparatory stages? Secretary-general da Costa:

"There is now a better understanding of science and technology problems and a greater appreciation of their complexity. It is generally accepted that there are no ready-made formulae for development through science and technology. In many countries, the "producers" of science and technology, the "users" and the governments have been discussing these issues together for the first time and the bases of institutional coordination now exist.

A transformation of ideas

"Above all, science and technology issues have transformed ideas about

development. The preparations for this conference are filling in the blank pages of the new international economic order, firstly, because they have thrown up common, long-term interests; secondly, because the idea of models for development has gone overboard. It is now generally accepted that there are no ready-made formulae. The 1970s development decade strategy, for instance, was conceived as having general validity. Now we appreciate that there are many strategies, equally valid as long as they contribute to overall, self-sustaining development, encourage the developing countries to be innovative and competitive producers, and eliminate the dualism in so many Third World economies", Mr da Costa said.

So there is a new approach—the conference has made governments do their own homework, brought together people from different levels and backgrounds and is aimed at motivating the authorities to get to work at home instead of arguing about principles in the UN. And the UNCSTD preparations have opened up longer-term perspectives in a more relaxed atmosphere than development strategy thinking permitted. Nonetheless, the conference will only make recommendations, and of course there are still conflicts of interest. "It has been very difficult to escape the North-South alignment", Mr da Costa admitted. The thorny questions of how to finance and administer science and technology for development, and how to cope with the transfer of technology, will still be on the UNCSTD agenda. □ B.T.

DAC

1978: 18.3 billion dollars

In 1978, official development aid from the members of the OECD's Development Assistance Committee (DAC) totalled 18.3 billion dollars, which is 24% up on the 1977 figures, according to the provisional figures published by the OECD. The volume of aid as a ratio of the GNP has changed slightly going up from 0.31% in 1977 to 0.32% in 1978, compared with 0.33% in 1976.

Particularly outstanding increases were recorded by Denmark and Norway. With 0.90% of the GNP, Norway now becomes one of the major donors and Denmark reached the 0.7% of GNP target for the first time, joining the other two countries who have also reached the target, the Netherlands and Sweden.

The Netherlands passed the target with 0.85%, which is slightly up on the 1977 figure. Three of the major donors (Germany with 0.31%, the United States and Japan with 0.23%) each increased their assistance in real terms. France's contribution dropped (from 0.60 to 0.57%) but it has announced that it will bring its contribution up to 0.7%.

The United Kingdom's figures were up from 0.36% in 1977 to 0.40% in 1978. Italy recently took steps to reorganize its aid programme and its contribution remained the same in 1978 as 1977 at 0.10%. □

EEC-MOROCCO

The EEC-Morocco Cooperation Council held its first meeting at ministerial level—the EEC-Morocco cooperation agreement having entered into force on 1 November 1978—on 12 June 1979 in Luxembourg.

The meeting was chaired by Mr M'Hamed Boucetta, Minister of State for Foreign Affairs and Cooperation of Morocco. The Community delegation was led by Mr Jean François-Poncet, French Minister for Foreign Affairs, President of the Council of the European Communities.

The Cooperation Council discussed the results of applying the trade provisions of the agreement, which had been implemented, in advance, since 1 July 1976.

The implementation of financial and technical cooperation and the cooperation provided for in article 4 of the agreement was also discussed in order to identify the fields to which Morocco attaches special importance.

The Cooperation Council also heard a Moroccan request for the rapid implementation of the provisions of the agreement relating to social security, and discussed the measures to be taken to facilitate cooperation and contacts between the European Parliament and the Chamber of Representatives of Morocco. Lastly, the Moroccan delegation informed the Cooperation Council of its concern regarding the repercussions of enlargement of the European Communities on cooperation between Morocco and the Community. □

Official Development Assistance (ODA)

Before 67-69	1970	1975	1976	1977	1978	1977	1978	
% of GNP						Million dollars		
0.57	0.59	0.60	0.42	0.45	0.45	427	491	Australia
0.13	0.07	0.17	0.12	0.24	0.27	118	156	Austria
0.46	0.46	0.59	0.51	0.46	0.52	371	513	Belgium
0.31	0.42	0.54	0.46	0.50	0.52	992	1 053	Canada
0.28	0.38	0.58	0.56	0.60	0.75	258	386	Denmark
0.09	0.07	0.18	0.18	0.17	0.18	49	56	Finland
0.68	0.66	0.62	0.62	0.60	0.57	2 267	2 689	France
0.40	0.32	0.40	0.31	0.27	0.31	1 386	1 984	Germany
0.19	0.16	0.11	0.13	0.10	(0.10)	186	(240)	Italy
0.27	0.23	0.23	0.20	0.21	0.23	1 424	2 215	Japan
0.49	0.61	0.75	0.82	0.85	0.82	900	1 072	Netherlands
0.21	0.23	0.52	0.41	0.39	0.34	52	55	New Zealand
0.26	0.32	0.66	0.70	0.83	0.90	295	355	Norway
0.32	0.38	0.82	0.82	0.99	0.90	779	783	Sweden
0.13	0.15	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.20	119	176	Switzerland
0.41	0.36	0.37	0.38	0.37	0.40	914	1 226	UK
0.37	0.31	0.26	0.25	0.22	0.23	4 159	4 857	USA
0.38	0.34	0.35	0.33	0.31	0.32	14 696	18 308	Total DAC

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

European elections

Strong showing by centre-right

Socialists still largest group

Between 7 and 10 June, EEC voters chose their first directly elected parliament. Their enthusiasm varied greatly, with almost 86% turning out in Italy and Luxembourg, 82% in Belgium, but only 47% in Denmark, and 31% in Britain. The other four countries ranged from 58-66%. Over 110 million Europeans voted to elect the 410 members of the new Parliament which will hold its first session on 17 July. Table I shows the Europe-wide voting figures, percentages and seats (1). The seats do not work out strictly in proportion to votes cast because seats were not allocated to each country only on the basis of population. The smaller countries, in particular, were given a greater share of seats than justified solely by their number of voters. The electoral systems used also varied, although it is planned to have a uniform system for the next elections in 1984. There were four systems used, national lists, regional lists, the single transferable vote, and the simple majority system. In terms of both votes and seats, howev-

er, two groups predominate in the new Parliament, the socialists, who have members from all the nine member states, and the Christian democrats of the European People's Party who have members from 7 of the countries. However it is not certain that the president of the new Parliament will come from either of these blocks since neither has an overall majority.

Many European personalities

The choice of a president will be influenced by political persuasion, but also by the personalities who put themselves forward. Of these there is no shortage. To begin with there are seven former premiers from France, Germany, Belgium and Luxembourg, and an impressive range of ministers and party leaders from every country, (see photos). The fact that many leading politicians are now European MPs will also give the Parliament greater stature. For the Communists there is Enrico Berlinguer (Italy) and George Marchais



Emilio Colombo (CD-Italy) outgoing president of the European Parliament

(France), for the socialists Willy Brandt (Germany) and Karel Van Miert (Belgium), for the Liberals, Gaston Thorn (Luxembourg) Henri Caillavet (France), Edgar Faure (France) and Cornelis Berkhouwer (Netherlands), for the Christian Democrats Leo Tindemans (Belgium) and Paul Werner (Luxembourg), for the EPD Jacques Chirac (France), and for the conservatives, J. Scott-Hopkins (GB).

Experienced women politicians

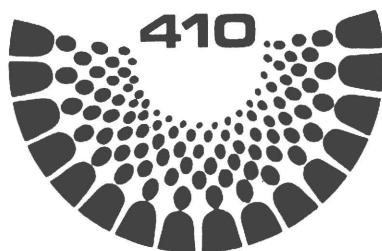
There are also over 60 women in the new Parliament (some 15%), among them Simone Veil, who headed the UFE list in France, Barbara Castle, a former British minister who will lead the UK Labour group, Colette Flesch (Lux., lib.) who was chairwoman of the development committee in the old Parliament, Winnie Ewing, the sole Scottish nationalist, who was also in the old Parliament, Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso (It., com.) the chairwoman of the EEC's economic and social committee, Katharina Focke (Ger., soc.) a former minister, and Eva Gredal (Den., soc.) a minister in four different cabinets.

A wedge of independents

Another interesting aspect of the new Parliament is the number of independents and members of small parties — 25 in all. They include 4 anti-EEC Danes, 4 Italians of the extreme-right and 3 from the new Radical Party, 2 unionists and one republican from Northern Ireland, and "regionalists" from Belgium (3) and Scotland (1). The Parliament will, in fact, be a microcosm of European political opinion, although

(1) Our estimation of the strength of each group is based on the political alliances in the old non-elected Parliament. Once the new Parliament assembles in July it will be clearer how the new groups will divide. Our figures are, therefore, provisional.

The new European Parliament (provisional breakdown)

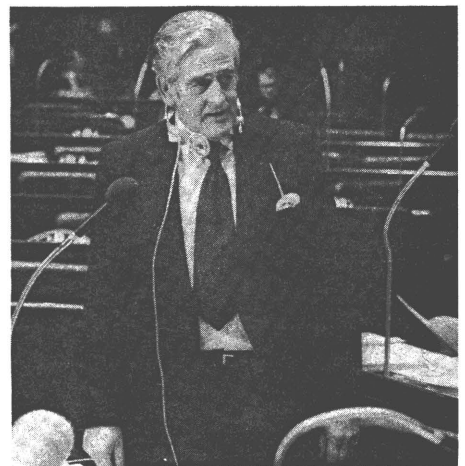


Communists and allies	44
Socialists	110
European People's Party (CD)	107
Conservatives	63
European Progressive Democrats	21
European Liberals and Democrats	40
Others	25

Table I			
Party	Total votes	%	Seats
European People's Party	32 809 427	29.7%	107
Socialists	29 373 090	26.6%	110
Communists	14 834 724	13.5%	44
Liberals and democrats	11 746 707	10.6%	40
Conservatives	6 861 208	6.2%	63
European Progressive Democrats	3 875 351	3.5%	21
Others	10 887 568	9.9%	25
Total	110 388 075	100%	410



Above Egon Klepsch (CD-Ger.) re-elected to the Parliament and now leader of the EPP group, and below another who has returned, J. Scott-Hopkins (Con.-GB), leader of the Conservative group



some groups such as the European ecology movement which put up "green lists" failed to win seats.

A new political class

Finally the new Parliament will be interesting because it has created a new type of politician. The old Parliament of nominated members was naturally made up of people who were

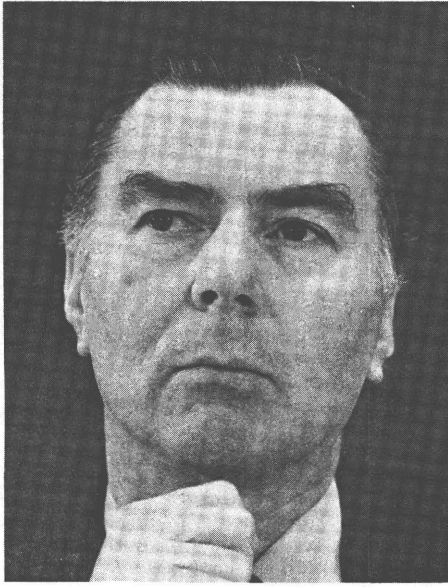
already in politics at a national level. But a majority of members in the new Parliament have not sat in a legislative before. They are a new breed or generation of politicians for the most part, despite the presence of a number of political heavyweights, and they will bring a new and refreshing style to the Parliament. But only time will show if a directly elected Parliament can also give new impetus to the European ideal. □ I.P.

Table II Seats by country and by group in the new Parliament								
	Socialists	European People's Party	Conservatives	Communists	Liberals and democrats	European Progressive Democrats	Others	Total
Belgium	7	10			4		3	24
Denmark	3		3	1	3	1	5	16
France	21	8*		19	18*	15		81
Germany	35	42			4			81
Ireland	4	4				5	2	15
Italy	13	30		24	5		9	81
Luxemburg	1	3			2			6
Netherlands	9	10			4		2	25
United Kingdom	17		60				4	81
Total	110	107	63	44	40	21	25**	410

* UFE list in France (25 seats) — estimated division.
 ** Some independents and members of smaller parties could join a group once the Parliament begins its work.



CEE



COI



AFP



J.L. DEBAIZE — CEE



J.L. DEBAIZE — CEE



Top row: Simone Veil (Lib.-Fr.), Leo Tindemans (CD-Bel.), Barbara Castle (Soc.-GB), Middle row: Patrick Lalor (EPD-Irl.), Maurice Faure (Soc.-Fr.), Willy Brandt (Soc.-Ger.), Bottom row: Poul Møller (Con.-Den.), Gaston Thorn (Lib.-Lux.), Winnie Ewing (Scottish nationalist/Ind.-GB)

APARTHEID

The European Parliament and the problem of apartheid

The anti-apartheid lobbies of Europe much regretted that no mention of racialism in South Africa was made during the European Parliament election campaign.

So the anti-apartheid organizations met in Brussels on 5 June, five days before the elections, to draw the attention of candidates and future MPs to the importance of taking action against racialism in South Africa.

Feeling that development and cooperation in Europe are pointless unless everyone is freed of the racist regimes which deny the very existence of the peoples the Community wants to help develop, the organizations called upon future MPs to exert greater moral pressure on the governments of the member states to get them to apply international sanctions on South Africa rigorously and, in particular, to stop their cultural and military cooperation with this country.

The following organizations were at the Brussels meeting:

Germany

Anti-apartheid movement.

Belgium

Committee against colonialism and apartheid/South Africa action committee.

Denmark

Action South Africa.

France

French association for friendship and solidarity with the peoples of Africa.

The movement against racialism, antisemitism and for peace.

UK

The anti-apartheid movement.

Ireland

The anti-apartheid movement.

Italy

Liberation and development movement.

Netherlands

Anti-apartheid movement/South Africa committee. □

LINER CONFERENCES

Member states to ratify UN code of conduct for liner conferences: major step in Community shipping policy

The Council of Ministers on 8 May reached agreement on a Council regulation concerning accession to the United Nations' convention on a code of conduct for liner conferences. The regulation provides for the member

states to ratify the code convention, which will thus be brought into force. This constitutes a major contribution to the North-South dialogue. At the same time the regulation is designed to preserve a commercial approach to liner conference shipping among developed Western nations.

The Council reached its decision after months of difficult and delicate negotiations on the basis of a proposal which the Commission had made in December 1977.

This major step forward in Community shipping policy, with implications for liner shipping world wide, came just in time for the UNCTAD V conference in Manila, at which world shipping problems were discussed.

The code of conduct

The United Nations convention on a code of conduct for liner conferences was adopted five years ago at a diplomatic conference held in Geneva under the auspices of UNCTAD. Ever since, the code has been a major subject of controversy in the world of liner shipping.

It propounds rules and principles for the behaviour of liner conferences—provisions on such points as conference membership, cargo-sharing between conference members, shipper-shipowner relationships, freight rates and procedures for resolving disputes.

The developing countries have been pressing hard for the code to come into force as a new multilateral framework for liner conference shipping; they would tend to benefit from its provisions on freight rates and particularly from the principle which it enshrines of allocating equal shares of traffic to the fleets of the countries at either end of a liner route, with a significant share remaining for cross-traders (the famous "40-40-20" principle). Among developed countries widely differing views have been taken of the code; and so far no developed country has ratified it.

As a result, the code has not yet come into force, since the 34 developing countries which have ratified it do not own collectively a large enough amount of tonnage to meet the entry into force requirement (25% of world liner tonnage).

The Community solution

The Council regulation provides for the member states to ratify the liner code convention, and this will bring the tonnage total well past the limit required for the Convention to enter into force. This means that, in liner conference trade between the Community and any developing or other non-OECD country which is also a contracting party to the code, the code will apply, and the conference shipping lines of the country concerned will have the right to carry the same share of traffic as the Community lines.



STUDIO JOHAN



MEYER

From the top Pierre Werner (CD-Lux.), Enrico Berlinguer (Com.-It.) and Anne Vondeling (Soc.-Neth.)

At the same time the regulation makes special provision, in the interests of OECD shipping and trade, for preserving a commercial, rather than an arithmetical, approach to cargo sharing within conferences as between OECD shipping lines and in liner trades between OECD countries. It provides, first, for the shares of cargo falling to member state lines under the code in trade between the Community and non-OECD contracting parties to be redistributed on a commercial basis among those lines. Cross-traders from other OECD countries will be free to join in this process on a basis of reciprocity. Second, it provides for the cargo-sharing provisions of the code to be disapplied—though without prejudice to the possibilities for developing country cross-traders—in liner conference trade between member states and, on a basis of reciprocity, between them and other OECD countries. In these trades certain other provisions of the code—for example on freight rates—will also be disapplied on the same basis.

These disaplications mean that the member states will make certain reservations when ratifying the code, these are annexed to the regulation.

The road to a Community solution

Ever since the code text was adopted in 1974 it has been recognised as an instrument with major implications for Community shipping policy. In the beginning, attitudes to the code varied very widely as between member states. Some wanted to ratify the code as drafted, without reservations; others were thoroughly opposed to it. The Council recognised, however, that the Community ought to reach a common position on the code if at all possible. After much discussion with member state experts the Commission proposed in December 1977 a "yes, but" approach under which the member states would ratify the code while making special arrangements to preserve a commercial approach to liner conference shipping as between OECD lines. The Council regulation follows this basic approach, though some changes have been made, including the total disapplication of parts of the code in intra-OECD trades.

The Council of Ministers of 20 February 1979 made the essential breakthrough in the Council's discussions, on the basis of a compromise paper tabled by the French presidency. But before reaching a final decision the Council wished to explain and discuss its approach with a number of other OECD countries. EEC Commissioner Richard Burke therefore visited Washington and Tokyo in April for talks with the United States and Japanese governments, on which he reported to the Council before it reached its final decision.

The Council and the Commission now hope to encourage other OECD



BELGA

Mrs Ruth Neto, sister of the Angolan president and member of the central committee of the MPLA — worker's party, was in Brussels in May for discussions with the Belgian government on an aid project for Angolan children. The project forms part of International Children's Year. Mrs Neto, is seen here with Luis de Almeida, Angolan ambassador in Brussels

countries to adopt equivalent solutions to that of the Community if they ratify the code of conduct.

Significance of the Council's decision

The Council regulation has the effect of bringing the code of conduct into force and thus meeting a demand which the developing countries have pressed ever since the code was drafted. This constituted a major contribution by the Community to meeting the shipping aspirations of developing countries, and it came just before the UNCTAD V conference in Manila, where shipping questions had a significant place on the agenda.

At the same time the regulation aims at preserving a commercial approach to liner shipping in the developed world, so as to help ensure the continued availability of efficient liner services at reasonable cost in the interests of world trade. The code seems likely to be ratified finally by a very considerable number of countries, so that it will constitute a multilateral solution to the question of liner conference organization world-wide and tend to discourage unilateral and bilateral action by individual countries, which is usual-

ly not in the Community's shipping and trading interests. □

EUROPEAN COUNCIL

The heads of government-in the case of France, the head of state—of the European Community met in Strasbourg on the 21-22 June for the European Council. Most of their discussions centered on the world energy situation. The French presidency gave the following conclusions at the end of the meeting:

The European Council stressed the urgent need for action in the face of the serious structural situation brought about by the development of a lasting imbalance between supply and demand for oil and the precariousness of world energy supplies, not only in the long term but also in the immediate future.

The European Council considered it vital that the consumer and producer countries together work out a world energy strategy designed to:

- ensure more moderate and rational use of oil as a non-renewable natural resource;
- permit continued economic growth no longer dependent on increased consumption of oil but based on the development of other energy resources;
- ensure that the developing countries are also able to obtain the energy necessary for their growth.

If such a strategy cannot be worked out, the world would rapidly move towards a large-scale economic and social crisis.

The European Council affirmed the Community's will to play an exemplary role in this action. It recalled the decisions already taken at its meeting in March 1979 and, in particular, the objective to limit oil consumption in 1979.

The Council also expressed its resolve to continue and step up this effort to limit oil consumption and, through energy saving, the development of indigenous production and the progressive use of alternative energy, to maintain Community imports between 1980 and 1985 at an annual level not higher than that for 1978.

It would not be possible to make an effort of this magnitude unless an effort on the same scale is made at the same time by the other industrialized consumer countries, which must also restrict their oil imports.

Lastly, steps would have to be taken, in co-operation with the oil companies, to ensure that each country could obtain fair supplies of oil products, taking into account the differing patterns of supply, the efforts made to limit oil imports, the economic situation of each country and the quantities of oil available.

This effort would be accompanied by measures relating to the free markets,

where prices bear no relation to those charged by the producer countries.

The Council welcomed the measures taken in this connection by the Council (energy) to improve market surveillance. As regards the recording of international transactions, it requested the Council (energy) to take the steps for which it has laid down the principles provided that the other industrialized states are prepared to take similar action. It invites the member states and the Commission, taking part in the Tokyo Summit, to examine with the other participants at that meeting what additional steps should be taken. In the light of that examination the Council (energy) would adopt the appropriate measures.

In the immediate future, the member states declared their readiness to dissuade companies from lending themselves to transactions on these markets at excessive prices.

So that these efforts may continue in consonance with the growth of their economies, the Community and the member states will continue and extend the redeployment of energy which has already begun. This redeployment will be based on the strengthening of the energy-saving measures already under way and be such as to enlist the use of nuclear energy, coal and, as soon as possible, other, alternative sources of energy.

— The Community has already made a major effort to save energy. It must strengthen national and Community programmes in order to encourage growth combined with low energy requirements, in particular by means of greater investment efforts in this area.

— Without the development of nuclear energy in the coming decades, no economic growth will be possible. Nuclear programmes must therefore be given strong fresh impetus.

Nuclear energy must be used under conditions guaranteeing the safety of the population. In this connection, the European Council, whilst recalling that

this matter is essentially the responsibility of national authorities, considered that existing bilateral and multilateral co-operation should be strengthened and developed. It highlighted the role of the International Atomic Energy Agency in this area.

— In view of the necessary change in oil imports, the use of coal in power stations must be stepped up without delay; its use in industry must also be encouraged. Special attention will be given to technological programmes to devise new processes for the extraction, transport and processing of coal.

— The European Council noted that the situation called for national and Community research and development efforts in the energy sector to be stepped up by co-ordinating national action and joint programmes so that more tangible prospects may shortly be found for the economical use of new resources, especially solar and geothermal energy. Like nuclear energy, these "clean" forms of energy will contribute to halting the build-up in the atmosphere of carbonic fumes caused by the use of fossil fuels.

Such research will also be directed at promoting new techniques for the use of conventional resources and achieving energy savings.

The decisions adopted bear witness to the fact that Europe is ready to shoulder its responsibilities. It urged the other industrialized consumer countries to make efforts on a similar scale and to develop their national energy resources, failing which the Community's contribution to the world energy balance cannot play its full part.

The European Council appealed to the producer countries to take account of the importance of the world energy balance and harmonious economic development.

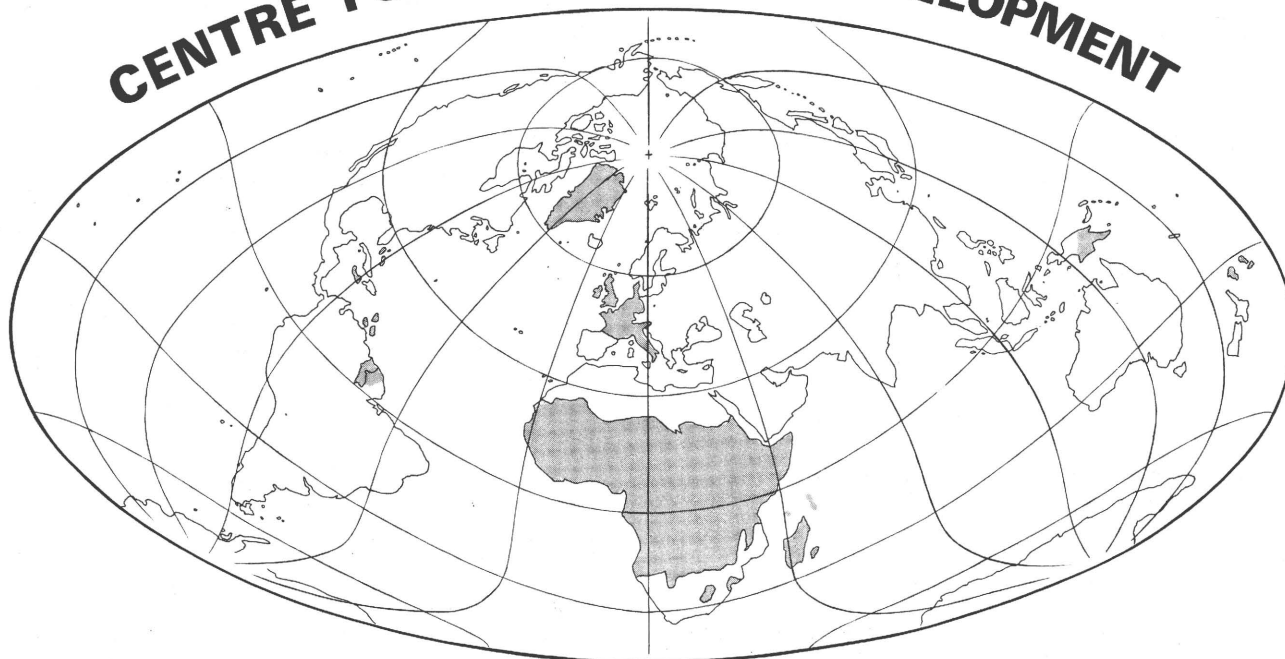
In conjunction with the other industrialized consumer countries, the Community and the member states are prepared to establish contacts with the producer countries in an endeavour to define in common supply and demand prospects on the world oil market. To analyse the situation in this way will be to make it possible to pinpoint the difficulties and work out ways and means of remedying them, with all parties acting in concert. This analysis should most particularly concentrate on the oil-importing developing countries. To cut down on the industrialized countries' imports will be to improve developing countries' supply prospects. Furthermore, a major effort will have to be made to boost the output of their energy resources. On this score, the European Council was gratified at the action undertaken by the World Bank and declares its willingness to examine further improvements to its operations.

Over and above these forms of action, the European Council confirmed its interest in an overall approach to world energy problems, on which the President of the United Mexican States has put forward some significant proposals. □



A moment of relaxation during the Strasbourg summit for the nine heads of state and government. In the front row the British Prime Minister, Mrs Margaret Thatcher. On the right President Giscard d'Estaing of France and on the left the German Chancellor, Helmut Schmidt

CENTRE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT



BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

In February 1979 the Centre undertook an industrial mission to four south-east African states: Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi and Lesotho. The object of the mission was to identify projects capable of realisation in the short/medium term and to discuss ways and means of advancing them under the remaining period of Lomé I.

The following projects were among those discussed:

Tanzania

1. Hollow glass containers
2. Insecticides
3. Vaccines
4. Fishnets
5. Gypsum recovery
6. Molasses processing
7. Sugar
8. Cassava starch
9. Refractory bricks

Zambia

1. Kraft pulp paper
2. Wood distillation
3. Copper and brass semi-fabricated products
4. Ceramics
5. Hotel construction

Malawi

1. Oil re-refining
2. Infusion solutions
3. Leather and tanning
4. Textiles
5. Molasses distillation
6. Ceramics
7. Hotels
8. Colliery
9. Cement

Lesotho

1. Abattoir/meat plant
2. Tannery
3. Wool and mohair
4. Poultry
5. Dairy produce
6. Vegetable cannery

Specific joint-venture partners are not necessarily required in each case, but readers could write to the Centre for further information on any one of the proposals mentioned above. Further, you will find details of some of them.

Opportunities in the ACP states

Note: The industrial development bodies, which work closely with the Centre, will already have discussed these proposals with some industrialists. Any industrialist seeking more information on these proposals is invited to contact the Centre.

Timber projects

Ghana

Ref. 79/15c

Integrated wood complex covering logging, saw milling, veneer production and furniture for local and export markets.

Jamaica Ref. 79/16a

An established timber company seeking to export to the United States is looking for an EEC technical and financial partner.

Fiji Pine Commission Ref. 79/17c

Timber processing industries based on the Pine Commission forests.

Fiji Ref. 79/18c

Development of the wood processing industry generally (other than pine) with particular reference to furniture and parquet flooring blocks.

Western Samoa Ref. 79/19c

Development of the wood processing industry generally.

Tonga Ref. 79/20c

Coconut wood parquet project based on existing feasibility study.

Meat processing/leather and tanning

Lesotho Ref. 79/21c

Stage I. Arrangements are being finalised for the financing and construction of a \$ 3.5 m abattoir.

Stage II. An EEC partner is required for the second phase of this project, a \$ 1.8 m meat processing plant (cannery).

Stage III. An EEC partner is required for the third stage of this project, the establishment of a tannery.

Swaziland Ref. 79/22c

Swaziland has a similar project to Lesotho under consideration and EEC partners are required for stages II and III.

Malawi Ref. 79/23c

A subsidiary of the Malawi Development Corporation already operates two abattoirs and exports cattle and goat skins. The establishment of a tannery is under consideration and an EEC partner is required.

Poultry

Lesotho Ref. 79/24c

EEC joint-venture partner who would provide technical and management expertise and minority equity involvement in:

- a) construction and operation of a hatchery and
- b) construction and operation of a breeding flock unit — total cost R 600 000.

Dairy produce

W. Samoa Ref. 79/25c

Milk processing plant at cost \$ 1 000 000 envisaged on long-term basis but must await feasibility study. Preliminary EEC contacts are required at this stage.

Lesotho Ref. 79/26c

Proposal by Lesotho government to sell existing dairy plant to form nucleus for expanded new dairy processing for domestic market. Total cost (two stages) estimated at R 500 000. EEC partner required.

Molasses processing

Tanzania Ref. 79/27c

A molasses utilization project has been under consideration by the Tanzania authorities for some time. Considerable study work has been done and a final assessment of all study work is under way. At this stage the Centre invites expressions of interest in principle from potential EEC partners.

Swaziland Ref. 79/28c

The government is interested in establishing a plant to process molasses into ethanol for blending with petrol, and to make by-products such as yeast and animal feeding stuffs. The Centre invites expressions of interest from potential joint-venture partners with a view to doing a feasibility study.

Fiji Ref. 79/29c

The production of molasses-based cattle feed is under consideration by the Fiji Sugar Corporation. The CID seeks preliminary contacts with EEC processors.

Vegetable cannery

Lesotho Ref. 79/30c

EEC partner required to take over and expand existing vegetable cannery (asparagus, beans, carrots, fruits) by putting it on a sound profit-making basis through a diversification of the plant's throughput to utilize its capacity all year round.

Rubber products

Papua New Guinea Ref. 79/31c

EEC partner required for rubber goods manufacturing plant based on the natural rubber resources of PNG. As first stage what is required is potential investor who would be prepared to have prefeasibility discussions.

Hypodermic syringes

Sudan Ref. 79/32b

Establishment of a small assembly unit for about 60 million disposable hypodermic syringes per annum. Export to neighbouring countries to be taken into consideration. EEC technical and investment partner needed. Private Sudanese sponsor.

Trinidad Ref. 79/33b

Trinidad is also interested in establishing contact with EEC firms to examine the possibilities of assembling hypodermic syringes for the Caribbean market. Local partner tentatively identified.

Textiles and clothing

Lesotho Ref. 79/34c

Wool and mohair—major project under consideration for establishment of wool and mohair industry to process national crop which is at present sold through South Africa. Annual production of wool is 3 500 tons, mohair 750 tons. This is a priority industry and an EEC joint-venture partner is urgently required.

Glass & Glassware

Tanzania

Ref. 79/49a

The CID has a copy of a feasibility study of a Tanzanian plant for the production of 13 400 tons per annum. Tanzania is looking for a technical partner and financial participation is not required.

Kenya

Ref. 79/50a

The CID has a feasibility study for a Kenyan plant for the production of 20 000 tons per annum. Kenya seeks a technical partner and invites financial participation.

Nigeria

Ref. 79/51a

Borno State, Nigeria is preparing a feasibility study for a plant to produce 50 000 tons of beer, minerals, and pharmaceutical bottles a year. The Nigerian consulting body responsible will shortly be inviting offers for supply, commissioning, management and training. Financial participation would be welcomed.

West Africa

Ref. 79/52a

The CID, in conjunction with the ECOWAS secretariat, is looking for an industrialist interested in a joint venture bottle manufacturing plant to be established in West Africa to serve the ECOWAS market.

Aluminium utensils

General

Ref. 79/53c

Potential EEC partner already identified for projects in Nigeria and Madagascar, but the Centre would like to make contact with Dutch firms in this field, as potential partners in ACP countries generally.

EEC Offers

4 Met. Gen.

Ref. 79/54b

A Netherlands engineering firm is interested in establishing manufacturing facilities and in supplying know-how in the following fields: metal office-furniture, utensils for domestic sector, general metal industry, metal road signs, tools, exhaust pipes and other motorcar spare parts.

Interested ACP principals are invited to contact the CID.

4 Ext. Gen.

Ref. 79/55b

A German industry has developed a very economical and competitive process to make water resistant tiles and wall-board. The process requires only a moderate investment outlay, needs raw materials practically everywhere available and should therefore be of particular interest for developing countries.

Interested ACP parties are invited to contact the CID.

Particle boards

Ref. 79/56a

An EEC company is interested in a joint venture with an ACP partner for the production of particle board using saw dust, wood chips and urea formaldehyde resin.

The proposed annual scale of production is approximately 37 500 m³ per annum and the estimated total investment amounts to 4 million.

The EEC partner is offering 50% of the capital for the purchase of machinery, technical management, supply of know-how and training of ACP personnel in the EEC factory.

Replies from the interested ACP principals should provide the following critical information:

What is the size of the local market?

Is the product being imported? If yes, are import statistics available?

Is the product being manufactured locally?

Are the raw materials available locally?

Are you in a position to provide the necessary finance?

Would this project be in line with your government's plans?

Fishing boats

Ref. 79/57a

A Danish company is interested in establishing a joint-venture industry for the construction of fishing boats made of glass re-inforced plastic. The basic design is for boats from 17' up to multipurpose boats of 47'.

Interested parties are invited to contact the Centre.

CID assistance to existing ACP industries

The CID is gradually developing an action in favour of existing industries in the ACP states which are facing technical, organizational and operational problems requiring immediate solution.

The CID provides assistance by putting at the disposal of ACP enterprises qualified experts for periods ranging from 15 days to 2 months according to the circumstances and to the specific needs indicated by the concerned industries. The CID experts diagnose the problems and recommend solutions. Any further direct intervention to implement the recommended solutions is outside the scope of the CID's normal activity.

For this type of assistance to existing industries, the CID pays the expert's fees and round trip air fare: local expenses (boarding, lodging and local transportation if necessary) are charged to the industries benefiting from this assistance.

A QUICK RESPONSE

If you are interested in any of the items mentioned in this periodical, send us a telex quoting the reference and we will send you further information when it is available.

Address all correspondence to:

Centre for Industrial Development
"Business Opportunities"
451, Avenue Georges Henri
1200 BRUSSELS,
BELGIUM.

Telex No CDI 61427
Telephone (02) 7358073.

Shoe manufacture

Sudan

Ref. 79/35b

A private Sudanese investor and the Sudan Development Corporation would like to establish a factory to manufacture shoes for export to Europe and the Middle East. Abundant supply of leather from local tanneries is secured.

EEC firms interested in technical assistance and marketing are requested to contact the Centre. The EEC partner would be expected to participate with about 10% in the equity of the new company to be established.

The capacity of the factory and other investment and production factors have to be determined jointly with the potential EEC partner. The Centre is prepared in principle to co-finance a feasibility study.

Copra processing generally

Copra processing is an industry in which the Pacific states have expressed considerable interest; the Centre would like to make general contacts in this field.

Essential oils

Papua-New Guinea

Ref. 79/36c

PNG seeks an EEC technical partner interested in the processing and marketing of essential oils derived from Japanese mint.

Tonga

Ref. 79/37c

Vanilla — This industry is under study, but is not yet at the project stage. Preliminary contacts are required.

Wooden toys

Malawi

Ref. 79/38c

EEC joint-venture partner required. Detailed proposal is available from the Malawi Development Corporation for manufacture of toy bricks, wooden trains, wheelbarrows and rocking horses.

Hotels

Papua-New Guinea

Ref. 79/39c

Investment/management partner required for New Ela Beach Hotel project Port Moresby. Full documentation available.

Zambia

Ref. 79/40c

A local private investor is constructing a hotel-motel complex near Lusaka airport. Total cost on completion is expected to be 2 m kwachas (about \$ 2.6 m), part of it provided by Zambian government sources. European partner in hotel business required to participate financially and possibly undertake a management contract. Full feasibility study available.

Insecticides and pesticides

Tanzania

Ref. 79/41c

Study will be available in summer 1979, and an investment proposal is required by October 1979. While waiting for the study, the Centre would like to establish contacts with potential Dutch joint-venture partners.

Tannery

Djibouti

Ref. 79/42b

The government of Djibouti is looking for a joint-venture partner to establish a new tannery to process 400 000 hides per annum into wet-blue. Investment is estimated at about US \$ 1.1 million. A preliminary study (in French) is available at the CID. Interested firms are invited to contact the CID which is ready to assist with the preparation of a full scale feasibility study.

Red algae production

Djibouti

Ref. 79/43b

Djibouti has successfully undertaken trial production of Red Algae (*Eucheuma spinosum*) in the Red Sea and would like to develop a commercial project for which an EEC technical and marketing partner is needed.

Interested parties are invited to contact the CID for further information and assistance.

Soap

Guyana

Ref. 79/44b

The Guyana Pharmaceutical Corporation wants to establish a soap plant. The expected capacity is:
7 million units of laundry soap/annum (bars of soap)
3 million units of toilet soap/annum (bars of soap)
600 tons of soap powder/annum (detergent).

