

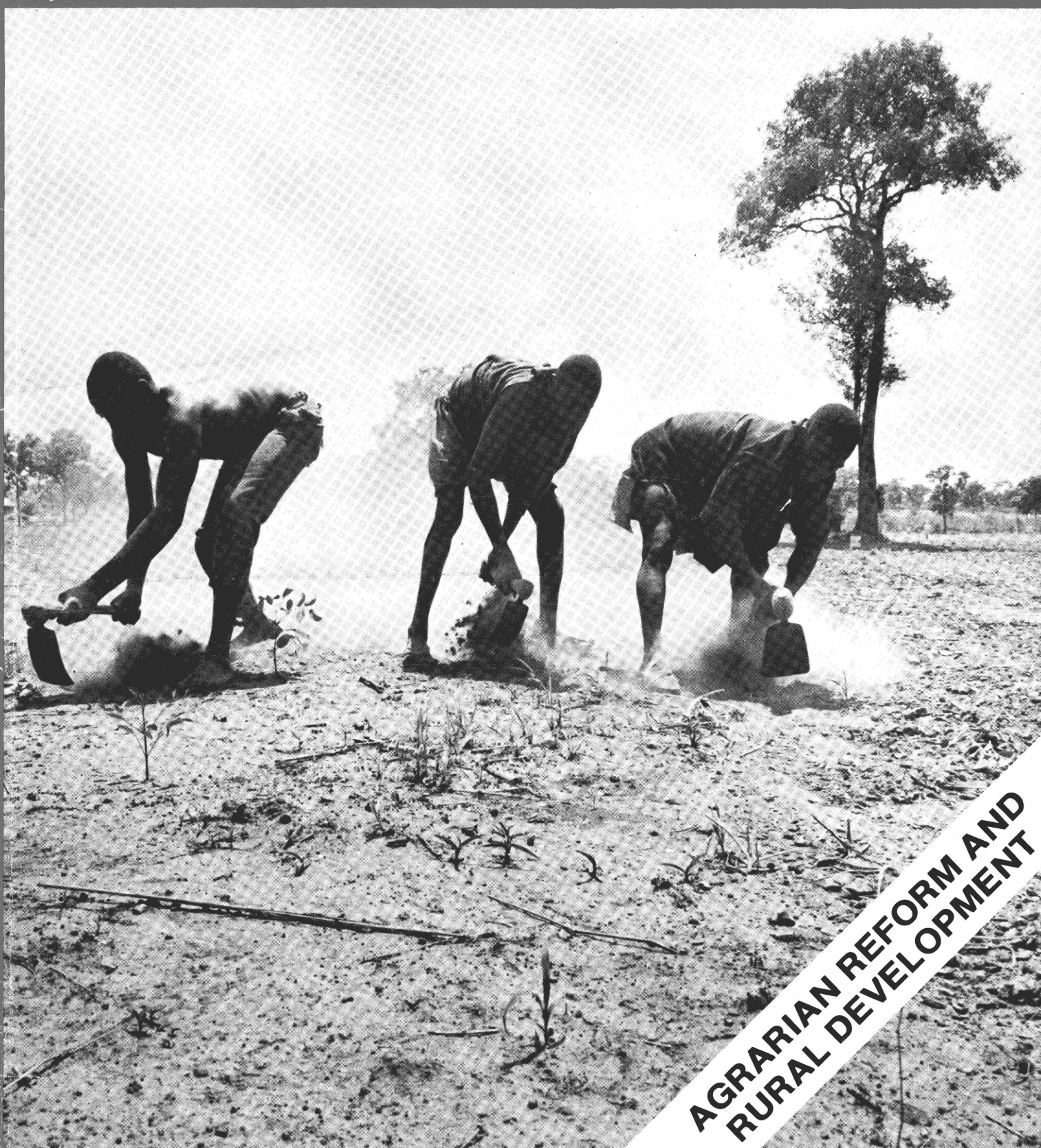


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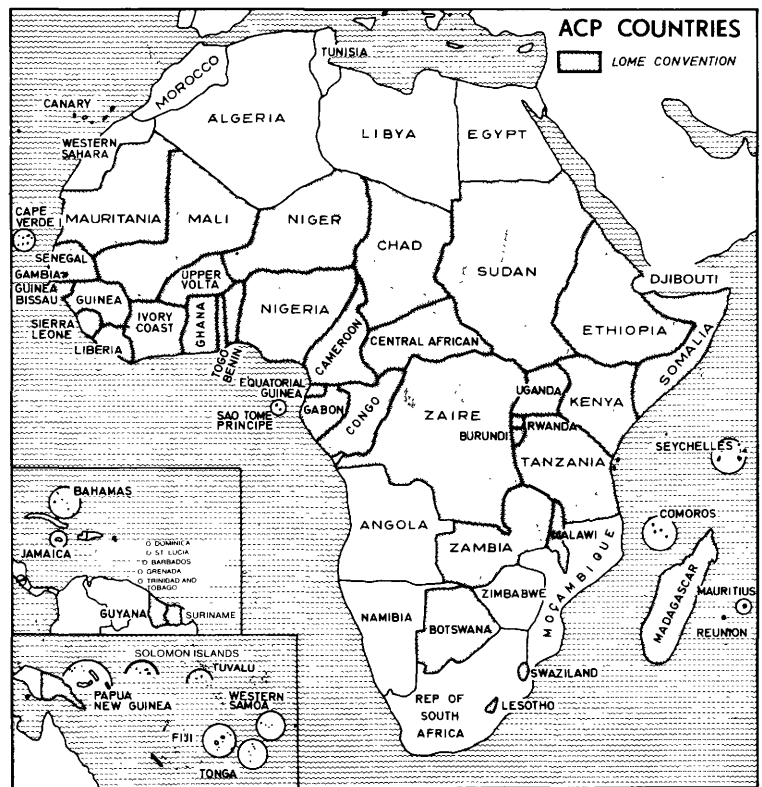
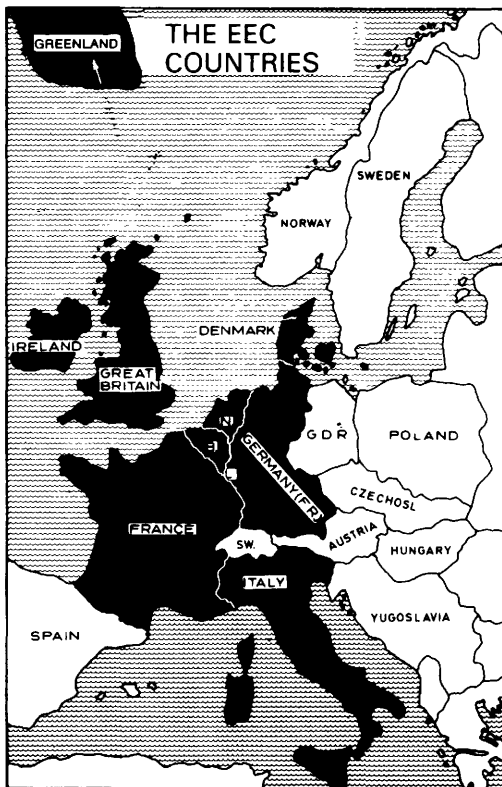
**AGRARIAN REFORM AND
RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

THE ACP STATES

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

Cover: The rural population in the developing countries is above 2 000 million, with more than 250 million in Africa (FAO photo)

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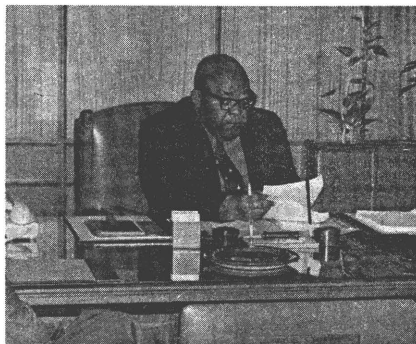
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NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)

Lesotho—Lesotho is in the uncomfortable position of being entirely surrounded by South Africa, and historically has been dependent on the apartheid regime for many of its needs—energy, transport and food, among others. Nevertheless, the Lesotho government of Prime Minister Leabua Jonathan takes a strong anti-South African line, and is trying to lessen its dependence on its neighbour wherever possible. Our feature on Lesotho, which includes an interview with Dr Jonathan, looks at how Lesotho is trying to achieve economic independence. **Page 3**



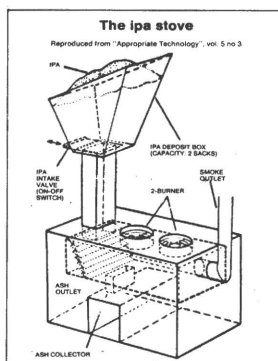
Parliament—The new directly-elected European Parliament held its first session at Strasbourg on 17 July, when the main business of the day was the election of its first President. Simone Veil of France, the Liberal and Democratic group's candidate, won the election, but the honour of presiding over the opening session went to the oldest member present, another Frenchwoman, Louise Weiss. **Page 16**

Council—Each EEC country takes the chairmanship of the Council of the European Communities in turn for six months. It is a heavy responsibility, in view of the work involved, but always undertaken with a determination to make progress. France was in charge for the first half of this year and French foreign minister Jean François-Poncet recently gave his end-of-term report. **Page 23**



Dossier—The World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, held in Rome in July, brought international attention to some of the central issues of Third World development. The socio-economic backwardness of more than 2 000 million people in the rural developing world is evident and their prospects leave little room for optimism. The *Courier* looks at some of the main aspects of a vast subject. **Page 42**

Developing world—Luxury varieties of rice come from the factory in expensive packets of cellophane and coloured cardboard, which are simply thrown away. What a waste! Nature's packaging is the rice husk, which is usually thrown away too. "Appropriate technology" in this issue suggests two uses for rice husks—as a cooking fuel and for making cement. **Page 83**



The renewal of the Lome Convention

The ACP-EEC negotiations to renew the Lome Convention came to an end on 27 June 1979 with the 3rd ACP-EEC ministerial conference, which had resumed in Brussels on 25 June, after the suspension of 26 May.

The discussions produced a range of texts which the secretariats of the two groups were given the task of classifying, and where necessary, of tidying up. This has now been completed.

The ACP countries have not yet given their opinion on the texts.

They have now to clarify their position which they expect to do at the ACP ministerial meeting in Brussels from 12 to 14 September.

The negotiations were long, difficult and often strained, but no one should be surprised by that!

They dealt with, first of all, extremely complex technical questions of a highly concrete and operational nature which at each point involved for both sides very precise financial, commercial and industrial interests.

They took place as well in the context of a prolonged international crisis, and the uncertainties and additional costs which have accompanied it.

It was not easy, therefore, to draw together, in a long term common perspective, the preoccupations of the various partners, when the present predicament made them so concerned about more immediate problems.

In addition the final session of the ministerial conference took place in the week of the second petrol "crisis", just at the moment when the serious economic and social difficulties, which the industrialized countries have been trying in vain to overcome, were amplified again by their energy constraints, and when, too, the prospects for growth in the non-oil producing developing countries, particularly the poorest, became fainter.

In such conditions, the obstacles which the crisis threw in the way of ACP-EEC cooperation could only be overcome if the two sides displayed political maturity.

An overall evaluation of the results of the ACP-EEC negotiations shows that if some ACP demands were not adequately met, the new agreement, which maintains in full the advantages of the present Convention, does nevertheless contain real improvements and promising additions.

The innovation which is, no doubt, the most important is the system of protection which will be set up for those ACP countries whose economies depend largely on the export of mineral products, and the package of measures intended to favour the development of energy and mineral potential in the ACP countries.

The protective system of 280 million EUA will enable the Community to contribute to the safeguarding of mining infrastructure whenever it faces difficult circumstances such as accidents,

political troubles or a long depression in the market. Its implementation will be based on rehabilitation programmes, or projects, with or without cash advances.

The emphasis put on developing ACP energy and mining potential will mean an increase in funds from both the EDF and EIB in whatever form is appropriate; risk capital, subsidized or classical loans. In addition the possibility exists of concluding, on the initiative of the ACP countries involved, specific agreements to protect and promote mining investment between the Community and the ACP states.

Such agreements should help to redirect towards the mining sector of the ACP countries the flow of investment which is going elsewhere by using, among others, the important catalyst of the extra funds now available from the EIB which are over and above the agreed amount in the convention of 200 million EUA.

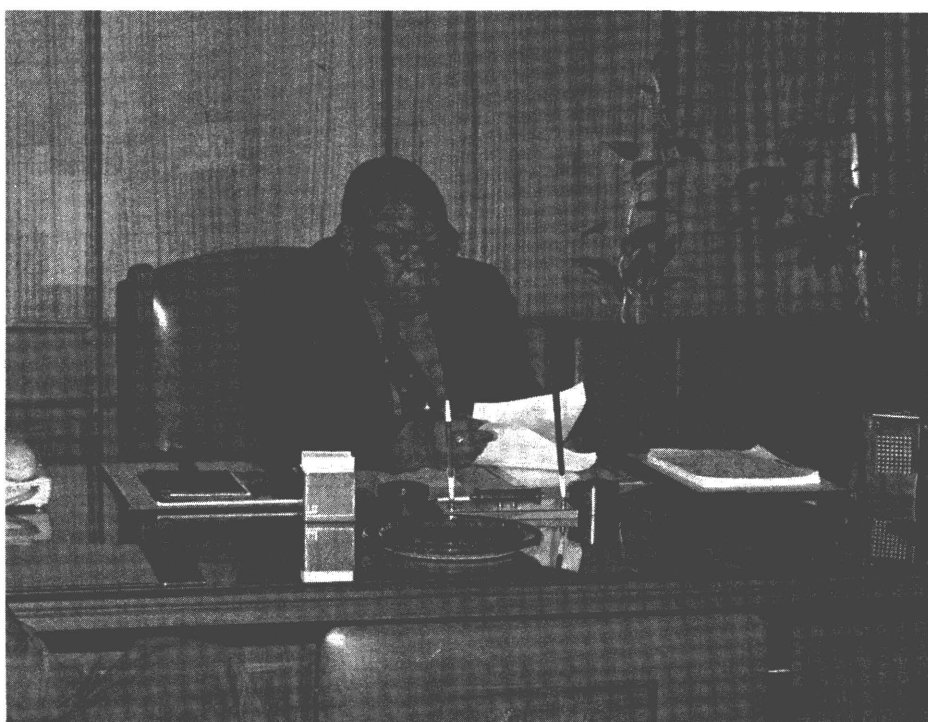
Even though it may be too early to sum up the overall improvements made in the Lome Convention, it is not too soon to say that a rapid signing of the new convention is desirable in the interests of both sides, and to avoid any gap between the present convention which expires on 28 February 1980 and the new one. It would also show, at a time when major international forums like UNCTAD have come up against difficulties, that two united groups of countries, motivated by a firm will to cooperate, can overcome the obstacles and reach positive and balanced solutions.

□ JEAN DURIEUX

LESOTHO

“The road towards reducing dependence on South Africa is still long and arduous”

Interview with the Prime Minister,
Dr Leabua Jonathan



The Prime Minister, Dr Leabua Jonathan, during his interview with the Courier

Lesotho is in the unique position in Africa of being entirely surrendered by South Africa. Politically the government of Dr Leabua Jonathan is a strident critic of its apartheid neighbour, but economically it has to face up to the reality of its heavy dependence on the republic. All its energy supplies and food imports come from South Africa. Most of its communications are directly linked with those of South Africa, and the wages which the 200 000 Basotho workers in South Africa send home represent more than half the country's income. The small mountain kingdom—roughly the size of Belgium—is making efforts to free itself from the domination of the

industrial giant which surrounds it, but the pace is inevitably slow. Decades of close dependence cannot be undone overnight. Total separation is just not possible, and nor does the government in Maseru want it. One day, it confidently hopes, the regime across the border will not be a hostile racist elite, but one with which it would be happy and natural to cooperate. Meanwhile whatever steps can be taken to ensure the country's survival, and strengthen its independence, will be taken by the Lesotho government, as Dr Leabua Jonathan, the Prime Minister, explained in an interview he gave to the *Courier*.

A country continually harassed by South Africa

▶ *When you opened the ACP-EEC joint committee in Maseru in 1977 you spoke at length of the problem of South Africa. How has it evolved since then and how has Lesotho been affected?*

— Regrettably, the problem of South Africa has not changed. We only hear verbal declarations about “moves from discrimination”, uttered by the rulers of South Africa, with no accompanying practical steps to make them a reality. Apartheid laws remain intact, arrests, detentions and killings continue unabated.

At the same time, however, it is evident that the people of South Africa are not taking their oppression lying down, and that internally and externally they are consolidating their position in preparation for a major onslaught against the status quo. It is clear that after the Soweto incidents the worst is yet to come.

In as far as the situation affects Lesotho, the position also remains as bad if not worse than before the ACP-EEC Joint Committee in Maseru in 1977. The catalogue of harassment of our people continues, with new forms, which include in one case the wanton shooting of a five months pregnant woman whilst in other cases children as young as fourteen years have been involved. It is a naked reflection of the arrogant nature of apartheid policies that many of these cases have occurred on our soil, in utter defiance of our territorial sovereignty.

Economically, apartheid has imposed a heavy price which we are having to pay because of our geographical situation, particularly in respect of oil. Because our only source of oil supplies is South Africa, the current international gravitation towards withholding oil from South Africa is having disastrous effects on our economy. The cost of petrol at 53 cents per litre, which we are paying now, is one of the highest in the world.

I have had to appeal to individual countries and before the OAU that our position cries for special consideration. I am pleased to say that Algeria has promised us continued oil supplies whilst Mozambique has also promised refinery facilities.

▶ *How successful have your efforts been to reduce Lesotho's economic dependence on South Africa, particularly in view of growing international*

pressure on the republic you mentioned?

— Even though the road towards reducing dependence on South Africa is still long and arduous, we have laid important foundations towards that direction. In this we, of course, remain cognizant of the fact that we can never achieve total economic independence, especially because our economies will remain intertwined, as a result of our geographical positions.

In agriculture we have laid the basis for increased productivity, by improved mechanization, the introduction of the basic agricultural services project (BASP) and the cooperative crop production scheme.

Our orientation here is going to be towards establishing village cooperatives in which government can participate by supplying expertise, and offering credit facilities through our new Agricultural Development Bank.

In the industrial sector, our Lesotho National Development Corporation has embarked on an aggressive campaign to attract foreign investors, in order to diversify our economy and to produce employment opportunities for our people.

We have also resumed negotiations with South Africa over the use of our highland waters, which will be used mainly for irrigation and electricity, whilst the surplus will be exported.

In communications we are improving our internal road network with a view to facilitating the movement of goods and services. We have also improved connections with the outside world by opening new routes, as for example, the Maseru-Maputo link, and by increasing our aircraft fleet.

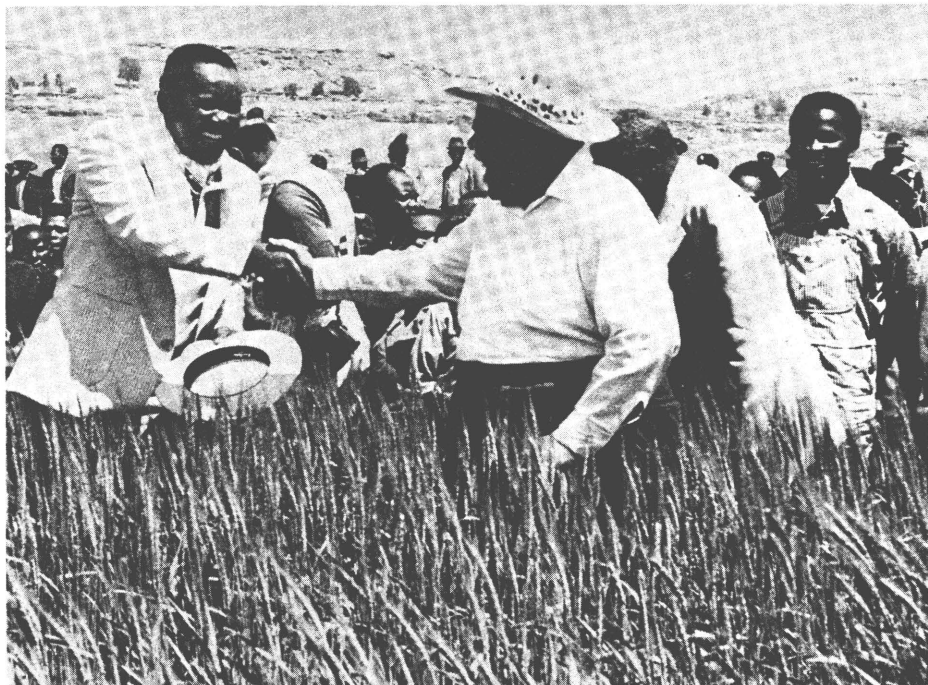
These are only some of the foundations I can point out, and we are very grateful to the EEC, to individual friendly countries, and to the rest of the international community for the generous contributions which enabled us to make this good start.

The Transkei operation aimed to force submission

► *How has the closure of the Transkei border affected Lesotho?*

— First of all it is important to recognize that the move was intended to hit us below the belt, so that we would succumb to the dictates of apartheid masters, and recognize the Transkei.