Estimated costs for equipment and building: US \$ 1.8 million. An EEC technical partner is required. More detailed information can be obtained from the Executive Chairman, GPC, Guyana, Telex no: 212 Guystores.

Upper Volta

Ref. 79/45b

A private businessman and the OPEV (Office de Promotion des Entreprises Voltaïques) want to establish a soap factory.

The expected capacity is:
750 tons/annum of laundry soap
150 tons/annum of toilet soap
Estimated investment: 300 million Frs CFA
EEC financial and technical partner is required.

Ground-nut processing

Upper Volta

Ref. 79/46b

A private sponsor and the OPEV want to establish a ground-nut processing plant. The expected capacity is: 300 tons/annum.

Estimated investment: 40 million Frs CFA.

A technical partner is required.

Cassava

ECOWAS Region

Ref. 79/47a

Cassava processing is a subject which comes up regularly in respect of most ACP states and recently in respect of the ECOWAS region in particular. The Centre is interested in making contacts with EEC importers of manioc pellets, and firms interested in industrial transformation (flour, starch, glucose, gari, ethanol).

The Centre is also seeking an industrialist interested in joint venture for the assembly or manufacture of syringes in one of the ECOWAS states of West Africa.

The enlargement of the European Community

Within the last four years, three countries have applied to join the European Community: Greece on June 12th, 1975, Portugal on March 28th, 1977 and Spain on July 28th, 1977. Greece should join the Community at the beginning of 1981 once national parliaments have ratified the accession treaty which should be signed in the near future. Negotiations with Portugal and Spain were opened in October 1978 and February 1979 respectively. And within the foreseeable future, people will be referring to the Community as "the Twelve" rather than "the Nine". But with Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom already admitted, what are the implications of enlarging the Community once again?

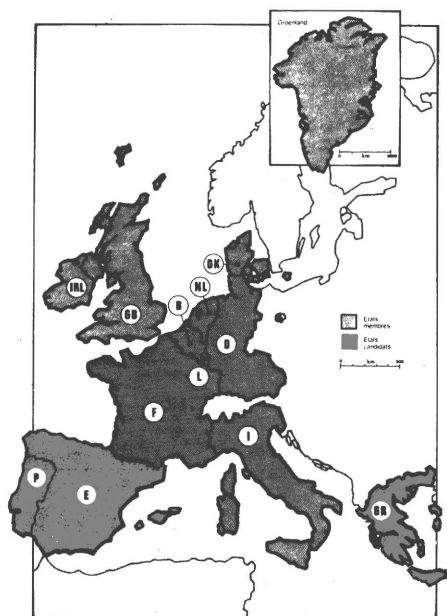
A difficult challenge

We shouldn't attempt to disguise the fact that extending the Community raises a number of delicate problems. The principal ones for Europe are as follows:

□ The level of economic development in the three applicant countries is significantly lower than the Community average. Gross domestic product per head in 1976 amounted to about 2 610 European units of account(1) in Spain, 2 170 in Greece and 1 460 in Portugal, whilst the Community averaged 4 800 EUA. It should be mentioned, however, that the Community has already succeeded in integrating the economies of Italy and Ireland where the GDP is 750 and 2 250 EUA respectively.

□ 8.4% of the Community's work-force is employed in agriculture (23.8% in Ireland, 15.5% in Italy). The equivalent figure in the applicant countries is 34.4% in Greece, 27.4% in Portugal and 21.5% in Spain. For the Community as a whole, enlargement will increase the number of farm workers by 55%, the percentage of cultivated land and area by 49% and will raise total agricultural production by 24%. Farm produce from the three countries—wine, fruit, citrus fruits and vegeta-

(1) EUA = Approx £ 0.63 (at rates current on 1 January 1979).



bles, olive oils, etc.—directly compete with that from Mediterranean regions which are amongst the poorest in the Common Market.

□ The export industry in the applicant countries is also frequently active in areas such as textiles, shipbuilding, shoes etc. These are areas in which the Community already suffers from excess capacity.

□ Their energy dependence is also high, and is a heavy burden on their balance of payments. It represents 78%-88% of total energy consumption against an average of 54% in the Community.

□ The three candidate countries have an underemployed work force (there are an estimated 900 000 unemployed in Spain) whilst an enlarged Common Market would extend the principle of the free movement of workers to the new member countries.

□ Once they are members of the Community, Greece, Portugal and Spain will legitimately benefit from the European financial instruments already set up to help agriculture, regional development and the retraining of workers, etc.

□ The disparities between the old and new member countries of the Community could make the economic and monetary cohesion of the Community even more uncertain. And could make the political decision-making

process in the Community more difficult as long as decisions require the unanimity of Member States.

For the candidate countries as well, accession to the Community will not be without difficulties. Their farming and industry—often fragile—will have to adapt to the competition from their new partners without benefiting in the long term from protection by customs duties.

Easing the difficulties

Why enlarge the Community in such conditions?

□ Basically because the idea of an enlarged Europe is the basis of the European treaties and provides a procedure for admitting new members. In the preamble to the Treaty of Rome, the signatories declared themselves "resolved... to preserve and strengthen peace and liberty... calling upon the other peoples of Europe who share their ideal to join in their efforts". In the case of Greece, an association agreement, signed with the Community in 1961, saw its final objective as accession.

□ For political reasons. The three candidate countries have emerged from shorter or longer periods of dictatorships. One of their first actions once liberty was re-established was to request accession to the Community, in which they see a guarantee of democratic stability. The Community has already been able to give its support to their young democracies and it is clear that maintaining peace and liberty in the south of Europe is in the interest of all.

□ The economic advantages of the new accessions should also be considered:

● The candidate countries wish to participate wholly in a Community with which they already have substantial trading relations. The Community takes 48% of the exports from Greece, and supplies 42% of its imports; takes 48% of Portugal's exports and supplies 44% of its imports; takes 46% of Spain's exports and provides 34% of its imports.

● The Nine will also benefit by enlargement. Though the level of development in these countries is lower than that in the Community, the growth rate is higher: 6.1% per year on average for Greece between 1966 and 1976, 5.5% in Portugal, 5.3% in Spain against 3.7% for the Nine. New potential will

Economic statistics Greece, Portugal and Spain

These figures are based on several variables and should be considered as giving a general, rather than precise, statistical picture.

Headings	Greece	Portugal	Spain	The Nine	Year
Date of application for accession	June 1975	March 1977	July 1977	—	—
Start of negotiations	July 1976	Oct. 1978	—	—	—
Area ('00 km ²)	132	92	505	1 529 (1)	1975
Population (million)	9	8.8	35.5	258.5	1975
GDP per labour force as % of EEC average	49	33	59	100	1975
GDP growth rate	6.1	5.5	5.3	3.7	1966-76(2)
Employment					1976
— Agriculture (%)	34	27	22	9	
— Industry (%)	29	33	37	41	
— Services (%)	37	39	41	51	
% contribution to GDP					1975(3)
— Agriculture	19	16	10	5	
— Industry	30	45	41	44	
— Services	51	39	49	51	
Agriculture					1975
— Production as % of EEC (9)	6	4	15	100	
— Main elements of final agricultural production (%):					1975(4)
Grain	13	12	11	11	
Fresh fruit and vegetables	14	22	26	11	
Wine & olive oil	14	16	9	6	
Meat	18	23	27	35	
Dairy products	9	8	10	19	
Trade					1976
— Total trade as % of EEC (9)	1.3	0.9	3.9	100	
— Exports as % of imports	42	43	50	95	1976
— Agricultural imports as % of total imports (CST 0.1)	8	18	11	13	1976
— Agricultural exports as % of total exports (CST 0.1)	30	16	23	10	1976
— % of exports to EEC (9)	50	52	46	—	1976
— % of imports from EEC (9)	40	42	33	—	1976

(1) Excluding Greenland.

(2) Constant prices.

(3) 1974 for Portugal and Spain.

(4) 1976 for Greece.

(*) Source: European Parliament (documentation) fact sheets.

Headings	Greece	Portugal	Spain	FRG	Eire (estimations)	Year
Structure of industrial sector (%)						1975(1)
— Mining & quarrying	5	1	3	3	—	
— Manufacturing industries	66	78	69	76	69	
Including:						
• Food, drink & tobacco	12	10	8	10	20	
• Textiles & clothing	17	16	10	5	10	
• Chemicals	9	11	8	13	7	
• Machinery & metal products	11	23	22	30	13	
— Electricity, gas & water	5	5	5	6	7	
— Construction	24	15	22	15	23	

Sources: Eurostat, OCDE.

(1) Cost of input, except for Germany.

open up for our industrial wares and some of our farm produce (cereals, beef and pork, milk products etc.) in a market which will expand from 260 to 320 million consumers. Also, to protect our troubled industries, companies in the new member countries which already export to the common market will be subject to Community discipline.

- The Community's political, economic and commercial weight in the world will be strengthened. Spain is already the tenth industrial power in the world and the Greek merchant shipping represents 13% of the world merchant fleet, 68% of that in the Nine. The historical, cultural and commercial links between Portugal and Spain on the one hand and the Latin American countries on the other could help improve relations between the Community and the South American continent.

- Finally, the difficulties which enlargement poses should be considered as a stimulus for the construction of Europe and a motivation to improve the decision-making process in the Community and increase support for regions and agricultural/industrial areas in difficulty—including those in the present Community. The transition period for the entry of the new countries could be fruitfully used for this.

Relations between the Community and the candidate countries

Relations between the Community and the three candidate countries are currently governed by agreements of a very different nature but which nevertheless aim to liberalize trade between its partners.

- With *Greece*, an association agreement was signed on 9 July 1961. It made provisions for:

- The gradual introduction of a customs union. Since 1 July 1968 Greek industrial exports have entered the common market free of customs duties. The same has been true since 1974 for around two-thirds of the Nine's industrial exports to Greece. Free trade in agricultural produce has been more limited though certain concessions have been accorded to Greek exports to the Community.

- The harmonization of policies in a succession of sectors such as agriculture, transport, taxation, competition rules. But since the agreement was frozen during the period of dictatorship, these objectives have not been realized.

- Financial aid from the Community for the Greek economy: 280 million

The Nine's trade with the applicant countries

(in million EUA)

	Community imports			Community exports		
	1960	1970	1977	1960	1970	1977
Greece	113	400	1 514	284	963	2 893
Portugal	140	439	1 000	310	811	1 949
Spain	517	1 144	4 765	332	1 795	5 332

EUA will be put at Greece's disposal between now and the end of 1981.

- With *Portugal*, a free trade agreement was signed on 22 July 1972, in the framework of bilateral agreements concluded at the same time as those with other Western European countries not applying for Community membership. Since 1 July 1976, customs duties have been totally abolished for most Portuguese industrial exports to the Community. The same has been true since 1977 for certain industrial exports from the Community to Portugal whilst other products will only enter duty free between 1980 and 1985. The Community has also accorded tariff reductions for certain Portuguese agricultural products: tomato concentrates, tinned sardines, certain wines, fruits and vegetables. In addition, a financial protocol will put 230 million EUA at Portugal's disposal by 1982.

- With *Spain*, a preferential trade agreement was signed on 29 June 1970. Since 1 January 1973, duties collected by the Community on virtually all industrial exports from Spain have been reduced by 60%; for some exports such as shoes and certain textiles, the permitted reduction after 1 January 1977 was limited to 40%. Agricultural concessions have also been accorded to some products: citrus fruit, olive oil, certain fruits and vegetables. For its part, Spain reduced duties as of 1 January 1977 by 60% for some Community products and by 25% for others.

A common facet of all three agreements is that the speed of removing customs duties varies from one to the other to take into account the unequal state of economic development of the partners. Whilst these agreements have helped increase trade between the Community and the three candidate countries, they have not helped prevent the rise of these latter countries' trading deficits.

Negotiations proceed

The negotiations between the three countries and the Community are progressing along different time schedules due to the different dates of application for membership: June 1975 for Greece, March 1977 for Portugal, July 1977 for Spain.

- **Greece:** a few months after receiving Greece's application, the European Commission gave its preliminary recommendation (28 January 1976) to the Community's Council of Ministers for acceptance of the application. Without underrating the problems involved, the Commission recommended that the Nine make a "clearly affirmative" response. On 9 February 1976, the Nine gave the green light and accession negotiations officially began on 27 July 1976. The two parties reached agreement on 21 December 1978, on the length of the transitional period (five years) for applying common market regulations in Greece. On the most difficult points, suitable compromises were reached. In the agricultural sector the transitional period was fixed at seven years for tomatoes and fish, and cotton will be dealt with in a separate protocol. In the social sector, Greek workers will receive priority treatment amongst foreign workers in the Nine. The free movement of labour principle will only be applied after a seven year transitional period.

- **Portugal:** before even officially receiving Portugal's application, the Council of Ministers had established a joint position on this, the least prosperous of the three applicant countries. In its "opinion" of 19 May 1978, the European Commission stressed the political necessity of responding positively to the Portuguese application. It recognized that, for Portugal, accession would accentuate the country's need for economic reorganization to reduce

the external deficit and accelerate growth. Following the Nine's affirmative decision of 6 June 1978, negotiations officially opened at ministerial level on 17 October last. It was decided to hold three ministerial sessions per year and two ambassador level meetings per quarter. In addition, the two parties decided that their administrations should collaborate closely throughout the accession negotiations to help Portugal adapt to the Community from the very beginning.

□ **Spain:** on 29 November 1978, the European Commission gave a favourable recommendation to the Council on Spain's accession, though it did take note of the special position of Spain, whose economic weight poses real problems for agriculture and industry in some regions of the Nine. Simply adapting a few regulations is not enough to ensure painless integration. The Commission has consequently recommended implementing "preparatory actions" as soon as possible to harmonize as much as possible trade and competition in the agricultural and industrial areas. The Commission also considers that a transitional period up to ten years could be necessary in certain sectors. Based on the Commission's opinion, the Council of Ministers decided on 20 December 1978, the open negotiations with Spain. Negotiations officially began on 5 February 1979.

Success of enlargement

The enlargement challenge has thus begun. The risks are high. Minimizing these difficulties could put the Community on a perilous course and the Commission has demanded in its "overall reflections on the enlargement of the Community" (sent to the Council of the Nine on 20 April 1978) "vast courageous action".

The action programme presented by the European Commission (which will be completed in detail in due course) deals both with the three applicant countries and with the current member states of the Community.

Greece, Portugal and Spain

□ The new countries should be subject as soon as possible to various disciplines required by the Community to reorganize and put to rights various basic sectors: textiles, steel, shipbuilding, synthetic fibres, chemicals, car industry, etc. The common market could not tolerate an unrestrained increase of production capacity in those industrial sectors already in crisis.

□ On the other hand the Community should give financial assistance to the three applicant countries to help them adapt to the new common disciplines. This will make it possible to avoid the restrictive systems applied to third countries and the safeguard clauses included in the accession treaties.

□ In Portugal the economic situation and the level of development are such that sectorial action will not be sufficient. Specific aid will need to be given to this country: balance of payments support and contributions to raise investment.

□ To make it possible to transfer Community resources to the new members, the European budget will have to be considerably increased. A theoretical Community budget for 1978 based on the assumption that the "three" were already members shows that resource transfers from the budget would reach around 1 billion European units of account.

□ As with the integration of Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom, a transitional period will be necessary for the application of all Common Market regulations in these countries. Whilst these countries will fully participate in Community institutions following accession, the period of transition will be relatively long given their present economic position.

Action for the whole Community

□ "Expansion with stability" is required to enable the Community to integrate the new members—with their weaknesses and shortcomings—without too many difficulties. A return to economic growth rates of around 4.5% per annum is consequently more necessary than ever. Progress in the direction of greater cohesion in the Community and towards economic and monetary union also becomes imperative to counterbalance the dilution effect of admitting three less developed economies with weak currencies. The Nine have taken the first step in this direction by finalizing details of a European Monetary System at the European Council of 4 and 5 December 1978.

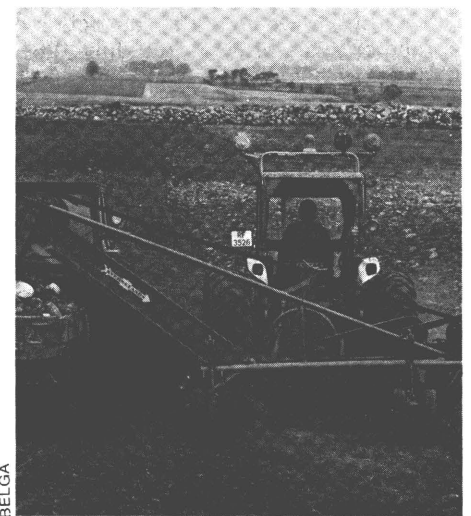
□ The Common Agricultural Policy must also be looked at closely, given the importance of farming in the applicant countries and their Mediterranean crops, which will put them in direct competition with farmers in France's Midi region and Italy's Mezzogiorno. The Commission is proposing joint action to safeguard the achievements of the European agricultural policy, to maintain farmers' standard of living

and avoid further increases of surplus products, in particular wine, olive oil and certain fruits and vegetables. By giving substantial aid (1 billion EUA over five years) to Mediterranean farmers in the present Community, the Nine have already taken the first step in this direction. The Community's programme aims to improve the common organization of the markets for olive oil, fresh vegetables and processed fruit and vegetables, and wine. It also specifies financial participation by the Community in schemes to irrigate the Mezzogiorno, to reorganize the wine growing industry in Languedoc-Roussillon and the re-afforestation of arid regions.

□ In the energy sector, the European Commission has requested member states to expand their domestic and alternative energy resources given the foreseeable increase in the Community's energy dependence once the new countries are integrated.

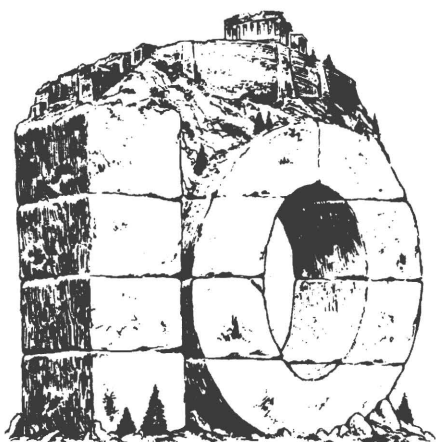
□ The Commission also foresees an intensification of the Community's social and regional actions to create new jobs "on the spot". When applied to the new countries such action will prevent excessive migration which could be problematic for the job market in the Nine, given the current high level of unemployment in the Community.

□ Finally, the move from six to nine Community members has already put a strain on the Community decision-making mechanisms. The expansion to twelve could cause numerous difficulties unless more use is made of the "qualified majority" vote in the Council of Ministers. The Nine have consequently appointed three experts to draw up proposals by autumn 1979 to improve the functioning of the European institutions. □



Meanwhile, back in Norway, the country that voted to stay out of the EEC... a farmer makes the best of a stony northern field

Greece to become 10th EEC country in 1981



Greece is to become the tenth member of the European Community on New Year's Day, 1981. The treaty of accession was signed in Athens on 28 May.

Final agreement on the terms of accession was reached at a meeting between the foreign ministers of Greece and the Nine in Luxembourg on 4 April, bringing to an end three years of negotiations.

Greece was anxious to become a member by July, 1980, but this date could not be met by the Community because the accession treaty must be ratified by the parliaments of the existing nine member states.

Under the terms of the final agreement, Greece will have a transitional period of five years, running from 1 January 1981, to align itself fully with most Community rules.

Community concessions

During the final phase of the negotiations, two important concessions were made to the Greeks to make it easier for them to adjust to membership of a group of countries where the gross domestic product is two and a half times their own.

Firstly, arrangements have been made so that Greece will be a net beneficiary to the tune of around £53 million from the Community budget in its first year of membership. Projections based on this year's budget indicate that after the five-year transition

period Greece will show a net gain from Community funds of around £335 million a year.

Secondly, it was agreed that, after three years of membership instead of five, the families of Greek migrants working in any of the existing nine member states will be able to receive in Greece social welfare benefits at the level at which they are paid in the country where the family bread-winner is working.

Mr Lorenzo Natali, vice-president of the European Commission who is in charge of the enlargement portfolio, said after the final round of negotiations that he thought the agreement reached was "good and fair" and showed that the Community was capable of making considerable concessions to an applicant state in need.

He said that Greece's accession would mark the first stage in a shift by the Community towards the Mediterranean and he felt that such a shift would give it more geographical balance.

Two more to come

Both Spain and Portugal have applied for membership of the Community and negotiations with them are now in progress.

When it joins the Community the Greek government will have the right to nominate one member of the Commission, bringing its membership to fourteen.

It will have 24 members in the European Parliament from the date of accession and Mr Natali said that it would be up to the Greek government to decide whether, for the life of the first Parliament which will run until June, 1984, they will be directly elected like the members from the other nine countries or whether they will be nominated from among members of the Greek parliament.

Greece will, of course, have equal representation with the other member states on the Council of Ministers whose membership will be increased to 10. Where the Council acts by qualified majority Greece will have five votes out of a total of 63 and the majority will be increased from 41 to 45 votes.

Greece will also have the right to nominate one member of the Court of Justice as well as one member of the Court of Auditors, which scrutinises expenditure under the Community's budget.

Questions to be resolved

The accession of Greece is expected to create a number of administrative problems for the Community institutions, particularly for the translating and interpreting services.

A committee of "Three Wise Men" is currently studying this matter and is due to report before the end of this year. □

Consultation procedures will come into operation

Greece and the Community have reached agreement on a consultation procedure which will be effective from the signature of the accession treaty until Greece becomes a full member of the Community in January 1981.

This agreement will last for the rest of 1979 and throughout 1980 while the ratification process is underway. Such an agreement was necessary because Greece accepts the decisions of the Community during this transition period, and it is natural that the Greek government should make its opinion felt.

For the Community, it is important that its work should not be held up or blocked. The procedure which has been adopted therefore aims to allow consultation with the Greeks without holding up the progress of the Community as a whole.

Should these consultations ever bring to light serious difficulties, they can be referred to ministerial level. Despite this provision, Community authorities do not believe this will ever be necessary since the European Commission will already be taking account of the interests of its tenth member as from now.

The consultation process is two-way in that any internal measure taken by Greece which might have consequences for Community policies, once Greece is a full member, will also be subject to consultations. □

What institutions does Europe want?

by Pascal FONTAINE(*)

In a hundred years' time, international relations will be very different from what they are now. The importance of demographic trends, the distribution of natural resources and the vulnerability of the world to the stockpiling of arms will, of necessity, lead to a type of world government, whether a peaceful enterprise or the outcome of a hegemony.

The UN, set up in 1945, is an anachronism. It is ahead of its time in its ambitions but behind in its means, in that it combines 160 countries, some of them vast and others no more than a few square miles in area.

The 20th century is the century of regional groupings. The countries of West Europe, exhausted after internal wars and anxious to avoid decadence, agreed to unite their efforts 30 years ago. Unification is still in progress. Too fast for some and too slow for others, it pursues a path of hesitant pragmatism and seems uncertain as to exactly where it should stop.

Federation or confederation? A pointless argument

"There is no precedent for what we are doing", Jean Monnet, founder of the first European (coal and steel) Community, was fond of saying. And, he added, "Europe is a continuous creation". The step taken in 1950 with the Schuman plan was not based on legal/political models described in any legal treatises.

There are two traditional types of grouping.

Federations

These substitute a new international entity for all the states that join them. The USA, Germany and Switzerland even (we shall return to this later) are federal states of this type. A federal

constitution defines which matters are within the scope of the central federal state (external relations, currency, the budget, etc.) and which within the scope of the individual states in the federation (education, local taxation, the police, etc.). There is a supreme court to arbitrate in case of a clash of responsibility between central and local authorities.

Confederations

These are simple groups of states each of which retains its full sovereignty and, in particular, the right to withdraw from the group. No confederation can last:

— The German confederation founded in 1815 was unable to survive the Prussian/Austrian fight for domination. The war of 1866 excluded Austria from German affairs and Prussia organized, under its own leadership, the Nord-Deutscher Bund (North German Federation) which became the German Reich in 1871.

Similarly, confederation in the USA only lasted from 1781 to 1787. Its problems were due to the unequal distribution of powers. The lack of any direct links between the central government and the people, the unwillingness of the 13 states to renounce a large part of their authority and the veto combined to make the system unworkable. In 1786, George Washington wondered whether the USA would survive for long with "a weak, tottering government that limped along on crutches, staggering at every step". The federalists won the day at the Philadelphia Convention and, ultimately, strengthened the central government and introduced direct legal authority over the people.

— The term confederation for Switzerland is a misleading one, as the federal constitution of 1848 states that the cantons are sovereign (as long as their sovereignty is not restricted by the federal constitution) and, as such, can exercise all rights not specifically delegated to the central power (article 3).

The scope of the responsibility and activity of the central power has been continually extended since 1848 and today covers external affairs, national defence, customs, rail communica-

tions, postal services, currency and the guarantee of individual freedom. The confederation also shares responsibility with the cantons in various fields and some of these (criminal law, private law, labour laws, industrial property, social security, etc.) are covered by cantonal laws until such time as a federal law is introduced.

Confederation is a constant source of tension between the member countries (which seek to retain their own sovereignty) and the central authority (which lacks the means of ensuring that the good of the community takes precedence over individual interests). Confederation inevitably moves towards federation. Or it retreats into ordinary intergovernmental cooperation and loses its *raison d'être*.

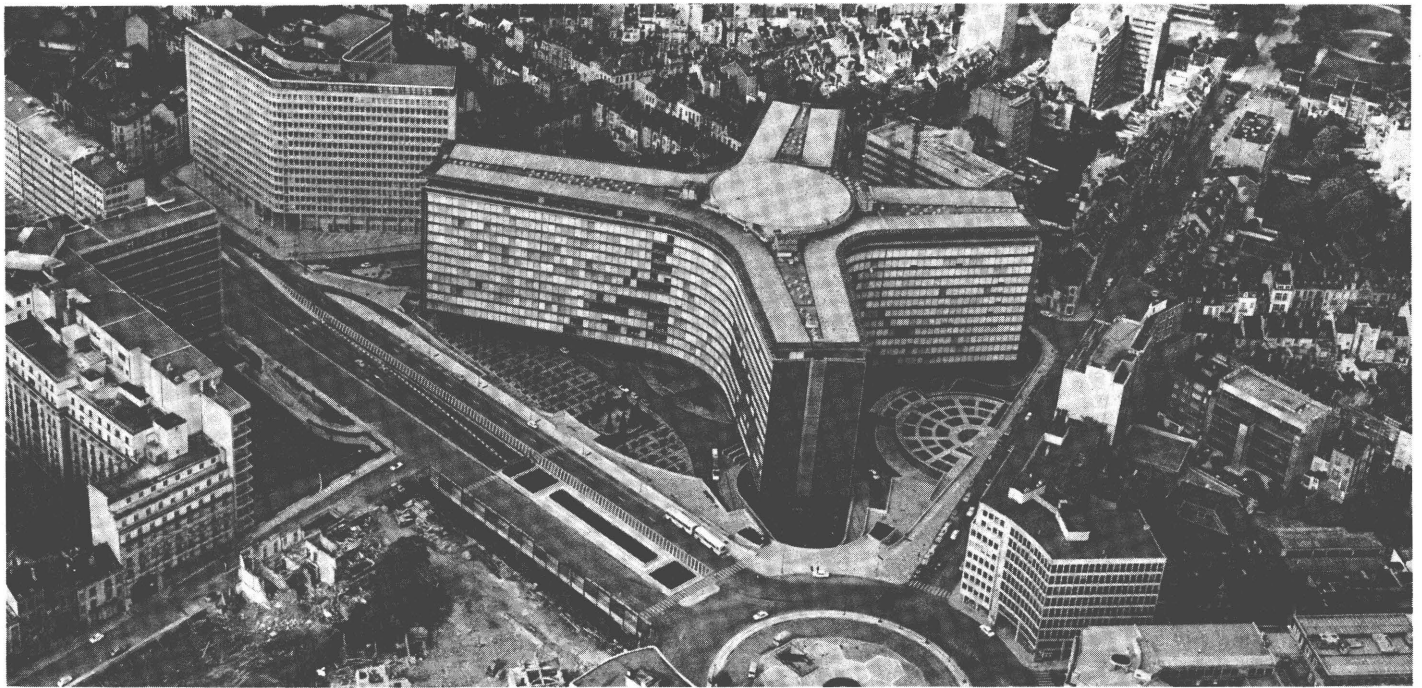
So the idea of setting up a European confederation looks like an unrealistic dream, a vague term hiding a refusal to ensure the vital transfer of sovereignty that would give real substance to Europe. One might reasonably add that confederation would establish a looser form of relations between the countries of Europe than those enshrined in the Community treaties.

So should we hope for a federal Europe? This also seems unsuitable, as the history of the countries involved goes back too far and has produced institutional and sociological frameworks that are too much at variance to be merged into a unified whole. Perhaps, in the fairly near future, under the mounting pressure of external threats, of need and of plain survival instincts, the people of Europe will stop their parochial bickering and unreservedly pool their means in a unified framework. But it is wise not to rush the process. People are not ready for it. This, combined with thriving nationalistic reflexes, could provoke violent resistance in each of the states of Europe, endangering the achievements of the last 30 years. We all expect Europe to honour cultural and linguistic traditions and respect the ways of life and systems of government to which we are accustomed, as they are our roots and our life blood.

Would not a federation mean that everything would have to be uniformized? Might not the central government be tempted, if it was backed up by a strong administration, incessantly to extend its prerogatives to the point where all the ex-states have to do is note its decisions?

The federation/confederation issue, as applied to Europe, is a pointless discussion. It is a smoke-screen

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The Council and the Commission in Brussels:

“the complementarity of these two institutions will only be creative if they are both sincere in seeking to cooperate”

beloved of theoreticians and it helps to confuse public opinion, which is already unaware of what is really happening in Europe. It is even more superfluous in that there is no point at all in devising a new model today. A European institutional structure exists. It only needs to be uncovered. Its potential needs studying and it must be adapted to the new demands of the international environment.

Taking a fresh look at the treaties

The “Copernican revolution” of international relations took place on 9 May 1950 when Robert Schuman suggested to his partners of West Europe that they set up a community and transfer sovereignty to it in restricted, but key, fields. The original feature here was the institutional machinery whereby the High Authority was appointed by the various states but was ultimately independent of them, holding delegated powers for a 50-year period. Jean Monnet’s wager was that the definition and application of Community interests could not but serve national interests in the long run. The High Authority, the Council of Ministers, the Court of Justice and the European Parliament set up by the Treaty of Paris formed a well-balanced whole that was destined to establish complementary, effective and democratic relations between the Community and its member states.

The job of the High Authority was to install and manage a common coal and steel market. The prerogatives of this typically supranational body were therefore considerable.

When the six founder countries decided, in 1955, to launch the idea of European unification in a wider field, i.e. to set up a general, industrial and agricultural common market, prudence led them to fix on a less supranational system. The Treaty of Rome (1957), setting up the EEC, reduced the powers of the common authority (i.e. the Commission), in favour of the Council of Ministers, which represented the member states. But the same balanced model, whereby people got the opportunity to express themselves via the Parliament and legal issues were settled by the Court of Justice, was retained. It was almost a carbon copy of the ECSC model. What the Commission lost of its own powers, it easily gained in other spheres of activity. The EEC treaty was economically inspired and it affects, whether directly or indirectly, all sectors of the economic and social life of the member states. The treaty, which has now been in operation for 20 years, has considerably altered the lives of our peoples and the structures of our lands. No responsible party of any political colour would question France’s belonging to the European Community.

This invisible revolution in the international order of things led the countries of Europe to consider that the vast areas of Community activity are not matters of external policy, since they directly affect their domestic affairs.

An international organization along classic lines or a federal system?

The European Communities are a

permanent group of states, each of which can express its own wishes. But they are clearly different from the general run of international organizations, which are confined to cooperation and tend to involve members working together towards a common goal without being subordinated to a common authority.

The UN, the Council of Europe, the Western European Union and the OECD are international organizations which state their wishes in one of two ways. Either as opinions/recommendations that are not binding on the members or as decisions that are binding but which can only be taken unanimously. Such procedures do not harm national sovereignty since decisions only bind member countries if they, in the organization, were willing to take them in the first place. The limited influence of such groups and their ineffectiveness (heightened by the use of the veto) show that they are ill-suited to the vital search for and implementation of joint action.

The European Communities have a singular legal system, half-way between simple cooperation and federation:

- the EEC and Euratom treaties were concluded, like federal charters, for an unlimited period;
- none of the three Community treaties can be revised by a diplomatic conference, there being a procedure which associates both Community organs and member states for this;
- the treaties share out responsibility between the Community and its members and the latter transfer their auth-

ority to the Community in matters for which it is responsible;

— like a federal power, the European authority has genuine legislative powers which enable it to introduce general and impersonal rulings that are directly and immediately applicable in the member states. So a Community regulation adopted by the Council, acting on a Commission proposal, will fix a single price for certain agricultural products covered by a common market organization.

Similarly, member states have to submit to the Commission at three different levels:

— The Commission-Council tandem responsible for drafting legislation and taking the necessary steps to implement the treaties expresses itself by a simple or a qualified majority whenever unanimity is not expressly required by the treaty (article 48). Those member states in the minority have to submit to the opinions of the majority, according to the fundamental principle of democracy. General de Gaulle refused to implement this article and provoked a serious institutional crisis in June 1965. The Luxembourg compromise of January 1966 was an expression of disagreement demanded by France, which wanted every state to be able to use its veto on any Community decision it felt to be counter to its own fundamental interests.

— Once a ruling has been made, the member states must respect and apply it. The Court of Justice is empowered to force them to do so.

— The member states cannot themselves rebuke the Commission or any other member state for not fulfilling its obligations, nor can they grant themselves the benefit of the safeguard clauses laid down in the treaties. They have to submit to the legal procedures set in motion by the Court of Justice, the guardian of the institutions and the spokesman for Community interests.

The last (and not the least significant) characteristic of the Community system is the power which the Court of Justice and the Commission have in respect of moral and physical persons and of undertakings within the Community. In areas covered by the treaty, the European authority exercises its direct right of making regulations and of taking decisions and sanctions. Legal specialists see this as a typical feature of federations.

The limits of the Community system

The machinery established by the treaties is by no means immune to crisis or inefficiency. The 20 years

since the Treaty of Rome can be roughly divided into two periods of 10 years each. From 1958 to 1968, the opening of the industrial common market and the definition of the main lines of the common agricultural policy posed no problems. The Treaty of Rome contained enough sufficiently precise provisions to guide the organs of the Community in the accomplishment of their mission. Commission president Walter Hallstein and the heads of government of the member states all shared a desire to work for integration in these vital fields (which were unlikely to involve any problems between nations). Although General de Gaulle firmly opposed the idea of any further development of the pre-federal aspects of the treaties way back in 1962, he was nevertheless in favour of the EEC progressing on an economic front. This decade was a particularly propitious one as regards the harmonious application of the treaty, in that the Western economy was in a good position as far as growth, price stability and employment were concerned.

The second decade has been one of crisis and perplexity. We have had a monetary crisis, an energy crisis and, since 1974, recession and a widening gap between the economies of the individual member states. Some of them have been able to overcome their difficulties, but others are still faced with mounting handicaps. It has not always been clear just how to work for European unification, the specific aims of the treaty having been reached and the member states being forced to reach unanimous agreement on new economic policies. The major weakness of the Community system has become apparent. It had tried to cope fairly with national interests as expressed in the Council, and Community interests as expressed by the Commission. The complementarity of these two institutions will only be creative if they are both sincere in seeking to cooperate but this theoretical plan, designed by the authors of the treaty, failed to take into account the dead hand of bureaucracy. The national authorities, taken by surprise by the appearance of the Commission departments, gradually got organized to fight what they wrongly took to be an attack on their monopoly. The Commission itself, with its numerous, well-qualified staff, set itself up as a government with universal authority. So the scene was set for daily guerilla warfare where everyone threw himself into defending his own interests, convinced that he alone held the truth about Europe or his nation.

Encouraged by their own departments and anxious to appear as the defenders of the national interest, ministers at the Council forget they are

working in a Community institution and behave as if they were at a diplomatic conference. One man's gain is another man's loss. The concern with getting as good as you give shapes everyday events in a climate of distrust and bitterness.

The Community will never progress unless the countries making it up remember the community spirit behind the treaties. Should we perhaps suspend agricultural marathons and technical councils, where hours are spent quibbling because of the demands of some and the arrogance of others, to read out the most significant extracts from the preambles to the treaties? Such things as: "(The signatory states) ...Resolved to substitute for age-old rivalries the merging of their essential interests... and to lay the foundations for institutions which will give direction to a destiny henceforward shared" (ECSC), and "Determined to lay the foundations of an ever closer union among the peoples of Europe" (EEC)?

The Community system counts on the political leaders wanting to seek the answer to their national problems in a united Europe. This wager is part of the logic of history and it will only be lost if the governments show intellectual shortsightedness or allow themselves to be manipulated by sectoral interests. The political will to work towards a major target is the prerogative of statesmen who benefit from the aura of power if they have the ability to do so. The pioneer generation, that of Schuman, Adenauer, Spaak, de Gasperi and de Gaulle, was succeeded by a generation of managers. Pragmatism is a virtue if it serves action without reducing the scope of vision. The leaders of Europe today will be forgotten if they fail to give form to the European ideals forged by their predecessors in the torment of war and the rigours of recovery.

The European institutions set up by the treaty can still make an invaluable contribution to the building of Europe. But they could also dwindle into an empty shell if national rivalries and parochial attitudes are the only inspiration of those responsible for running them.

How can the Community be revived?