The move seriously affected our communities in the area in that it cut them off from economic and social services. This is a problem which we



Prime Minister Leabua Jonathan inspecting a wheat field with agriculture minister Makhada Lerotholi (left)

would never have been able to tackle if the world had not come to our rescue, the programme of which totals well in excess of R 200 million. Although there is still a funding shortfall, we are indeed highly grateful.

The consequences of the world energy crisis

► *What are the consequences for Lesotho, as an enclave in South Africa, of the new energy crisis?*

— Although my officials are presently engaged in an urgent exercise to make a full assessment of the consequences in detail, there is no doubt that we are hard-hit.

I have already indicated to you the level of petrol prices that we are paying, and in the face of the inevitable further price increases it is clear that we are going to be destroyed even before take-off.

We are of course not sitting passively by. As you have seen, we have already made rewarding contacts. But through your paper I address a further appeal to the world, because the situation is not of our own making, we have been placed in it by history and geography.

► *Over 200 000 Basotho work in South Africa, what does this mean for your country's economy and what prospects are there for more jobs in Lesotho?*

— First of all let us understand that migrant labour is not a problem that is peculiar to Lesotho. There are migrant labourers all over the world.

However, our main concern is that whilst the remittances by the migrants make a significant contribution to the national income, the absence of so many of our people at any one time deprives the agricultural sector of able-bodied men who should be making a significant contribution in its development.

Secondly, their stay in South Africa is made difficult by the racial policies of that country. As a result we are forever having to speak to the South African authorities about their working conditions.

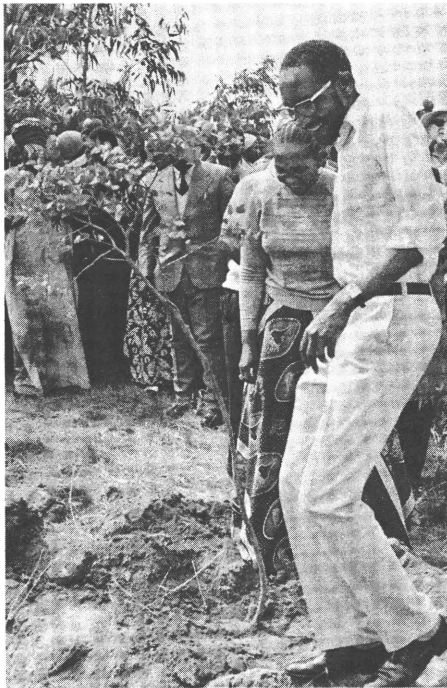
Another real problem is South Africa's intention to reduce our migrant labour quota in favour of the Bantustans, at a time when we have not as yet developed our employment capacity to satisfaction.

Although we have been assured by the Anglo American group that they will not be decreasing our labour quota in the foreseeable future, we have a pressing need to speed up employment creation in the country.

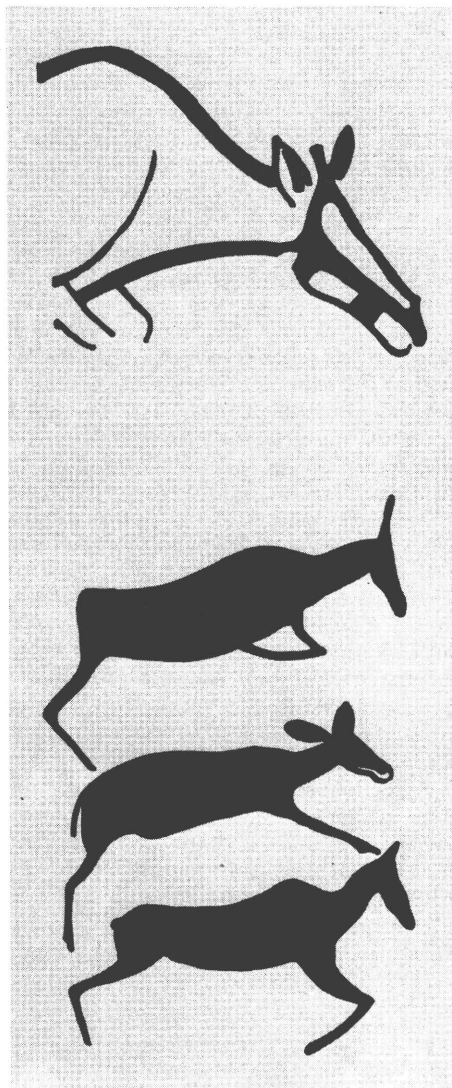
Our emphasis here is rapid industrialization with labour intensive techniques.

► *Only about 13% of Lesotho's land is arable, but it has to provide a living for the overwhelming majority of Basotho. What can you do in these conditions to cut back on food imports and develop cash crops for export?*

— The answer here is increased productivity in staple foods, of which maize and wheat are the main, and on whose import we continue to be heavily dependent.



Lesotho lacks trees, but at a tree planting ceremony King Moshoeshe II and Queen Mamohato set an example in the fight against erosion and deforestation



► *Has your geographical position made it easier or more difficult to attract foreign investment in such fields as mining, processing and light manufacturing industry?*

— The main worry dictated by our geographical position in this respect is that we are competing with an economic giant which can offer better incentives to investors than we can. True enough we are trying by all means at our disposal to make investment in Lesotho more lucrative, but as I said, competition is stiff.

It is further compounded by the presence on our borders of Bantustans which South Africa is going all out to sell to investors, with a view to demonstrating their viability and providing justification for their existence.

One would hope here that the industrialized world would on moral grounds, against racism and apartheid, ignore South African overtures and concentrate on countries such as my own.

► *What are the prospects for regional cooperation, particularly in communications, in southern Africa?*

— Regional cooperation for countries of any one region is a natural need. In our region however, it is impeded by the monster of apartheid, without which we would have taken giant strides.

Our officials have however made contacts with their counterparts in the different countries of southern Africa to explore possibilities of such cooperation in different sectors such as energy, food production and processing, and in storage.

Shortly Lesotho will be directly connected to more of the outside world

► *How important is the airport project in the context of regional cooperation.*

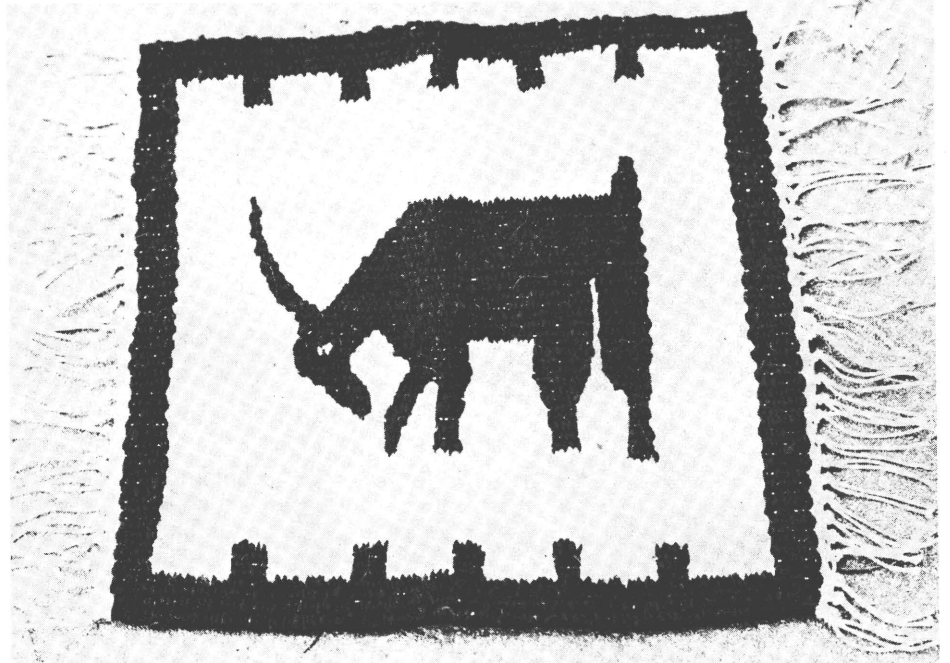
— The international airport in Lesotho is given top priority, in the sense that we regard it has the only air-bridge that will allow Lesotho to have links with the outside world and we are very grateful that here again friendly countries and also the international community came to our assistance. We have finished with the studies and we are now at the stage of starting with the construction of the airport. If everything goes well we will start with the construction before the end of this year.

► *Lesotho has benefitted from a special economic assistance programme because of its particular position. How adequate and appropriate has international aid, including that of EEC, been to Lesotho?*

— I assume you refer to our unique geo-political situation and our least-developed, land-locked nature.

The economic assistance we have received has been quite generous and consistent with priorities and objectives determined by us. However, we still have a number of pressing problems and priorities over which we need further economic assistance. We are hopeful that the international community will continue to assist us in meeting the funding shortfalls in these priority areas. □

Interview by IAN PIPER



Ancient wall paintings (left) and modern carpets (above) share a common theme

Surviving on the roof of Africa

Lesotho is one of the few states in Africa with a single national language and culture. It is also the only state in the world entirely surrounded by the territory of another. It emerged as a separate political entity during the turmoil of the mid 19th century when the struggle for land in southern Africa between Boers, Britons and the indigenous peoples was at its height. The political skill of Moshoeshe I ensured the survival of Lesotho, protected by the British against the Boers. The experience has left its mark, and the Basotho of today are independent in spirit and acutely conscious of their historical role and geographical position. Forced from the plains into its kingdom in the sky, Basotho society has remained cohesive for over a century. The difficult mountain conditions have created a people who are hardy, and the threat to their independence a political awareness which has ensured their survival.

Historical parallels can be taken too far, but the situation the country faces today is very similar to that faced by Moshoeshe I. In his time the battle was for political and cultural independence. Today, the Lesotho of Moshoeshe II and Prime Minister Leabua Jonathan is fighting for economic independence against odds which are just as daunting.

Lesotho's main development objectives all in some way involve independence from South Africa. The finalization of the third national development plan has coincided with a new energy problem for the country which has highlighted its 100% dependence on South Africa for all forms of energy—electricity, petrol, paraffin and kerosene. South Africa's loss of Iranian oil is felt directly by Lesotho. It is hoped to ease the petrol shortage by a deal with



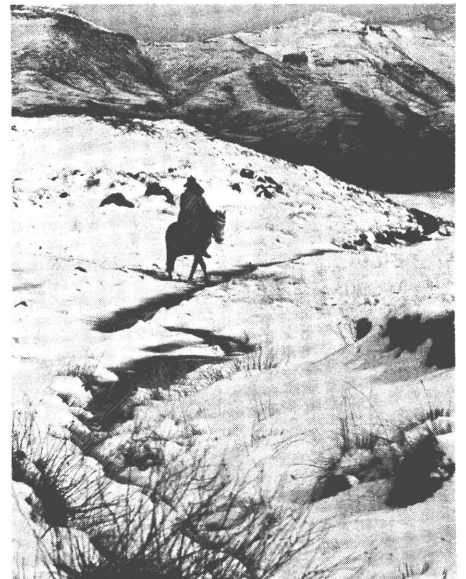
Behind the Quiloane rock the heights of Thaba Bosiu where King Moshoeshe I defended his kingdom against destruction

Algeria, which will provide the crude and Mozambique, which will refine it. There are also discussions with South Africa on the development of water, one of Lesotho's few natural resources. The South Africans need water, especially to satisfy growing industrial demand, and Lesotho would like to develop its water potential, especially as a source of hydro-electric power. It is hoped to tap the resources for such power, provide enough water for local industrial and agricultural needs, and export the surplus to South Africa. Until this diversification of energy supplies takes place, Lesotho could literally be switched off over night by South Africa. The philosophy of the government on this and other dependence issues is quite straight forward, to avoid a situation where a "desperate neighbouring government", as finance minister Mr E.R. Sekhonyana put it, could literally turn off the economy.

The implications of the new energy crisis on the government's development strategy is still being studied, but it will obviously be very damaging, particularly for projects like the new international airport where there is a high energy component. More international assistance will now be needed to offset the negative effects.

Threat to the rural population

The energy problem will not only affect development projects and the urban areas, but could in a very serious way threaten the livelihood and the very lives of many of the rural population, which, as in most African countries, is the overwhelming majority. Unlike many African countries, however, Lesotho has freezing winters with



The freezing winters in the Maloti foothills create problems for both men and livestock

temperatures well below zero, when fuel for heating is a matter of life or death. Because of its altitude there are few trees and the herdsmen and farmers in the foothills of the Maloti and Drakensberg mountains depend on paraffin for heating, light and cooking. Rising prices and shortages threaten their ability to survive the winter.

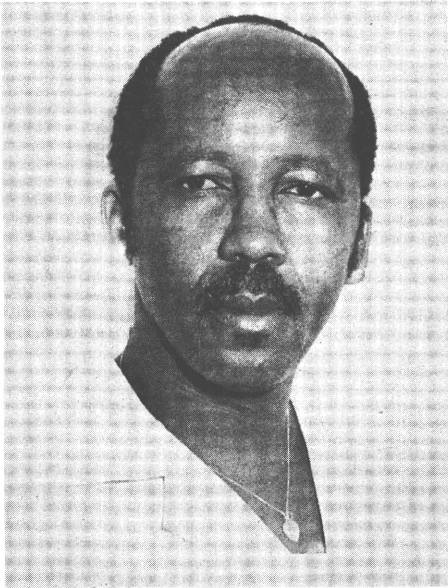
Land-locked and short of land

Energy policy has become urgent because of recent events, but better use of the land is no less a government priority. Lesotho is heavily dependent on food imports from South Africa, a position the government intends to reverse, says Mr Sekhonyana, because "food has become a weapon of political strategy" (1). However, the odds are not in Lesotho's favour. Only 13% of the land area is arable, erosion of the soil is a serious and worrying problem, and expensive to correct. The climate is erratic with very variable rain, many men are away working in the mines, the plots are small and modern techniques rare.

A start has been made on changing this situation and Mr Sekhonyana believes a threefold increase in production of basic foodstuffs such as wheat and maize is possible.

The government has started a basic agricultural services programme

(1) In 1976 food imports alone cost Lesotho R38 m while total recorded exports in the same year for all goods was only R14.7 m. Food imports were 21% of total imports.



*Commerce and industry minister
Mr Mooki Molapo*

(BASP) supported by five external donors, including the EDF. The northern and western lowland areas of the country were divided into six blocks, which were taken up by the donors.

Britain is responsible for block one in the North, Germany the two following blocks between Leribe in the North and Maseru, block 4 is the old Thaba Boisu project which was financed by the IDA, and the final two blocks between Mafeteng and Quthing are being financed by the EEC. Central management of the project and training is being funded by the World Bank, and USAID has taken on the marketing aspect.

The programme involves providing infrastructure, extension services, credit, marketing, repairs and maintenance, and it is hoped that farmer motivation will be stimulated. As always prices paid to farmers will be important, and Lesotho has the particular problem of being surrounded by developed agriculture in South Africa from where much of its food comes at present.

There has already been some diversification of production. Beans and peas have been successful and are exported. Various other vegetables such as cabbages and potatoes are being encouraged to substitute for imports, and progress has been made with more exotic potential exports such as asparagus.

Highland herds

Arable land in Lesotho may be in short supply, but highland ranges are plentiful. Cattle, sheep and goats are reared in the non-arable areas with great success and wool and mohair are the country's most important exports. The potential of this sector is considerable

and less problematical than crop raising. The British and Americans are to carry out a range management study to improve the livestock industry. Programmes exist to raise production from the angora goat and merino sheep, and to stimulate beef production once the abattoir is opened. There is at present no plan to set up a major wool processing industry since, ironically, Lesotho wool is too high a quality and would have to be blended with imported wool for manufacturing. Smaller plans exist to improve pig production, and one of the areas where the country has already achieved self sufficiency is in eggs.

An aggressive drive to attract industry

There was virtually no industry in the country at the time of independence; it did not even produce matches. Now it has over 46 small manufacturing plants including an umbrella factory, and a shoe factory which has opened recently.

There is a small handicrafts industry which is doing well too, and small scale diamond mining. The government and the Lesotho National Development Corporation have launched a very aggressive investment promotion policy, particularly to the various foreign chambers of commerce in South Africa.

The Minister for Commerce, Industry, Labour and Tourism, Mr. M.V. Molapo, recently visited the United States, touring nine states, and addressing various groups about the investment opportunities in the country. In November he will be going to Europe and visiting 6 or 7 countries. "The type of thing that I say" said Mr Molapo, "is that Lesotho has



*Finance minister
Mr E.R. Sekhonyana*

good trainable manpower with the highest literacy rate on the African continent. Our people have had long exposure to industrial work and discipline in South Africa over the years, so they are psychologically prepared to work in an industry and in an industrial setting.

To those investors who are in South Africa we say that because of international censure and criticism, if you operate there you are confined to south Africa or to those dwindling number of countries that trade with South Africa, but from Lesotho you can still have the South African market because of our common membership of the customs union, and at the same time the rest of Africa.

We are saying to them that Europe is open because of our EEC- ACP relations, and Commonwealth countries too. Our products also have preferen-



Queen Mamohato visits the Maseru tyre factory, one of the new industrial ventures

Lesotho in figures

Population:

1.3 m

Capital:

Maseru, pop.: 40 000

Languages:

Sesotho and English

Political sytem:

Parliamentary monarchy

Head of state:

H.M. King Moshoeshoe II

Head of government:

Prime Minister, Dr Leabua Jonathan

Ruling party:

Basotho National Party

Main exports:

Wool, mohair, cattle, sheep and goats

Main imports:

Manufactures, food, machinery and fuels

Livestock (1976):

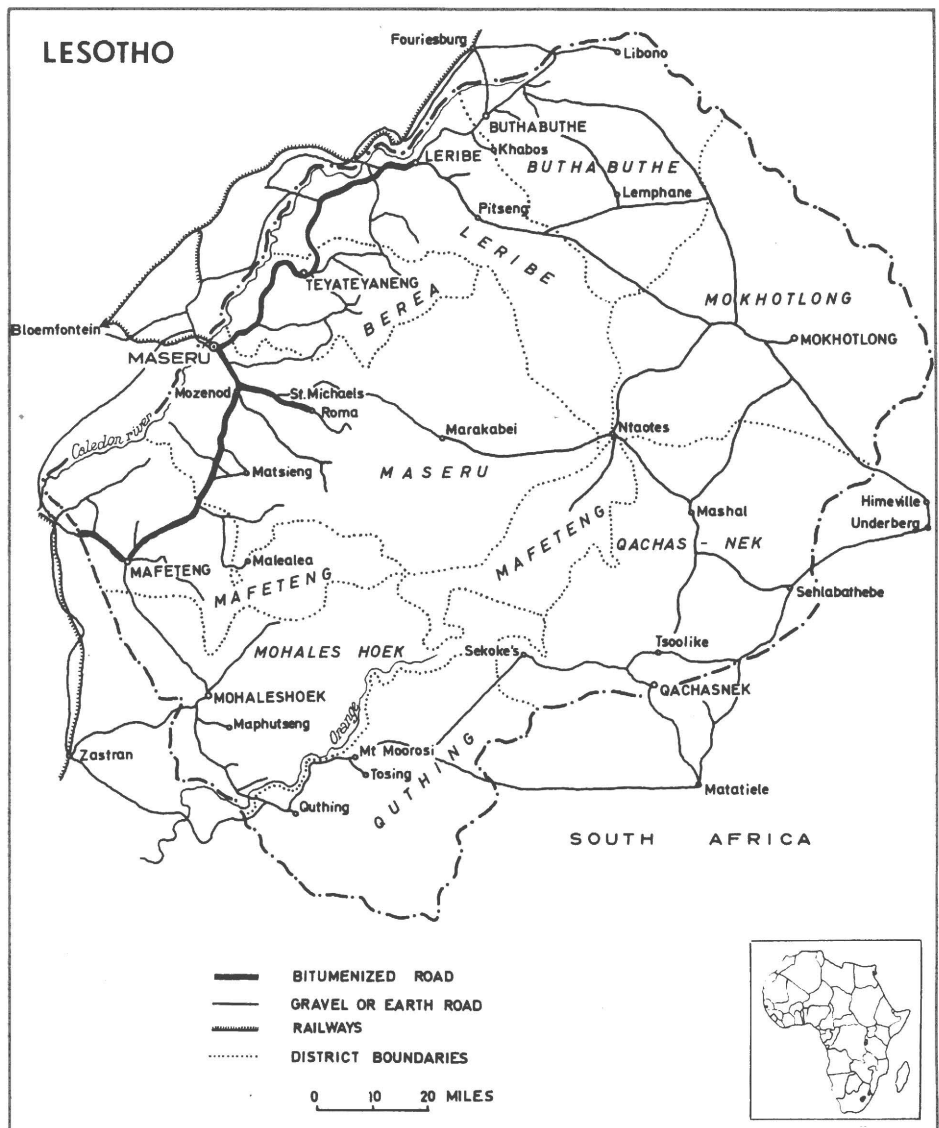
Sheep 1 128 000, chickens 752 000, goats 617 000, cattle 485 000, pigs 63 000

Main crops:

Maize, sorghum, wheat, beans and peas

Employment (1977 estimates):

Subsistence agriculture 342 900, handicrafts etc. 23 000, government 11 000,



construction 3 000 manufacturing 2 500, tourism 550, mining 550, other services 14 000.