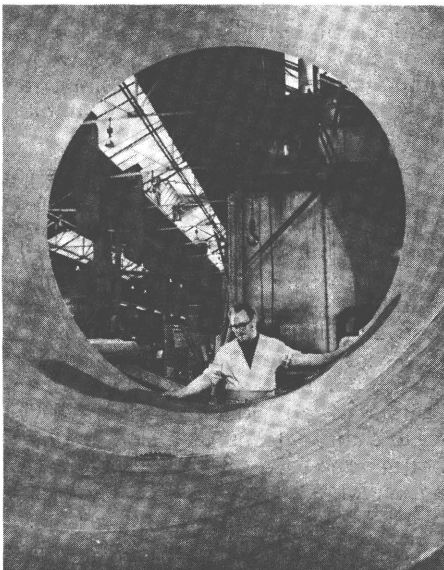
The political will to progress and unite to seek answers to common problems is the most important factor as far as the proper functioning of the European Community is concerned. But there is another factor. The system we have had for several decades now has got to adapt to new features. The dialectics of relations between the

institutions, which express the various legislative, executive and legal functions, as well as democratic control, must take four additional factors (which alter the equilibrium of the '60s) into account. They are:

- the emergence of the European Council in december 1974;
- the election of the European Parliament by universal suffrage in June 1979;
- the forthcoming enlargement from nine to 12 members;
- the introduction of the European monetary system.

(a) **The European Council** is a thrice-yearly meeting of the heads of government of the Community. It is the highest concentration of executive power in Europe. Unlike the summits held before it, the European Council is a regular event and may thus be considered to be the supreme body for appeal to which the other institutions refer any dossiers on which arbitration is required. But it remains ambiguous, since it takes a hand in the institutional system of the Community without being a formal part of it. The European Council is, first and foremost, a motive force, since its members really hold national power. It does not have to wait for the Commission to refer a proposal to it (as, the treaty says, the Council of Ministers must do vis-à-vis the Commission). Similarly, any of its resolutions are only legally valid if enshrined in a standard Council regulation. The Council of Ministers is more or less bound by the texts it interprets and this can sometimes lead to a certain amount of misunderstanding. There was some difficulty involved in expressing the resolution of the European Council of Brussels of 5 December 1978, from which stemmed the European monetary system, as a formal regulation. As soon as the Council of Ministers held its next meeting, on 14 December, France made it clear that, as it understood it, the system extended to agricultural policy from the very first. The German representative pointed out that his country did not see things like this and the failure to agree held back the implementation of the whole system.

If it is to be more credible, the European Council should transmit directives and dates for implementation to the Council of Ministers. A permanent European Council secretariat of people in the confidence of the heads of government (heads of cabinet, etc.) would have the job of ensuring the continuity of European Council action and, in particular, of stimulating the action of the departments of national ministries. Between sessions, the secretariat would publicize whatever progress had



The energy problem is an increasing threat to Europe's future

BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES

been achieved. Public opinion will soon begin to doubt the point of high level political meetings unless it is clear that decisions taken are actually applied.

Although the Council of Ministers remains, in theory and in practice, the place where national and sectoral interests meet and sometimes clash, the European Council has got to stand for the solidarity of Europe. The chairman of the European Council could therefore be a representative vis-à-vis the other Community institutions and third countries and organizations. When speaking on behalf of the Community, the chairman of the European Council should use his personal influence to convince each of his colleagues that he is the spokesman for the highest interests of Europe and not just the defender of the interests of his particular country. So the chairman of the European Council should be elected, unanimously, by his colleagues for a minimum of 12 months. This supreme presidency, which would give the incumbent considerable authority, would not necessarily be linked to the six-monthly term of office in the Council and Coreper, the organs of national representation.

Since the European Council cannot solve all the problems of the moment, a distinction could be introduced between important points (negotiating mandates with third countries, guidelines for a plan for the iron and steel sector, etc.) and secondary points (mostly measures to implement the former points) along the lines of the A and B points used by the Council of Ministers and Coreper. Although it is vital for the European Council, which represents the unanimous will of the Community, to seek a consensus, the minis-

ters should be forced into more stringent application of those articles of the treaty that lay down majority votes. Once the ministers are in receipt of a proposal from the Commission (which represents the common interest) or a directive from the European Council (a consensus), they will have no reason to invoke vital national interests of a kind that would block the decision. Excessive use of the veto in Councils of 13 ministers would make it impossible for them to work together and it would dissuade the Community organs from going in for any further joint action.

(b) **The Commission** is the sort of body that would have to be invented if it did not exist. Its job is to seek a universally acceptable Community solution and to take care of general interests. It has adequate technical means to follow up dossiers on common policies properly and it is on a par with national authorities when it has to discuss with them.

But why is the Commission the subject of so much criticism today? Some people think that it wants to become a European government and that it represents a never-ending plot that stateless technocrats are hatching against national sovereignty. Others think that it is not good enough to carry out its duties and that it has failed to resist the bureaucratic perversion to which large-scale authorities with failing ideals are prey.

The Brussels institution is vital because it is independent. Day after day, its thousands of officials administer Community policy and help forge inextricable links to bring people and interests together. But its functioning must be rationalized and its legitimacy strengthened.

- The 13 members of the Commission are appointed by joint agreement of the member states (which also agree on the appointment of the president). The commissioners swear allegiance to the Community as soon as they are appointed and should therefore be able to elect their president themselves. This would make the president even more independent of his country of origin.

Enlargement will mean 17 commissioners and the cohesion of the institution will only be saved if it delegates its essential powers to a few (six or seven) members. The Commission's restricted cabinet, under the heightened authority of the president, will be a Community executive, alert and highly representative of the whole of the Brussels administration.

- This cabinet will, in particular, be responsible for discouraging the tendency to compartmentalize the various sectors of Community activity, which causes duplication, rivalry and paralysis.

Although specialization is unavoidable, there is an undeniable need to maintain horizontal links between the various directorates-general to counterbalance all the red tape within which new national feudal systems flourish.

The Commission must not be allowed to become the toy of the colonialist ambitions of the natives of such and such a member state, some of whom have atavistic tendencies and are seeking plum jobs back in their national administrations and working counter to their duty of serving the interests of the Community.

The commissioners should devise a code of good conduct for European officials, forcing them to display their allegiance to Europe and ensuring that they do so constantly.

- Mobility is every bit as vital as loyalty. Commission officials would soon feel themselves trapped in some sort of ghetto if they did not have the occasional opportunity to exercise their responsibility in the administration or in socio-professional quarters of the member states. Conversely, the Commission should be more open to external cooperation and less swayed by the constraints of the staff regulations it has itself devised.

- An institution's authority is directly linked to its responsibility. The Commission's authority should be increased as regards the directly elected Parliament which, when dealing with the budget, would vote each title separately, thereby having the opportunity for a far-reaching dialogue with the commissioner responsible for the sector in question.

Parliament's motion of censure against the Commission (article 144 of the EEC treaty) has so far seemed too serious a sanction to be credible within the framework of everyday control. The range of parliamentary rights in each of the member states could provide the inspiration for certain changes in relations between the Commission and Parliament, whereby the present doctrine of a massive riposte would be changed for a more flexible, graded riposte.

(c) No one doubts that direct elections will give the European Parliament greater authority to use the full extent of the powers (particularly as regards the budget) conferred on it by the treaty. The risk of a clash between the European Council and the European Parliament will be all the greater and be even more disturbing to the initial system provided by the treaties to the extent that each institution claims democratic legitimacy.

It will perhaps be necessary to gradually associate the European Parliament with Community legislation, in

particular by giving it the power of co-decision, which would involve ratifying (by a two-thirds majority) the regulations and the most important directives adopted by the Council of Ministers.

Similarly, Parliament will have an increasingly important role to play in foreign policy, human rights, the environment and cultural affairs. Although resolutions in these fields will not be binding, they will help shape the collective conscience of Europeans. If they are reported by the media and given generally greater attention, the doings of an elected Parliament will enable the citizens of Europe to get a better idea of how their life and the action of the Community fit together. Like the chairman of the European Council, the chairman of the European Parliament will represent the Community vis-à-vis third countries and speak for one of the largest elected assemblies in the world.

It would be both pointless and dangerous to shut up the European Parliament in a kind of ghetto and make it the rival of national parliaments. A fruitful line of action would be to maintain a link between the two levels of responsibility, agreeing on a certain number of dual mandates, and to establish shuttle services between European and national parliaments for certain texts of common interest. Cooperation by national and European MPs could be concerned with the harmonization of certain legislation in fields not covered by Community harmonization procedures. In much the same way, the European Council could give the European Parliament some *ad hoc* mandates such as political missions (drafting of the rights of the citizen of Europe, environmental issues, justice, etc.). Parliament's proposals would go directly before the European Council, which would either adopt them or send them to the Commission for technical improvements. The European Council could also give direct instructions to the Commission in fields not covered by the present treaties. The gradual extension (necessary for more than one reason) of the field of Community integration would then be achieved under the responsibility and direct control of the European Council and the European Parliament.

The Commission would become the vital arbiter-mediator-executor between these two poles, the European Council and the European Parliament, each with its own democratic legitimacy.

(d) By making a major step forward in the direction of economic and monetary union, one of the oldest and most important aims of the promoters of European unification, the European

Council of Bremen on 6 and 7 July 1978 and of Brussels on 6 December 1978, laid down the main lines of the European monetary system. This is scheduled to come into full operation in January 1981. It should involve the setting up of a European monetary fund and imply full use of the ECU as a reserve currency and for payment. The body thus created will have the all-important task of taking the appropriate steps to ensure that the European currencies stay linked, within narrow margins, and of turning the ECU into something that will strengthen the monetary personality of the Community in the world. The governor or director of such a fund could well have as much power as the governor of the federal bank of the USA. The secrecy and rapidity that must, of necessity, mark his every action (so as to avoid market speculation and usefully influence international fluctuation) can only be guaranteed if the governor has as much authority and independence as the president of the Commission or the Court of Justice.

Conclusions — a fruitful heritage

The new generations of Europeans would be wrong to give in to the temptation, always resented by those who come after, to destroy the framework built by those who went before. Imagination, so vital to life, can get out of control if it tries to be inventive at any price. As far as the European institutions are concerned, the obsession with invention can easily lead to regression. A wealth of experience would be worthless to anyone so immoderate as to deny that others that went before him, who were not all incompetent.

So the precarious system whereby the Commission, the Council the Parliament and the Court of Justice can seek, via a permanent dialogue, to reconcile short-term national interest with long-term common interest, is still the least bad method of organization and it can easily be perfected. The European Council, the directly elected Parliament and the European Monetary Fund complete and enrich the system, but they should not alter the essential principles which are the only ones suitable for the type of relations that the countries of Europe can and must have before the end of the century. When the third generation of Europeans takes over, they will have to take the final step to total union. The only cause for anxiety is that we may one day wake up in a world we never wanted, having lacked the courage and lucidity to break with the constraints of the past in good time. □ P.F.

A glance at Community life



Where there's smoke there's fire

While tobacco was introduced in Europe from the New World in the 16th century for its supposed medicinal value, it is now the subject of world-wide controversy as a harmful substance.

Sir Walter Raleigh may have been an illustrious soldier, administrator and man of letters, but he was beheaded and the "sotweed" he helped popularize has become the scourge of many societies.

Another product of the New World, the humorist Mark Twain, once remarked, "it's easy to give up smoking, I've done it at least 800 times myself". But for those who can't kick the habit, scientific research now indicates that they are much more likely to succumb to lung cancer, heart disease or other ailments than are non-smokers.

American authorities indicate that in 1979 a quarter of a million Americans will die as a direct result of their consumption of tobacco, 72 000 of them from lung cancer. And this phenomenon isn't typically American. France has a population one-fourth the United States, but smoking kills prematurely 35 000 persons each year there, 15 000 by lung cancer. Smoking has been designated as a graver menace than automobile accidents—killing four victims for every traffic fatality.

The 49 poisonous substances which have been identified as being contained in tobacco are regularly being consumed by the millions of smokers for whom a pack of cigarettes is a daily necessity. Lung cancer, cardiovascular disturbances, heart attack, ulcers are all the handmaidens of the destructive habit. Innocent victims are also claimed, as pregnant smokers are more likely to give birth to sickly or retarded

babies. In women over 40, the use of tobacco and birth control pills together may lead to blood circulatory problems.

Non-smokers are also condemned to inhale the smoke of the smoking population, which according to some reports contains twice as much nicotine and tars as the hot smoke inhaled by the smoker himself.

Luckily there are various solutions to the problem. There is direct action, such as that taken by the American secretary of health, education and welfare, Joseph Califano, who of his own will power stopped smoking his regular three packs of cigarettes a day.

There is also the possibility of anti-smoking campaigns, such as the one launched by these same American authorities, which will cost some US \$23 m. Its direct results are still to be registered and evaluated.

Up to now, the anti-smoking campaigns waged in Europe have had little impact. This is what the nine European Community health ministers meeting in Brussels had to admit a few months ago.

They had facts before them, however, which made the need for such action seem evident. The public costs of smoking, in the form of medical treatment, hospital space required and so on, is far higher than the taxes collected on tobacco products. For instance, in Germany it is estimated that expenses caused by smoking have reached 20 billion DM (or £5.3 billion), while the revenue from tobacco taxes was only 9 billion DM (or £2.4 billion). These proportions are just about the same throughout the Community.

The ministers also had a report indicating that smoking among the male population, perhaps increasingly conscious of the health consequences, was going down. In the meantime, however, the habit was increasing in the female population, perhaps as a result of the growing emancipation and responsibilities of women.

Even if there are already some laws in all the Community countries prohibiting or limiting tobacco use in public places, in schools or in hospitals, the nine ministers agreed that they should study the results of these efforts. They also decided to cooperate on the campaigns they expect to undertake against smoking.

But will laws and regulations be adequate?

Lifestyle



Some taxes quench your thirst more quickly than others

Beer, whisky and red wine are probably the three most widely drunk alcoholic drinks in the European Community. But as every traveller and holiday-maker knows, you get more for your money in some countries than in others.

This is partly due to different cost structures and traditions—generally southern Europe goes for wine, while the north prefers beer. Another element, however, is the variety in the rates of excise duty and value added tax throughout the Nine.

Take whisky, for instance. In the United Kingdom, which is far and away the largest producer among the Nine, excise duty and VAT combined account for over 82% of a normal 26 ounce bottle costing £4.50 (approximately 7 EUA)—the highest rate in the Community.

In Ireland, the only other major producer in Western Europe, you will have to pay on average over £4.90 (7.4 EUA), 75% of which is accounted for by excise duties and VAT. The only other country with taxes of a comparable level is Denmark (77%), where prices are the highest in the Community. A bottle sells at Dkr 137 (almost 20 EUA).

The lowest rate is in Luxembourg (38%), with a bottle costing a modest Flux 185 (4.7 EUA). Nor does the Ger-

man government ask its whisky drinkers to pay a great deal in tax. VAT and excise duty total only 43% on a bottle retailing at DM 19 (7.6 EUA).

In Belgium, France and the Netherlands the combined taxes are a little under 60% on bottles ranging in price from 6 to 7.7 EUA. But to buy whisky at the cheapest prices, aficionados should go to Italy. At Lit 4509 (some 4 EUA), a bottle is one fifth the Danish cost.

Differences are less marked for beer. The highest VAT and excise rate is in Denmark—just over 50%—where a normal 0.33 litre bottle is the most expensive in Europe: Dkr 3.80 (0.6 EUA). Nor is it particularly cheap in Ireland, famous for its Guinness. On a bottle costing 0.27 pounds (0.4 EUA), 41% goes in tax.

In all other countries, tax accounts for between 15 and 30% on bottles ranging from 0.2 to 0.3 EUA each.

Wine drinkers would, not surprisingly, be well advised to go to Italy, where a one litre bottle of average-quality red table wine is the cheapest in Europe, Lit 530 (0.5 EUA), and VAT one of the lowest at 6%. No excise duties are charged on wine.

Nor is there any excise on domestically produced wine in Luxembourg, making a litre bottle well within the financial means of most people—Flux 33 (0.8 EUA).

As you go further north in Europe, so the price also rises. In Germany you will have to pay 1 EUA for a bottle, in Belgium 1.3 EUA, the Netherlands 1.5 and Ireland 2.3. No figures are available for Denmark and the United Kingdom.

- Improving job motivation.
- Special help for specific groups such as girls, young migrants and young handicapped people.
- Coordination of the activities of educational, guidance, training and employment agencies.
- Greater cooperation between schools and employers.
- Improving initial and in-service training of teachers concerning the transition period between school and work.

For example, there are pilot courses in Bradford, England, to help young West Indians and Asians who cannot find jobs after leaving school. In Strathclyde, Scotland, there is a course to help early school leavers with little or no qualifications.

Education



From school to work: not an easy transition

The transition from school to working life is often an unsettling event. This year nearly four million young people will be leaving the cosy security of the classroom and seeking jobs in the harsh professional world.

Their prospects are far from bright. With six million unemployed in the Community the job market is extremely tight, especially for school leavers. Many of them will have no formal qualifications or else diplomas that are irrelevant for the jobs they are seeking.

In December 1977 the Community's nine education ministers launched a four year action programme to help prepare young people for working life.

The keystone of this programme was a series of 28 pilot projects involving several hundred schools. These projects started operating at the beginning of the 1978/79 school year.

Recently the project leaders met in Brussels to exchange views and discuss how the action programme was faring. Mr Guido Brunner, Commissioner responsible for education policy, opened the meeting, which was also seen as an opportunity for "grass roots" workers to directly help in the shaping of Community policy.

The pilot projects are intended to give fresh impetus to action taken by the nine member states. They are also designed to strengthen Community efforts, mainly through the European social fund, to develop employment and vocational training.

The projects will be jointly financed by the Community and the member states. Their annual cost during the three years they run will be about £4 million.

The projects are inspired by six interlinked themes:

- Helping school leavers find and keep jobs.

Unequal treatment of women may lead to legal showdown

Women may, in law, be equal to men, but some are less equal than others, to use George Orwell's phrase.

Now the European Commission, which is responsible for monitoring the application of Community laws, has decided to begin the first stage of legal proceedings against member states which are not facing up to their obligations to working women.

The two Community laws in question are one which came into force in 1976 and which was designed to guarantee women the same pay as men for the same work or for work of equal value; and a second which was due to be incorporated into the nine national laws last August guaranteeing women the same opportunities as men when they look for a job, for promotion or for training, as well as guaranteeing them comparable working conditions.



The Commission has now decided that as many as seven out of the nine member states are not applying the first law properly. These countries are Denmark, the Netherlands, Germany, Luxembourg, France, Belgium and the United Kingdom. The exceptions are Ireland and Italy.

According to the Commission, different countries fall down on their obliga-

tions in different ways. For example, the Danes recognize equal pay for equal work but not for work of equal value. In the Netherlands, women in the public service are excluded. In a number of other countries special allowances such as "head of household" are paid to men but not to women.

In the case of the second law, action is to be taken against Germany and the Netherlands, which have not yet incorporated the Community law into national law. While the other member states have done so, the Commission is examining each national law in detail to ensure that it conforms with the Community law.

So what happens now? In both cases, the Commission writes to the governments concerned, inviting them to reply within 60 days. The Commission may then, if it considers it necessary, issue a reasoned opinion detailing the action that the government should take to conform to Community law. If this action is not taken within a specified time the Commission can take the matter before the Court of Justice.

Both the member state governments and the Commission are generally anxious to avoid allowing a matter to go so far and differences are frequently settled at an early stage of the proceedings. If a matter does go as far as the Court, all parties concerned naturally accept its judgment as final.

Helping the needy: a question of national priorities

Social security systems offering a wide range of benefits exist in every European Community country, but some have different priorities than others.

The United Kingdom spends a higher share on pensions (43% of total social security benefits) than any other country. Belgium with 38%, France (37%) and Luxembourg (37%) also distribute sizable amounts under this heading. On the other hand, in Germany the figure is just 28%. All other countries devote just under a third of their benefits to helping their old people.

The other major item of expenditure in any social security scheme is sickness benefit—an area to which Ireland in particular appears to attach great importance, spending 35% of its benefits in this area. Most other countries show a remarkable similarity, with between 24 and 30%.

If, however, you are a surviving dependent, then you might prefer to be in Germany or Luxembourg. Each country spends 15% of its benefits under this heading. For other member

states the figure varies between 1% (Denmark, Ireland and Belgium) and 6% (France and Italy).

Belgium and France, however, are the countries that attach the greatest importance to children, spending 14% and 13% respectively on family allowances. Elsewhere in the Community the figure varies between 9 and 11%.

The emphasis placed on unemployment benefits also shows considerable differences from country to country. It takes up 10% of the social security budget in Ireland and Denmark, 8% in Belgium, but only 2% in Italy, 3% in Germany and 4% in France. For the Netherlands and the UK the figure is 6%.

One of the greatest disparities between the Nine occurs on invalidity. Italy and the Netherlands consider state help so important that they spend respectively 18 and 13% of their total social security budget under this heading. In all other countries spending ranges between 5 and 8%.

But how is all this expenditure funded? Generally, three major sources—firms, central government and the citizens themselves—provide the vast majority of the funds. This is topped up by local government, social security and miscellaneous finance.

It is undoubtedly the firms themselves that make the greatest contributions, with an average throughout the Community of 36%, which is expected to increase to 38% in 1980. The range is from 6% in Denmark to 52% in Italy and 46% in France. Belgium and Germany are around the Community average, while the Netherlands, United Kingdom and Luxembourg hover around the 28% mark.

Central government is the largest contributor in the three newest Community countries, providing 59% in Ireland, 56% in Denmark and 41% in the United Kingdom. In the remaining members its contributions range from 22% in the Netherlands to 38% in Belgium and Luxembourg.

The only country to depend to any significant extent on local government finance is Denmark, where it supplies 32% of social security receipts. In no other country is it more than 7%, while in Ireland it is only 1%.

The heaviest burden on the individual is in the Netherlands where he provides about one third of total social security income. Contributions are also fairly hefty in Germany (27%), Luxembourg (25%), France (22%) and Belgium (21%). In Italy, Ireland and the United Kingdom it is around 15%, while in Denmark it is no more than 2%.

The money—where does it come from and where does it go? (1)

● In 1978, the Community budget was 13 000 million EUA—2.7% of the national budgets.

● It was provided by the Community's own resources—the taxes levied at Community frontiers (customs duties, 39%); variable agricultural levies on certain imports (16.7%); part of VAT (43%); taxes on certain ECSC products (0.30%) and on the salaries of Community officials (1%).

● How was it spent? 74% was allocated to agriculture, 5% to the social fund, 4.3% to the regions, 2.5% to various activities such as research, energy, industry and transport, 3.2% to development aid (not including the EDF), 7% to running the institutions and 4% to the staff.

● The Community's main financial instruments are the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF), which spends 90% of its resources on supporting markets and the rest on structural improve-

ments, the European regional development fund, the European social fund, the ECSC fund (which grants loans in the coal and steel sector), the European Investment Bank (EIB), which had given loans worth 7 406 million EUA within the Community and 1 098 million EUA outside up to the end of 1977, the European monetary fund (EMF), which will replace and extend the monetary cooperation fund, set up in 1972, in the European monetary system (EMS). The EMF is intended to enable the member states to reach mutual agreement on credit to support their currencies and it will get 20% of the gold and dollar reserves of the members of the EMS. The European development fund (EDF) distributes aid from the Nine (from outside the Community budget) to the Third World, in accordance with the Lomé Convention (more than 3 000 million EUA for the current five-year period).

(1) From *Le Monde*, 3 March 1979.

Books about Europe

Emmanuel MAFFRE-BAUGE — **Face à l'Europe des impasses (The impasses of Europe)** — Privat, Editeur, 14, rue des Arts, Toulouse — 223 pages — Bfrs 300 — 1979

In this book, Emmanuel Maffre-Baugé, vine-grower, militant and Mediterranean poet, ponders on the destiny of those around him...

"Enlargement is imminent and Greece, Spain and Portugal are now to be members of the EEC. A thought-provoking event, bringing many reactions.

"Enlargement looms on the horizon of the year 2000 like a cloud. Will it bring refreshing rain? Or does it harbour a pitiless hailstorm to ravage and destroy the fragile harvests of mankind?

"For some it means peace, economic balance, expansion and harmonious development and for others an infernal machine recoiling, out of control, against the people of Europe.

"In my little village, tucked away between rivers and hills, I am wondering about the right to judge. Can I? Do I have enough information?

"On a cool morning, with autumn in the air, day breaks over the joyful, leafy vines. A gentle southerly breeze steals playfully into the woods and copses. A lonely cock calls and farmyards come to life. Workmen motorcycle through my village to the nearby factory (some are to be laid off, they say) and a young farmer drives by on his tractor, bought on hire purchase.

"A sudden shiver chills me. I shiver for the farmer and for the workmen. I shiver for the local grocer who can no longer make ends meet. And I shiver for the peaceful craftsman now opening the windows of his workshop."

GRUPE CADMOS — Denis de ROUGEMONT — **Rapport au peuple européen sur l'état de l'union de l'Europe 1979 (Report to the people of Europe on the state of European union, 1979)** — Editions Stock, 14, rue de l'Ancienne Comédie, 75006 Paris — 180 pages — Bfrs 193 — 1979

The election of the first European Parliament is a big day in our history. This report is an attempt to fill an "almost unbelievable" gap for, the author says, no one has yet bothered to show what is at stake.

Where does Western Europe really stand in the profoundly changing world? How serious is the (only embryonic) crisis? What solutions can union provide?

A group of economists, philosophers and ecologists from a dozen of our countries has attempted to make up for this lack of objective information by explaining, for example, why increasing unemployment is unavoidable in the industrialized countries, why national inflation is irreversible and why defence is impossible on a divided continent. But it also shows why European union, the only answer to this challenge, is an urgent necessity for each of our countries and for peace in the world.

Here is a new, coherent programme, a clear case, sincerely and soundly argued. It shows us a genuinely human Europe, not a technocratic utopia.

The choice is yours. "You are one people, Europe. You want but one thing. Peace" (Victor Hugo, 1878).

Jacqueline POELMANS — **L'Europe et les consommateurs (Europe and the consumers)** — Preface by E.A. Lisle — Foreword by R. Ramaekers — Fernand Nathan, Paris — Editions Labor, Brussels — Bfrs 265 — 1978

This book answers three questions:

What do Europeans consume? — There is a certain amount of similarity here. There is the same trend towards large incomes in all the countries. The last 15 years have seen a real revolution...

Have the Treaty of Rome and the development of the EEC affected the consumer? — Supplies are more diversified and monopolies have been restricted. These are the obvious changes. But there are more essential things than this and they are not all causes for satisfaction.

How is the consumer protected by the consumer movements in Europe? — There are considerable differences from one country to another, both as regards targets and specific action. All this is carefully reviewed and analyzed.

The author concludes with a discussion of the contents and significance of a consumer policy.

Jean-Louis BURBAN — **Le Parlement Européen et son élection (The European Parliament and direct elections)** — Preface by Jean-Pierre

Cot — Etablissements Emile Bruylant, SA, rue de la Régence, 67, 1000 Bruxelles — 208 pages — Bfrs 636 — 1979

The European Parliament has existed for sometime, but it has never drawn any attention to itself. What has it done to date? What is it for? Why send 180 million European voters to the polls for direct elections? Why was it not done before, why not leave it until later? Do the achievements of the common market justify these elections? What will happen now? Is there any danger of the new Parliament, with its new legitimacy, proclaiming the United States of Europe which some say would be a Europe for the United States? Are direct elections a risk-free step forward in this respect or are they just a risk without a step forward? Mr Burban answers all these questions with the authority of a practical man of politics and a political specialist.

He holds a doctorate in law and a diploma from the Paris Institute of Political Studies and for 10 years now he has been an expert on institutional questions at the European Parliament. Many of his articles have appeared in scientific journals and in *Le Monde*. In this book, Burban sweeps aside myths and clichés about the European Parliament which some see as the panacea for all Europe's ills and others see as the beginning of the apocalypse.

Jean-Pierre Cot, the brilliant young MP and university figure, has written the preface to this book on the least known of the European institutions that direct elections have suddenly thrust into the limelight.

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Chris COOK & Mary FRANCIS — **The First European Elections — A handbook and guide** — Macmillan Press — 193 pages — £2.95 — 1979

Between 7-10 June 1979, Britain and her eight EEC partners went to the polls in the world's first ever international election. By Monday 11th, the votes of some 180 million electors in the nine member countries were counted, and the first duly elected European Parliament will assemble in July.

The first direct elections for the European Parliament mark a milestone in the evolution and development of political Europe. But their

ACP railway prospects



Some 30 ACP countries have railway systems, 26 of them in Africa, and it is in the African continent that a major effort is being made in the period 1978-1988 to improve rail communications. These 10 years have been declared the United Nations decade for transport and communications in Africa, and a strategy has been developed to modernize and interconnect the fragmented African railway systems, and integrate rail with other means of transport.

Most African railways were built in colonial times to open up areas of economic importance. Although road transport has since replaced railways throughout the world as the main form of transport, rail remains pre-eminent in certain areas, particularly for moving heavy goods such as minerals and timber. The newest African railways have been, or are being built primarily to exploit such resources effectively (the trans-Gabonese, the trans-Cameroonian and the Tazara).

A 20% increase in Africa's railway system, from 78 000 km to 93 600 km, would totally transform the network. The essentially national structure of the present lines would be changed to a network linking the north and west of the continent to the east and south. Even a much more limited

expansion of 4% would considerably internationalize the network: 1 470 km from Nyala, in Sudan, to Maiduguri, in Nigeria, would join the Atlantic to the Red Sea; 1 450 km would complete the Cape to Cairo route.

Railways are, however, very costly to build and the economic justification for new lines has to be sound; they must visibly contribute to development. In contrast to the problems posed by cost, the technical difficulties of harmonizing the different systems (gauges, varying rolling stock, signalling and breaking systems, etc.) are less daunting. Another costly exercise, however, is modernization to improve regularity, capacity and speed.

Since its first general assembly in 1972, the Union of African Railways has been studying ways to unite and upgrade the African network. The African transport decade which has just begun will give further impetus to the desire to turn a number of national railway systems into a genuinely continental network which would both stimulate development and contribute to the economic and political unity of Africa.

Our dossier describes some of the main problems and prospects for ACP railways.

ACP railways in figures

There are railway systems in 30 of the ACP states. In a few these are extensive, as in Zaire, the Sudan, Nigeria, Zambia and East Africa, but in the main they are relatively short stretches. The following statistics come from *Jane's World Railways and Rapid Transit Systems (1978)* edited by Paul Goldsack, whom we thank for their kind permission to reproduce them.

Country and organization	Gauge (m)	Route length (km)	Loco-motives	Rail cars (t)	Pass. train cars	Freight train cars C = container	Total volume freight ('000 t)	Passengers ('000)	Max. axle load (t)	Staff numbers
BENIN Organisation Commune Benin-Niger des Chemins de Fer et des Transports	1.00	579	11	D 4 T 5	29	387 C 23	281.4	1 291	13	1 588
BOTSWANA	1.673	The newly proposed Botswana Corp is due to take over Rhodesia Railway's main line between Plumtree and Ramatlabama on January 1, 1980. The route was transferred to RR from South African Railways when Botswana became independent in 1966. A five-man team from Transmark arrived in Gaborone in January 1978 to spend a year sorting out administration problems for the new Botswana Railway and advise on maintenance facilities, as well as study rolling stock and motive power requirements.								
CAMEROON Régie Nationale des CF du Cameroun	1.00	839	81	D 11	80	1 243	1 168.8	1 956.3	13	3 094
CONGO CF Congo-Ocean CF Comilog	1.067 1.067	515 285	57 20	D 7 R 9	58 —	1 165 C 62 374	3 612 1 511.6	1 220.5 0	16 16	3 086 1 234
DJIBOUTI/ETHIOPIA Djibouti-Addis Ababa Railways Northern Ethiopia Railways	1.00 0.95	781 306	36 24	— D 5	56 19	872 565	470.6 109	770.5 215	12.5	N/A N/A
EAST AFRICA (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda)(2) Tazara	1.00	5 894 1 860	427	—	536	16 099	5 989.5 1 000 (3)	5 750.4 780 (3)	21	43 539
FIJI Sugar Corp. Ltd.	0.6	644	48	—	5	N/A	1 750	N/A	7	700
GABON CF du Gabon	1.435	328	12	(4) N/A	(4) N/A	(4) N/A	—	—	—	—
GHANA Ghana Railway and Ports Authority	1.067	953	205		259	3 689	1 626	7 273.3	16	15 524
GUINEA CF de la Guinée CF Conakry-Fria CF de la Compagnie Minière de Conakry CF de Boke	1.00 1.00 1.435 1.00	662 144 14 145	32 5 2 N/A	D 8 D 2 N/A N/A	23 — N/A N/A	483 53 C 15 12 N/A	N/A N/A N/A N/A	N/A N/A N/A N/A	13 17 N/A N/A	N/A 80 N/A N/A
GUYANA Demba Railroad	0.914	80	37		12	646	754	18.5	15	157
IVORY COAST-UPPER VOLTA Régie des CF Abidjan-Niger	1.00	1 173	63	D 18 T 33	87	1 247	962	2 828	13/15	N/A

Country and organization	Gauge (m)	Route length (km)	Locomotives	Rail cars (1)	Pass. train cars	Freight train cars C = container	Total volume freight ('000 t)	Passengers ('000)	Max. axle load (t)	Staff numbers
JAMAICA Jamaica Rail. Corp. Kaiser Bauxite Alpart Railway	1.435 1.435 1.435	330 25 18	25 4 5	D 6 T 11 — —	23 — —	382 88 343	4 009.5 5 000 1 500	1 106 — —	17 32 31.5	1 705 1 600 700
LIBERIA Lamco J.V. operating co.	1.435	270	24	D 5	—	591	10 701.2	—	30	608
MADAGASCAR Réseaux National des CF Malgaches	1.00	883	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	882	3 841	N/A	N/A
MALAWI Malawi Railways	1.067	566	30	D 2	23	649	1 105.2	1 079	16.5	3 597
MALI Régie du CF du Mali	1.00	642	22	D 3 T 28	24	330	291.5	624.3	15	1 605
MAURITANIA CF Miferma	1.435	650	37	0	0	1 084	8 750	0	25	1 240
NIGERIA Nigerian Railway Corporation	1.067	3 505	355	D 2	515	5 738	1 717	5 819.4	18/20	29 731
SENEGAL CF du Sénégal	1.00	1 032	58	D 10 T 21	86	1 051	1 806	3 825.3	15	4 028
SUDAN Sudan Railways	1.067	4 780	289	D 9	392	5 577	2 380.2	2 541 851	12.5/16.5	41 099
SURINAME Suriname Government Railways	1.00	86	8	D 3 T 6	16	58	N/A	N/A	—	N/A
SWAZILAND Swaziland Railways	1.067	219	—	—	—	703	2 947.3	—	18	852
TOGO Réseau des CF du Wharf du Togo	1.00	442	21	R 5 D 5	63	378 C 2	N/A	N/A	12.5	1 072
ZAIRE Compagnie des CF Kinshasa — Dilolo — Lubumbashi CF des Gds Lacs CF Matadi/Kinshasa CF Mayumbe CF Vicinaux du Zaïre	1.067 1.067 1.00 1.067 0.615 0.60	2 620 959 125 409 136 839	180 43 16 63 14 44	 D 3	187 52 20 63 0 19	4 888 487 83 2 940 370 350	5 920 2 192 14 183 1 629.7 120.4 304.5	1 426.6 472.7 — 1 290.1 — 93.2	15 15 12.5 16.5 8 8	16 500 4 538 N/A N/A N/A 3 471
ZAMBIA Zambia Railways (see also E. Africa)	1.067	1 044	97	0	86	128	26 486	1 014	17	7 800

(1) E = electric; D = diesel; T = trailer; R = railbus; M = multiple; U = unit set.

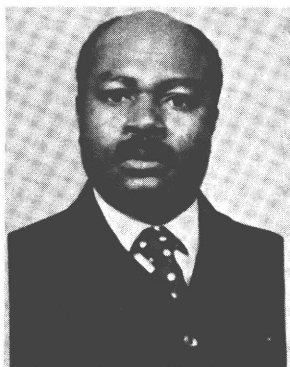
(2) Formerly the East African Railways Cooperation, which broke up in August 1976.

(3) First eleven months.

(4) Rolling stock is being delivered and includes passenger cars, railcars and 260 flat wagons.

Railways and development in Africa

by Adama DIAGNE(*)



Adama Diagne

Most specialists recognize that any kind of development in Africa must involve redesigning and rebuilding the transport system.

Africa is a massive, impenetrable island. There is a sharp contrast between its intense maritime activity, which is the result of foreign domination, and its north-south air links, its scant, piecemeal, overland transport systems, the 95 000 km of rail track and 30 000 of roads, and its 10 000 km of inland waterways, navigable the year round.

The communications network has serious deficiencies due to its irregularity, its lack of complementarity and, above all, its heterogeneity. Yet transport has always been a powerful factor of development and unity in all countries and all continents.

In Africa, trains are still the most operational form of transport and the railways have all the serious defects typical of developing countries:

- the lines go mainly north to south;
- there are no links between them;
- gauges vary;
- operating methods vary;
- methods of pricing vary;
- there is no coordination between the railways and the other means of transport.

So, if Africa is to win the big development battle, it clearly must, first and foremost, have better-designed transport infrastructure and a different approach to its use.

The railways in particular must be integrated into the general process of economic development and the national development plans. In addition, and this is most important, the job must be done with sub-regional and regional integration firmly in mind.

This must mean coordinated schemes to modernize existing lines, to replace material and equipment, to use advanced techniques to handle both existing and potential traffic, and laying new lines that can provide support for the development of east-west trade between the different countries.

African resources

When dealing with transport, it is necessary to get an overall picture of what products need transporting where and what passenger traffic there is likely to be (for economic

and other reasons). Africa, with three different types of geographical relief and many types of climate, is just as rich in resources as the other continents. Indeed, it has the advantage of enormous wealth which is far from being fully exploited. It has been the principal source of labour and raw materials and it is still the continent of the future.

It has substantial deposits of iron, chromium, manganese, bauxite, uranium, gold, diamonds and more. Some countries south of the Sahara, like Nigeria, the Congo and Gabon, produce oil. Others, Libya, Algeria and Egypt, for example, have natural gas as well. And trade in other products, such as leather, coffee, cocoa, oil seeds, palm nuts, fish and cattle, generates a considerable amount of traffic.

All these resources have always been sent to the colonial metropolis in the form of raw materials. And some have come back in the form of exorbitantly priced finished products.

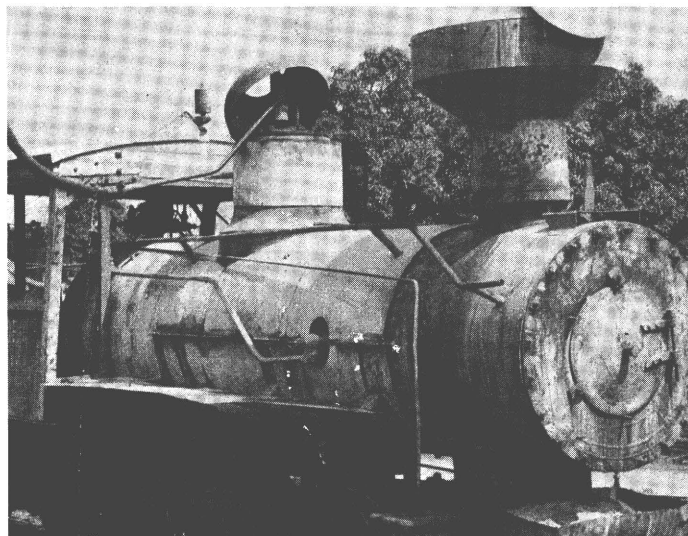
It is clear why the African group has taken advantage of the various meetings with the EEC and in UNCTAD conferences to try to change this state of affairs and seek what we now call a new international economic order.

Africa could easily manufacture its own steel instead of just exporting iron ore. And it could surely have factories to make textiles from cotton and fertilizers from its many high-grade phosphate deposits. This would quite literally alter the movement of the products these countries need for their development, particularly as far as the consumer centres are concerned.

Since the economies we are dealing with are very specific the result would be that products would go from central Africa, say, north and south, and vice versa. Timber, rubber, coffee and palm nuts, all of which are produced in the centre would go, and so would tea (east), sugar and tobacco (south) and phosphates (north).

There is, of course, already some trade between the countries of Africa, albeit on a very small scale. Chad, for example, sells cattle to Nigeria, Cameroon and the Congo.

Old equipment is being replaced



(*) Secretary-general of the Union of African Railways.

And Nigeria sells food products, palm oil and fish to a number of other countries on the continent. Benin exports fish to Nigeria and Togo, and Guinea and Ghana export food products and cattle. The CAE exports cotton, coffee and rubber products through Cameroon and the Congo.

If this trade is to be stepped up, clearly there must be a large, integrated transport network. And Africa must, in view of the world situation and the many demands of development, choose the most economic means of transport, namely the one involving the least money and the most people.

Sea transport is still the commonest form of transport in trade in Africa, but it will not go on satisfying this criterion. It has the added disadvantage of being outside the control of the African governments and it is one of the international fields in which Africa is fighting for fair shares with the industrialized countries.

Airlines are expensive and most flights are in a north-south direction. So they cannot solve Africa's problems either, until there are east-west routes to save money and time.

African traffic tends to be bulk transport of agricultural produce and minerals. So high rates are out of the question and transport by road is not suitable. Railways are the only real alternative because of the advantages they offer as regards transporting heavy loads over long distances.

The energy crisis will inevitably force some goods away from road and sea and onto the railways because trains are more reliable and use less energy.

On most African networks, in Malawi, Egypt, Morocco and Algeria, and on the Abidjan-Niger railway (Ivory Coast,

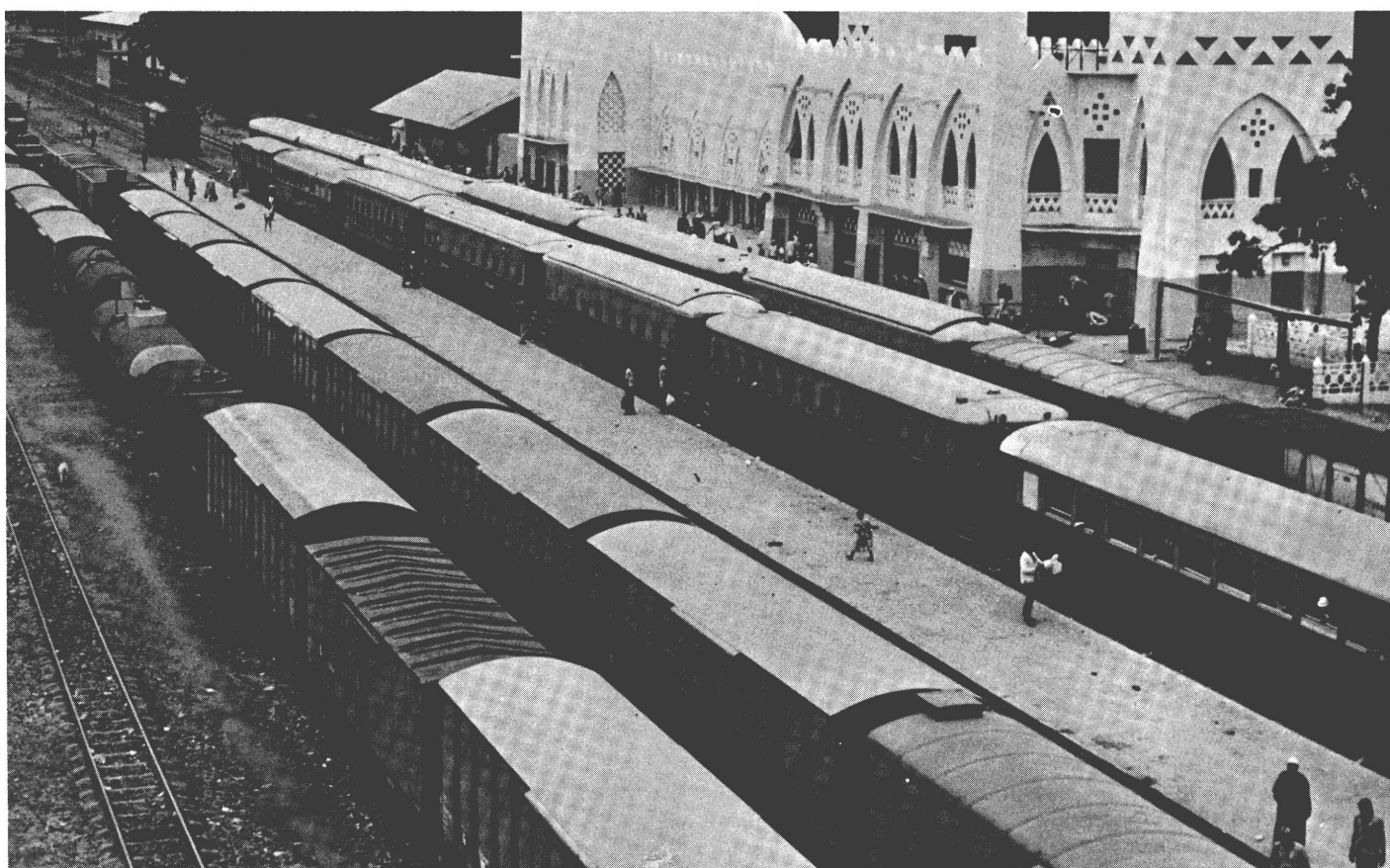
Upper Volta), for example, both passenger and goods traffic is on the increase, as the table shows.

Network	Period	Annual growth of traffic	
		Goods	Passenger
Morocco	1973/1975	7.5%	4.03%
Algeria	1974/1977	11 %	13 %
Egypt	1973/1975	6 %	6.5 %
Sudan	1973/1975	3.5%	2.8 %
East African Railways	1976	5 %	30 %
Malawi	1975	7.1%	15 %
Cameroon	1975	6 %	6.5 %
Abidjan-Niger Railway	1975	10 %	7 %
Senegal	1975	5 %	2 %

After independence, political developments in the countries of Africa led them to varying emphasis being placed on railway projects.

Steam is gradually being replaced and powerful diesel engines (2 500-3 500 hp) have been introduced. Welded rails have been adopted and mechanized maintenance methods make for good performances.

This enables the Maghreb lines, Egypt and the Abidjan-Niger, for example, to run very busy passenger services where people travel in considerable comfort.



Bobo-Dioulasso (Upper Volta).

The proposed line to Bamako would link up Dakar, Bamako, Ouagadougou and Abidjan

African railways

Figures in italics are for 1975. The rest are for 1977.

	Track		Engines			Coaches etc.			Traffic				Average price per tk	Average price per pk	Exploitation rate
	Gauge	Length	Locomotives	Motor tractors	Autorails	Wagons	Coaches + trucks	Tonnage mining industry	Total tonnage	Tonne-kilometres ($\times 1\ 000$)	Passengers ($\times 1\ 000$)	Passenger-kilometres			
<i>SNTF</i> Algeria	1 435	3 912	89	69	37	11 049	475	3 325	7 047	1 712 562	8 691	1 129 717	0.17 DA	0.095 DA	93
ER Egypt	1 055	3 905	535	119	127	16 620	1 700	8 225	8 225	5 035 436	226 054	5 195 973	0.003 LE	0.005 LE	91
ONCF Morocco	1 435	1 768	127	64	8	9 974	401	19 123	22 619	340 961	5 865	835 091	0.08 DH	0.06	121
SRC Sudan	1 067	4 784	245	76	9	6 661	495	2 672	2 672	2 620 724	3 069	1 166 668	0.01 Lsd	0.004	110
<i>SNCFT</i> Tunisia	1 000	1 732	76	33	26	5 471	208	4 803	6 835	1 314 495	24 755	712 548	0.01 D	0.005	119
Angola	1 067	3 613	46	32	23	3 882	132	15 102	15 102	1 163 789	1 431	247 401	12.2 CFAF	5.45	96
RNCFC Cameroon	1 000	1 168	51	24	11	1 501	107	1 20	1 409	486 158	1 725	259 493	8.9 CFAF	5.30	108
CFCC Congo	1 067	795	12	73	17	1 893	78	1 872	3 315	879 831	1 903	390 482	0.04 Z	0.02 Z	120
OCTRA Gabon	1 437	90	150	73	17	5 883	234	2 671	4 392	1 773 168	1 038	390 482	0.04 Z	0.02 Z	120
<i>RAN</i> Ivory Coast—	600	4 721	33	21	32	1 200	174	116	761	543 420	3 556	1 172 778	9.44 CFAF	1.48	98.3
Upper Volta	1 000	1 147	14	10	8	356	29	116	323	120 661	1 593	120 661	—	—	94
OCBN Benin-Niger	1 000	579	103	89	4	3 289	182	—	1 142	199 798	6 933	498 156	—	—	107
GRH Ghana	1 067	925	30	17	16	500	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
ONCFG Guinea	1 000	662	29	17	5	1 040	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
LAMCO Liberia	1 435	270	21	9	4	380	47	—	332	148 736	612	129 227	—	—	118
RCFM Mali	1 000	641	37	3	—	1 152	8	7 467	7 476	4 857 696	—	—	—	—	—
<i>SNIM</i> Mauritania	1 435	650	189	82	—	6 707	—	—	2 129	816 887	5 130	504 800	—	—	—
NRC Nigeria	1 067	3 523	35	26	11	905	144	1 221	1 558	306 574	1 738	181 588	8.1 CFAF	4.2	107.7
RCFS Senegal	1 000	1 034	10	9	3	293	74	—	305	41 735	1 351	64 913	—	—	198
CFT Togo	1 000	442	36	10	4	880	66	—	453	243 697	673	107 681	—	—	104
CFAD Ethiopia	1 000	781	173	72	—	6 633	181	728	3 844	2 211 328	1 374	326 510	0.23 K Sh	0.07	99
KR Kenya	1 000	1 265	37	38	13	1 047	71	—	—	264 642	3 974	276 588	7.3 FMG	3.16	94.4
RNCFM Madagascar	1 000	888	29	8	2	756	33	129	1 116	201 059	964	58 717	0.042 MK	0.009	97
MR Malawi	1 067	556	204	54	27	7 657	187	4 190	7 867	835 390	9 306	—	—	—	87
CFM Mozambique	1 067	2 547	14	—	—	787	—	1 672	2 233	309 823	—	—	—	—	109
SR Swaziland	1 067	220	85	17	—	2 100	100	538	1 258	2 017 560	1 134	—	162 K Sh	—	93
Tazara	1 067	1 860	64	28	15	4 810	150	—	26 486	919 401	—	—	—	—	—
ZR Zambia	1 067	1 104	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tanzania	1 000	2 580	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Uganda	1 000	1 050	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	—	49 152	2 474	963	412	103 747	5 312	47 975	128 910	32 313 530	312 809	13 378 963	—	—	—

Push-pull trains and 550 and 950 hp autorails have made it possible to meet the demands of passengers from the towns as well as those from country areas, who are still the African networks' biggest customers.

The introduction of the most up-to-date night trains, with couchettes, has also enabled the Abidjan-Niger to stand up to competition from other forms of transport, particularly roads.

In this, as in many other fields, rail means speed. The average speed on the autorail (85 km p.h.) has enabled non-stop services to be provided over stretches where roads could well have been a problem. The Abidjan-Niger, which can go up to 160 km, has doubled its Ouagadougou and Bouaké services to meet growing demand from passengers, who, moreover, expect better and better things of the railways.

The express trains usually used for inter-state journeys (Mali-Senegal, Ivory Coast-Upper Volta, North Africa) provide couchettes and restaurant cars and have introduced air-conditioning to make things more comfortable for the passengers. Trains are thus an important part of the tourist facilities in the countries concerned.

The railways have obviously been forced to keep their rates competitive with other forms of transport.

The table shows that, between 1975 and 1977, the railways carried 312 million passengers for 13 300 million passenger-kilometres.

Railcar engine units and saloons have been introduced and, in certain cases, have attracted large numbers of people who would normally travel by road in their own cars.

A comparable effort has been made with goods traffic. The African networks have introduced high-capacity trucks and special facilities for specific products like hydrocarbons, cattle and vehicles. They have also paid attention to maintenance requirements and gradually replaced axle-boxes by ball-bearings.

African railways often make up full train loads of individual sections. Most of them have also abandoned vacuum brakes for air brakes, which provide greater security.

At the same time, they have taken care to boost their transport capacity to meet existing and potential traffic. In some countries (Morocco, Ghana and Mozambique) wagon manufacturing industries have been set up.

In the many projects financed by the World Bank, the EDF, FAC and various bilateral sources, the Africans' main aim has been to modernize the railways so they can make a permanent contribution to the campaign for development.

The table shows that, for 50 000 km of track, there are 2 500 locomotives, 1 000 light motor tractors, 450 railcars, 104 000 wagons and 5 300 coaches and railcar engines.

Some 490 million t of minerals and 130 million t of other goods (32 300 million tonne-kilometres) were carried between 1975 and 1977. The minerals were mainly phosphates from Senegal, Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia and Togo, copper from Zaire and Zambia and manganese from Zaire and the Ivory Coast.

Many national modernization projects are under way. These will increase over the decade and there are other plans for management and training. It is worth noting at this point that there are plans to provide the networks with the possibility of aid on demand within the framework of specific programmes.



The new Abidjan-Ouagadougou line

“The savings in fuel and the reliability that rail can offer will certainly draw off some road and sea traffic now that there is an energy crisis”

Attention should also be drawn to the fact that four training centres for higher management staff have been opened, as part of the priority programme of stage one of the transport decade, in Brazzaville (Congo), Warden (Egypt), Zaria (Nigeria) and Lusaka (Zambia).

Alongside these training schemes, computers are now being used on individual networks for staff and stock management and, later on, their use will be extended to centralized traffic management.

African railways have broken new ground since the creation of the Union of African Railways, which is responsible for coordinated railway development over the whole of the continent, under the aegis of the OAU and the ECA. The UAR, to which almost all the African networks belong, is a specialized agency of the OAU and responsible for all problems in the railway sector. It has run various schemes to modernize the African networks, starting with the harmonization of maintenance schedules. Next, the adoption of compressed air brakes means that safety standards for goods trains will be very high. Finally, common standards have been adopted for the dimensions of rolling stock and for couplings, in line with the recommendations of the UAR's technical committees.

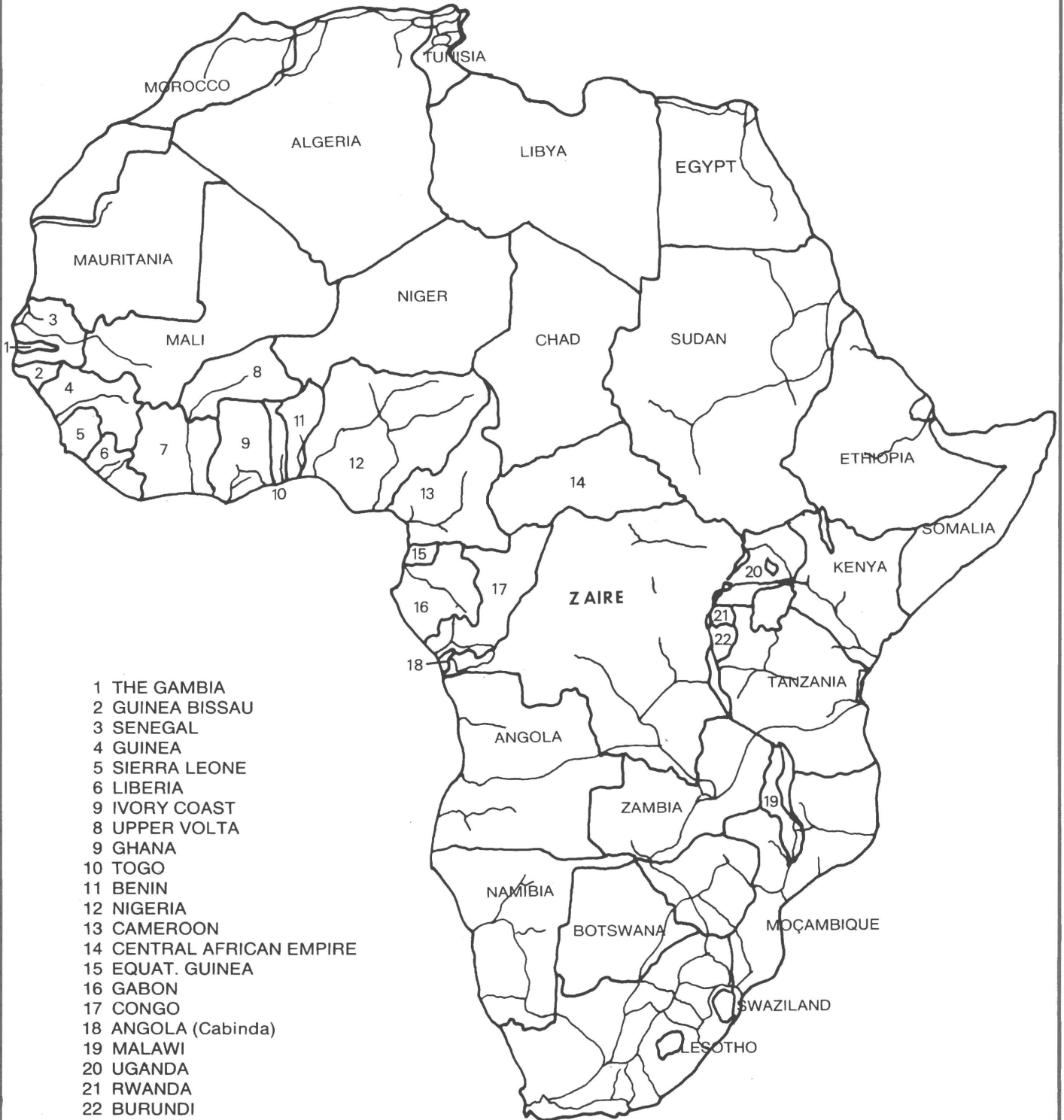
This will enable both the UAR and the railway companies to back up the economic development of the countries of Africa and go on to build a vast African network in due course. A realistic approach is obviously called for here, as many different gauges are used across the continent, but this is a field where Africa can benefit from experience gained in other parts of the world.

° °

The railways are a highly adaptable form of transport and welcome technological developments. This has enabled them to keep up to date and the economic crisis has now provided the ideal opportunity for development and helped them win back many customers temporarily lost to other forms of transport.

The African railways are undeniably the vanguard of economic development in the many fields covered by the integrated projects (at national, sub-regional and regional level) which condition the development of inter-African trade. And, ultimately, they are also the surest way to economic expansion by the year 2000. □ A.D.

The railways in Africa



0 1,000 KM

Regional cooperation on railways

by Samuel NOEBE AGUMADU(*)

In Africa, the railways are in much the same situation as the roads. Both systems were built to link the interior, particularly the productive areas, with the coast. The Accra-Kumasi railroad in Ghana was built to transport cocoa out from the Ashanti region. Nigeria's Lagos-Kano railroad was built to bring out cotton and groundnuts from the north and was extended across to Jos to transport tin from there. The first railroads in central Africa, which provide links between Zambia and Zaire and the various coastal areas to the east, west and south, were intended to transport minerals from Zambia, particularly from the old Katanga (now Shaba) region.

An inadequate network

Africa's railway network is quite inadequate, perhaps even more inadequate than the roads. In an article in *Industrie et Travaux d'Outre-Mer* (April 1974), Georges Bernard, railway specialist of world renown, put the total length of African lines at 75 798 km, which, he calculated, worked out at one km of track per 392 km² of territory (as against 1 km per 7.3 km² in Belgium). But since the other means of transport are in poor repair and highly inadequate, it is likely that railways meet a more urgent need in Africa than they do in Belgium.

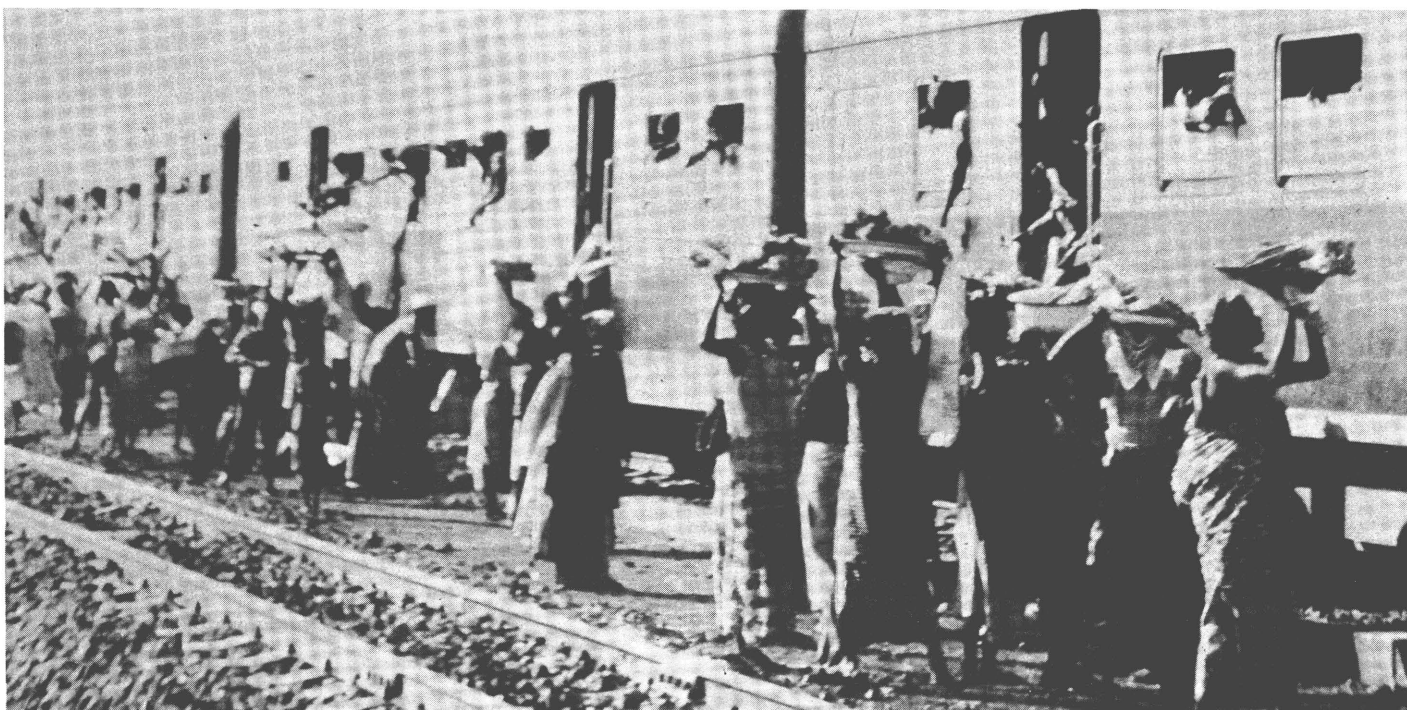
(*) Department of planning and development at the African Development Bank. This paper was given at the Bangui conference on transport in June 1978.

When railways first started to be built in Africa, at the end of the 19th century, it was apparently difficult to attract foreign investment to the sector and the colonial powers themselves put more money into railways on other continents. French interests are said to have financed the construction of upwards of 25 000 km of track in Latin America, where there were no French colonies, but only half as much in French territories in Africa. As in the case of roads, there were practically no links between different territories, other than those built to transport ore and agricultural produce, which, for obvious reasons, had to be joined up to lines serving other territories. Sir Robert Williams, the founder of Tanganyika Concessions Ltd (a company which, in association with the British South Africa Company, played a major part in financing railroads in southern Africa) was later to finance the Benguela Railway as a cheap way to transport ore from Katanga, in which he also had interests.

His company had previously built the Rhodesia-Katanga Junction Railway, extending the Rhodesian network to the frontiers of what was then the Belgian Congo. Sir Robert's company also held 40 % of the *Companie du Chemin de Fer du Katanga*, which financed the Elizabethville (now Lubumbashi)—Sakania line to the Zaire border, in turn linking Katanga with Rhodesia and the line down to Durban in South Africa and Beira in Mozambique.

Other international connexions are those between the three networks of the Maghreb countries, the railroad from the Cape to Ilebo in Zaire and Lobito in Angola and even to Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania (this includes a lake crossing). Cecil Rhodes had in fact intended the Cape railroad to go right up to Cairo, but when it got as far as Broken Hill (now

The number of passengers increased significantly when the Abidjan-Bouaké section of the Abidjan-Ouagadougou line was upgraded to achieve greater speed



Kabwe) in Zambia, it ran into serious trouble. There had been a certain economic justification for the line and there was expected to be plenty of traffic once it reached Broken Hill. But unfortunately, when it eventually did get there, trade did not come up to expectations as Zambia's mineral wealth was not yet being exploited. One of the engineers working on the project admitted that they were forced to continue the line to Katanga so that the vast mineral wealth of that area could generate extra traffic and provide partial economic justification for what was really a highly romantic plan. The networks of the three members of the now defunct East African Community were joined by just one line. In West Africa, apart from Abidjan-Ouagadougou and Dakar-Bamako, all lines are national.

The East African Railway Corporation is usually quoted as one of the successful international systems. But alas, it disappeared with the East African Community, and each of the three ex-members now has its own railway board.

Apart from all this, railways are faced with even bigger problems than roads. African countries tend to have road links with their immediate neighbours and, even though some are in very bad repair and cannot be used all the year round, at least it is possible to go by road from the Ivory Coast to Ghana in the east, to Liberia in the west and to Mali in the north-west, all which would be quite impossible by rail. The same situation exists in most of the countries of Africa. There are no railways between Nigeria and Benin, Cameroon or Chad, but there are roads to them all. Chad has links with the CAE, and so on. But there are few international rail links in Africa apart from those already mentioned.

Varying gauges

Another problem, and one which will make it difficult to link up the different networks, is the wide variety of gauges (reflecting those which the colonial powers used in their own countries). It is perhaps useful to point out at this juncture that the problem of gauges goes back to the invention of the railways. A similar situation existed in the United States, where the invention of the railroad brought an astonishing amount of disorder with it. Specialists were unable to agree on one gauge or even on two and so there, too, a whole range of gauges came into use.

They ranged from 6' to 3'6" and included 1.567, 1.525, 1.474, 1.449, 1.435, 1.067 and 0.915 m. Africa has many similar problems.

Most English-speaking countries use 1.067m, as do Angola, Mozambique and Zaire, as British interests were involved in financing these lines. Curiously enough, Tanzania and Kenya adopted a 1 m gauge, because Tanzania, which used to be a German colony, quite naturally took over the standard German gauge; and the first railway in Kenya was built by Great Britain with equipment intended for India. Most of the old French colonies also use a 1 m gauge, but, surprisingly, the trans-Gabonese uses 1.435 m, which is mainly used in Liberia, Morocco, Egypt and, to a certain extent, Tunisia and Algeria. The three last countries also have 1 m track. And there are others (0.75, 0.61, 0.60 and 0.95 m). Obviously, all these different gauges involve different coupling and braking systems.

The adoption of a standard gauge is one of the things advocated by the Union of African Railways, set up in Addis Ababa in 1972. The predominance of the 1.067 m gauge has led the UAR to suggest that this be brought into general use for interconnexions, except in regions where other gauges are more common. It is perhaps useful to mention at this point that Africa has nearly three times as much 1.067 m track as 1.435 m. It should also be noted that other, less

common gauges (1.60, 0.61 and 0.58 m) are fast disappearing, some lines have been closed down and others have been transformed to take one of the three commonest gauges.

Socio-economic aspects

There is one other essential difference between rail and road. Although roads used to be as well developed as railways, most countries ultimately realized that road transport had to be given priority once they became independent. Undeniably there is a certain amount of economic justification for this. But, over and above this, since roads directly affect the community, they have had a considerable social and political impact. A politician was appreciated by the voters if he could get the government to build roads in his constituency. And since the decision-makers owned cars, they were more inclined to build roads to drive on than railways they were unlikely to have much use for. Until recently, railways were not seen as of any socio-economic importance and more attention was therefore paid to the roads.

Competition from the roads

As the railways are very poorly developed, competition from the roads is very strong. In the developed countries, trains are generally faster than lorries or cars. But in Africa the opposite is true. Until recently, the 400 km journey from Abidjan to Bouaké took only four hours by car but at least eight by train. So passengers quite reasonably preferred to go by road. The same situation exists in almost all the countries of Africa. It should be noted that improvements have now been made to the Abidjan-Bouaké line and the journey now only takes about five hours, so many travellers go by train, although it still takes slightly longer, as it is a cheaper way of transporting both people and goods and there is less risk of accidents. All this would suggest that, provided certain improvements are made, the railways can face competition from the roads.

The Union of African Railways

Until the UAR was set up in 1972, there was almost no cooperation on Africa's railways. It aims to link up the various national networks, uniformize traffic, set up management training centres, etc. Various commissions have been invited to investigate these and other problems and the UAR will be holding a congress this August to present and adopt their reports.

The enthusiasm which its various member countries display in the work of the UAR is reason to think that any decisions it makes will be rapidly implemented and that it could be a fine example of regional cooperation in the transport sector.

There are many plans to join up the national networks, a certain number of projects are already off the ground and the large-scale Tazara scheme has become a reality. This line, more than 1 800 km long, marks a big step forward in international cooperation in transport. Other projects include railways between Abadla (Algeria) and Segou (Mali), Tripoli (Libya) and Gabès (Tunisia), Benghazi (Libya) and As-Sallum (Egypt), Aswan (Egypt) and Wadi Halfa (Sudan), Nyala (Sudan) and N'Djamena (Chad), Maidugiri (Nigeria) and Yaoundé (Cameroon) and Bangui (CAE), a line between the Ivory Coast and Guinea and more. It is to be hoped that all these projects can be implemented in the very near future. □

S.N.A.

Crossing frontiers: the problems of harmonization

by E. HORNER(*)

The geography of railways in Africa is still largely a reflection of the partition of that continent by European powers in the last two decades of the 19th century. As the prime mode of mass transport of the time, railways were chosen as a leading element in the consolidation of sovereignty in the new acquisitions. There was no volume of ready-made traffic for the railways and the first lines were generally pushed inland from coastal areas by the most economical route, often being used to link sections of navigable waterways. Again, with economy as the keynote, the cheapest form of construction commensurate with the objectives was selected.

Except in the countries bordering the Mediterranean, where the resources of the European railway industry were close at hand, these railways were built to a variety of narrow gauges, chief amongst which were the metre gauge in those areas under control of France and Germany and 3ft 6 in (1067 mm) gauge where British influence held sway.

There were, however, some exceptions to this; the Uganda Railway (subsequently the Kenya-Uganda Railway and afterwards part of East African Railways) was built to metre gauge. On the other hand, the Congo-Ocean Railway in the former French Middle Congo was built to 3ft 6in gauge. In addition to different track gauges, different structure gauges, couplers and other details were also chosen for the various systems.

New needs after independence

In those early days, these differences created no problems since there was neither intention nor pressure to link most systems. Indeed, this was precluded to a large degree by the patchwork nature of colonial partition. Only in the southern areas of the continent did the nature of expansion quickly emphasize the importance of uniformity and give rise to the extensive network stretching from the Cape into Zaire, Zambia (and now into Tanzania) and from east to west, over which interrunning has been achieved.

True, there were thoughts from the very early days of a Cape to Cairo railway and though such a linking, overland route, using extensive travel by inland waterway services and two short road sections, was developed almost 50 years ago, economic considerations have hitherto proved an obstacle to the realization of a continuous rail route.

When the dependent territories of Africa emerged as independent sovereign states in the late 1950s and early 1960s, the railway systems which they inherited were generally effective and viable but oriented towards the export movement of raw materials and agricultural produce for processing and marketing in the metropolitan countries. As political and administrative problems were overcome and economic independence became the goal, a realization

grew that a comprehensive and efficient transport system was an essential part of industrialization and mobilization of the economy. Equally important was seen to be the generation of trade and commerce within the continent—an element largely absent.

A transport network had to be created, therefore, by linking systems hitherto largely isolated. To many conscious of their role in the development of the USA and USSR, railways appeared to offer the most economic solution, in their suitability for bulk haulage over long distances, to the integration of commerce and trade.

Formation of the Union of African Railways

In the wake of political unity sought under the OAU, leaders of African railway systems attending a seminar in Berlin in 1970 agreed on a course which culminated in the formation of the Union of African Railways. Among its objectives the UAR proposes "... to seek the standardization, expansion, coordination and improvement of railway services of the members of the Union with a view to linking them to each other...". The members have agreed on links which they see as achieving the objectives of generation of trade and commerce within Africa. The task of creating these links is enormous, not least because of the tremendous distances involved in many of them by the sheer scale of the continent(1) and the consequent huge amounts of finance required. There had been a phase in the early 1970s when roads were favoured for investment funds, to the detriment of railways(2), often to the extent of construction or upgrading of roads paralleling existing railways, causing a degeneration of the latter's role without increasing the sum total of traffic.

Enormous investments, but also technical problems of interconnection

There is clearly much scope for a properly planned integration of all transport modes, to ensure that valuable funds are not dissipated in duplication and that the various modes are directed towards complementing, rather than competing with, each other.

The technical obstacles to physical interconnection of railways and inter-running concern both rolling stock and infrastructure, and are primarily:

- track gauge;
- fixed and moving structure gauges;
- buffing and drawgear equipment;
- tyre profiles and flange clearances;
- brake systems;
- line curvature, horizontal and vertical;
- axle-loading.

Plans for certain physical interconnections have existed for many years, but their inability to satisfy normal economic

(*) Engineer in the railway division of the UK's Crown Agents. Mr Horner was for many years a senior mechanical engineer with the former East African Railways.

(1) See map in *Courier* no. 54, p. 58.

(2) "Financing Transport Projects in Developing Countries" by D.H. Bickers. *Journal of Chartered Institute of Transport*, vol. 37, no. 6, September 1976, p. 159.

criteria has always been the obstacle to their fulfilment. One such link is that between the Nigerian and Sudan railway systems (both 3ft 6 in gauge) which features prominently in the UAR action programme. Another is that between the metre gauge East African system and the 3ft 6in gauge systems further south.

The latter link, regarded as having strategic merit, gave rise to a full-scale and continuing consideration of the problems of physical interconnection of lines in Africa. In a letter dated 6 July 1926 to the British Colonial Office, the Crown Agents drew attention to the differences in gauges and expressed the view that it could only be a matter of time before the question of linking systems and developing interstate traffic became important.

The principle of taking steps to facilitate ultimate gauge conversion was accepted and over many years the associated problems were examined in detail by engineering staff of Crown Agents and the railway administrations concerned. From 1936 onwards, all rolling stock and track for the railways in East Africa were manufactured to designs allowing for easy conversion to 3ft 6 in gauge.

Where rails are laid on timber sleepers, the gauge can be widened (where the difference is not too great) by drawing the spikes securing one rail, moving the rail laterally by the required amount and re-spiking.

In East Africa, where steel sleepers are used, these have been, for many years, of the type with clip fastening, using the type "K" clips. As indicated in the illustration, gauge widening is achieved simply by exchanging clips from inside to outside the rail. The rails are maintained symmetrically on the sleepers.

To facilitate conversion for the 3ft 6in gauge, rolling stock

has simply been built to standards appropriate to that gauge but with wheels set at metre gauge and suitable clearances provided. When conversion is needed, wheel centres have to be moved along the axles (or tyres repositioned) and brake hangers or brake heads reversed on their mountings.