Migrant labour 165 000. Total labour force 563 000

Government expenditure (1978/79 est)

Recurrent R55.27 m. Capital R66.44 m of which agriculture and rural development 34.9%, transport and communications 28%

tial access on the American market. We also have relatively low wages here as compared to other parts of the world, and also other incentives like the six-year tax holiday or rebate on capital.

We offer to put up the industrial shells and lease them out to the potential investors at 15% of the value of the property, and these appear to be working very well. We are action-orientated and we get things done. That is why I think we will be able to establish at least 10 new industries every year".

Jobs at home

Lesotho's manpower problems are rather unusual. Efforts are being made to train enough people in the skills needed to fulfil the plans for agricul-

ture and industry, but an even more urgent problem is to find jobs for the semi-skilled and unskilled. Job creation has been a high priority and labour intensive development projects are favoured whenever possible. The South African mines are taking fewer foreign labourers, and this combined with the natural increase each year in people coming onto the labour market, presents the Lesotho government with a tough problem.

The real nightmare would be a rapid phasing out of jobs for the 200 000 Basotho who currently work in South Africa. As Mr Sekhonyana put it "I do not know what the government would do if there were 200 000 unemployed here at one time. It would be quite serious and the South Africans know it". Although the remittances from migrant workers are very important to

the national income, the government wants to prepare for a possible end to migrant labour. It is also another area of dependence on the South Africans and therefore job creation at home is a further facet in the struggle for greater independence. The government places its hopes in greater opportunities on the land, and expanding demand for labour by industry and services. There are other possibilities in mining and quarrying and also in tourism.

The opening of the Holiday Inn in the capital provided 400 new jobs and the opening of the Maseru Hilton shortly will bring more jobs. The tourists who visit Lesotho are mainly South Africans and their numbers could be increased by development of activities such as skiing, fishing, riding and walking, as well as the casino which currently attracts many of them.

Nearly all the government's development objectives depend in some way on the provision of adequate infrastructure. The development plans have reflected this, and roads in particular have been high on the list. The country is almost divided into two by the mountains, and when the Transkei border problem arose it was decided to speed up the improvement of the country's roads. The southern part of the country from Qacha's Nek to Quthing depended heavily on supplies from across the border in the Transkei.

The present road development programme will provide a proper link from Maseru. At the moment a bitumen road joins Mafeteng, Maseru and Leribe, with a spur towards the university at Roma. The plan is to complete a circle, in the north through Butha Buthe and Mokhotlong, and in the south through Quthing, meeting up at Qacha's Nek. The existing mountain road to Thaba-Tseka is also being improved and extended, and a second mountain route will complete the plans to give the country an all weather basic road network. The road programme is being funded by the many external donors who have come to Lesotho's aid since the special programme was initiated after the Transkei border closure. Community funds have gone to upgrading the Quthing-Qacha's Nek road (total commitment 1 m EUA) and in July this year the Commission approved 3 m EUA for the Community's part in bituminizing the Mafeteng-Mohale's Hoek road.

The Community is also involved in another major multi-donor infrastructure project—the building of an international airport. To many in Lesotho government circles this project is a question of survival. At present the main air links are nearly all with South Africa, and dependent on South African airways. However Lesotho recently set up its own national airline, and international links have been established to Mozambique and Swaziland. The new airport will enable Lesotho to extend its international air communications, and again reduce its dependence on South Africa.

At the last donors meeting in Brussels in June this year it was hoped that work would start in mid 1980. Even if the economic benefits are a little uncertain the opening of the airport will be an important psychological moment in Lesotho's fight for greater economic independence, and not so very different, in spirit, to Moshoeshe. I's withdrawal in 1824 to the heights of Thaba Boisu, where he and his successors are buried, to defend the political independence of the Basotho nation.

□

I.P.

Cooperation between the Community and Lesotho

Indicative programme (EDF)

- Total amount: 22 M EUA
- Status of commitment as at 1.8.79: 77 %.
- The indicative programme for Lesotho is centred on: agriculture, transport, but also training and technical assistance constitute a relatively important component.
- The programme comprises the following actions.

1. Agricultural sector

1.1. Basic agricultural services programme (BASP)

3.0 M EUA

Amount committed: 1 095 028.36

Amount disbursed: 600 039.61

Much of the activities of this integrated rural development project are at present concentrated on the development of physical infrastructure i.e. building of unit and lock-up stores, staff houses, planning and demarcating of extension assistant areas, road building and the development of the new Agricultural Training School at Leribe Farmers Training Centre.

1.2 Livestock development and conservation

A. Mphaki area: 2.0 M EUA

Amount committed: 1 203 893.64 EUA

Amount disbursed: 594 154.53 EUA

The Mphaki mountain livestock development project aims at the development of a rural area in the mountain region of Quthing district through an integrated approach to increased livestock production.

B. Phuthiatsane project

Original project amount: 2.0 M EUA

Actual project amount: 0.7 M EUA

Amount committed for study:

187 842 EUA

Amount disbursed for study: 133 190 EUA

(1.3 M EUA has been transferred to the multiannual training programme)

This project aims at meeting the critical need for erosion control in the Phuthiatsane river valley in the Berea and Leribe districts, thus promoting optimal water use in the catchment area. The project covering an area of 180 000 acres of grazing land, aims to improve cattle production through the introduction of better livestock methods and the increase of the vegetation cover through control of grazing intensity. On the basis of a report carried out by the consulting engineer,

a small scale project is being prepared.

2. Rural services

2.1 Village water supplies

0.7 M EUA

Amount committed: 156 496 EUA

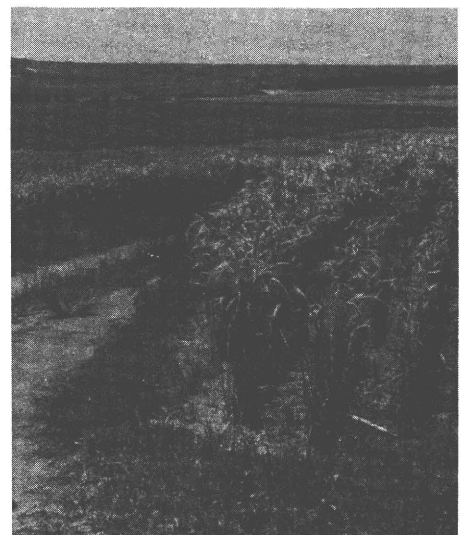
Amount disbursed (±): 150 864 EUA

Some 50 villages throughout Lesotho will be means of this project receive improved water supplies. All the material for the first phase covering 12 villages has been purchased and transported to the main store in Maseru or to the project sites. For the most part supplies will be from springs, with gravity supply by pipes to the villages, where spring sources are not available supplies will be obtained by pumping through boreholes or wells.

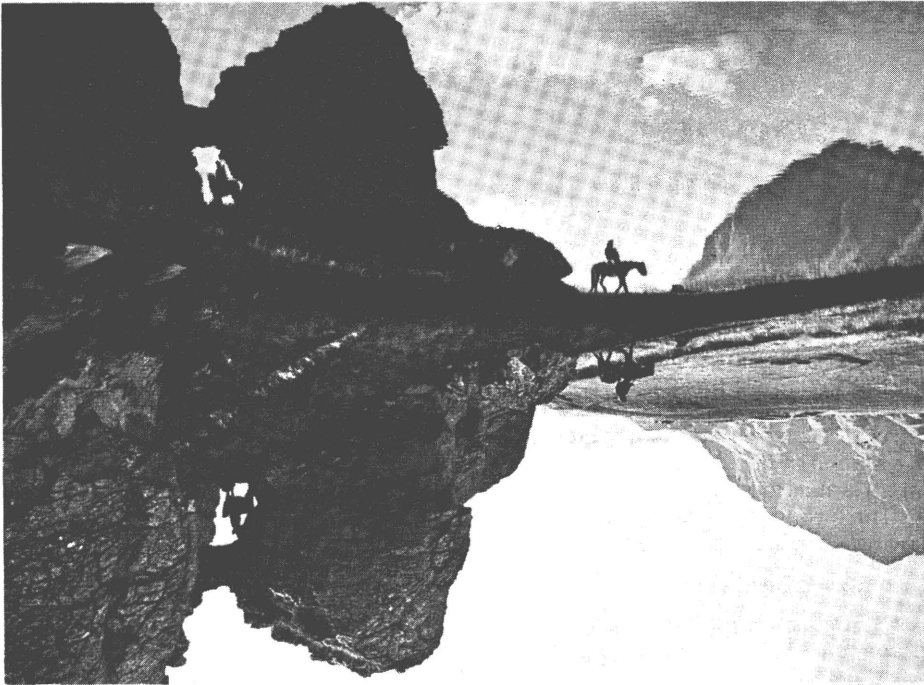
2.2 Rural primary schools

0.4 M EUA

The aim of this project is to contribute to the strengthening of the educational infrastructure of Lesotho by building and equipping 41 primary classes in 19 schools located in the country's three south-western districts, Mafeteng, Mohale's Hoek and Quthing, where the EEC has already financed sizeable actions in the field of rural and livestock development and have earmarked funds in the road sector. The project will have to be redefined in such a way as to ensure effective implementation.



The basic agricultural services programme, helped by the Community, aims to increase the production of essential food crops such as maize and wheat



The terrain in Lesotho is often rugged and difficult to tame. Farmers also face a high rate of soil erosion

The programme is an integral part of the national development effort to improve health services to the rural areas.

Work has commenced for the first estimate which committed 45% of the project. However, the programme is slow due to some problems which have arisen with the self-help participation of the population.

2.5 Microprojects

Total: 0.3 M EUA

0.19 M EUA (= 1st tranche)

First annual microproject programme

Amount committed: 168 776 EUA

Amount disbursed ±: 127 225 EUA

Implementation of the proposed programme commenced in late December 1978 and should be complete by end August 1979. Progress is satisfactory.

There are three fields of activity.

— **Youth work camps:** 165 volunteers from 9 different countries participated at the summer work camps. Activities of the 7 work camps which were distributed throughout the country, concentrated on building new schools and improving existing ones. Other works including soil conservation, road construction and teaching were also carried out.

— **Communal gardens:** in 10 different locations communal gardens were established in order to plant vegetables and fruit trees.

— **Foot bridges:** The foot bridge programme was popular with the local communities and participation correspondingly good.

Second annual microproject programme

The second annual microproject programme will be officially forwarded to the delegation in late 1979. All components which have been proposed are in the field of soil conservation.

The financing proposal was approved by the Commission in June 1979.

3. Economic infrastructure

3.0 M EUA

3.1 Mafeteng — Mohale's Hoek road

Increasing traffic necessitates upgrading of the existing gravel road to bitumen standard. Improvement of the Mafeteng — Tsoloane section (23 km) of the whole road (49 km) is financed by the EDF and the Netherlands.

Project designs and tender dossier have been prepared by the Ministry of Works. The financing decision was taken in July 1979.