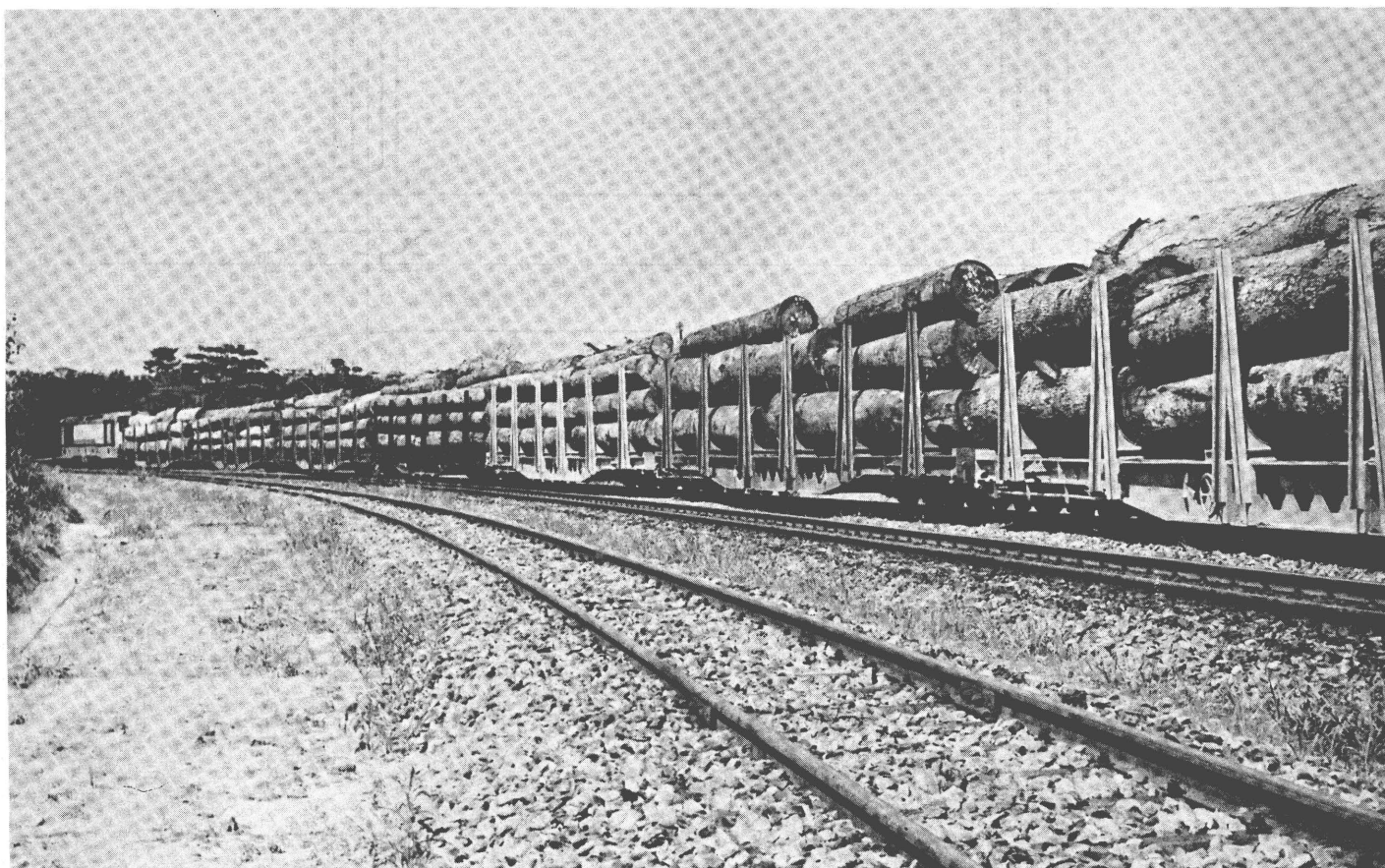
In the early days of railways in Africa, a number of systems, notably in Mozambique and Zaire, were converted speedily to 3ft 6 in gauge when there was seen to be a clear advantage in doing so, to form links with other systems. More recently, in the 1950s, the Grands-Lacs Railway was converted from metre gauge on being linked with the BCK system at Kabongo and the Luanda and Mossamedes railways in Angola were also converted, even without prospect of link-up to any other systems.

Although the metre gauge systems of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda are designed for conversion to 3ft 6 in, the decision to convert has been dropped on account of the implicit cost and disruption. The most recent internal study of the problem concluded that, to avoid unacceptable disruptions in the course of conversion, extensive sections of new alignment would be necessary.

The study also referred to bogie changing and containerization as means of achieving traffic interchange over systems of differing gauges. Bogie changing has a long history in this role and has been employed between the 5ft Russian gauge and the standard gauge system of the rest of Europe, between France and Spain and in Australia. It is, however, very time-consuming and exacting. With modern developments in this field and increasingly widespread adoption, containers offer a more viable alternative to transshipment.

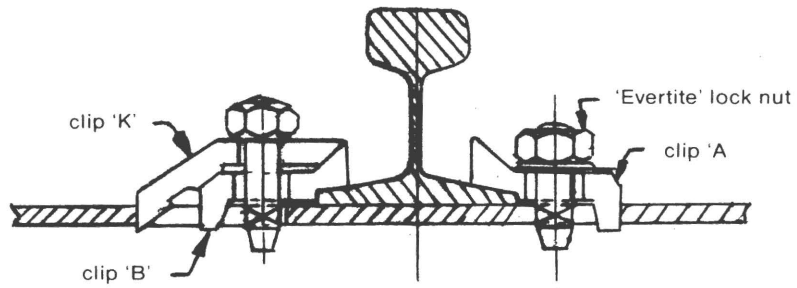
This is particularly so where import and export traffics are involved and also where there is prospect of a "land

Most African railways were built to allow the export of raw materials which were processed elsewhere (Congo-Ocean RR)

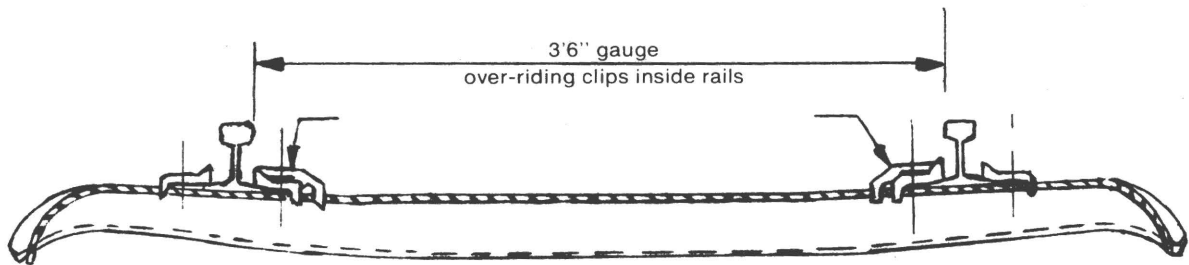
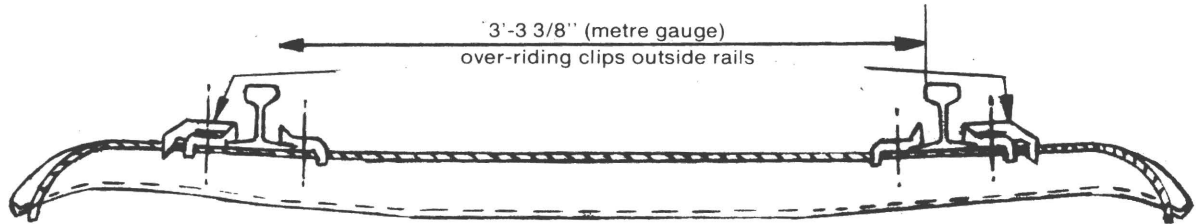


Steel sleeper

Type "K" rail fastening suitable for metre and 3'6" gauge tracks

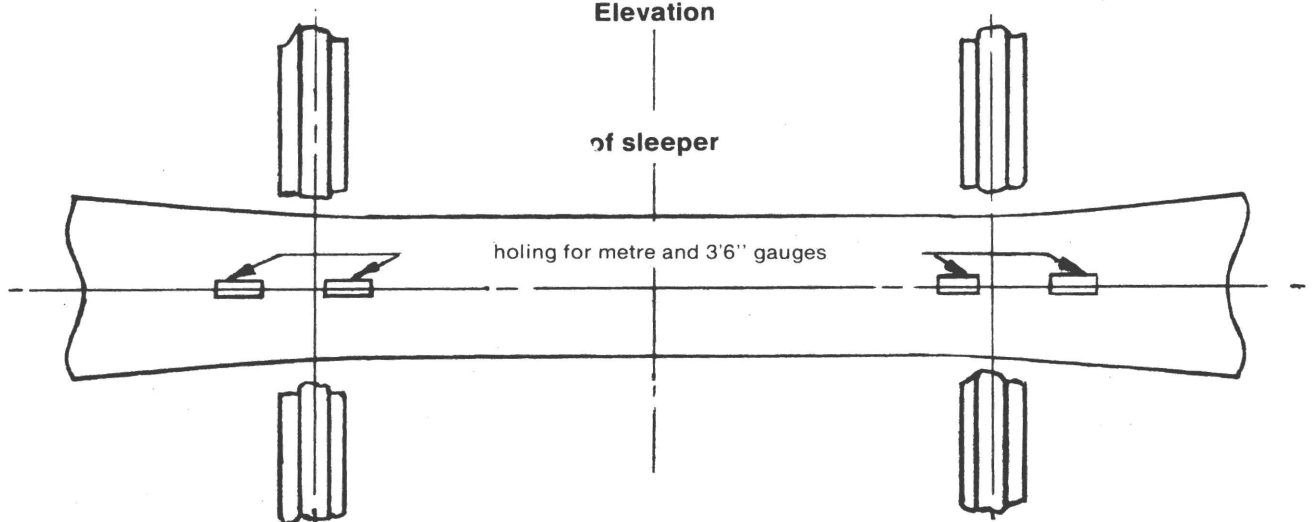


Section at rail seat



Elevation

of sleeper



GAUGE SETTINGS

Outside clip	Inside clip	Gauge	Inside clip	Outside clip
KB	A	3'-3 3/8"	A	BK
KA	B	3'-3 5/8"	A	BK
KA	B	3'-3 7/8"	B	AK
B	AK	3'-6"	KA	B
A	BK	3'-6 1/4"	KA	B
A	BK	3'-6 1/2"	KB	A



Ethiopian terminus of the Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway: will it go further one day?

bridge". Containers also facilitate interchange of traffic between rail and road.

Another means of achieving traffic interchange over differing track gauges is the adjusting wheelset. These have been used for some years on the vehicles of the TALGO passenger trains operating between France and Spain.

The single-axled, articulated design of these vehicles facilitates adoption of the principle.

Another pattern of adjusting wheelset was evolved as the result of a UIC competition but does not seem to have progressed beyond the experimental stage.

At the present time, these appear to be attractive in special situations only, such as passenger services where their use can be justified by saving in time and inconvenience to passengers at changeover.

Compatible rolling stock

The full advantages of a physical connection between railways and a common track gauge cannot be realized unless locomotives and rolling stock from each system connected are able to pass without restriction over all connected lines. In technical terms this means that stock must be able to couple and buff together and that its profile or loading gauge is such as not to foul any fixed structures under all conditions (including curvature, maximum deflec-

tion of springs, wheel wear, etc.). While considering the question of track gauge conversion, the Crown Agents also looked into the problem of a standard minimum structure gauge and maximum loading gauge.

In 1930, after study of the various structure and loading gauges in use in African Commonwealth countries, the British Tropical Africa Gauge was put to and accepted by the then railway administrations of the Gold Coast, Nigeria, the Sudan, Kenya/Uganda, Tanganyika, Nyasaland, Rhodesia and South Africa.

As a direct outcome of these deliberations, the information available facilitated the manufacture of locomotives and wagons of standard patterns which were operated on railways of both metre and 3ft 6in gauge with minimal alteration, both during and after the 1939/1945 war, in India, Burma, Malaya, Iraq, East and West Africa.

The degree of standardization achieved was also beneficial in alleviating difficult supply conditions in the postwar rehabilitation of the railways concerned, and the position was consolidated at standardization conferences convened by the Crown Agents at two yearly intervals between 1950 and 1964.

Most of the non-standard gauge railways of Africa have centre automatic buffer/couplers. However, these are of a number of different types and are located at different heights, though the American knuckle coupler and a coupler height of approximately 890 mm both feature prominently. A very substantial measure of uniformity amongst participat-

ing railways was achieved at the Crown Agents standardization conferences.

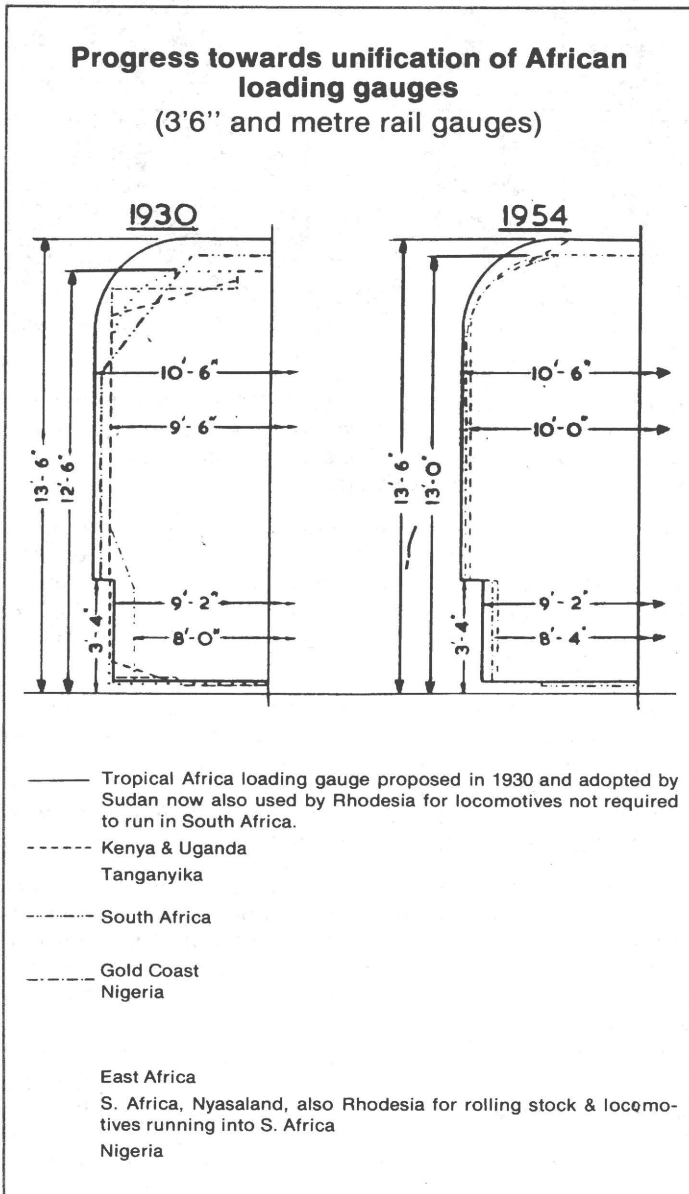
The coupler height governs vehicle floor level and this can be an important factor in conjunction with the loading gauge in, for example, the latter's ability to accommodate a standard container.

Ideally, brakes should be compatible, but this is not essential unless the number of incompatible vehicles exceeds an acceptable limit. The important thing is that any vehicle with incompatible brakes should be through-piped to permit the automatic brakes on all compatible vehicles to be operated. Most African railway systems use automatic vacuum brakes but with increasing advent of longer, heavier trains consideration is being given to compressed air braking. The point about braking and inter-running is that the positioning of end connections must be suitable for inter-connection.

Other technical aspects requiring consideration are wheel profiles, line curvature, axleloading, and signalling and communications. Wheel tyre profiles and flanges are important in that they affect running clearances at rail, particularly at the flangeways of crossings and in sidings. Line curvature of both the lateral and vertical kind can affect the ability of



New rails for old (Senegal)



rolling stock to negotiate track. It is likely to have effect, however, only in special situations—sidings, yards and the like. Much the same applies to axleloadings; currently, the main lines of most African railways are laid in materials to a standard adequate for all but the sort of axleloads found on special mineral railroads.

Most African systems are single track with crossing loops. Signalling does not, therefore, need to be very sophisticated. Nor is there an operating need for compatibility between systems, since neither locomotives nor crews are likely to move outside their own operational areas. A reliable and compatible communications network is, however, vital for both operations and administration.

Administrative and commercial aspects

Finally, there are the non-technical operational, commercial and administrative aspects requiring agreement on methods of charging, of apportioning revenues and costs and the creation of documentation for these.

Procedures would have to be established for maintenance and servicing of «foreign» rolling stock and raising charges for such services. Systems would also be needed for the control of stock to permit ready location and optimize utilization. Fortunately, precedents exist for all these activities.

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The crossing of frontiers in Africa by railways, therefore, presents a tremendous challenge with many and detailed problems to be overcome.

It is one, however, which offers equally great returns in the long term and which, the records of the deliberations of the UAR indicate, is receiving active and constructive consideration. □

E.H.

Problems of increasing the capacity of existing railways in Africa

by N. J. B. ALEXANDER(*)

When the first efforts were made to open up and develop the inland regions of Africa 75-100 years ago, there was no feasible alternative form of transport to the railway. Because of this, railways were built to design standards which today would be considered unacceptable, and through terrain which presents problems even for a modern highway.

The problems of obtaining labour for their construction and the desire to reduce costs led to the adoption of sharp gradients and tight curves to minimize earthworks and the numbers and size of bridges. The location of major stations was determined more by the presence of reliable water supplies for the steam locomotives than by the criteria necessary to promote efficient operation of the line. In many countries, the volumes of freight traffic and the number of passengers were so low that two or three trains per day were sufficient, and it was not necessary to install signalling to control their movements. These simple railways were essential to the development of the countries they served until 30 years ago or even later, and for all their difficulties they were completely adequate for the traffic to be moved.

Modern problems

More recently, however, industry has been developed on a larger scale and new mineral deposits further from the coast have been opened up, so that it has been necessary to carry much larger tonnages over much longer distances, and the railways have been subjected to tasks which they were never suited to perform. At the same time, the widespread construction of roads and the introduction of diesel/petrol vehicles has provided a cheaper and more efficient mode of transport for passengers, and for much of the freight traditionally carried by rail.

In parallel with these economic and technical upheavals, there have also been political changes. As the various countries have become independent they have had to replace expatriate managers, engineers and workers with indigenous staff. They have had to face the problems of training people for jobs which involve a major change in cultural traditions, and, as other new industries have been developed, it has been increasingly difficult to obtain and retain staff of the right calibre.

Finally, after 50 years of faithful service, the older railways and their rolling stock have needed wholesale replacement

and modernization—just at a time when so many other projects are crying out for massive capital expenditure.

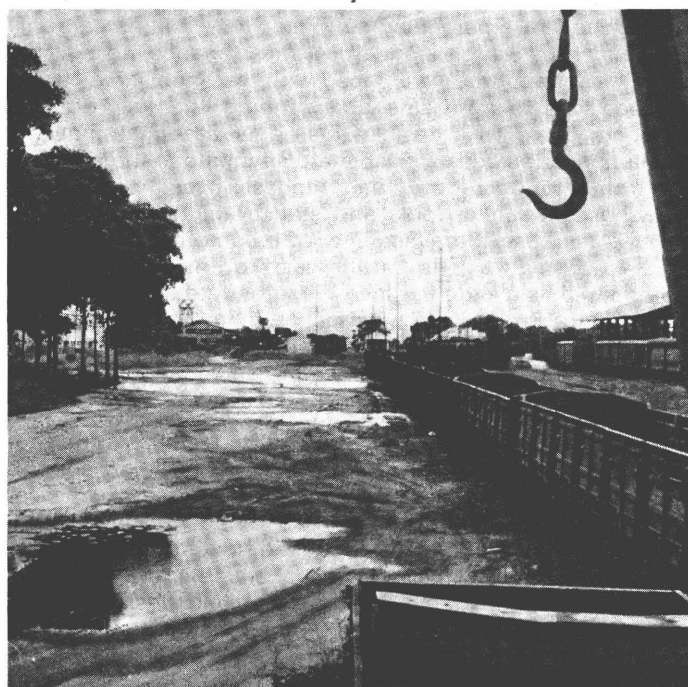
The tasks ahead

It is in this context that many African countries are seeking technical and financial aid to enable their railways to cope with the transport demands of the last quarter of the 20th century. Although the specific problems vary from country to country, it is in most cases the need to create additional capacity, often many times the volume of existing traffic, which is paramount. It is always important to find ways of achieving the capacity desired with the minimum of capital investment, while at the same time ensuring reliability of operation. The points which follow indicate some of the areas which need to be examined.

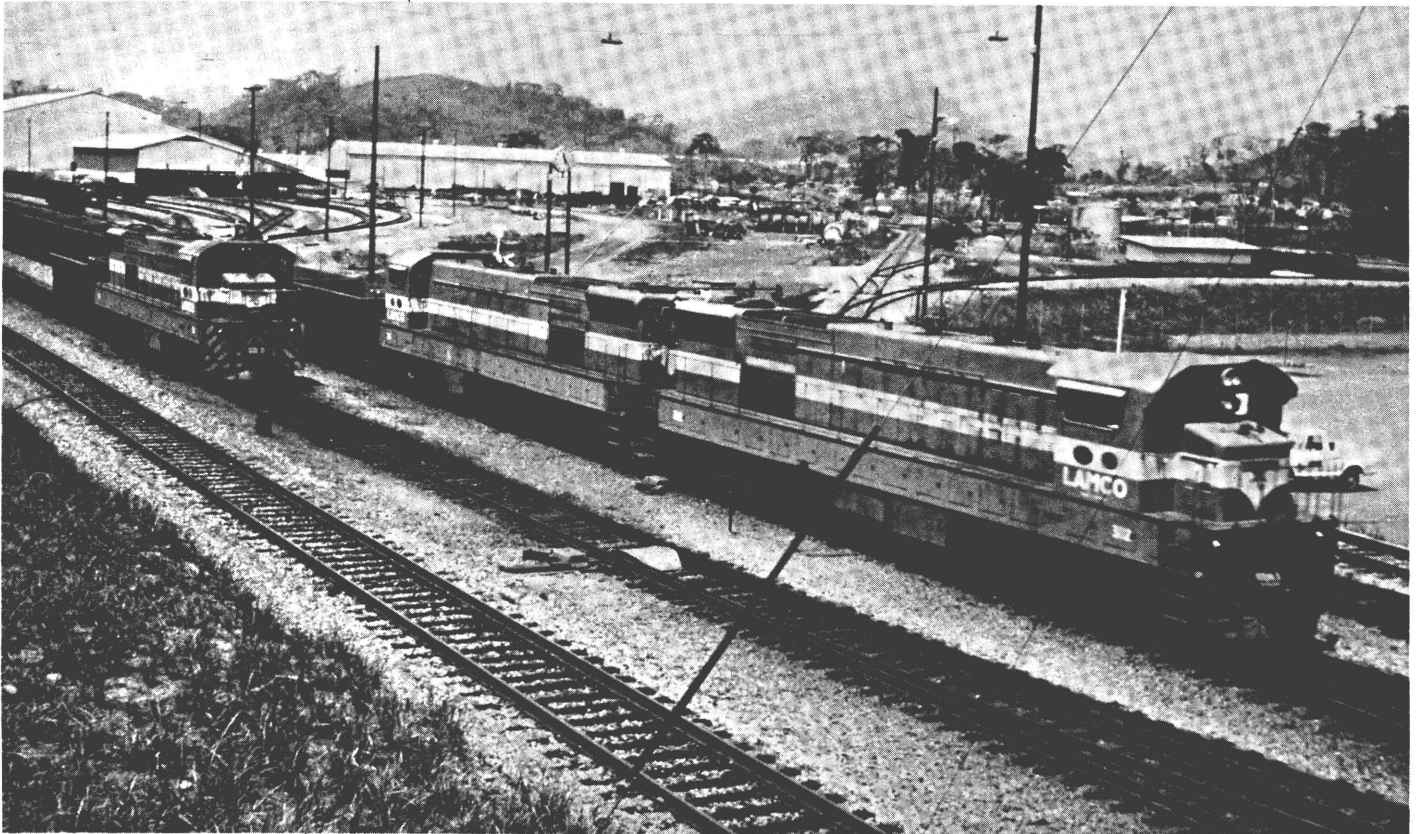
Punctuality

A railway depends on close cooperation between many individuals long distances apart and often with poor means of communication. This places a large responsibility on staff at remote stations, with the need for rigid adherence to operating rules and for being ready to take decisions promptly despite long periods of inactivity between trains. Supervision of such staff is difficult, but, nevertheless, the promotion of punctual working to the train schedule can yield very great benefits to the railway as a whole. Once a train is running behind schedule on a single track network there is little possibility of it regaining time and every likelihood that it will cause ever-increasing delays to trains travelling in the opposite direction. For a railway carrying minerals, such delays can quickly develop into severe shortages of wagons or locomotives at the loading terminal and loss of production. On one railway in West Africa suffering from lengthy operational delays, a major cause

Operating heavier trains requires longer sidings at intermediate stations—no great problem at this location in north-east Mozambique



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With good design and sophisticated equipment a single track railway can carry very large tonnages—as here in Liberia—but staff training can be a problem

was found to be vegetation fouling the telegraph wires between stations and disrupting the signalling system. The minor effort necessary to rectify this problem was sufficient to improve punctuality and to increase the effective capacity of the line by 10% or more.

Availability

Punctual operation of the railway cannot be achieved 100% of the time because there will always be random failures of equipment which delay trains and require the introduction of emergency working. Such failures can only be reduced by a high standard of maintenance, so that the operator is not perpetually faced with the unenviable choice between cancelling trains and running the risk of their breaking down in transit. Thus, it is essential that the maintenance facilities available are adequate to the needs of the traffic to be moved, and modest investment in new workshops, machine tools and staff training may be sufficient to increase the availability of locomotives and rolling stock to such an extent that the need for investment in new rolling stock is avoided. It is in this area that the difficulty of retaining trained staff is most acute, since mechanical and electrical fitters are also likely to be in demand by the other industries that the railway is trying to serve, and a high rate of "wastage" may have to be accepted.

When improvements in workshop facilities are not adequate to provide the increased capacity being sought, the consultant must still take account of the capabilities of the workshops and their staff when choosing new equipment. For example, a mass-produced, low-stressed, diesel-electric locomotive may be more suitable than a more powerful but more sophisticated type, and designs which allow for major components to be interchanged rather than serviced in situ are likely to prove more reliable where skilled resources are in short supply.

Train size

Many of the early railways were built with very steep gradients which now make it difficult to increase train size economically. Similar gradients were often adopted in both the import and export directions, whereas the development of modern industrial projects frequently generates loaded movements in one direction and empty movements in the other. In such cases it is worthwhile investigating the possibility of reconstructing sections of route involving uphill gradients against loaded traffic, so that the ratio of horsepower to trailing load is more equally balanced between the two directions.

In a recent project in Mozambique it was found that the reductions in locomotives and operating costs resulting from increased train size fully justified reconstruction to easier gradients of nearly 20% of the original route.

If the track is due for renewal and if there are no major structures along the line, it may be sensible to adopt a heavier rail section, thus permitting higher axle-loads and hence a better load/wagon.

Alternatively, the existing capacity of the line can be used more productively by providing two locomotives on each train and lengthening the tracks at crossing stations, to permit a greater load/train. If this is not sufficient to create the capacity required, the only alternative is to find ways of increasing the number of trains able to pass over the line.

Section occupation time

On many railways which do not have lineside signals, trains have to slow down or stop at each intermediate station to obtain permission to enter the next section. Since crossing movements are only likely to occur at alternate

Examples of African railways and their capacity problems

Country	Route kms	Tonnes/yr.	Tonnes/km/yr.
A. Simple railways, for which improvements in punctuality and mechanical availability should generate adequate capacity.			
Benin	579	281 000	485
Ethiopia	781	471 000	605
Mali	642	292 000	455
B. Railways planning/implementing track renewals and other works to increase train size and to improve capacity.			
Cameroon	839	1 169 000	1 390
Ghana	953	1 626 000	1 710
Ivory Coast	1 173	962 000	820
Madagascar	883	882 000	1 000
Malawi	566	1 105 000	1 950
Nigeria	3 505	1 717 000	490*
Senegal	1 032	1 806 000	1 750
Sudan	4 780	2 380 000	500*
Zaire	2 620	5 920 000	2 260
C. Railways reaching limits of development from simple origins and requiring major modification and centralized signalling for additional traffic.			
Congo	515	3 612 000	7 000
Mozambique (TZR)	289	1 510 000	5 230
Rhodesia	3 240	12 644 000	3 900
D. Purpose-built minerals railways			
Liberia (Lamco)	270	10 712 000	39 700
Liberia (Bong)	78	6 254 000	80 000
Mauritania	650	8 750 000	13 500
Swaziland	219	2 947 000	13 500

(*) Figures untypical due to large proportion of little-used routes.

stations or even less frequently, it is possible to avoid at least some of these delays.

With a simple signalling system, incorporating track-circuits, axle counters or other devices to detect when a section is occupied, trains can pass through intermediate stations at full speed with significant reductions in overall running times. Since the capacity of the route is inversely proportional to the time the longest section is occupied by a train, the facility to enter and leave each section without reducing speed can increase the capacity of the line by 10% or more. If this is still not enough to provide the capacity required, the critical section occupation time can be further reduced by constructing additional stations or by re-locating existing crossing points.

Communications

With the simple signalling systems, staff are required at every intermediate station, and priority of movement over each single line section is generally decided by local

agreement between the station masters at each end. Additional stations therefore require extra staff—often with the added problem of providing housing, services and sanitation in remote areas. These additional stations also increase the problems of supervision and the risk of train delays arising out of poor communication with other stations along the line. With more than about 10 trains each way per day it becomes essential to provide a communications network linking the stations to a central traffic control office, and to consider the installation of radio communication to every locomotive or maintenance vehicle.

Signalling

The creation of a comprehensive communications network for the railway presupposes the existence, or the provision, of a reliable power supply at intermediate stations, and, once this is accepted, the additional power required for remote control of the signalling from a central point is no great undertaking.



With unstaffed crossing stations, such as this remote spot in Mozambique, reliable communications can contribute greatly to increased capacity

Apart from the obvious advantage of not requiring staff to be on duty 24 hours a day at remote stations and the consequent saving in housing, etc., a centralized signalling system enables the movement of trains on the system to be observed and priority decisions to be implemented by the supervisor in charge without the delay and unreliability inherent in messages transmitted to and from local stations. This ability to observe and control the movements throughout the railway from a single office is a major factor in increasing the capacity of the line.

The installation of a central signalling system does, however, impose a degree of rigidity hindering further expansion of the railway's capacity at a later date, unless the possibility is specifically provided for in the design of the

Time may not be so important to the local people at this wayside station in Ghana but punctuality is essential for the efficient working of the railway as a whole



equipment. This additional capacity may be achieved by constructing extra passing stations or installing intermediate signals to permit trains to follow each other through the single line sections.

Double track

The various steps described above enable the capacity of a single-track railway to be increased progressively from 3-5 trains/day in its simplest form to 15-20 trains/day or even higher with the most sophisticated control equipment. Coupled with modest civil engineering work to ease gradients and lengthen passing tracks at intermediate stations, so that train sizes can be increased, the capacity of an existing railway route can be increased to about 4 million tonnes/year. Beyond that it is usually necessary to introduce double track for the most heavily occupied sections, or, if the capacity is required for a single mineral or industrial development, to consider the construction of an entirely new railway with gradients more suited to the type of traffic to be moved.

The above points indicate how many different ways there are of increasing the capacity of a railway to meet new traffic demand, and how necessary it is to adjust the type of advice given and the level of capital investment proposed to the particular needs of each situation. □ N.J.B.A.

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Transmark is the subsidiary company of British Rail responsible for providing technical advice and consultancy services to railways and other transport undertakings.

Since 1973, Transmark has worked in 62 countries, including 20 in Africa, where most contracts have been concerned with increasing transport capacity. They have included operating studies, staff training, workshop projects, signalling and communications proposals, and designs for new lines and terminal facilities. □

African transport decade

Choosing a strategy for the railways ⁽¹⁾

The executive committee of the Economic Commission for Africa met in Khartoum in 1978 to define the targets for road, maritime, air, rail, river and lake transport for the next 10 years—the UN's African transport and communications decade.

Aims for rail transport

The railways must be altered to meet the needs of the developing continent of Africa. Capacities, directions and routes need changing and the present networks have to be used to the full. Priority during the decade should go to:

- training specialists in management and planning, with a view to the efficient operation of the railways;
- standardizing the equipment and materials and coordinating rules and practices used in Africa.

Care should also be taken to study the following activities and to carry them out wherever possible:

- creating interchange between adjacent networks and between different types of transport;
- extending networks to join up with neighbouring networks;
- constructing a trans-African railway system.

The situation at present

The density of Africa's railway system is extremely low. The continent is 29 000 km² in area, but there are only 78 000 km of track, i.e. 2.36 km per 1 000 km². Europe, for example,

(1) Extracts from papers given at the Bangui conference which followed the ECA meeting in Khartoum.

has almost 300 000 km of track for 750 000 km² (more than 60 km per 1 000 km²) and its road, river and canal networks are highly developed too.

Ten of the countries of Africa (the Gambia, Niger, Somalia, Chad, Rwanda, Burundi, the CAE, Lesotho, Guinea-Bissau and Equatorial Guinea) have no national networks or international links at all. Gabon has none either, but a 996 km line between Franceville in the south-east, Belinga in the north and Libreville is under construction. The first section (338 km long) is scheduled for completion during 1979.

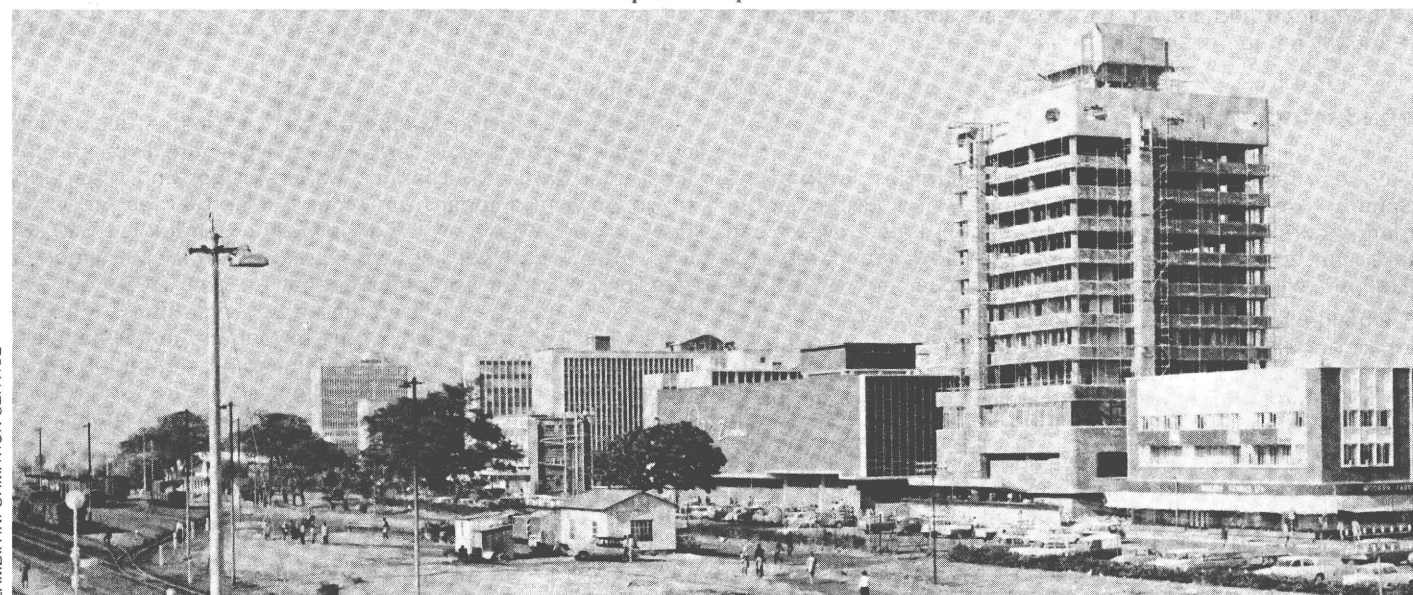
At the moment, Africa's 78 000 km of track are divided into 31 independent networks (or 38 if the mining industry's lines are taken into account).

Gauges

Nine different gauges are in use across the continent:

Gauge (m)	Length (km)					
	North of the Sahara		South of the Sahara		Total Africa	
	km	%	km	%	km	%
1.435	10 471	74.2	464	0.7	10 935	14.0
1.067	—	—	48 029	13.0	48 029	61.5
1.050	1 095	7.8	—	—	1 095	1.5
1.000	2 022	14.3	13 094	20.5	15 115	19.4
0.950	174	1.2	306	0.5	480	0.6
0.760	—	—	747	1.2	747	1.0
0.750	347	2.5	—	—	347	0.5
0.610	—	—	226	0.4	226	0.3
0.600	—	—	1 131	1.8	1 131	1.5
Total	14 109	100.0	63 997	100.0	78 106	100.0

The Tazara (1 860 km) linked Lusaka (below), and the southern railways system, to East Africa. Another 1 200 km in Sudan would complete a Cape to Cairo route



The adoption of 1.067 m as the standard gauge for the continent will make it easier to connect up the individual networks. As things stand, the southern African lines are the only ones to be relatively well interconnected, there being links between South Africa, Malawi, Swaziland, Zambia, Rhodesia and Mozambique. The laying of the Tazara, with the same gauge, should facilitate connexions with the East African network. The southern African system represents 54% of the network south of the Sahara and almost 52.4% of the network of the continent as a whole.