3.2 Lesotho international airport

3.0 M EUA

This airport is required for medium range aircraft operating to a large extent on a regional ACP basis. A

2.3 Rural post offices

1.5 M EUA

Amount committed: 1.5 M EUA

Amount disbursed: —

The project provided for the construction of 22 new rural post offices and associated staff houses particularly in the remote and least developed mountainous area which will supplement the system already established in the urban and lowland areas. Because 60% of Lesotho's labour force is constantly working as migrant labour abroad, the sole means of maintaining contact with families at home is via the postal system.

In the face of difficulties experienced in attracting tenders from private con-

tractors for works of this size in the more remote areas of Lesotho, the project authorities are considering adopting a direct labour approach for the construction of 14 post offices and to award contracts for the construction of the other 8 post offices where conditions are more favourable.

2.4 Rural clinics

0.3 M EUA

Amount committed: 135 456 EUA

Amount disbursed: 78 247 EUA

This programme to upgrade rural clinics is part of an overall programme, involving two other donors, to upgrade 40 to 50 rural clinics at a total cost of R750 000.



The angora goat makes Lesotho one of the world's important mohair producers

donors' conference was held at the Lesotho government's request at the headquarters of the Commission in June 1979 which succeeded in allocating most of the different components of the project amongst the donors.

3.3 Quthing — Qacha's Nek road improvement

Commitment: 1.0 M EUA

Disbursed: 380 000 EUA

(This project has been substantially completed.)

Raising the condition of the existing track to a reasonable gravelled road.

The objective of this project was to supply the area affected by the Transkei border closure.

5. Technical assistance and training

3.53 M EUA

The programme was approved by the Commission in May 1979. However prior to this, the Commission had already committed and partially disbursed 1 114 000 EUA on an advance basis.

The programme comprises 4 specific items.

— Awards 1 340 000 EUA. 105 fellowships had already been awarded by the end of 1978 for a total commitment of 759 000 EUA. Fellowships will continue to be available under Lomé I up to the financial ceiling of 1 304 000 EUA, in the fields of technical training, economics, health, agriculture, as well as short term courses in management.

— Technical assistance to civil aviation and to Lesotho Airways Corporation 778 000 EUA. A civil aviation adviser as well as a 4 man Aer Lingus team to supply technical assistance and training to Lesotho Airways Corporation, have already been operational in Maseru since January 1979.

— Technical assistance to Ministries of Works and Water (902 000 EUA): recruitment of five technical assistants is envisaged.

— Technical assistance to Institute of Public Administration (226 000 EUA) for two financial management consultant.

Regional cooperation involving Lesotho

Regional post and telecommunication training scheme

1.0 M EUA

This project involving also Botswana, Malawi and Swaziland aims at strengthening the Regional Telecommunications School in Blantyre. Considerable progress has been achieved lately in co-ordinating the appraisal of the project.

Waterford/Kahmlaba school

130 000 EUA

Purpose of the project is the financing of scholarships and teaching capacity to this international school situated in Swaziland.



A Mosotho horseman can tackle the difficult mountain passes, but the extensive road improvement programme, which the Community is helping to finance, should open up more of the country to modern means of transport

Training of customs officers

120 000 EUA

The project aims at setting up a regional training programme for customs officers from Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. The project document is awaiting final approval.

Institute of Development Management

— Training

200 000 (1st tranche)

300 000 (2nd tranche)

Most of the above sum has been disbursed on courses run by IDM between May 78 and May 79 for nationals from Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland.

— Buildings

A sum of 300 000 EUA has been earmarked in the regional fund for IDM's building needs. A financing proposal is now being prepared for the provision of basic facilities required by IDM in Lesotho and Swaziland. Funds are to be divided equally between the two countries to provide accommodation and classroom facilities for 24 resident participants together with a small amount of ancillary administrative accommodation.

Exceptional aid

— Upgrading the Lethena-Sekakes section of the Quthing-Qacha's Nek road

Commitment: EUA 1.0 M

Disbursed: EUA 787 400

This exceptional aid project was approved in December 1976, following the closure of the border with the Transkei which disrupted the area's normal access routes.

The project has been substantially completed for some time.

— Provision of 10 vehicles: 230 000 EUA

Ten trucks have been purchased and supplied to be used in order to ensure supplies to the areas perturbed by the Transkei border closure.

— Lesotho will also benefit from a recent (March 1979) emergency aid grant (4.7 m EUA) to UNHCR, for refugees in southern Africa. The other countries concerned are Botswana, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zambia.

Food aid

Food aid (1979 programme)

— butteroil 100 t.

— milk powder 100 t.

— cereals (prop 78/79 3 000 t)

STABEX and trade

STABEX: As indicative programme.

Trade: Advice to potential investors has been obtained from the Commission on conditions of access to EEC markets under the terms of the Convention.

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as in indicative programme

CIEC special action fund (US \$2.2 m)

The Lesotho government has decided to utilize the EEC's contribution to Lesotho under the CIEC special action fund (US \$2.2 m) within the framework of the Lesotho third highway project, which aims mostly at strengthening Lesotho's road maintenance capacity.

□

The Caribbean Development Bank

To carry out its regional cooperation programme in the Caribbean area, the European Community has reached an agreement with the two major regional groupings there: the Caricom Secretariat and the Caribbean Development Bank. The first will be involved in the implementation of technical assistance projects while the latter will fulfil the same function for the regional capital expenditure projects.

Created in October 1969, the Caribbean Development Bank started its operations in January 1970. At present it has 20 member countries: 18 "regional" members—the Commonwealth Caribbean, Colombia and Venezuela—and two non-regional members—the United Kingdom and Canada. In 1978 the CDB approved total loans of US \$ 39.7 million (disbursements topped US \$25.3 million) and on 31 December 1978 its total resources available reached US \$259.1 million. Between 1970-78 the cumulative net financing by the CDB totalled US \$180.1 million.

In order to assist CDB in its task of preparing, appraising and supervising 4th EDF regional capital expenditure projects and to identify viable projects for the next EDF, the bank itself received a 1.5 million EUA grant for recruiting additional experts. The CDB has been granted a loan of 3 million EUA from the EIB which it will use to finance capital investment projects in the fields of industry, tourism, infrastructure and energy in the Caribbean region.

"The CDB is not just a bank but very much a development agency, especially for the less-developed countries in the Caribbean", William Demas, CDB's president, emphasised(1) to the "*Courier*" at the bank's headquarters in Wildey, Barbados. Born in Trinidad and Tobago, Mr Demas was secretary-general of the Caricom Secretariat from January 1970 until mid-August 1974 before taking up presidency of the CDB.

Emphasis on the LDCs

► *Mr Demas, how do you view the role that the CDB plays in the development of the Caribbean region?*

— We have two sorts of role; one is to promote national economic development in each of our borrowing member countries, that is the English speaking Caribbean countries, and the other is to promote economic cooperation and integration among the Caribbean countries. So we are not only or primarily an instrument of integration and economic cooperation, we are also concerned with the development of each separate country with special attention to less-developed member countries. That's our national role.

We have examined financing regional projects in some cases, but in relative amounts we have spent a lot more money on national development projects than on regional projects.

We hope over time gradually to increase the proportion of regional allocations to national allocations.

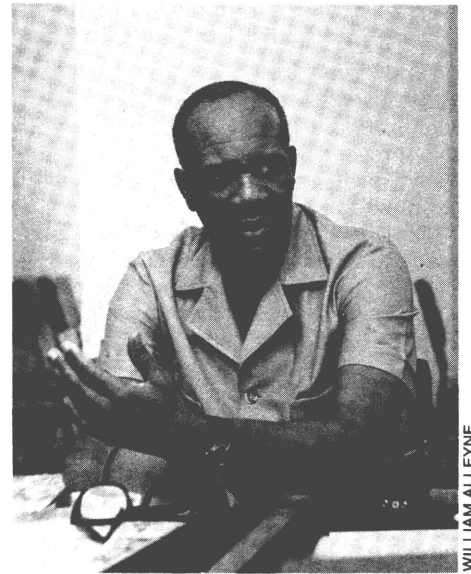
► *How important has this emphasis on the LDCs been?*

— Well, in article 1 of our charter we are told quite firmly that we must give special attention to the urgent needs of the less-developed countries. In a general sense we are very much a bank for the less-developed countries of the Caribbean. In terms of our soft lending for example, about 95% has gone to the less-developed countries, and the so-called more developed countries gain mainly from our hard resources.

Soft funds — hard funds

► *How does the CDB generate its funds?*

— Again, we have a twofold role here: first of all we are a bank, but second we are also a development agency. In our capacity as a bank, the



WILLIAM ALLEYNE

Mr William Demas, formerly secretary-general of Caricom, and now president of the Caribbean Development Bank

primary source of money, the seed money as it were, is shareholding, the subscription to shares of the member countries, on the basis of share capital and non-paid-in share capital (callable capital). We can also borrow money on capital markets and from other multilateral institutions such as the World Bank.

Those are strictly banking operations, but in addition we serve as a channel for soft funds from donor countries, some of whom belong to the bank, such as the UK, Canada and Venezuela; and we also get soft funds from other countries that are not members of the bank, such as the United States and West Germany. So, in one sense, we are a bank relying on shareholders' as well as borrowed money.

At the same time we can and do get soft funds from donor countries and multilateral institutions, such as the Inter-American Development Bank, and I have been suggesting that the European Development Fund should also contribute soft funds, either on a grant basis or special soft fund basis, to the bank to enable it to finance regional projects among the English-speaking Caribbean countries who are not only members of the bank but also belong to the ACP group.

► *So not only Caribbean countries hold shares in the bank?*

— There are member countries from the Caribbean area as well as other non-regional countries, the United

(1) This interview was realized in May 1979.

Kingdom and Canada. The bank was founded by the English-speaking countries plus the UK and Canada because of the traditional aid relationship between Canada and the UK, on the one hand, and the English-speaking Caribbean, on the other.

Since the bank was founded two other countries in this part of the world have become members, Venezuela and Colombia, but they are not borrowing members. At the moment the only borrowing members of the bank are the English-speaking Caribbean countries.

► *Has the CDB the right to initiate, or does it have to wait until one of the member states presents a project for financing?*

— Both. We respond to applications for loans from member countries but we ourselves also identify projects, which we fund, of course, with the agreement of the member countries.

Manpower requirements

► *To get projects off the ground requires a lot of trained manpower. How does this affect the bank and its member countries?*

— We have this problem, especially among our less-developed member countries, where there is a shortage of trained manpower. This means we have to do a lot more than the usual kind of international bank.