At the moment, 23 of the 38 individual networks have adopted the standard 1.067 m gauge. Those with different gauges (outside of mining concerns) are scattered over the various sub-regions. But this should not prevent the standardization of the African rail system, particularly the part south of the Sahara, where the difference in gauge is not usually large enough to be a permanent obstacle to inter-connexion.

Braking systems

There are two such systems in use in Africa. Air brakes are common in North Africa on 1.435 m track and the more popular vacuum brakes are used throughout western, central and eastern Africa.

Dimensions of rolling stock

The Union of African Railways has begun to survey this problem in its member countries. Standard dimensions have been fixed and an initial study, based on details of 16 networks, has led to the conclusion that, as things stand, all networks except the Congo-Ocean Railway can handle these sizes.

Locomotives

There are only 6 500 km (less than 9% of the continent's 78 000 km network) of electrified track, namely the very busy stretches and the urban/suburban systems. Five networks are concerned here, three of them in North Africa (Egyptian railways, the Algerian SNIF and the Moroccan ONCF), one in Central Africa (Kinshasa-Diolo-Lubumbashi) and the South African railways.

Outside the electrified circuits, the most economical locomotives are diesel-powered, so there is a tendency for all non-electrified networks to go diesel and steam trains are gradually being phased out.

Loads and speeds

Loads present another problem. In countries south of the Sahara, axle-loadings vary between 12.5 and 18 t, except in mining concerns where private lines laid in recent years can take up to 20 t. These figures are low compared, for example, with the European 18-22 t per axle.

Outside North Africa, only low speeds are permitted, 40 km per hour being usual for passenger trains and 30 km for goods trains. Higher average speeds would make for greater profitability as far as rolling stock was concerned and bring greater economic advantages.

These two factors, low speeds and limited axle, have a bad effect on the exploitation and capacity of the various lines. Any increase in speeds is partly dependent on improvements to rolling stock, locomotives and track alignment. In most cases, the tracks were laid before techniques were sufficiently advanced to allow the best routes to be used.



VINCENT — AFRIQUE PHOTO

The extension of this line in Senegal beyond Bamako (Mali) to Bobo Dioulasso (Upper Volta) is one of the routes being considered as part of an east-west corridor

Machinery for implementing the strategy of the transport decade

The Union of African Railways, the organization responsible for developing the continent's network, will have to help devise and implement railway projects over the decade, with the cooperation of the African governments, the OAU, the ECA and financing bodies like the ADB, ABEDIA, the UNDP and the IBRD.

Outline of the plan

- The principal proposals for the African network concern:
- main north-south lines;
 - east-west connexion centres;
 - the necessary link-ups in all directions.

Main line no. 1

This goes from Alexandria in the north down to the Cape. Most of it is already complete and only two sections, totalling 1 200 km, most of them over Sudanese territory, are still to go.

Main line no. 2

This is to join the Mediterranean to West Africa and to continue down to southern Africa. There are two possibilities here. Either to cross the Sahara, Niger and Nigeria, or to go down the coast from Algeria. The total length of this line, linking Algeria and Nigeria via the Sahara, is 2 820 km. The total length of the coast railway from Marakech in Morocco to Saint-Louis in Senegal is some 2 250 km. The line will have to be continued further south. The coast railway will go from Saint-Louis to Mali via the Senegalese network. It will ultimately link Bamako to Ouagadougou in Upper Volta and then cross Niger to Kaura Namoda in Nigeria. From this point, these two routes are the same.

The coast-to-coast line

This links the Red Sea with the Atlantic Ocean. Still to be built are the sections from the Sudanese terminus of Nyala to northern Cameroon, via Chad, to join up with the Nigerian railway at Maiduguri. This section is some 1 470 km in length.

Other connexions with the main lines are as follows:

The north coast link

This will join the Egyptian railway with the Maghreb network. It will go through Libya and cover a total distance of 1 600 km.

Links with main line no. 1

This will cross East Africa in a north-south direction, linking Egypt, Sudan, Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Zaire and Angola. Swaziland, Mozambique and Malawi will also be connected to main line no. 1, but as the route takes it across Rhodesia, there can be no question of this link yet. There will also be a connexion with South Africa, but this is not envisaged for the time being either. Ethiopia and Somalia are to be connected to the line, via Kenya, and the Malawi-Tazara (Zambia) link will give direct access to Mozambique.

Links with main line no. 2

There are two variations:

— *The Sahara line.* — This line, linking North Africa with Goa and Kaura Namoda, will go to Bamako and Kankan via Bobo-Dioulasso and Ouagadougou via Niamey. There will also be links between Parakou (Benin) and Niamey. Various coast lines will then connect up with Abidjan, Takoradi, Accra, Lomé, Porto Novo and Lagos. Cameroon will be linked to Bangui.

— *The coast line.* — This goes from Morocco to West Africa. It will link North African systems with Mauritania, Senegal

and Mali, then Bamako with Bobo-Dioulasso and Ouagadougou with Kaura Namoda via Niamey. The other links, with the exception of that part of the route north of Niamey, are the same as for the Sahara line.

The central line

This joins the CAE to Zaire and Uganda. It has been accorded lower priority than the coast-to-coast, but it is still extremely important as far as connexions between the sub-regions of central Africa and East Africa are concerned and provides a second outlet to the Atlantic and the East African ports.

The southern African line

Two links in southern Africa are also recommended. The first would be a direct one between Zambia and Angola, providing the former with an additional route to the Atlantic and Namibia with a direct link with the African network. However, this link is by no means top priority. The second would join up the railway systems of Botswana and Namibia, providing the former with a direct link with the Atlantic.

Details of projects

The order of priority will depend on the results of studies of the economic grounds and forecasts of trends in the region. The general order of priority is expected to be:

Priority	Project	Link	Countries concerned	Length (km)
1	Coast-to-coast	Nyala-Ndjamena-Maiduguri	Sudan-Chad-Cameroon-Nigeria	1 470
2	Main line no. 1	1. Aswan-Wadi Halfa 2. Wau-Juba-Gulu 3. Salina-Mpila	Sudan-Egypt Sudan-Uganda Malawi-Zambia	400 800 450
3	Main line no. 2	1. Bamako-Bobo Dioulasso 2. Ouagadougou-Niamey 3. Niamey-Kaura Namoda 4. Port Harcourt-Kumba 5. Mbalmayo-Ndjole 6. Gabonese railway now under construction included in this project 7. Brazzaville-Kinshasa 8. Kinshasa-Ilebo 9. Kankan-Bamako	Mali-Upper Volta Upper Volta-Niger Niger-Nigeria Nigeria-Cameroon Cameroon-Gabon Congo-Zaire Zaire Guinea-Mali	450 450 350 300 400 Line + bridge 600 300
4	Southern coast line	El Sulum-Tripoli-Gabès	Egypt-Libya-Tunisia	1 600
5	Main line no. 1	1. Addis Ababa-Nairobi 2. Mogadishu-Moyalé	Ethiopia-Kenya Somalia-Kenya	1 200 700
6	Main line no. 2	1. Bertoua-Bangui 2. Abidjan-Takoradi 3. Accra-Lomé 4. Lomé-Porto Novo 5. Porto Novo-Lagos 6. Bangui-Bondo 7. Mungbere-Pakwach 8. Morocco-Aaiun 9. Aaiun-Nouakchott 10. Nouakchott-Saint-Louis 11. Serpa Pinto-Kataba 12. Gobabis-Gaborone	Cameroon-CAE Ivory Coast-Ghana Ghana-Togo Togo Benin Benin-Nigeria CAE-Zaire Zaire-Uganda Morocco-Western Sahara Western Sahara-Mauritania Mauritania-Senegal Angola-Zambia Namibia-Botswana	530 250 200 150 100 600 300 800 1 200 250 1 000 750
Total				15 600

CAMEROON

The problems of rail transport

by Marcel DERRIANO(*)

Cameroon, which covers 470 000 km² from Douala on the Atlantic to Makari near Lake Chad 1 200 km away, is often called a miniature Africa. Its diversity is a clear attraction for the tourists, but it is a perennial problem for the government which, by bringing its various peoples closer together, is trying to establish the nationwide equality of standard of living that is vital to a proper political balance and the maintenance of national unity.

Cameroon is a very varied country and, in spite of an effort to even out regional differences, there are still discrepancies due to some regions being landlocked, to unevenly spread population and to varying natural potential and geographical factors.

Before independence, there was, typically for Africa, little trade between the regions of Cameroon and, apart from cattle (most of it driven on foot), the tonnages involved were very small. So transport was geared to import and export traffic, i.e. to collecting and exporting products and bringing in supplies from abroad.

The main routes to and from Douala, the most important of Cameroon's four ports, were:

- a central artery, by far the longest and most important route, going east from Douala to Yaoundé and then north to N'Gaoundéré, Garoua and Maroua;
- another, shorter, route north from Douala to N'Kongsamba and then north-east to Bafoussam and Foumban.

(*) Civil engineering adviser to the EEC Commission delegation in Cameroon.

At this stage, almost all the transport routes were concentrated in the Douala area, going as far as N'Kongsamba and Yaoundé. They faded away to almost nothing 300 km north and 400 km east of Douala, in particular because traffic in the north of the country and eastern Chad and central Africa used other routes (Nigeria - Pointe Noire - Brazzaville - Bangui) and because the lack of any economic transport routes meant there was no trade between the regions.

The government is therefore doing its best to restructure the national territory and develop basic facilities and the communication infrastructure, so as to:

- reduce regional imbalances;
- strengthen economic, social and cultural cohesion;
- facilitate the transport of production;
- open up certain regions.

Since independence, Cameroon has therefore tried to overcome the natural obstacles preventing it from unifying the three main (north, west and south) regions in which most of the people live. The development of a communications network that can withstand the rigours of the climate has therefore become one of the government's priorities.

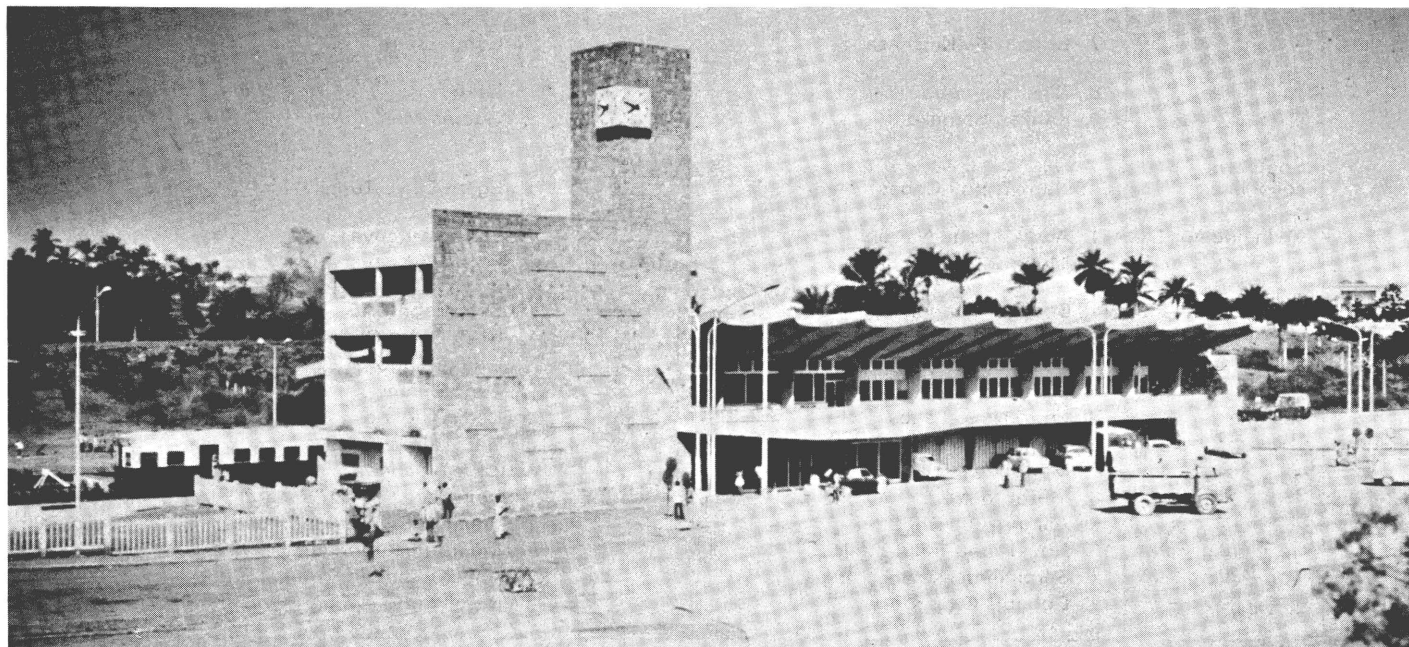
Why the railway?

So the various five-year development plans introduced by the government since 1961 have, for a number of reasons, put the emphasis on transport infrastructure, and on railways most of all.

The railway is in fact the mainstay of the country's heavy transport system and is a first step towards an international transport network aimed at channelling the import-export traffic of the neighbouring landlocked countries (Chad and the Central African Empire) to Douala, a well-equipped port on the Atlantic seaboard.

The transport objectives are as follows:

- to ensure permanent, reliable links between the coast, the capital and the centres in the various regions;



The main station in the capital, Yaoundé, which is now linked to the north of the country by rail

- to facilitate domestic trade;
- to boost external trade;
- to provide neighbouring landlocked countries with economic routes to the sea.

The improvement and extension of the railways is clearly essential to the achievement of these aims.

The trans-Cameroon railway and the branches to the neighbouring countries are one of the government's top priorities.

It was the geography of Cameroon, a long, thin country with a relatively narrow coastal region at one end, which made it necessary to build a heavy duty track on which costs would be kept to a minimum, so as to facilitate the development of the areas furthest from the coast.

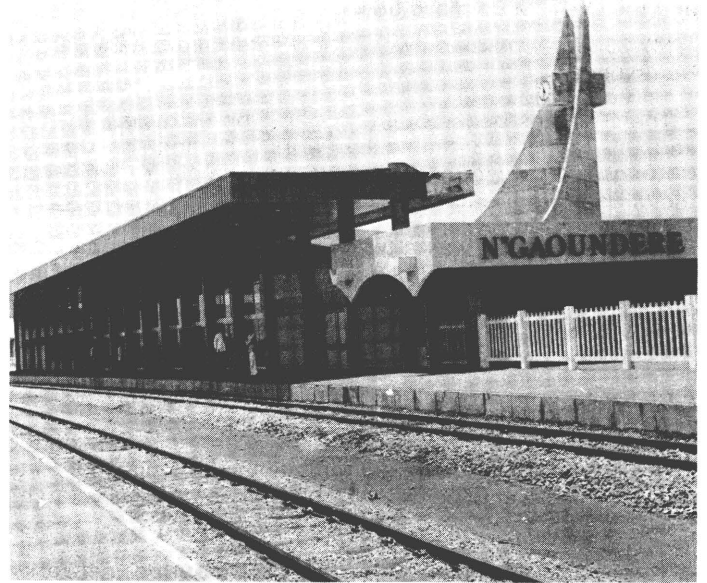
Since there are no permanently navigable waterways, the railway, in view of its characteristics, possibilities and scope, was obviously best suited to heavy transport.

The railway, the main north-south route, is connected to a carefully-planned system of roads and therefore carries most of the country's import-export traffic. It also contributes to the development of the inter-regional trade that has taken so long to emerge. Domestic trade is mainly in food products, largely citrus and other fruit from the south and cattle, rice and groundnuts from the north. The railway is also encouraging the so far hesitant development of the sparsely populated central plateau, which could in fact progress rapidly.

Cameroon railways

REGIFERCAM, the country's railway board, a public, industrial and commercial body set up in 1947, manages the 1 168 km of track, as follows:

(1) 930 km — the trans-Cameroon railway between Douala, Yaoundé and N'Gaoundéré, divided into three sec-



Northern terminal of the trans-Cameroon railway

tions:

— 308 km = the old Douala-Yaoundé line, now being modernized and cut to 263 km. Yaoundé to the river Maloumé (83 km) has already been completed and work on the Douala-Edéa stretch is now being carried out with a 10 million EUA soft loan from the EEC to cover 22% of the total cost;

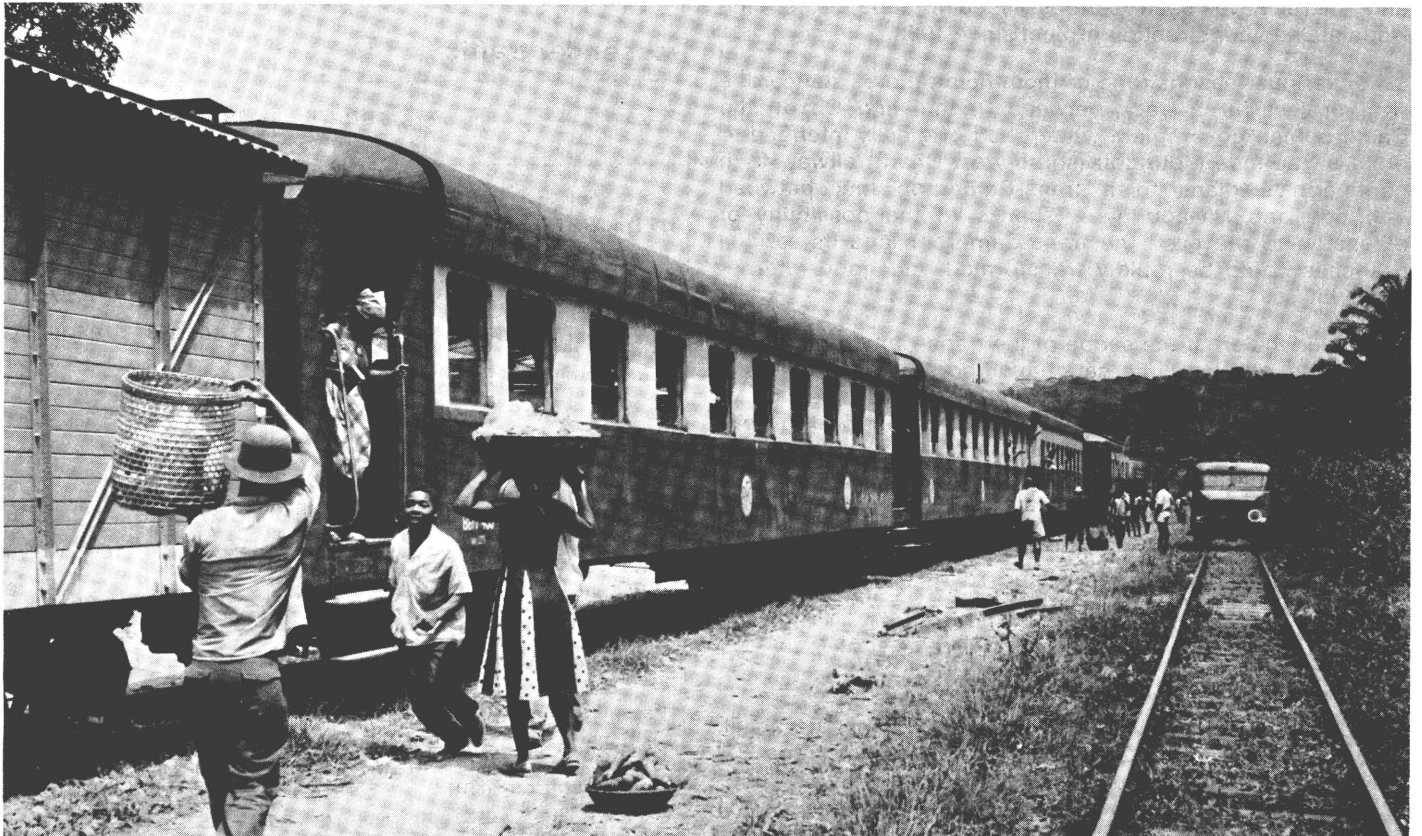
— 293 km = Yaoundé-Bélabo(1);

— 329 km = Bélabo-N'Gaoundéré(1);

(2) 172 km — the western line between Douala and N'Kongsamba;

(1) The EEC provided some 49 000 000 EUA (47% of total financing) for these two sections.

Can rail really compete with road in passenger transport?



(3) 37 km — a feeder link between the trans-Cameroon and the Otélé-M'Balmayo line;

(4) 29 km — a link between the western and the Mbanga-Kumba lines.

The Germans began building Cameroon's railway in 1906 and the French continued the work, opening the Douala-N'Kongsamba western line in 1916 and Douala-Yaoundé and the M'Balmayo branch in 1927.

M'Banga-Kumba was a two-stage project (M'Banga-Ediki in 1964/65 and Ediki-Kumba in 1967/69) with EDF financing. The Yaoundé-N'Gaoundéré section of the trans-Cameroon was completed in two instalments in 1964 and 1974.

Remarks

The network does not cover the extreme north of the country. Although there are ambitious projects that date back to the German period, a Douala-Chad line has yet to be built.

There are no links with any neighbouring networks. However, the trans-Cameroon, as things stand, is not without its international importance, as it transports goods to and from Chad and the CAE.

Permanent, asphalted roads join up with the railway and thus extend the network further. A particular example of this is the N'Gaoundéré-Garoua-Maltam-Kousseri (ex Fort-Foureaux) road close to N'Djamena, the capital of Chad.

This is a single-track railway network, so switches, causing delays, are necessary.

The trans-Cameroon

Although the term "trans-Cameroon" has only been coined recently (1960/61), the idea of a railway across the whole country goes back to the beginning of the century and there have been serious, specific studies for the Douala-Chad construction project since 1930.

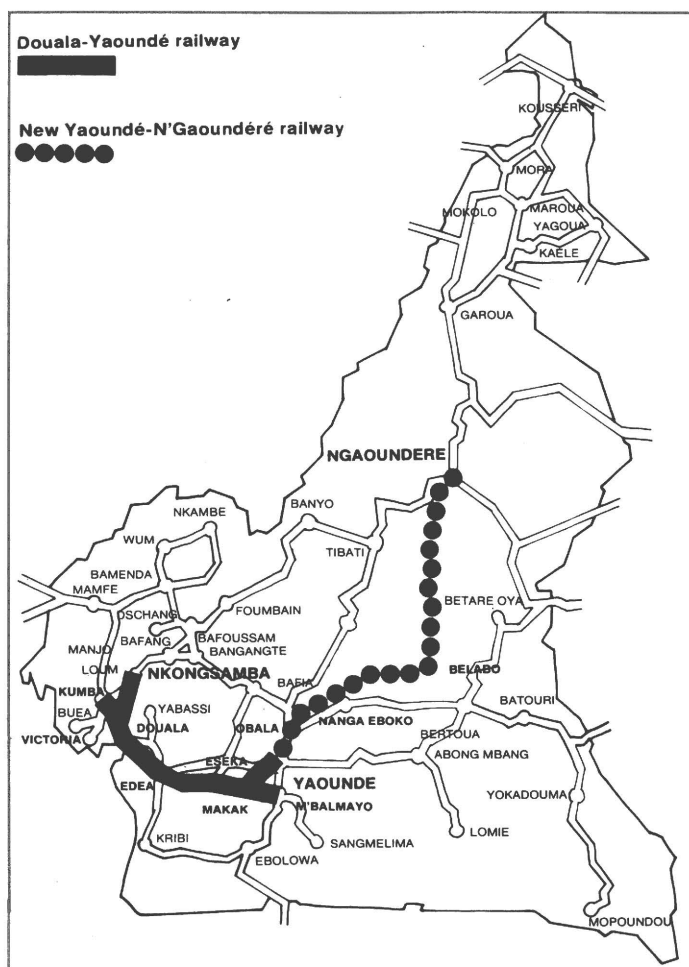
For various reasons (one of them being the existence of a rival project for a track between Bangui and Chad), the Cameroonian government, which had originally intended to build a Yaoundé-Moundou (south-west Chad) railway, then confined its plans to a trans-Cameroon link between Yaoundé and N'Gaoundéré. Thanks to the possibility of extension to the east, the trans-Cameroon and its various branches could be rapidly transformed into good international lines.

This extension of the scope of the trans-Cameroon, which is already of clear international importance (it carries a considerable tonnage to and from Chad), will also be of benefit to everyone. The countries and regions with a new, direct, rapid and relatively cheap link with the ocean are seeing their transport costs, which push up the cost of imports and exports alike, drop fairly substantially.

Cameroon's importance for transit traffic is being confirmed and its railways, ports and roads are all the more profitable as a result.

Rail traffic

There were no analyses of traffic, and no traffic at all, before the Yaoundé-N'Gaoundéré stretch of the trans-Cameroon was built (Yaoundé-Bélabo 1964-69 and Bélabo-N'Gaoundéré 1970-74) so no comparative figures for traffic between Douala and the north are available.



We therefore have to rely on the railway board's general statistics and these are incomplete since no origin/destination study for either passenger or goods traffic has been carried out on the individual sections.

Passenger traffic

	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78
1. Douala-N'Kongsamba (western line)			
Passengers	425 200	351 800	257 370
Passenger-kilometres	32 535 500	27 160 200	18 640 000
Average journey (km)	76.52	77.20	72.42
2. Douala-N'Gaoundéré (trans-Cameroon)			
Passengers	1 432 200	1 373 800	1 233 310
Passenger-kilometres	228 249 300	230 242 100	205 590 000
Average journey (km)	159.37	167.6	166.70
3. Whole network			
Passengers	1 857 400	1 725 600	1 490 680
Passenger-kilometres	260 784 800	257 402 300	224 230 000
Average journey (km)	140.40	149.17	150.42

Traffic trend charts show that, after the Yaoundé-Bélabo section was opened in 1969/70, both passengers and journeys (passengers × kms) increased considerably. However, paradoxically, in 1974/75 when the trans-Cameroon got to N'Gaoundéré, the total number of passengers and passenger-kilometres dropped, in spite of an increase of some 40% in the length of track.

Have the people lost interest in their national railway?

They have indeed. Take the example of the western line between Douala and N'Kongsamba. If the passenger traffic drops in such a spectacular fashion, then obviously it is primarily because of the competition from the roads, which are faster and more flexible (particularly since a new road was opened in 1977).

Furthermore, the Douala-Yaoundé section is dilapidated (but now being rebuilt) and so safety cannot be assured nor timetables guaranteed and passengers prefer to travel by road in spite of the fact that this is not a particularly agreeable route.

Although a lot is heard about the lack of civic spirit on the part of certain citizens who dodge paying for their train journeys, this does not explain the differences recorded.

Are there other reasons?

Goods traffic

	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78
1. Douala-N'Kongsamba (western line)			
Tonnes	151 800	133 300	103 700
Tonnes × kilometres	20 551 200	18 196 200	11 540 000
Average journey	135.38	136.51	111.28
2. Douala-N'Gaoundéré (trans-Cameroon)			
Tonnes	1 146 500	1 275 800	1 234 400
Tonnes × kilometres	417 637 000	468 158 000	516 350 000
Average journey	364.27	366.95	418.30
3. Whole network			
Tonnes	1 298 300	1 409 100	1 338 100
Tonnes × kilometres	438 188 200	486 354 200	527 890 000
Average journey	337.51	345.15	394.51

The increased tonnage transported, linked to the age of the rolling stock which must be used as a matter of priority for long-distance goods traffic, particularly on the trans-Cameroon, has probably only been achieved at the expense of passenger traffic.

Earnings from goods, passengers and baggage

(CFAF million)

	1974/75		1975/76	
Passengers	1 047	20.5 %	1 202	20 %
Baggage	24	0.5 %	27	0.5 %
Goods	4 040	79 %	4 774	79.5 %
Total	5 120		6 003	
	1976/77		1977/78	
Passengers	1 349	18.2 %	1 356	14.5 %
Baggage	25	0.3 %	31	0.3 %
Goods	6 067	81.5 %	7 960	85.2 %
Total	7 441		9 347	

Note that, although passenger earnings have dropped, they still represent a considerable part of the budget.

There is every reason to suppose that the policy of modernizing the rolling stock (already underway) and realigning the Yaoundé-Douala section (well advanced) will reawaken the people's interest in the railway.

Economic advantages of the trans-Cameroon

These are due to a complex series of elements and factors that are far too heterogeneous for any conclusions to be drawn. There are still not enough statistics available to be able to assess the advantages with any precision.

However, it already seems certain that the drop in transport costs is making cotton from Chad (its most important export product) more competitive on the world market and also cutting the cost of imports, thereby reducing, albeit only slightly, the disadvantages of that country's geographical situation.

The trans-Cameroon and the roads that extend it certainly have extremely beneficial effects on the whole of Chad's economic activity. The effect on northern Cameroon is, of course, the same.

The improvement at the level of the producer will boost consumption of local produce and manufactures in other provinces and of imports. Trade has therefore been generated.

The railway will not solve all of the nation's economic problems. This is not its job. But is it nevertheless the driving force behind the country's economic expansion. The government has made an effort with investments, but improved management and staff training are needed if the most is to be made of them. □

M.D.

ZAMBIA

Lifelines to the sea ⁽¹⁾

Zambia presents a classic example of a landlocked country; its politics and development have been dominated by the major highways of central Africa. Sharing borders with eight countries, Zambia must keep on good terms with some at least, to maintain the coastal links which allow her to trade with the outside world.

To finance her development and imports, Zambia has to maintain a constant flow of copper exports amounting to 60 000 tonnes per month, i.e. 50 railway wagons each and every day of the year. Since copper has a high value density, approaching 1 500 EUA per tonne, these exports allow her to finance almost double the weight of bulky imports. As a result of this copper-dominated exchange economy necessitating high import-export trade, Zambia is especially vulnerable to sudden changes in the pattern of available communications routes; to date, no route available has been able to provide the essential degree of security, despite the number of such routes being greater than to any other of the 14 landlocked countries in the African continent.

There are three basic routes out: the southern route through Rhodesia to Beria (Mozambique) or South African ports, the Lobito (Angola) route through Zaire and the Tazara direct to Dar es Salaam. In the space of six years, Zambia has been forced to change the principal routing of coastal traffic three times. Until 1973 virtually all Zambia's coastal traffic passed through Rhodesia; for purely political reasons, however, it was clear to the Zambians that this route, together with the Lobito route, could not be relied upon, both being controlled by colonial powers. Hence the Zambian determination to build the Tazara railway during the early '70s, a feat achieved despite the antipathy of her

traditional friends, with Chinese loans. This policy was amply justified by subsequent events; closure of the borders with Rhodesia in 1973, followed two years later by closure of the Lobito route, leaving the new Tazara as the only available railway link, supplemented by highly expensive road transport.

In 1973, the Rhodesians closed their railway to Zambian traffic "until Zambia gives an assurance that 'terrorists' will no longer operate against Rhodesia from her territory". This effectively ended an era which began with colonization and development of extraction industries in Zambia, and during which Zambia exchanged revenue earned from copper exports largely for maize, beef, coke, chemicals and mining machinery from South Africa and Rhodesia. The railway from the south had been built by Rhodes' Chartered Company, and had reached the Zambian copper mines by 1909. Having performed this role of exchange for 54 years, the railway was the major factor in perpetuating the status quo. The sudden severance in 1973 was therefore a shock for Zambia in several ways, but one for which it had at least made preparations. From independence, Zambia had been planning to increase its trade links with neighbouring countries, a task which was accelerated to crisis level following Rhodesia's UDI in 1965.

These plans involved provision of maintenance workshops for railway locomotives and wagons, training of own personnel for the new Zambia State Railways (formerly the railways had been run from Balawago in Rhodesia), and the construction of two major international highways, the great north road to Tanzania (the infamous "hell run"), and the great east road to Malawi.

The effect of closing the Rhodesian border to Zambian traffic was a net reduction in Zambia's imports, and a reshuffle with Zaire traffic on the Lobito route. Zaire traffic transiting Zambia to Rhodesia and the south increased considerably in order to make room for Zambian traffic on the Lobito route. In 1966, at a meeting between the Zambians and the Benguela Railway Company (CFB), operating the part of the Lobito route in Angola, the Zambians agreed to increase the copper (high tariff rated) exported through Lobito; in return the CFB agreed to invest in an expansion of

(1) Article prepared by a member of the directorate general for development at the EEC Commission.

Loading copper ore, Zambia's main export





Rail transport is vital to the Zambian economy

capacity as well as a long-term programme to modernize the line. As a result, a spectacular re-routing was made to the CFB in its 1000 m descent to the Atlantic Ocean between Cubal and Lobito, increasing the capacity of this stretch, which had been a bottleneck, so that 50 % of Zambia's trade transited this route. But within months of completion, the Lobito route was closed to Zambian and Zaire traffic.

Simultaneously with the closure of the Lobito route, the new Tazara rail link was declared open. A well-engineered railway, the Tazara provides an indispensable link for Zambia, without which her survival would have been threatened. As with any new project, however, there have been teething problems, and other disappointments surrounding the Tazara. Of the design capacity of 1.7 million tonnes per year both ways, less than half was achieved in 1976, and thereafter its ability to move Zambia's trade has been falling. The most modern major new railway to be built, the Tazara included equipment, particularly locomotives and wagons, which appear to have been of prototype design and have given more trouble than expected. These problems are compounded by personnel and management difficulties, which add up to the fact that Tazara cannot carry all Zambia's coastal traffic.

The crisis came during October 1978, when 100 000 tonnes of fertilizer was hovering off-shore on the Indian Ocean; Zambia needed the fertilizer by end November for planting maize with the rains. The Tazara was not adequate. The re-opening of the border with Rhodesia was the only way of avoiding an unfertilized harvest, with enormous reductions in yield (to as little as one seventh) and the consequential need to import the deficit of maize during 1979.

On the surface it appeared that a circle has been completed, with the pattern of Zambia's coastal links being similar to that at independence. The Tazara had replaced the Lobito route, and a major part of Zambia's traffic was again crossing her southern frontier. There have, however, been

several important advances for Zambia.

A political rapprochement around the Lobito route is clearing the way for its reopening which could offer Zambia a coastal link capacity of 500 000 tonnes per year, close to the volume crossing the southern frontier. Angola, Zambia and Zaire have asked the Commission to play a coordinating role, to secure the finance necessary for technical upgrading and modernization of this route (see yellow page X).

Also, new road links have been forged with Mozambique, Malawi, Tanzania and Botswana, and are planned with Angola. In fact, having started with too few routes, Zambia may now face the reverse problem.

The Zambian policy of opening up the country

Its initial fears at independence that the routes were insufficient to be relied on, for political reasons, were justified. It has now come to fear the possibility of quarrels elsewhere, as for example with the Lobito route, and Zambia is equally determined not to rely on any one route, such as Tazara, in the future.

This reluctance to rely on any one route, no matter how friendly the country through which it passes, inherently means the building in of surplus capacity which cannot be justified in economic terms, and could result in a highly complicated network of communications.

A benefit which is difficult to quantify, however, is that of bringing remote areas into national life. In the past, development was virtually restricted to the rail line from Livingstone to the copper belt in the north.

Now towns such as Kasama and Mpika have found a new life brought by the Tazara, and other areas along the new international links are being revitalized. □

SUDAN

Integrating railways with other forms of transport

by Jeffery PHILLIPS(*)

The railway system of Sudan is the primary mode of commercial transport in the country, as the road and river transport systems serve mainly as feeder routes for the railway network.

The transport system consists of 4 800 km of single track railway, 1 723 km of river services, mainly on the Nile, and some 10 000 km of principal road links, of which only 400 km are paved, mostly near Khartoum; the remainder are tracks or partially improved gravel roads, the latter mostly located in the six southern provinces where lateritic material is available.

The railway network extends from Port Sudan in the north-east, through Khartoum to Nyala in the west, with an alternate route between Sennar and Haiya; spurs serve Wadi Halfa in the north, and Wau and El Damazine in the south. Traditionally rail and river transport were conceived to be the dominant modes in handling passenger and freight traffic. The rail transport network provides direct links between the port and the major consuming and producing centres. In 1970 rail and river transport together held 23% of passenger and 75% of freight traffic.

Despite this importance, over the past six years the railway network has suffered from maintenance problems resulting in under-utilization which is reflected in a low locomotive availability, frequent locomotive failures, long transit times, etc. As a result the Sudan Railways Corporation (SRC) has been unable to meet a rapidly rising demand for freight service. In some sections this has caused a transfer of freight to road transport at significantly higher cost, particularly on the Khartoum to Port Sudan route, where high value imports allow road transport operators to offer prices competitive with the railways for return loads.

It is expected that with the arrival of the new rolling stock and with the upgrading of some main lines under the Fourth Railway Development Plan, the operational performance of the railway will improve, thus enabling rail to keep its position at least as regards freight traffic, hitherto lost to the road system.

"The railways," in the opinion of Mr Abbas Ali Ragi, chairman of the SRC, "are the backbone of the transportation system in this country. Increasing our efficiency and capacity, therefore, is vital to the development of Sudan."

Easier said than done, perhaps, in a country the size of Sudan—which with 2.5 million km² is the largest in Africa—and over a length of track approaching 4 800 km. But Sudan

Railways is determined that by the end of the current six-year Railway Plan in 1982/83, all aspects of the railway, including track, locomotives, rolling stock and personnel, shall have reached a higher level of working efficiency.

The rail link to development

It is with the railway, more than with any other economic activity, that the development of modern Sudan is most closely linked. Although some work on the proposed Wadi Halfa to Khartoum railway started in 1873, railway-building in earnest began only in 1896, with Kitchener's reconquest of Sudan following the death of Gordon. By 1879 the railway had reached a point on the Blue Nile opposite Khartoum and it was around this railhead that the modern town of Khartoum North grew up.

Not until 1905 was the administration's dream of linking the capital with the Red Sea coast realized, when the link to Port Sudan led to the demise of the old port of Suakin. Development of the Red Sea link led to the growth of the town of Atbara at the point where road, rail and river traffic met. It was natural, then, that Atbara should become the headquarters of the Sudan Railways Corporation. With a work-force of 34 000, Sudan Railways has become the country's largest employer and Atbara is now a true railway town, with 90% of its population railway workers or their dependents.

By 1911, the link to El Obeid in the west had been completed and had led to the establishment of the town of Kosti, at the place where the railway crossed the White Nile. Kosti today is the northern port for boats running down to Juba. The railway, however, has yet to reach the southern capital—although this remains the SRC's major strategic ambition.

The line to Wau, the southern region's second town, was completed in 1962, just three years after the link to the western terminus at Nyala—a four-day journey from Khartoum.

Thus, the railway today is a network linking the main centres of economic activity to the capital and the country's main foreign trade outlet. But, despite their domination of national transport activity, the railways are beginning to feel the cold draught of competition as other forms of transport develop.

Until four years ago, the railways carried an estimated 75% of both freight and passenger traffic in Sudan. However, although the amount of traffic going to the railways continues to rise, the share of total traffic is falling.

At the beginning of the current plan, Sudan Railways carried an estimated 3 million tons of freight annually, of which some 0.8 million tons was petroleum products. By the end of the plan in 1983, the railways expect to be carrying about 6 million tons, although informed observers doubt that the amount will rise above 5 million.

But the proportion has declined and is falling still. Railway executives are becoming aware of the need to improve the system if this position is not to become irreversible.

In part, the growth of road traffic is a historical readjustment to the colonial prohibition on road-building, and reflects the determination of the present government to overcome this legacy and build an integrated communications system for road, rail, river and air.

(*) Ministry of Culture and Information, Khartoum.

A more competitive rail service

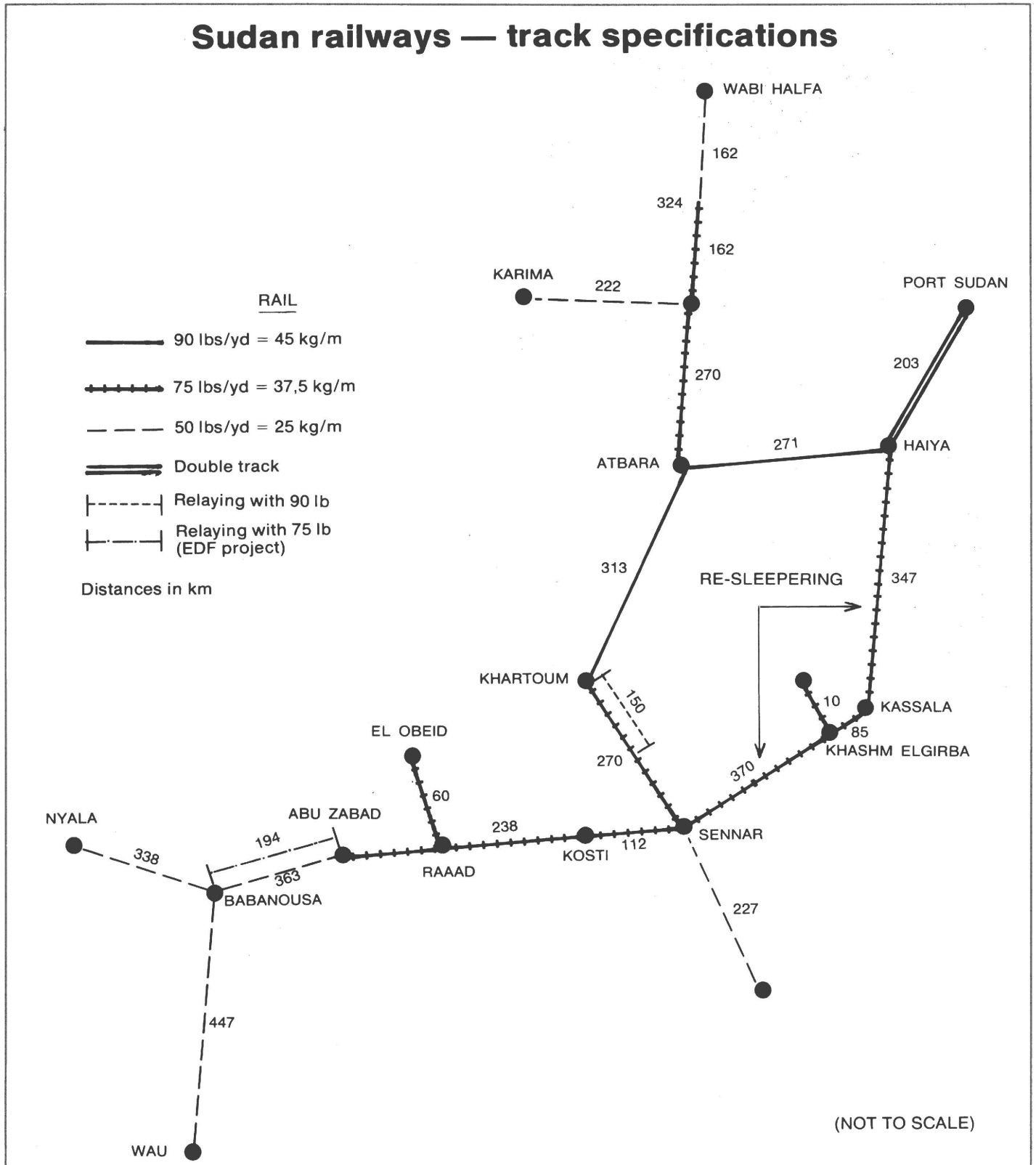
The growth of prosperity, especially in the urban areas, has also led to an increase in private car ownership and the development of fast, comfortable bus services; although, except for journeys within the central area of Khartoum-Wad Medani-Gedarif, this has not yet had a noticeable effect upon railway passenger traffic. However, within this area, the competition from modern bus services has been marked. The six-hour train journey between Khartoum and Wad Medani has been halved by the bus, and is invariably more

reliable. Can Sudan Railways compete in this fast, short-journey market?

Mr Ragi thinks so. "Sudan Railways can compete with buses for short trips if the standard of the service is improved. It must be made faster and more comfortable. Already, we are introducing heavier track on these lines from Khartoum and this will enable us to introduce higher speeds in air-conditioned and more comfortable coaches", he said.

The scheduled opening later this year of the strategic Khartoum-Wad Medani-Port Sudan highway will certainly

Sudan railways — track specifications





Damage caused by rain to railway track in the west of Sudan

make an impact on rail traffic, despite the markedly higher freight rates by road. But what the roads cannot yet offer in terms of bulk or gross tonnage, they can certainly deliver in terms of speed—albeit at a price. A number of new transport companies have already been set up—some them with European and Arab finance and management—and are due to start operations later this year.

But the declining share of both freight and passenger traffic reflects major problems within the railways themselves.

The railway authorities acknowledge that over the past year or so, they have been operating at about 60% capacity. With the perennial wash-out of track during the rainy season aggravating the already short supply of spare parts, which, in turn, reflects the SRC's drastic shortage of foreign currency, the 60% that was available was overworked.

"But now, as a result of intensive efforts and the availability of funds, spare parts are becoming available and our position has progressed since last February. We expect to put all our locomotives back into service by the end of the year," Mr Ragi said.

Generally speaking, Sudan has not found it too difficult to get foreign aid for specific projects; but programme aid—for balance of payments support and the provision of spare parts for already existing projects—has been much more of a problem. Sudan Railways has suffered shortages of spare parts for some time, and only recently have funds become available to allow locomotives to become operational.

A \$24 million Japanese loan in March 1978 was reportedly tied to the purchase of spare parts for Hitachi locomotives, of which 75% were out of order. Sudan Railways says unofficially that the problem with these lightweight locomotives is one of design and general unsuitability for Sudanese

conditions. Hitachi, however, blame the high rate of mechanical failures on poor local maintenance.

In April 1978, transport minister Abdel Rahman Abdallah announced a policy of making spare parts for lightweight Japanese and American locomotives in Sudan. By making up to 50% of the required spares at home, he said, many of the delays that had become common last year would be avoided. As yet, however, this policy seems to have made little or no progress.

Last autumn, a \$160 million loan was made by France for the improvement of track, signalling and training and to buy new locomotives. And in May this year, an \$8.5 million British grant for the purchase of spare parts was announced in Khartoum.

Other injections of foreign aid have come from Arab sources, especially the Kuwaiti, Abu Dhabi and Saudi Islamic funds.

A system under strain

Maintenance of the track is, of course, a priority in any railway system. In Sudan, weather conditions make this extremely difficult. Much of the terrain is unsuitable for heavy track and is especially vulnerable to rains and flooding. In such conditions, it is difficult to keep the track stable.

The use of lightweight locomotives in these areas means low speeds. Indeed, the average speed of the railway rarely exceeds 30 kilometres per hour anywhere in the country.

Much of the strain under which railway services are put reflects the fast rate of economic growth that Sudan has

seen in the 1970s. Over the past 10 years, for example, the government has insisted upon the opening up of some 500 km of new uneconomic track to serve new projects and the diversion of locomotives and rolling stock to development activity.

From the point of view of national goals, few would criticize this policy. But Sudan Railways receives no element of 'social cost' and the strain is felt over the whole system.

Other aspects of national policy distort normal commercial operations. The transportation of fuel from Port Sudan to Khartoum receives top priority—a burden made more onerous by the frequent breakdowns in the oil pipeline. Sudan Railways have had to order an additional 150 to 200 tank wagons—nearly twice the number that would be required if the pipeline were working at proper capacity. A loan of FF29 million was made for the purchase of the extra tank wagons.

Oil exploration in the west by the Chevron Company has also demanded high priority for the transportation of provisions and drilling equipment from Khartoum and Port Sudan. To meet the expected additional traffic in this area, 75 lb track is to be laid between Er Rahad and Babanusa, replacing the lighter weight track.

Within the current railway plan (1977/78-1982/83) a number of improvement schemes are envisaged. Perhaps the most vital of these is to upgrade the transportation of goods between Port Sudan and Khartoum; in particular, doubling the 200 km stretch between Port Sudan and Haiya junction.

"Port Sudan is the only sea outlet for the country and, therefore, all exports and imports go through the single railway line between Port Sudan and Haiya", Mr Abbas Ragi explained. "The line here branches to go through Atbara or Kassala. Therefore, doubling the track can be regarded as a completion of the doubling between Sennar and Port Sudan."

This work, estimated at some £35 million (\$70 million), of which \$30 million will be in hard currency, is yet to begin. However, officials forecast its completion within the lifetime of the current plan.

Other track improvements will include that of laying 90 lb track between Khartoum and Sennar—the cross-over point on the Blue Nile for east-west and north-south lines. The heavier track will allow for faster and heavier locomotives. Sennar will also be the site of the new diesel locomotive workshop.

One problem in a country as large as Sudan is the delay to traffic caused by the time taken to transmit reports of accidents or mechanical failures to the nearest station. Trains can sometimes wait twelve hours for replacement locomotives.

Telecommunications links are now being installed in locomotives and stations and between main depots. Part of the work, financed by the World Bank, has already been completed.

Although the policy of going diesel is well under way, some 96 steam locomotives are still in regular use. Of these, 21 are shunters, the remaining 75 being used on lightweight track. Full 'dieselization' will give faster speeds and cheaper operating costs, but it will be some time before steam is entirely replaced.

At all levels, skilled manpower is at a premium—indeed this is a problem in all fields of economic activity in Sudan. Sudan Railways has its own technical school at Atbara and a new training centre was scheduled to open on 25 May, as part of the celebrations of the tenth anniversary of the May Revolution. The training centre will have responsibility for both technical and managerial training, since it is within the field of training, many executives feel, that most short-term

improvements can be found and at relatively low cost.

Looking further ahead, there are plans for extending the railway to Juba, the capital of the southern region. The only link at present is to Wau, the south's second town. The problems with such an extension have been both technical and economic; and, of course, it was impossible to consider such a project until the 17-year civil war was brought to an end in 1972. But, within the foreseeable future, say Sudan Railways, the rail link is likely to become feasible. And if the notion of a unified Sudan is to have any meaning, the link is likely to become a political necessity.

Sudan Railways also supports the concept of a continental railway system for Africa, and took part in last year's meeting in Abidjan of the Union of African Railways.

The policy of economic integration with Egypt has resurrected old plans for completing the railway link between Wadi Halfa and Aswan in Egypt, despite the difference of gauge between the two systems. The prospects for this link are certainly better than similar proposals for the west and south. The link to Gulu in northern Uganda will have to wait for more favourable economic circumstances and a quietening down of the political situation. Finance is also the stumbling block for the proposed link between Ed Da'ein in the west and the Central African Empire.

Despite the difficulty of the terrain, in the shorter term the planned link-up between southern Sudan and Kenya along the River Kerio valley is much more likely to see the light of day. The route through Kenya to Mombasa is regarded by many development specialists as a better outlet than Port Sudan for the southern region's expanding agricultural production.

Railway development in Sudan is at an important stage, with two essential short-term goals: the modernization of the track and the locomotives, and the extension of the system into a truly national economic asset. Looking further ahead, one can see the links with neighbouring countries as likely to be of enormous political and economic benefit, with Sudan very much the centre of a regional network linking North and East Africa to the rest of the continent. □ J.P.

EEC contribution to development of Sudan Railways

Babanousa Railway: EUA 9 million.

Soft loan, financing agreement signed on 9.10.1978.

This is part of a project totalling 14 542 million EUA. The whole project consists of renewing 363 km of rail and supplying signalling equipment: the EDF component consists of improvement of 194 km of track from Babanousa to Abu Zabad, by replacing 50 lb/yd rail with 75 lb/yd rail, renewing the old sleepers, and improving the earthworks.

The EDF project represents 10% of the EDF's current indicative aid programme for Sudan.

The completed scheme should enable this stretch of track to carry increased traffic to Babanousa, from where it can be branched west to Nyala and south to Wau, inter alia opening access to markets for medium scale farms.

Work to start end-1979, to be completed mid-1982, spread over the dry seasons (Nov.—May) of 1980, 1981 and 1982.

EDF aid for railways

Since the first EDF was set up prior to the signing of Yaoundé I, the first cooperation agreement, it has provided financing, in the form of grants and various soft loans, for a number of major railway schemes in

the countries of Africa, laying some new lines and rehabilitating others.

These EDF schemes are listed in the following tables.

EDF aid by country

Country	Grants (‘000 EUA)	Special loans (‘000 EUA)	Interest rate subsidy (‘000 EUA)	Total (‘000 EUA)
Cameroon	48 120	16 400		64 520
Congo	12 122	7 465		19 587
Ivory Coast/Upper Volta	2 745	13 053	2 383	18 181
Djibouti/Ethiopia	500			500
Gabon	44	7 200		7 244
Madagascar	1 215			1 215
Senegal	2 114			2 114
Togo	1 709	12 991		14 700
Sudan	3 000	6 000		9 000
Swaziland	150			150
Tanzania	60			60
Zaire	84			84
Zambia	300			300
Total	72 163	63 109	2 383	137 655
Cameroon				
<i>The Trans-Cameroon Railway</i>				
— Contribution to cofinancing of phase one (1st EDF)	17 165			17 165
— Construction of rail/road bridge, Edea (1st EDF)	1 703			1 703
— Contribution to cofinancing of phase two (2nd EDF)	15 001	5 000		20 001
— Study for phase two (2nd EDF)	26			26
— Expert opinion, phase two (2nd EDF)	11			11
— Contribution to cofinancing of phase one (3rd EDF)	3 395			3 395
— Contribution to cofinancing of phase two (3rd EDF)	7 465			7 465
— Realignment of Douala-Edea stretch (4th EDF)		10 000		10 000
— Geotechnical studies for realignment of Eseka-Maloumé (4th EDF)	1 555			1 555
Total	46 321	15 000		61 321
<i>Miscellaneous financing</i>				
— Construction of rail/road bridge over the Mungo (1st EDF)	669			669
— Construction of 29 km between N’Banga and Kumba (2nd EDF)	1 130			1 130
— Purchase of rolling stock and railway workshop equipment (2nd EDF)		1 400		1 400
Total	1 799	1 400		3 199
Grand total	48 120	16 400		64 520

Country	Grant (^{'000} EUA)	Special loan (^{'000} EUA)	Interest rate subsidy (^{'000} EUA)	Total (^{'000} EUA)
Congo				
<i>Congo-Ocean Railway (CFCO)</i>				
— Strengthening of 31 km of track (1st EDF)	530			530
— Purchase of 50 citrus fruit wagons (1st EDF)	427			427
— Realignment of Holle-Loubomo section (2nd EDF)	2 348	468		2 816
— Idem 2nd EDF (3rd EDF)	1 271	3 151		4 422
— Idem 2nd EDF (4th EDF)	3 846	3 846		7 692
— Supplementary financing, 4th EDF (regional project, Congo-Gabon-CAE)	3 700			3 700
Total	12 122	7 465		19 587
Ivory Coast/Upper Volta				
<i>Abidjan-Niger Railway</i>				
— Modernization of the Abidjan-Niger railway (purchase of rolling stock and metal bridges, 1st EDF)	2 717			2 717
— Modernization of 105 km of track (Agboville-Dimbokro) (2nd EDF)		6 012		6 012
— Investment study (2nd EDF)	28			28
— Modernization of 130 km of track (Dimbroko-Bouaké) (3rd EDF)		5 041	2 204	7 245
— Replacement and expansion of rolling stock (3rd EDF)			179	179
— Repair of metal decks of culverts & bridges on the Upper Volta section (Ivory Coast/Upper Volta regional project) (4th EDF)		2 000		2 000
Total	2 745	13 053	2 383	18 181
Gabon				
<i>Trans-Gabonese Railway</i>				
— Study of Owendo-Boué railway (2nd EDF)	44			44
— Contribution towards construction of the railway (3rd EDF)		7 200(1)		7 200
Total	44	7 200		7 244
Djibouti/Ethiopia				
— Rehabilitation of Addis-Djibouti railway (a 4th EDF regional project)	500			500
Madagascar				
— Establishment of telecommunications along 100 of track (1st EDF)	1 215			1 215
Senegal				
— Modernization of 50 km of the Dakar-Niger line (1st EDF)	2 114			2 114
Togo				
— Purchase of 20 goods vans (1st EDF)	194			194
— Modernization of 45 km of track and replacement of rails (1st EDF)	1 515			1 515
— Contribution to cofinancing of CIMAO railway project (Ivory Coast/Upper Volta/Ghana/Togo regional project) (4th EDF)		12 991		12 991
Total	1 709	12 991		14 700
Sudan				
— Babanousa railway line (4th EDF)	3 000	6 000		9 000
Swaziland				
— Production of a railway development programme (4th EDF)	150			150
Tanzania				
— Study for the Tabora-Kigoma railway section (part of East African Transport System) (4th EDF)	60			60
Zaire				
— Purchase of 10 tankers (1st EDF)	84			84
Zambia				
— Coastal link study (4th EDF)	300			300

The International African Institute

by Djibril DIALLO

The IAI was established in 1926 as an independent, non-political body to promote:

— research and publications on African societies, languages and cultures;

— application of research and science to practical affairs in Africa.

These aims have been pursued with particular emphasis on the improvement of communication between anglophone and franco-phone scholars and institutions.

Achievements

For over half a century, on a smaller budget than any comparable institution, the IAI has played a central role in the promotion of African studies.

The IAI has been responsible for the publication of over 300 monographs and collective works on the societies, languages and cultures of Africa, more than any other institution or publisher. The majority of these volumes have been printed and distributed for the IAI by the Oxford University Press. Fifty of the IAI's titles have appeared in French or in bilingual editions, involving collaboration with the Presses Universitaires de France and other publishers. The continuing series of the IAI's *Ethnographic Survey of Africa* (already totalling over 60 volumes) has included titles in both English and French. The IAI's scientific journals, *Africa* (reaching its 50th volume in 1980) and *African Languages*, are distributed to members of the IAI in 99 countries.

A total of 16 international African seminars and conferences have been held by the IAI in Africa since 1959, and have led to major published surveys in the fields of sociology, economics, law, religion, language, history and bibliography. Each meeting has been co-sponsored by the IAI and an African university, the next being planned for July, 1979, at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria (Nigeria), on the subject of "Pastoralists of the West African Savannah".

The IAI has been the principal international coordinator of Africanist information and bibliography. A third edi-

tion will shortly be prepared of the IAI's *International Guide to African Studies Research* and the IAI continues to support the preparation by SOAS(1) (University of London) of the *International African Bibliography*, funded by the IAI in 1929. Past publications in this field have included *African Abstracts* (co-published in French by Cardan), the *African Bibliography Series* and the *International Bulletin of Current Africanist Research*.

An African alphabet

The IAI has been concerned with the written and educational development of African languages since the 1920s. IAI's International African Alphabet, adopted for 60 languages, formed the basis of the African alphabet recommended by the inter-African UNESCO

(1) School of Oriental and African Studies.

meeting on African languages held in Niamey in 1978. The IAI has produced many of the basic works of references in this field, including the 8-volume *Handbook of African Languages* and the *Language Map of Africa*. For 20 years, the IAI awarded prizes for original writing in African languages, which it now seeks to revive.

The IAI has been equally concerned with social and environmental research in many parts of Africa. Its current fields of enquiry include drought and famine in Ethiopia, village food systems in West Africa and rural self-help brigades in Botswana (with reference to their applicability in an independent Zimbabwe). To date, the IAI has conducted research in 26 African countries.

Recent IAI research fellows have been recruited primarily from Africa, including young scholars from Ethiopia, Ghana, Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Tanzania.

Administration

The IAI is directed by an international executive council, composed of scien-



"Closer cooperation with international and intergovernmental organizations".
Djibril Diallo (right), assistant to the director of the International African Institute, with Aly Cissé, executive secretary of the Permanent Inter-State Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel

tists and scholars elected as individuals in their own right. The council has an African majority, including leading figures from both anglophone and francophone Africa. Recent meetings of the council have been held in Rome, Kinshasa, Warsaw and Lagos.

The executive council is answerable to a governing body, composed of corresponding members representing relevant universities and institutions throughout the world. A new governing body, due to be appointed for the period 1979-84, will include the representative of a relevant research body or university in every country of independent Africa, and in every country outside Africa with a major programme of African studies.

The executive council appoints an honorary director to be responsible for the administration, financing and scientific programme of the IAI. The current director (like his predecessor) is a full-time teacher at the University of London.

The International Secretariat of the IAI has been based largely in London since 1926. A Paris office was established in the 1930s and has recently been reopened. The London and Paris offices are administered as a single unit by a salaried staff of only 12, currently representing seven nationalities (the majority bilingual in English and French).

Looking ahead

During the financial year 1979-80, the IAI will seek to strengthen its presence in Paris and to extend its role as a vehicle of communication between francophone and anglophone scholars and institutions. The 3rd edition of the IAI's *International Guide of African Studies Research* will be prepared jointly in the Paris and London offices of the IAI, and will form part of a general expansion of the IAI's information services.

The last 20 years have seen a proliferation of organizations and institutions concerned with research and development in or relating to Africa. Journals and other information media have multiplied almost as rapidly, and the efficient exchange of information and experience is hampered by the sheer bulk and cost of the documentation involved. As a result of inadequate financial and bibliographical resources, institutions within Africa itself are often the ones to suffer most from this situation. From January 1980, therefore, the IAI aims to expand the size and coverage of its quarterly *IAI Bulletin of African Studies Notes and News*

and to widen its distribution. Outside Africa, costs will be covered by subscriptions, but an extensive mailing of complimentary copies within Africa will be covered partly by revenue from advertising. The expanded *IAI Bulletin*, edited in London and Paris, will be published in an English and French bilingual edition. Particular emphasis will be given to the reporting in French of activities in anglophone countries, and to the reporting in English of activities in francophone countries.

As a further contribution to international communication in this field, the IAI has been planning the establishment of small liaison offices in both anglophone and francophone Africa, as well as in Warsaw and New York. Each such liaison office will be financed independently of the London and Paris secretariat. The present IAI chairman, Professor Jacob Ade Ajayi, is currently seeking funds from the Ford Foundation for an IAI liaison office at the University of Ibadan, and a liaison office at the University of Warsaw is being funded from the resulting increase in the sale of IAI publications in socialist countries (hitherto limited by currency restrictions).

Textbooks

The IAI intends to strengthen its publications programme by the preparation of more titles in French and by the establishment of a new series of literature in African languages, designed to be widely distributed in Africa. Accompanying translations will be provided in English and/or French. In the longer term, and dependent on the resources available, the IAI wishes to be involved in the preparation and production of textbooks on African topics, for schools both within Africa and outside.

This is an area where there is still a major barrier between the anglophone and francophone worlds, with their complementary distribution of expertise and interests, but where closer collaboration and integration of effort would bear considerable dividends. For the immediate future, the IAI is actively investigating ways in which it may assist in textbook development at undergraduate level for Mozambique, and at secondary level for Namibia.

Research

In its research programme, the IAI will continue its policy of seeking experienced African research fellows who are able to work for the IAI not only in their own countries but also in other

parts of Africa (as Moroccan and Tanzanian research fellows were able to work recently in Senegal and Nigeria, for example, and as an Ethiopian research fellow will be working this year in the Gambia). The IAI's environmental review unit will continue its concern with practical research involving drought and famine, rural economic systems and pastoral resettlement.

The IAI's language and education unit will give priority to the educational development of African languages. Funds are also being sought to enable the IAI to play an educational role outside Africa, in the presentation of African civilizations to a general audience.

Two IAI awards have been advertised for the coming year: the African Roots Award (to be presented to the author of the published factual work contributing most to the strengthening of links between Africa and the African diaspora), and the Daryll Forde Memorial Award (a research grant to be awarded to a field-researcher of African nationality).

The financial position

Despite the historical developments of the last 50 years, the context of the IAI remains essentially the same as when it was founded. There is still need for an independent, international "clearing centre" of this kind, and yet financial restraints remain as always the major limiting factor in the achievement of the IAI's full potential. The IAI can be justly proud of its high record of cost effectiveness in fulfilling its unique role, but a point has now been reached where its sources of regular income must be substantially improved.

The recent expansion and updating of the IAI's programme, including the establishment of two new research units and the recruitment of a young, well-qualified secretariat, have been at the expense of its limited financial reserves. From a total of £101 000 in 1974, these reserves had dropped to only £51 000 in 1978 and will have been further depleted by the beginning of the next financial year. Some £20 000 is needed to balance next year's budget. While such use of the reserves has been justified by the need to get its new programme off the ground, the IAI's forthcoming budget must not only be balanced but should if possible permit a partial replenishment of its reserves. The alternative would be to cut back on the IAI's work at the very moment when it is fulfilling an increasingly important role on a number of fronts.

The publications budget of the IAI has been balanced for 1979-80 on the basis of a restricted production programme for new books. In recent years, pressures on income have prevented adequate reinvestment in publications and this has inevitably reduced subsequent revenue from sales. The best solution would be for the IAI to obtain a direct injection of commercial finance and management, for the purpose of establishing a self-supporting publications enterprise. As well as producing and marketing books for the IAI itself, such a company could play a role in distributing books published by institutions within Africa and could possibly operate small IAI bookshops in London (at the Africa Centre in Covent Garden)

and in Paris. In the meantime, the IAI is seeking subsidies from relevant foundations for titles not covered by its forthcoming budget.

The British and French governments have been two of the most consistent donors to the general budget of the IAI but these governmental contributions—together with smaller subventions from other governments in Africa and Europe, including Belgium—have represented only a small percentage of the annual budget of the IAI. The balance has been met mainly from grants for specific projects, in recent years especially from the Ford Foundation and Leverhulme Trust Fund, from the sale of publications, and from subscription to IAI journals. Donations are

also received from a few private companies with interests in Africa, but until now these have been invariably small—with the exception of the generous contribution from the French company SCOA towards the costs of the IAI office in Paris.

As an international African organization, it is important that the IAI should increase its sources of finance from Africa itself, and recent steps have been taken to acquaint African governments more fully with the current and planned programme of the IAI and with the services it is able to provide to African governments and institutions. Senegal and Nigeria have been the most important financial contributors from Africa in the past, but small grants have been received also from Kenya, Malawi, Lesotho and Sierra Leone.

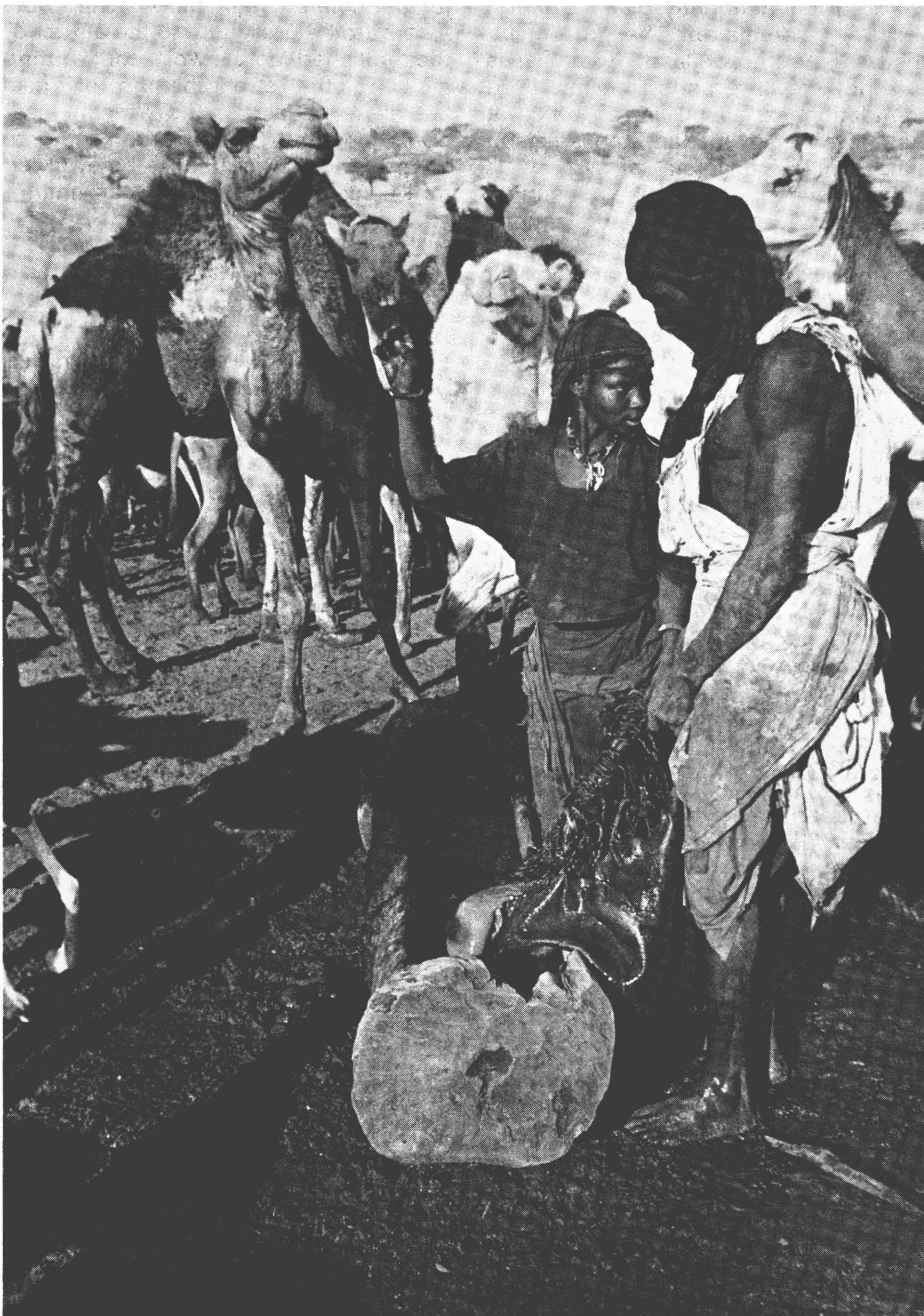
As it has worked to expand its programme, the IAI has endeavoured also to expand its sources of income. The recent increase in the support provided by the Ministry of Overseas Development, the Ministère des Affaires Étrangères and the Ministère de la Coopération have contributed towards the first stage of this expansion, together with generous support provided from the private sector by the Leverhulme Trust Fund and the French company SCOA. Inevitably, however, there is a hiatus between the production of results and the overall increase in financial support which is stimulated by those results.

The expanded circulation of the *IAI Bulletin* will do much to ensure that individuals, institutions and governments are aware of the IAI's achievements and of its financial needs.

Stronger links with international and inter-governmental organizations

The IAI, which has recently acquired consultative status with UNESCO and UNICEF, seeks to strengthen further its links with other international and inter-governmental organizations, especially in the field of research. The recent election of the IAI's chairman as president of CIAF (International Congress of African Studies) will enable the two bodies to collaborate closely, with consequent economies of effort and expenditure.

It is important that the financial year 1979-80 should be the last during which the IAI is administered by an honorary, part-time director. The constitution of the IAI includes provision for a secretary-general, and it is hoped that contributions secured from African governments will enable this vacant position to be filled. □ D.D.



UNITED NATIONS

“Applying the results of research to the problems caused by drought and the settlement of the nomadic herdsmen”

GHANA

University involvement in appropriate technology

by J. W. POWELL(*)

At the University of Science and Technology at Kumasi, Ghana, in the late 1960s a small number of lecturers, mainly expatriates from Britain, formed themselves into the Kumasi Technology Group, aiming to find ways of directly assisting small industries in and around Kumasi. They succeeded in demonstrating a new role for a technological university in a Third World country. They showed that university staff could help to solve some of the problems of small and informal industries, and could help to promote new industries exploiting products and processes developed within the university.

At the same time, a debate was going on within the university concerning whether or not academic staff should undertake consultancy work for outside bodies. The university authorities decided in 1970 to discourage commercial consultancy and this led to the resignation of a large part of the academic staff of the faculty of engineering.

The rethinking that ensued led to the establishment in January, 1972 of the Technology Consultancy Centre, with the aim of formalizing and channelling consultancy work undertaken by academic staff members, and the opportunity was taken to involve the Centre in what became known as appropriate technology for small industries.

The TCC makes available the expertise and resources of the university to assist anyone in Ghana with a technical problem or an intention to promote a new industrial or agricultural enterprise. Some large industries and government departments have awarded

consultancy contracts to the TCC, but the largest part of the Centre's work (over 80%) has been concerned with the promotion of small and informal industries and small farm technology for which no fees are charged and for which consultants voluntarily contribute their services.

These projects have been funded mostly by means of grants from non-governmental organisations in Europe and North America.

By the end of 1978, the TCC directly employed seven professional staff, 11 technical and secretarial staff and about 50 trainees in six small industry pilot projects.

It operates its own workshop, with about 20 machine tools and metal fabricating equipment, runs a fleet of four vehicles and has its own bank account and accounting staff. By 1977-78, its annual budget had grown to £ 0.5 million (\$ 180 000).

The Centre is thus well equipped to provide a quick and effective response to opportunities which arise for assisting entrepreneurs and for establishing pilot projects. Industries which it has promoted include soap, caustic soda, paper and wood glues, steel bolts and nuts, agricultural implements, hand-woven textiles, glass beads, vegetable oils, animal feed, weaving looms, small-scale process plants and vehicle and machinery spare parts.

The following brief case study illustrates how the TCC introduces an appropriate technology and promotes a new small-scale enterprise for a client.

The drying of brewer's spent barley

A by-product of the brewing of beer is known as brewer's spent barley, or grain. In Western countries, it has become accepted practice for breweries to dry this material and to sell it to animal feed manufacturers. However, in Kumasi in 1974, there were two breweries operated by international corpor-

ations paying contractors to dump the wet material in the bush, where it was left to rot. It was estimated that 120 tons of wet grain were dumped every week. At the same time there was an acute shortage of animal feed in the country.

A sample of brewer's spent barley from one of the local breweries was analysed in the biochemistry department of the university. It was found that the wet material contained 75% water. In this condition it began to ferment within 24 hours.

The dry material, however, could be stored for long periods and the critical level of moisture content was determined to be about 12%. The food value of the spent barley was found to be in its high protein content. The analysis showed 21% total protein with a convertible protein level of 14%.

With these facts established, the TCC decided to attempt to interest an entrepreneur in the commercial drying of brewer's spent barley to supply local animal farmers.

Most clients who approach the TCC for assistance already have a specific project in mind. There are a few, however, who, although determined to start a business, have no definite idea and are open to suggestion.

One such client was found towards the end of 1975. He was judged to have the necessary entrepreneurial qualities and he could obtain finance from his wife who was a successful trader (the client often remarked that his project started during International Women's Year!).

Conclusive results

It was quite clear that the project would be long delayed and, at worst, a non-starter if the client tried to obtain imported plant for his industry. In any case the cost of the available plant would have been far beyond his means. Consequently, the construction of a manually operated press on the lines of a wine press was suggested by a French chemical engineer at the university. This could be used to reduce the water content. Final drying, it was reasoned, could be done by spreading the grain in the sun on a flat concrete surface.

A press was constructed in the TCC workshop. The client prepared a large compound with a flat concrete surface and painted the surrounding walls white to increase reflection.

(*) Director of the Technology Consultancy Centre, Kumasi, Ghana.

	Intermediate technology (capital investment £7 000)	Advanced technology (capital investment £160 000)		
		1 shift	2 shifts	3 shifts
Production/day	0.625 tonne	2 tonnes	4 tonnes	6 tonnes
Labour cost/day	£30.00	£17.00	£34.00	£51.00
Material cost/day	£3.64	Nil	Nil	Nil
Energy cost/day	Nil	£230.00	£461.00	£692.00
Overhead cost/day	£22.54(1)	£64.00(2)	£32.00(2)	£21.00(2)
Total cost/day	£56.18	£311.00	£527.00	£764.00
Cost per 25 kg sack	£2.25	£3.90	£3.30	£3.18
Selling price	£4.00	£6.25	£6.25	£6.25
Profit per sack	£1.75	£2.35	£2.95	£3.07
Annual profit	£10 937.00	£47 000.00	£118 000.00	£184 200.00
Return on capital	156 %	29 %	74 %	115 %

(1) Includes entrepreneurs salary, depreciation, rent, etc.
(2) Depreciation of plant and equipment only.