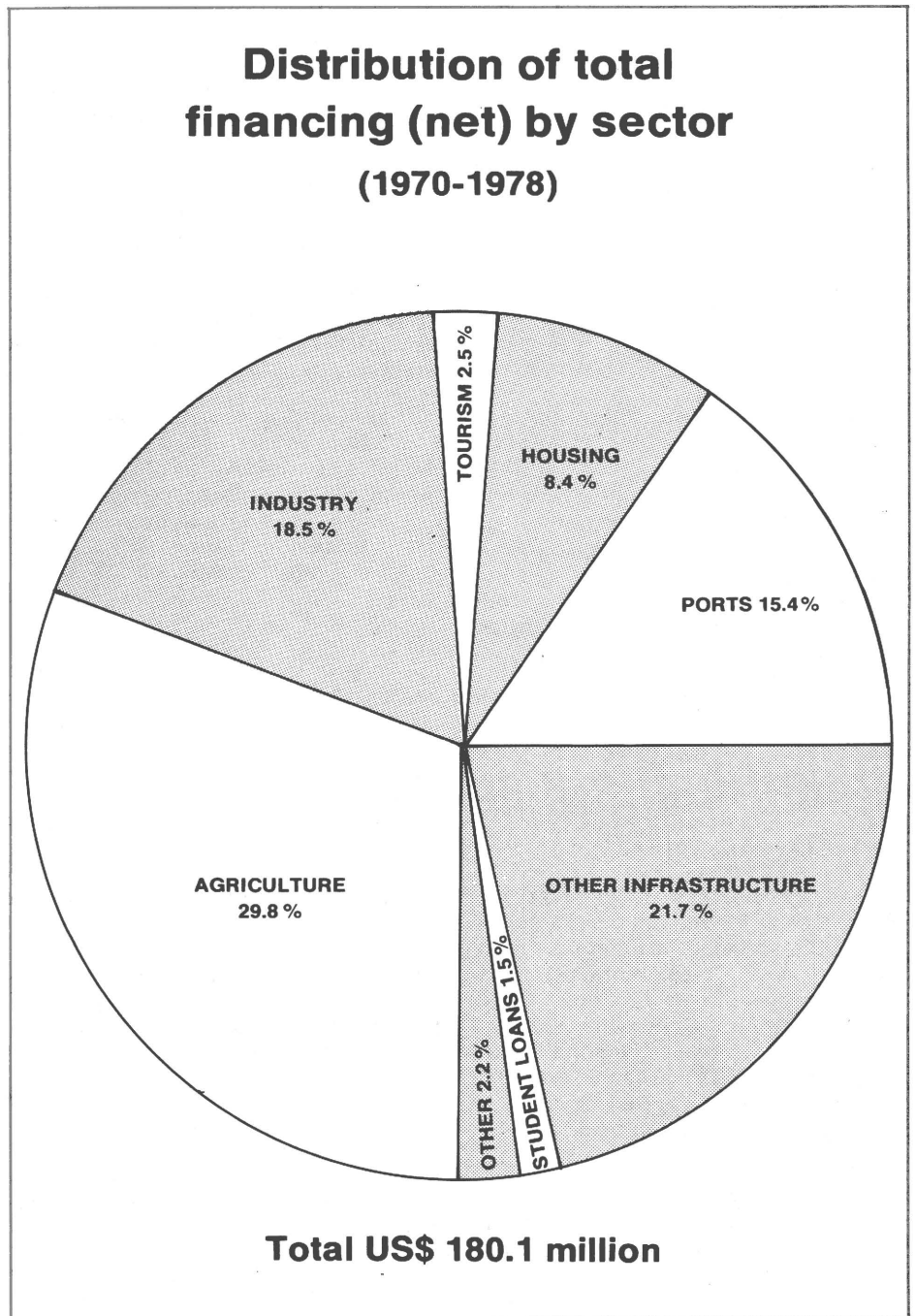
We often have to identify projects for financing with the member countries, and we do give a lot of free technical assistance to our borrowing member countries, particularly the less-developed, in the course of our lending operations. For example, in many cases we have to do the project preparation, where in principle there is a big distinction between the preparation and appraisal of a project.

The appraisal depends on the preparation and once a project is properly prepared appraisal is a matter of two or three weeks.

But we ourselves have to do the preparation in most cases and this can take anything from six months to nearly a year. It involves gathering general and technical information, looking at organizational structures, management etc. as well as aspects of the institution which will be the executive agency.

The process of project preparation is very time-consuming and requires a very intensive use of our staff.

► *How many people does the bank employ?*



— Some 150, about half of whom are professionals who have university training in fields like engineering, economics, finance and so on. The others are clerical and accounting assistants, secretaries, stenographers and so on.

The CDB and the Lomé Convention

► *What has the accession to the Lomé Convention of practically all of the English-speaking Caribbean countries meant for the activities of the bank?*

— Well, we got involved in regional projects involving capital expenditure. The member countries agreed on a list

of regional projects of two kinds: first of all those involving capital expenditure—the normal kind of project—and the other what you might call technical cooperation projects. The governments have agreed that the Caribbean Development Bank should liaise with the EDF for capital expenditure regional projects, while the Caribbean Community secretariat would be the point of contact with the European Development Fund for regional technical cooperation projects. In other words, we do a lot of preliminary work on the regional capital expenditure projects, and then we pass them over to the EDF through the delegate, Mr. Kelly. I have to say that we have been struck by the fairly long delays between submission of projects, even though a tremendous

amount of work has been put into them by the Caribbean Development Bank, and the ultimate financing decision.

We find the gap inexplicably long and we know that at this end Mr Kelly has been doing his best every day to have things expedited. We would like to speed up that process.

EEC investment and the "very severe rules of origin"

► From an industrial development point of view has the Lomé Convention as a new link between Europe and the Caribbean area brought about new investments from Europe?

— As far as we are aware, despite the Lomé Convention, there has not been any significant increase in private investment from the EEC.

We had hoped that with the free entry trade regime as well as the industrial cooperation provisions of the Lomé Convention, there would have been more joint ventures between European and Caribbean capital, but so far that has not materialized.

One obstacle may be the fact that while access for manufactured goods to the EEC is theoretically free of duty for the ACP countries, in practice there are very severe rules of origin. If the countries cannot meet the onerous conditions of local or regional value added to gain free access to the EEC, then the free entry regulations for ACP countries are fairly theoretical.

There should be rules of origin but they seem devised for much more developed countries than those in the ACP group. In other words the rules

are very stiff indeed. In a highly developed industrial structure it's not very difficult for imported materials to undergo substantial transformation, that is what happens in most of the European countries.

But if for countries that are newly industrializing and very heavily dependent on imported raw materials and components for the time being, you make the rules of origin requirements for local value added through transformation too stringent, then they just won't qualify.

That is what has happened under the Lomé Convention. So I suspect that if the rules of origin were not so stringent there would have been more European investment in the Caribbean, producing manufactured goods which could gain free entry into the EEC.

In general there is no reluctance on the part of other countries which want to invest in the Caribbean. There have been problems recently brought about by the consequences of the international economic crisis which started in 1973/1974. In many of our Caribbean countries they are still feeling the effects and have not yet fully recovered.

Some of them have been recovering faster because their tourism happened to be booming but the recession which fell on the Caribbean region was very severe and that may be one factor that has affected investments from some of the developed countries.

Anyway I believe that if the rules of origin were made more liberal then there would be a lot more direct investment from Europe in export oriented manufacturing industries in the Caribbean.

Sectoral approaches

► Referring to the tourist boom in the Caribbean, a lot of the Caribbean countries have been betting on sea, sand, and sun. Do you think that this is a sound strategy in the long-term?

— Tourism has been, and remains, liable to vicissitudes, shall we say, but in many of the Caribbean countries I'm afraid there is no option but to have a tourist industry. It's not an ideal kind of economic activity for all sorts of reasons, but in terms of the options open to several Caribbean countries, tourism must have a place in development.

► Do you think that enough attention has been given to agricultural development and diversification of crops in the Caribbean and what has the CDB done in this field?



WILLIAM ALLEYNE

"We are very much a bank for the less-developed countries of the Caribbean"

— We have done quite a bit for agriculture. From the very beginning we assigned the leading role in our lending programme to agriculture and if you look at the figures you will find that agriculture occupies the second place in our sectoral activities.

The only reason it is not in first place is because over the last few years we've been lending to some large ports in many of the less-developed countries.

If you leave out the port lending, which has been very heavy but also a once-and-for-all operation, then agriculture comes before infrastructure.

We have more agronomists and livestock experts than any other kind of specialist in the bank.

Agriculture, and particularly growing food for the local and regional markets, should have priority.

We have had some success I think in that field although there is and there remains great room for improvement, because the bank itself has no control over the development priorities of our borrowing member countries.

However, we have tried indirectly, and we have succeeded in placing great emphasis on agricultural diversification outside the traditional export crops of sugar, bananas and citrus. □

Interview by
ROGER DE BACKER



CDB

Agricultural development has received particular attention by the CDB

Liberty guiding the OAU and the Commonwealth

by LUCIEN PAGNI



The battle for economic development is primordial. It is perhaps the one commitment which all Third World countries have in common, and a glance at the squalor, disease and malnutrition rife in most of them is enough to explain its importance.

Yet economic development was not the main issue of the recent conferences of the Organization of African Unity (in Liberia in July) and the Commonwealth (in Zambia in August). Rather, the subject brought into the international limelight was the final purpose of development. The problem of individual and national liberty was raised clearly for once, and if other serious issues were pushed into the background, it was to clear the way for a debate which has long monopolized and paralysed the work of these organizations because of futile ideological confrontations.

The OAU, now in its 16th year, devoted most of its meeting to considering the three questions which most preoccupy African sensibilities: apartheid, decolonization and, especially, human rights.

As regards apartheid and the independence of the last colonies—Namibia, Western Sahara and Zimbabwe (Rhodesia) the OAU took a stand at Monrovia which could certainly contribute rapidly and effectively to progress. And it was clear to the heads of state gathered in the Liberian capital that human rights in Africa—an issue which seemed to raise more interest in the foreign press and within certain humanitarian organizations—can no longer, and should no longer, be avoided or simply reduced to the level

of each OAU country's domestic affairs. The human rights issue is now recognized to be an obstacle both to economic progress and to the struggle for independence and liberty in southern Africa. An African "charter of the rights of peoples and individuals" is soon to be drawn up by African experts and might be annexed to the charter of the OAU. It may then be hoped, with some confidence, that this African human rights charter will, as has been possible in Europe for the Europeans, lay the foundations of an ensemble of institutions and political rights for individuals and nations which will provide a body of legal references, clear a path through the present "jungle" and bypass the ideological alibis which have stood so much in the way of closer political and economic relations between African countries.

The same considerations led the Commonwealth Conference to concentrate on the denial of liberty to the peoples of southern Africa, in the belief that economic development and social progress are impossible without liberty. In this, the Commonwealth remained true to its republican origins as established by Cromwell, whose "commonwealth" was at least inspired by a Christian ethic we would

recognize today for its libertarian and egalitarian aspirations: "wealth" was to be held in "common"—an idea familiar to traditional ACP societies. Commonwealth secretary-general Shridath Ramphal perhaps had this in mind when he said Africa wanted to be both understood and instructed by Europe.