A three month trial period began in November, 1975. During this period no charges were made to the client and he was given help in production and marketing. It was agreed that if, at the end of the trial, the client wanted to continue the business he would pay on easy

terms for the equipment supplied.

The results of the trial were very encouraging. The press reduced the water content of the grain from 75% to 50% which represented the expulsion of two thirds of the original water. The

waste water was analysed to ensure that no valuable nutrients were being lost in the process. The pressed grain was spread in the sun and dried in about four hours to a water content of 8-10%.

It was found that even in the pressed condition the fermentation rate was retarded and this gave the client some opportunity to redeem any produce that could not be dried on the first day.

Initially, all sales of the dried spent grain were made to the university where pigs, sheep, cattle, horses and poultry were fed the new feed from the outset. Tests undertaken in the department of animal production showed that up to 20% of brewer's spent grain substituted in poultry feed increased egg production by 10%. Larger proportions were not recommended because the high fibre content reduced egg size.

Gradually, farmers outside the university began to use the spent grain. The first users were rabbit farmers, followed by traders fattening sheep and goats for market.

The trial period was pronounced a success and the entrepreneur decided to continue the business and to purchase the equipment provided by the TCC. A second press was added in 1976 and two more in 1977. The business continued to expand steadily and generated its own demand, which came to exceed the ability of the entrepreneur to supply. This factor undoubtedly weighed in the decision by one of



Helping small and informal industries — "a new role for a technological university in a Third World country"

the breweries to introduce advanced technology drying.

One interesting fact that emerged from the first year's operation was that drying was able to continue during the rainy season. This was made possible by the nature of the rains which usually came daily, at the same time, in short storms interspersed with bright intervals, during which drying proceeded satisfactorily.

One of the breweries in Kumasi decided to instal an advanced technology plant to dry its spent grain. The importation was much delayed and production did not start until 1978. In the process adopted, very little pressing was done. Most of the water was removed by evaporation and the source of heat was pressurized steam supplied from an electrically heated boiler.

This system was chosen to reduce capital cost, since an existing boiler with excess capacity was already installed at the brewery. It was estimated that the drying consumed about 4 600 kW hours in an eight-hour shift at a cost of C 0.05 per unit.

The two technologies employed in drying brewer's spent barley made an interesting comparison.

Economics

The economics of the two technologies at mid-1978 are compared in the table. The performance of the advanced technology depended upon

the number of shifts worked. The intermediate technology worked only one shift of approximately 10 hours per day.

The intermediate technology involved the lowest production cost and the highest return on capital. In almost every way, its economic performance was better than the advanced technology.

Clearly the weakness of the advanced technology was the high cost of electrical energy. The big advantage of the intermediate technology was the low cost of solar energy.

The brewery paid higher wages for its more skilled people. Working two or three shifts a day, the brewery paid out more in wages than the entrepreneur.

At three shifts a day, the brewery was paying C 51 daily to six people compared to the entrepreneur's payment of C30 per day to eight people. If the intermediate technology had been expanded to produce at the brewery's three shift level, it would have paid wages of about C288 per day to 77 people.

Cost per workplace

The brewery's imported plant was intended for operation by one man, although two have been employed. At a plant and building cost of C160 000 the cost per workplace was C80 000 on a shift basis and C27 000 with three shifts working. Boilers costing C200 000 were also used but these were already instal-

led and were not included in the project investment.

The entrepreneur employed eight people in his intermediate technology process. The cost per workplace, taking account of the investment in the presses and the concrete floor, etc. (C930) was less than C900.

Output

The brewery's plant, working three shifts, had a capacity 10 times greater than that of the entrepreneur's operation, which handled about 12 tons of wet barley per week and produced about three tons of product. However, importation problems have meant that the brewery has been producing well below capacity and has not been able to fully utilize its drying plant.

The entrepreneur obtained his raw material from the other brewery in Kumasi and, as his need was much smaller than the supply available, fluctuations in brewery output have not affected his production.

Marketing

The brewery contracted to supply most of its produce to animal feed mixing companies. Its price was C6.25 for a 25 kg sack with a projected increase to C7.50 expected in the following year.

The entrepreneur supplied farmers directly on a first come, first served basis. His price was C4.00 for a 25 kg sack. The product could be considered inferior on the basis of the less hygienic conditions of its processing. On balance, he probably supplied the best value for money and would have increased his selling price but for the moderating influence of the TCC.

Conclusions

The drying of brewer's spent grain provides an interesting example of an intermediate technology introduced by a university using locally available materials and manufacturing resources which in many ways out-performed an advanced technology imported from outside.

While there is no doubt that a much more appropriate advanced technology could be devised to share some of the advantages of the intermediate technology, e.g. the use of solar energy, as things stood in mid-1978, the intermediate technology could more than hold its own and might be judged the appropriate technology in every sense. □

J.W.P.



"An intermediate technology... which in many ways out-performed an advanced technology imported from outside"

The Bahamas Development Bank

by C. Stacy WADDY and W. GOLCHER

Nassau in the Bahamas is nowadays one of the leading off-shore banking centres of the world. Most of the 285 banks are Eurocurrency branches of foreign banks, where deposits from other countries and loans to other countries are 'booked through'.

Such off-shore centres come into being where favourable geographical (in this case, the proximity to the Americas), political (stable government), technical (communication, lawyers' and accountants' services, etc.) and economic (growing economy, low inflation rate) conditions coincide.

Besides these advantages, the country has a well established company and banking law and last but not least—there are no direct taxes.

After tourism, which provides the bulk of national income and employment, banking is the second largest industry in the Bahamas. With about 2 000 Bahamians employed in the banking sector (total population about 230 000) the country may have the largest proportion of bankers in the world.

The Bahamas are in fact in a better situation than most of the other non-oil-producing developing countries.

But one should not forget that it is a country comprising 700 islands. Only about 30 of the islands are inhabited. The vast majority of the population lives on New Providence in the capital city of Nassau, another big portion on Grand Bahama in the second largest city of Freeport (together: 75% of the population). This leaves only tiny populations and limited economic potentials for all the other islands.

These other islands were called 'Out Islands' until recently, when they were renamed, for psychological reasons, 'Family Islands'. The main problem of this small island nation is the unbalanced situation between the two developed, urbanized and partly industrialized islands and all the other Out Islands. Infrastructure, private, public

and social services are poorly developed on most of the Out Islands. The rural exodus from some of these islands is alarming.

A national development bank in a country with 285 banks—why?

What hampered the economic progress of the whole country also was that there were not sufficient banking services and loans available for Bahamians. So, despite the 285 banks, it was generally felt that there were good reasons for establishing a national development bank.

This bank should provide more equal opportunities to all Bahamian islands and draw the country closer together.

Establishment of the Bahamas Development Bank

On 21 July 1978 the Bahamas Development Bank (BDB) was officially opened and another example of a technically aided project under Lomé came into the open. It was the first EEC project in the Bahams.

The act establishing the BDB was passed in 1974. Yet it only took effect in 1978, when the bank began operations. What happened between?

It was about a year after the act was passed that a political programming mission from the European Communities first visited the Bahamas and began to draw up an aid programme (EUA 2 m).

Deputy premier and finance minister Arthur D. Hanna set great store, together with his senior staff, on starting the BDB on the right track and keeping it that way. To that end they sought two experienced bankers to help them.

An ad hoc committee of directors, headed by Mrs E.C. Isaacs, deputy financial secretary, was responsible for the final selection of the two advisers. In May 1977 C. Stacy Waddy of Britain and Wolfgang Golcher of Germany arrived in Nassau to take the posts of banking adviser and accounting sys-

tems adviser respectively. Both had been recruited from the private sector and had had significant international experience.

At that time the BDB was not yet in existence—it had no premises, capital, management or staff. During the rest of 1977 both advisers took a long look at the country and set about the preliminaries of starting a bank from scratch.

The EEC Commission's delegate to the Bahamas, Johannes Westhoff, joined them in urging the appointment of the Bahamian counterparts without whom the BDB could not, of course, take form.

By the end of 1977, Mrs Isaacs had been formally gazetted as chairman and another of the committee, Warren Rolle, had accepted the position of managing director, to take effect from January 1978.

Not much later Mr Van-Wright Pearson took the post of chief accountant.

1978, the BDB's first year, was exciting as it was fruitful for both advisers, the Bahamian staff and the bank itself.

A total of \$4 m (the Bahamian dollar is at par with the US dollar) capital and \$1 m long term loan (payable) was paid up by the government. The BDB took over splendid premises next to the Ministry of Finance in the heart of down-town Nassau.

The Bahamian staff were recruited from the flourishing banking community and the public service to give an excellent blend of skills.

After the BDB opened its doors in July 1978 it progressed very rapidly. Sensible and worthwhile projects were being put forward by the Bahamian public.

The board of directors, management and staff were pulling together well in the handling of the new business. Already more than \$400 000 of loans were disbursed during the first year.

Lines of credit were negotiated from the Caribbean Development Bank, Barbados, of which Mr Rolle is also a director, and from the Inter-American Development Bank. Another line of nearly \$1 m is due from the EDF.

Development policy and profitability

The main objectives of the BDB are to promote and enhance the various



Arthur D. Hanna (left), deputy Prime Minister and finance minister in the Bahamas, at the ACP-EEC ministerial conference in Freeport last March. He played a part in setting up the BDB. On the right, H.B. St John, deputy Prime Minister and commerce, industry and tourism minister from Barbados. In the second row, from left to right, ambassador Insanally (Guyana), Ruall Harris and C.B. Williams, respectively *chargé d'affaires* and ambassador of Barbados in Brussels

sectors of the (private) Bahamian economy. Development banking is often an expensive (small loans—high costs) and in many cases also risky (bad loans) undertaking.

But despite the high costs and risks, a development bank has also to look at its profitability so that it can maintain its creditworthiness with other banks and its general reputation. This is particularly important in a city like Nassau, where so many other banks are watching the only Bahamian bank to speak of.

Fortunately the BDB was able to show a profit for its first year of operations, 1978. There are several reasons for this.

Managing director Warren Rolle, an accountant by profession, and his staff try to keep down expenses wherever reasonably possible. This is not so easy because of the proximity to the USA and its temptations.

The share capital and the long term loan (payable) can be placed as interest bearing deposits with other banks, as treasury bills or registered stocks, etc.

There is a fairly well developed Bahamian dollar inter-bank market. The income from these deposits and temporary investments is used to pay most of the expenditure.

A crucial point for every development bank is the collection of interest and repayments of loans—in time. In the case of BDB, loan customers have generally to make monthly payments. So any difficulties can be discovered at an early stage and discussed with the customer.

It is the bank's policy to ensure strict loan supervision so that no substantial arrears may arise. Loan approvals so far have been based strictly on economic considerations. The bank tries to stay away from 'political' loans.

Besides loan supervision, accurate and up-to-date accounting records are perhaps more important for a development bank than for any other. Despite the small number of transactions in the beginning, the BDB has operated a smooth-running accounting system.

It was able, from the very first day of its operations, to process all transactions daily and issue a trial balance daily. Monthly balance sheets with detailed P & L statements are prepared at the end of every month. The directors and management are kept informed constantly.

Problems in other development banks often arise because the recording is done at longer intervals or only occasionally: in that case, repayments and due dates cannot be followed up.

Other services

The BDB believes that the granting of loans is only one side of the activities of a development bank. Assisting the customers with other services, such as accounting, sales promotion and marketing, procurement, management advice and constant training, is another very important duty of a development bank. These additional duties should form an integral part of the activities and distinct them from commercial banks.

Although the Bahamas Development Bank opened its doors to the public only in 1978, it already tries to provide these services, which are equally important for the customer and the bank.

The two-year term of the EEC advisers was over in spring 1979. There is still a lot of exciting work ahead for the BDB. But, as Mr Hanna remarked, "we have done remarkably well". This is only the beginning.

Let us hope that the bank is also able in future to maintain or even to raise these high standards, so that one can say also with regard to the BDB:

Developing banking—it's better in the Bahamas! □ S.W.G.

Afro-Caribbean literature is still marked by names like Frantz Fanon and Oruno Lara. And, of course, Aimé Césaire. He it was, with Ousmane Socé and Léopold Sedar Senghor, who first founded the negritude movement in the '30s when, for the first time, black students in France took a cultural stand and spoke out against a certain image of Africa, that of a continent without civilization.

While Fanon (who died young in Algiers), Senghor and Césaire followed the logic of their literature and, without compromising their art as writers, fought a political war, Afro-Caribbean literature in French has, for several years now, had another star performer, Maryse Condé, a teacher and author of a wide range of books. Her most recent work is *La Civilisation du Bossale*(1), an interesting discussion of the oral literature of Guadeloupe and Martinique, indeed of the whole Caribbean, which reveals and reflects the true nature of the African peoples of the Caribbean, their cultural relations with Africa, their continent of origin, today and their present way of life.

The *Courier* met the writer in her Paris home to talk about her latest book and why the French-speaking Afro-Caribbeans seek, like the black Americans in the USA and the Bretons in France, to return to their cultural origins. But first, what about the title?

Maryse Condé: "in the thesis I presented at the University of Paris and in the lectures I gave my students, I spent some time on the oral literature of the Caribbean. What image of the negro did this literature give and was it the same as later appeared in written literature? What I found was that the negroes in the Caribbean have always had a fairly poor opinion of themselves, both in history and in modern times. We have had no cultural evolution or revolution to give the citizen of the Caribbean a different image of himself. So the image we have is, of course, one formed by other people.

"This is clearly apparent in oral literature (tales, proverbs, etc.) because it is directly influenced by Africa, as the slave arrived from his homeland and settled in his new surroundings with his mind full of oral African literature. But the content of the literature has been completely changed by one thing,

(1) The "Bossale" was a Caribbean word for a new arrival from Africa.

Maryse Condé

« La Civilisation du Bossale » or cultural necessity



Maryse Condé

In African society... "calumny and slander are the worst of all. In these societies with no literature, where the spoken word is all, they are considered as the negation and destruction of the person they refer to". Nothing like this survives in Caribbean society...

slavery. Instead of a free man evolving in a free universe, culturally free even if there are economic and other difficulties, we have a dependent being, the last rung of a ladder leading up to the 'master', the white man. And gradually, this man, the negro, completely forgets he was ever in Africa at all, and forges a new, inferior and dependent personality."

So cultural dependence is the key to Caribbean identity, an important point which Maryse Condé uses as a basis for defining the various stages of the civilization of the Bossale. There are three main phases: formation of the stereotype, the oral literature of the negroes (or the interiorization of the stereotype) and the passage from oral to written literature.

What would have been the relations between Europeans and Africans today if Europe had not been in quest of new wealth and new markets in Africa and the Caribbean? This is Condé's question. Although the writings of the period do not say whether the West was "intrigued" by African culture or "disdainful" of it, we do know that, at the time, the Caribbean negro was considered to be "better off than the African as slavery opened the doors to civilization". From this point, Maryse Condé has studied stereotype formation in the Afro-Caribbean by examining relations between the negro and the "master", the "traveller" and the "missionary". Relations between the master and the Caribbean negro are of two types: on the one hand, conflicting relations at work, those of master and servant; and on the other, sentimental ambiguity. The master thinks that the Caribbean negro's culture is worthless, but he likes "coloured women", admits that Caribbean men are erotic and is wary of their "heredity" and "strength", Condé says. All this determines a certain number of stereotypes which appear in proverbs.

The traveller who arrived in the Car-

ibbean was, unlike the master, a prolific writer. But, Maryse Condé says, "errors and untruths abound in their stories because far too many travellers never strayed far from home". Afro-Caribbean culture occupied only "a small place in these accounts, but nature, flowers, fruit, rivers and mountains were described in detail". The traveller nevertheless identified some of the cultural features of the Caribbean negro, but without seeking to deny the "principal original flaws" he was said to have, Maryse Condé adds. So the traveller does nothing to make the stereotype any more subtle.

Finally, we come to the missionaries. In spite of the tormented beginnings of the church in the Caribbean, Condé feels that "the missionary superimposes his convictions about the nature and culture of the Bossale "on the widely accepted opinion and views of master and traveller. "If their masters tell us they have no vices, we baptize them", Father Vidaud said. And so stereotyping continued with the missionaries.

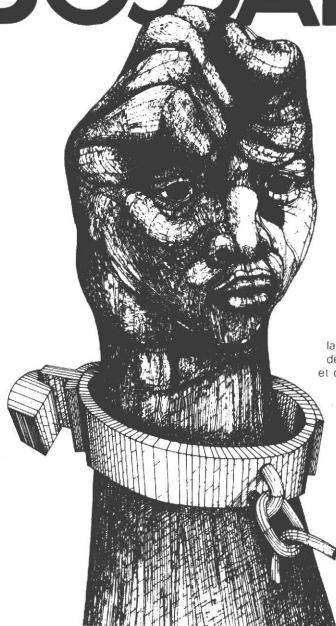
Maryse Condé sums up by saying "no one knows who the negro is. No one knows his language and his gods, and his relations with the visible and invisible world are only partly understood. He is stamped with a personality that people want him to have."

So the long-interiorized stereotype is the central element of the oral literature of the Caribbean people because they come from civilizations that expressed themselves orally and had no access to education for many years. And through the stereotypes, as they appear in riddles, proverbs and tales, what relations still remain between the Bossale and his African roots?

"Because the riddles are like games and pithily expressed, they are transplanted lock, stock and barrel, with one or two inclusions, to the islands", the author says. However, the same is not true of proverbs and tales, which are profoundly influenced by the new human conditions of the black man in the Caribbean. So, in African society, "the essentials are respect for the mother, parental ties, etc. whereas individualism is a crime and calumny and slander are the worst of all. In these societies with no literature, where the spoken word is all, they are considered as the negation and destruction of the person they refer to". Nothing like this survives in Caribbean society. This is what it becomes in the proverbs:

"Ill-luck is the brother of the negro." "A negro is both a whirlwind and an earthquake." Both these notions, Maryse Condé thinks, reveal the pes-

maryse condé LA CIVILISATION DU BOSSALE



réflexions sur
la littérature orale
de la Guadeloupe
et de la Martinique

L'Harmattan

simistic view that the Caribbean negro has of himself. "He feels he is condemned because of his negro roots".

"Words are hot air", belittles the spoken word. The Caribbean will now be seeking "to juggle with facts and manipulate them as well". Individualism and aggression now emerge.

"Every pig has his day", is a proverb expressing the "taste for vengeance that the Caribbean negro toys with", since "the reign of justice is a myth".

"The negro hunts work with a gun to kill it", expresses his lack of interest and even his irony vis-à-vis work, which he disdains, because, although he has always worked on sugar plantations, one of the things he is most famous for is his "indolence". "Proverbs express all the clichés of masters, travellers and missionaries in a surprisingly faithful manner", Maryse Condé says.

The Caribbean negro, ultimately, tends to reject all the "values" in the name of which his personality has been forged. It is a personality he wants absolutely nothing to do with, because it is "ill-fated" and the malediction cannot be reversed. Because "if you are black, you are black for life." The idea of God (Bon Dié, as he is called), Maryse Condé says, "is a vague, partial and ill-defined notion". So the Afro-Caribbean is not at home with "African metaphysics" or "God". "He thinks his universe is custom-built as a response to his mistakes". But, the author adds, "the Afro-Caribbeans have faith in

themselves, in their powers of resistance and in their ability to survive". Hence the proverb, "a negro never dies", although the expression has not the slightest cultural significance that would enable one to have an effect on one's surroundings and alter one's destiny.

The behaviour and expressions of the Caribbean negroes are found in Africa today. "This is true, but it does not hold good for traditional African societies", says Maryse Condé, who has just come back from Mali and the Ivory Coast after living in Guinea for a period.

One might have thought that the abolition of slavery in 1848, plus compulsory schooling, would have enabled the "new citizens" to make a rapid transition from oral to written civilization, to make it clear they were culturally different and to use their own mode of expression. But this never happened. The citizen was "struck dumb like a frightened child". The French-speaking Caribbean "only began expressing himself late in the day", Condé explains.

What about the Bossales today? Well, Maryse Condé says, "in spite of eminent people like Aimé Césaire and Frantz Fanon, they are extremely inactive as far as expressing their cultural originality is concerned. Yet they feel the need for self-expression". This cultural originality, the Caribbean writer says, "is an expression of both need and freedom", rather like the black Americans "who have always needed to know where they come from."

Her book is a first class analysis of Caribbean society, conveying a greater understanding of the relations between culture and development and the extreme difficulty of human existence or non-existence with no original cultural reference. Like Césaire and Senghor, Maryse Condé is carrying a banner for tolerance, in defence of cultural differences. □ L.P.

Maryse Condé's works include:

- Césaire — Profil d'une œuvre: Cahier d'un retour au pays natal (Hatier);
- Heremakhonon — Théâtre (Collection 1018);
- Dieu nous l'a donné — Théâtre africain (P.J. Oswald 17);
- Mort d'Oluwémi d'Ajumako — Théâtre africain (P.J. Oswald n° 25);
- La Civilisation du Bossale (L'Harmattan, 18, rue des Quatre Vents. F - 75006 Paris).

OLYMPIC GAMES

One year to Moscow

With a year to go before the Moscow Olympics, the question of South Africa is coming up again and, with it, the eternal problem of apartheid. Just as they did before Montreal in 1976, the South Africans are trying to arrange more sports fixtures with the countries of Europe, particularly those whose relations with Africa are good.

This is an attempt to return through the back door to the International Olympic Committee and the International Athletics Federation from which South Africa was expelled because of its policy of racial segregation in sport (and, of course, in its political, economic and social life).

Lord Killanin is no Avery Brundage

The South African rugby tour of France in October is both a provocation and a challenge to the International Olympic Committee and the countries of Africa which, Pretoria figured, quite wrongly as it happened, would not adopt the same hard line with France as they did with New Zealand at the last Games.

Lord Killanin, the president of the IOC, is nothing like his predecessor, Avery Brundage, and this time the Games are being held in Moscow, not Montreal. The African countries, for their part, refuse to have two sets of standards and retrench on such a vital issue as this which affects the dignity of human beings.

And France, or the French government at least, is aware that it would earn the opprobrium of the sporting world and lose its moral credibility if it welcomed the South African team.

There are several statements to back all this up. First, from Lord Killanin: "I have to say, quite frankly, that apartheid is applied to sport in South Africa and this is why that country has been excluded by the Olympic movement, which is only acting in accordance with its rules".

Then there was a clear warning from Jean-Claude Ganga, secretary-general of the Supreme Council for Sport in Africa: "if, by mischance, France allows the South African tour to go ahead, everyone must realize that the SCSA will do everything in its power to see that the country infringing the IOC

regulations suffers the consequences of what we consider to be a very serious mistake".

Lastly, Jean-Pierre Soisson, the French minister for youth, sport and leisure, has adopted a logical position on the subject: "we in France cannot afford to adopt a policy that would cut us off from African countries and international organizations". By which he principally means the IOC and the UN, which, as we know, have condemned South Africa's behaviour. But the most important thing is that the head of state himself, Valéry Giscard d'Estaing, has made a stand, thus proving that the countries of Africa are right to act as they have done.

Giscard said that, in face of the "pro-tour position that the rugby federation and the French Olympic committee have taken up... the government has another responsibility: to assess the political consequences to France of what others consider to be sensitive issues... Apartheid is the focal point of African sensitivity... For the Africans, us taking part in these activities is something which is difficult to understand... We have to realize this".

Imbroglia and confusion

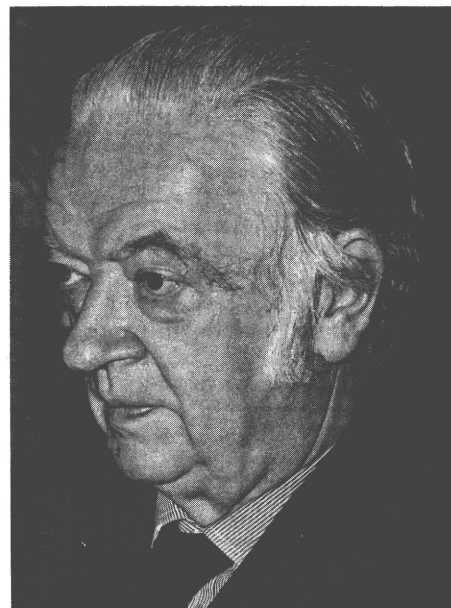
One thing that is even more incomprehensible and quite obvious to everyone, including the sports organiz-



Jean-Claude Ganga
"Unacceptable to Africans"



Jean de Beaumont
Contradictions — "When liberty is celebrated here, are we aware that its suppression is being encouraged elsewhere?"
(Maurice Herzog)



Lord Killanin
"I have to say, quite frankly, that apartheid is applied to sport in South Africa"



Great Britain was represented in Düsseldorf by a black sprinter, Sonia Lannamann, in the 4 × 100 m, seen here after racing against Elvira Possekehl and Annagret Richter of West Germany with team-mate Andrea Lynch

ers who persist in wanting to maintain and develop relations with South Africa, is that the country has never shown the slightest inclination to do anything about its evil policy. Lord Killanin has made this quite clear: "I would like to point out that it would be better for South Africa to officially renounce the apartheid that is enshrined in its constitution rather than to opt for a multi-racial team that fails to satisfy any sporting criterion".

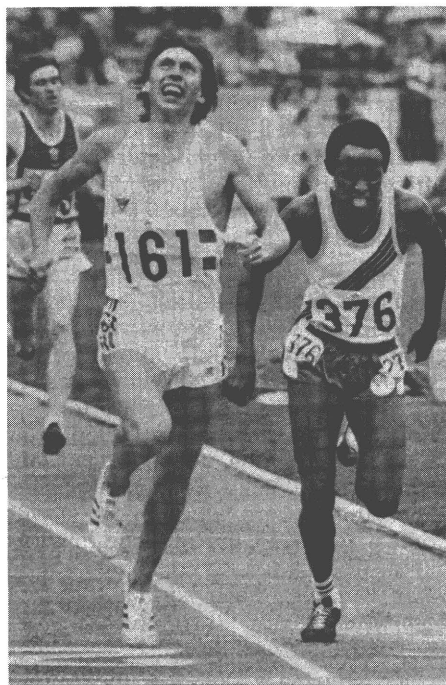
For many years now, certain sports organizers, mainly in Europe, have embroiled and confused the issue in an attempt to justify the constant violation of international sports regulations.

But everyone knows that in sport and in everything else in South Africa, it is the Pretoria government and the Pretoria government alone that is responsible for institutionalizing and practising racial segregation.

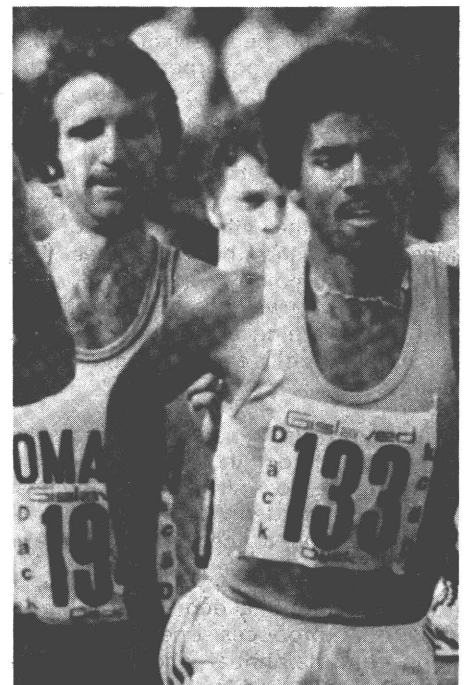
Claiming that it is the anti-racialists who are mixing sport and politics is pure fantasy, no more than a campaign to sway public opinion.

For, even if it is in everybody's interest for sport to have as little to do with politics as possible, we must still recognize the fact that the two are difficult to keep apart. If they were kept separate, then South Africa would not practice apartheid in sport.

And, as the *Courier* has said before, the most powerful countries of the world would not be channelling such financial, technical and scientific means into ensuring victory in all international meetings, including the Olympic Games, and defeat would not be the national catastrophe it is now.



World 1500 m champion Filbert Bayi of Tanzania was fairly beaten by David Moorcroft of Britain at the Edmonton Commonwealth Games



José Marajo runs for France in the European Cup 800 m: no question of being a "token black"

Safeguarding sport

Ultimately, if we want to safeguard the sporting outlook that is the widest-spread form of solidarity in the world, we must not look to the country that practices apartheid. We must take a firm stand. Many of our sports organizers persist in maintaining two attitudes at once.

They half-heartedly condemn Pretoria's sports policy and manifest selective indignation to it while they seek

and develop relations with South Africa, in spite of the fact that it is excluded from all the international sports organizations. So if sport is once more to become a pleasure for us all, in Moscow and elsewhere, the countries of Africa must maintain their present, sound position.

For, whatever people may say or do, South Africa is surely in a precarious position, as racialism is a sign of extreme weakness on the part of any country that practices it. □ L.P.

J.P. & J. DURAND — **L'île Maurice et ses populations (Mauritius and its peoples)** — Editions Complexe — 8b, rue du Châtelain, 1050 Brussels — 1978

Exploring a country means coming into contact with other people and other cultures. Books in the *Pays et Populations* series are not mere guides. They set out to explore the many facets of mankind and to reveal the cultural wealth of ethnic and religious communities by observing their daily ways of life. They describe the situation of the different minorities and reveal what they are and what they aspire to. They give a wide view of society, harking back to history, and an analysis, a window on current affairs, providing an understanding of the conflicts and some of the government policies.

Mauritius is a meeting place of East and West, a mixture of Asia, Africa and Europe. It is a paradox, an officially bilingual (French and English) island whose 900 000 people use many languages, which is governed by an Indian majority and which is a member of the British Commonwealth. During France's "First Empire", it was a French colony, the Western French Isle, when it got its French creole, the patois spoken on the other islands of the Mascarenes and the Seychelles. But the ancient colony with its glorious past has given way to a young, multiracial state running a difficult campaign for national unity and economic development.

Although its recent independence has not altered the socio-economic structures left over from colonial times, it has brought Mauritius onto the international scene, to the UN and the OAU. Its future depends on three things:

— the international economy, as Mauritius only produces one commodity, sugar, and its annual income depends almost entirely on the sugar markets, the fluctuation of world demand and the inter-state agreements that regulate and organize marketing;

— foreign policy, as Mauritius, situated in the Indian Ocean off the coast of Africa, is in a position of considerable strategic importance;

— internal policy, as the creole population is anxious to play its rightful part in local politics, make a complete break with everything reminiscent of colonial authority, allow each community full cultural expression and bring about a substantial improvement in the standard of living of the worst off.

If it is to do this, Mauritius must show it has economic initiative. And this is for the sugar producers. They must diversify production and introduce new measures to capitalize on local resources.

The authors explain the various aspects of the economic, political and social challenge facing the island by analysing each of the communities, their history, their specific cultural features and what they are hoping and fighting for.

There were six recorded inhabitants in 1722 and there are more than 900 000 today and it is this demographic pressure that is the danger, as it may worsen certain economic and social tensions in this magnificent country, a political democracy and one of the most beautiful tourist paradises in the world.

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Masudi Alabi FASSASSI — Preface by Georges BALANDIER — **L'Architecture en Afrique noire (Architecture in Black Africa)** — Editions Francis Maspero, 1, place Paul Painlevé 75005 Paris — 189 pages — 1978

Houses in black Africa are "total" architecture. They betray the background, the economic situation, the social relations and the fundamental conceptions of those who live in them and they are far more varied than material conditions dictate. They range from the Bamiléké houses of Cameroon, the square wooden huts with conical roofs, to the Mousgoum honey-pot houses of Chad, built potter-style. But they have certain things in common.

First, they are built on the human scale — the human body determines their size and proportions. Second, they correspond to fundamental social relations. They allot the sexes, the generations and the family units their respective places, they express social status and they mark the boundaries of collective ground. The house is, as it were, a description of society. Finally, African architecture is not rigid. It bows to a concept of the forces of nature and the order of the universe — which is why the author gives it the disturbing name of "cosmo-architecture".

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Mohsen TOUMI — **La Tunisie pouvoirs et luttes (Power struggles in Tunisia)** — Editions Le Sycomore, 72 rue du Château d'Eau, 75010 Paris — 461 pages — Bfrs 524 — 1978

Beyond Bourguiba's Tunisia is another country, the Tunisia of the Tunisians, that this book sets out to describe. It is an honest approach, concentrating on the people, the reality of their lives, the land, the economy, the society, the culture and the politics, the progressives' campaign for liberty and the ideologies behind them.

It contains information and analyses and it expresses the whole hope of a nation for the post-Bourguiba era.

Mohsen Toumi, journalist, author and one of the leading lights of the Arab CAES social studies centre, has written a lot about the Maghreb, Tunisia in particular, and is now completing a doctoral thesis on ideology and political practice. He is a regular contributor to the *Revue Française d'études politiques africaines*, the *Revue française d'études politiques méditerranéennes* and *Temps Moderne*.

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Mohamed DAHMANI — **L'Algérie, légitimité historique et continuité politique (Historical legitimacy and political continuity in Algeria)** — Editions Le Sycomore, 102 bvd Beaumarchais, 75011 Paris — 302 pages — Bfrs 441 — 1979

What is happening in Algeria? How has it developed politically, socially and culturally since decolonization? Did the death of Boumediène mean continuity or a break with the past?

This book, the culmination of a series of studies and investigations and years of reflexion and research, contains Dahmani's answers to these questions. He highlights the positive aspects of the policy Algeria has opted for and the errors inherent in any development process.

This is a basic work on Algeria past and present. Mohamed Dahmani, who has a doctorate in economics and social science from the University of Paris, has specialized in development problems in general and those of Africa in particular. As a graduate and a research worker he carried out many socio-economic studies of the Maghreb and his doctoral thesis was on the industrialization of the natural resources of this part of Africa.

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P.K.M. THARAKAN and a CEEIM symposium — **La division internationale du travail et les entreprises multinationales (The international division of labour and the multinationals)** — Presses Universitaires de France, 108, bvd Saint-Germain, 75006 Paris and CEEIM, 66-68 av. Lacomblé, 1040, Brussels — 1979

Geographical changes in industrial capacity mean that new businesses appear, particularly in the developing countries, and that firms from the industrialized countries decamp to or spread into the Third World.

They also mean that the industrialized countries are forced into a certain amount of industrial conversion to bridge the gaps left by lost markets and transferred firms, and to stand up to greater competition from the developing countries that is faster and more furious than anyone imagined.

The recent notion of a new international division of labour is a complex one involving many people in government, international organizations, unions and firms.

The CEEIM (European multinationals study and information centre) organized a colloquium with the aim of bringing together the leading figures from these various bodies. A summary of the colloquium appears in part one of this book.

It also contains an expert study by Professor Tharakan, who introduces current ways of thinking on this subject, analyzes empirical data and concludes with a cost-benefit analysis.

So, in one work, we have both a study and a discussion on a subject connected with future relations between North and South.

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Hella GERTH-WELLMANN — **The ACP-EEC Lomé Convention, Summary and Prospects** — German Overseas Institute/Institute for General Research on Overseas Problems, Economics and International Relations Section, Report No 17 — 110 pages — DM 22 — 1979

In July 1978, talks about the continuation of the Lomé Convention were opened. On this occasion the author has examined the realization of the agreement during the past three years. The paper is based on data provided by the EEC Commission and centres on

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the question of whether the Lomé Convention was in fact a step towards a new international economic order.

The main issues analysed are: trade relations between EEC and ACP countries, Stabex and industrial cooperation. The author reached the conclusion that the results of the Lomé Convention do not differ significantly from the results of the earlier conventions of Yaoundé: agricultural and mineral raw materials still account for more than 90% of the exports of ACP countries to the EEC, free access to the common market so far has not proved to be a remarkable advantage, Stabex turned out to be insufficient, and industrialization is not making much progress.

However, the Lomé Convention seems to be suited for improving the ACP countries bargaining position in the process of development of the new international division of labour and for supporting the emergence of a new international economic order.

Discussing economic and political conditions in the ACP countries and the EC, the author attempts and appraisal of the perspectives of "Lomé II".

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François BEL, Gérard VIENNE, Pierre MONTOYA — Text by Pierre MOINOT — **La griffe et la dent (Tooth and claw)** — Editions Denoël, Paris 1977 — 139 pages — FF 59

These four authors bring us pictures from the film "La griffe et la dent". For the first time, thanks to new techniques perfected by the Cinéastes animaliers associés, wild animals and big game have been filmed (35 mm colour), at night, in their own hunting territories. Rare scenes have been captured. The African night is filled with fighting, killing and feasting.

The secret, violent lives of the big carnivores, the lingering ceremonies of the big mammals and the flights and chases of the small game until their fatal meeting with the hunters of the night are at last revealed, a contrast to the free and peaceful existence of the day.

For the first time too, we hear the real voice of the animals, whose cries have been recorded. Not as "Territoire des Autres" did, in a traditional way, for the animals of Europe, but in stereophonic sound and the chattering, singing, shouting drama swells like a fantastic opera.

For two years now, the cinéastes animaliers have been covering East Africa. The shots taken on this adventure form a book, with animals rather than about them. They set the actors in their natural setting, at liberty.

And certain perfect animal shapes, moving and motionless, sometimes reflect that ideal beauty so often found in nature. But beyond the picturesque, unusual reality, a vaster order emerges, a vision of a world without man, where he cannot bring fear, where there are no human morals and where the state of nature between life and death and day and night echoes an indifferent eternity.

THE COURIER

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY
AFRICA CARIBBEAN PACIFIC

PUBLISHER

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of the European Communities

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