One of the problems generally encountered in the southern African situation, he said, is that of a reality, made up of a certain number of facts, which is understood in a totally different way by the international community. Africa and probably, looking beyond Africa to Asia and the Caribbean, the Commonwealth in general wanted more agreement on the analysis of this reality. Mr Ramphal said he believed it was now apparent to everyone that unless the same view was reached, or at least interpretations of the situation were brought closer together, it was unlikely that there would be agreement on how to solve the difficulties which must be faced.

So an overall approach to the problem of human rights, the rights of peoples and individual liberty, which will allow the African states to fix objectives, establish a framework for natural human rights, and create a better image of themselves emerges as a precondition of economic development, social progress and real international cooperation. The main result of the Lusaka and Monrovia conferences might have been depicted by the French artist Delacroix in the manner of his heroic canvas on the French Revolution: "Liberty guiding the peoples, the OAU and the Commonwealth". □ L.P.

European Parliament

“Madame President”

**Simone Veil
elected
by 192 votes
out of 377**

On Tuesday 17 July 1977 in Strasbourg (France), the European Parliament elected by universal suffrage in June voted for its first president(1). Only 60 or so of the 410 MPs had sat in the vast modern hall at the Palais de l'Europe before. It was early in the evening that Simone Veil (France), the candidate of the Liberal & Democratic group, was elected, on the second round, by 192 (i.e. three more than the absolute majority) of the 377 votes cast. Mr Zagari (socialist, Italy) got 138 votes and Mr Amendola (communist, Italy) 47.

Mr de la Malène (European Progressive Democrat, France) and Mrs Bonino (group for the technical coordination and defence of independent groups and members, Italy) stood in the first round only.

The 12 vice-presidents were also elected, 11 of them in the first round. Five are socialists—Messrs Friedrich (Germany), Jaquet (France), Vondeling (Netherlands), Zagari (Italy) and Rogers (UK)—four belong to the European People's Party—Messrs Vandewiele (Belgium), Gonella (Italy), Katzer (Germany) and Pflimlin (France)—and two are European Democrats—Messrs de Ferranti (UK) and Møller (Denmark). After two further votes, Miss Demarch (communist, France) was also elected.

This first part-session of the new Parliament finished on Friday 20 July. Mr O'Kennedy, Irish Minister for



Simone Veil

Foreign Affairs and President in office of the Council, and Commission President Roy Jenkins had previously outlined the programme of work for the coming months. The MEPs in general insisted that the nine EEC countries should take a firm decision to combine their forces to face up to the “second energy crisis”. Mr O'Kennedy said the implementation of the decisions of the

European Council of Strasbourg would be the priority task of his presidency.

Roy Jenkins said that, 1973 was “the first warning”. The alarm had been sounded but, in spite of the after effects, we had not taken it very seriously. We had gone on exactly as before.

If we reacted in the same casual way when the alarm sounded a second time, we should probably never get another chance.

And, he continued, our ability to break the link between economic growth and oil consumption in a short time would be a test for the Community and for the western world as a whole.

Those countries or groups of countries that failed to pass the test were likely to find themselves the dinosaurs of the industrialized world in the '90s.

One of the first things to do to make the Community less vulnerable, Mr Jenkins said, was to reform the common agricultural policy and rebalance the budget.

The European Parliament also called on the Council and the Commission to step up aid to refugees from Vietnam.

The appointment of the chairmen of the 15 committees was postponed.

The next part session is in Strasbourg on 24-28 September 1979. □



The debating chamber of the European Parliament in Strasbourg

(1) The “speaker”, or “chairman”, of the European Parliament is known as the “president”.

Louise Weiss

Three crucial issues: European identity, the birth rate and legality

The opening of the session of the first directly-elected European Parliament was marked by a speech from the oldest member of the house, 86-year old Mrs Louise Weiss of France, who has achieved so much in her life and her career and who still retains her vitality and remarkable intellectual presence today.

She spoke for an hour. In a firm voice, she gave a speech of a high level in which personal recollections enlivened her account of the history of Europe. She ended by emphasizing three problems of fundamental importance for the future. The members applauded her 16 times, in particular when she called them to "fraternity"

and to "the reconciliation of the continent", but above all when, gravely and firmly, she denounced the violation of human rights in the world today.

The European pantheon of Louise Weiss

At the beginning of her speech, after calling Strasbourg the metropolis that symbolized the reconciliation of the continent, she recalled great Europeans through the ages. Her words were felicitous, particularly when speaking of Goethe "whose name has become synonymous with the culture we must perpetuate if we are to forget that we are mortal".

"Enter", she said, invoking the great

cultural and political figures of Europe from Charlemagne to Charles de Gaulle and from Shakespeare to Robert Schuman, Jean Monnet and Konrad Adenauer and taking in Dante, Grotius, Stresemann, Briand and many others. She brought the dead back to life and they paraded before the living who, in silent fascination, observed one minute's silence for the "heroes" of Europe.

European identity, the birth rate and legality

Lastly, Mrs Weiss turned "lightheartedly" to the future. Why should the European Parliament live for the treaties of Paris and Rome alone? She felt it could also deal with crucial problems that transcended the treaties, matters that were of even greater importance than money or energy. She outlined three problems. First, the problem of identity. The poor turnout at the European elections proved that there was an urgent need to solve this one. It is impossible to have a Europe without Europeans. There were Europeans in "the Middle Ages, during the Renaissance, in the age of enlightenment and even in the 19th century. And Europeans must be born again". Mrs Weiss announced that she would be putting a proposal before the Parliament on the definition of the common European denominator, European culture. "We shall have our European university at last. Not just the odd place for young travellers, but a many-faceted institution with branches throughout the Community". And so a European academy, a European orchestra and European sports teams also have to be set up.

Then came the problem of the birth rate. If present trends continue, "there will soon be no Europeans... If our endangered Europe hopes to survive, it must undergo a profound moral transformation and couples will perhaps then want to spread their zest for living by producing more children".

The problem of legality is the problem of human rights. They are flouted the world over, even in the "crystal palace" in New York "where tyrants get ceremonious welcomes" and where only 30 of the 150 countries that signed the Charter have democratic regimes. "Shame on concentration camps, on psychiatric hospitals for people who are not mad. Shame on judges and on hooded men who condemn prisoners in blindfolds. Shame on genocide, that brings world-wide mourning but that is free to happen for all that." And Louise Weiss called on her colleagues to adopt an exemplary attitude on this issue. □

ALAIN LACROIX

An exceptional woman

Louise Weiss was born in Arras in the Pas-de-Calais (France) on 25 January 1893. She holds an advanced qualification from a French university and a diploma from Oxford. She is a member of the French UNESCO committee, an honorary member of the council of the university of human sciences in Strasbourg and a Grand-Officier of the Legion of Honour.

Here are just some of the many achievements of her long life and career.

In 1914, she founded a military hospital and a refuge for evacuees from the Nord Province at Portieux (Côtes-du-Nord). In 1921, when special envoy of the *Petit Parisien* in Moscow, she saved 25 French schoolmistresses who were cut off in regions hit by famine. From 1935 to 1939 she chaired "La Femme Nouvelle", a militant organization campaigning for equal political rights for men and women in France. She also headed a propaganda centre for women volunteers in the national defence services during this time. During the war she was in the resistance, on the Conseil national de la Résistance and editor of the clandestine publication, *La Nouvelle République*.

In addition to her social and paramilitary activities, Mrs Weiss has an extremely high literary and journalistic output. For example, before World War II, she was special envoy of the *Parisien Libéré* in Europe and the USA and, after 1944, correspondent for *l'Aurore*, the *Parisien Libéré*, *France Illustration* and *Paris-Match* in America, Asia and Africa. She brought out many articles on history, archaeology, art, ethnology, folklore and sociology. In particular, she wrote her

Mémoires d'une Européenne, a six-volume work covering the period 1893 to 1975 (see our book reviews).

She is also responsible for a number of documentary films. She was secretary-general of the Institut Français de Polémologie from 1964 to 1970 and, in 1970, she founded the Institut des Sciences de la Paix in Strasbourg, as part of the Fondation de France. □



Louise Weiss

"It seems to me at this moment in time that I have lived through a century, and travelled the world, only to come here now, as a lover of Europe, to try and express, with your approval, the anxieties and hopes which face us, but which stimulate our collective will"

The new president makes her maiden speech

Simone Veil emphasizes the future role of the Parliament and the need for "a genuine reduction in social inequality"

On Wednesday 18 July, the day after the president was elected, the formal opening sitting of the new Parliament was held, attended by many figures from the Community and from all five continents of the world. It began with a speech by Mrs Veil. She said that she hoped to be "the president of the whole assembly." This Parliament was the heir to all previous parliaments and should not lose sight of everything that had been achieved so far, yet direct elections were a historic innovation and an event of capital importance for the building of Europe.

For the first time in history

"For the first time in a history that has often seen them opposed, divided and bent on mutual destruction, Europeans have joined together to elect their representatives in a joint Parliament which is here today, representing more than 260 million people. There is no doubt that these elections are a major event in the building of Europe that began when the treaties were signed. Electoral procedures still vary from one member state to another, it is true, but this is in line with the act of 20 September 1976 on the election of MPs by direct universal suffrage and it is for us to devise a standard method of voting for use in our elections in the future. This is a task I shall join with you to accomplish", Mrs Veil stressed.

Three challenges — peace, freedom and prosperity

Yet direct elections have come at a crucial time for the Community, which is faced with three challenges:

— **Peace**, a rare but fragile commodity;

— **Liberty**, ever more closely threatened by the advancing frontiers of totalitarianism. Mrs Veil said she wel-

comed Greece, Spain and Portugal to the "island of freedom" that is the Community;

— **Prosperity**, a challenge which Mrs Veil saw to be the threat to the standard of living of our populations of the fundamental upheaval which the five-year old oil crisis had both triggered off and revealed. After a generation when the standard of living had risen at a high, sustained and unparalleled rate, all the countries of Europe are now confronted with a sort of economic war, which has crystallized in the return of a forgotten scourge, unemployment, and in doubt as to a continuing improvement in standards.

Solidarity, independence and cooperation

These challenges can only be taken up jointly and the Community has got to be consolidated and strengthened for this purpose. The elected Parliament has special responsibility here and it should take action on three fronts:

— **Solidarity**. Solidarity between the peoples first. Although there is "no question of losing sight of national interests," we have to realize that European solutions are often the best solutions. Consequently, we must make an unremitting effort to reduce regional disparity by evening our economic and financial conditions. Solidarity between the regions comes next, but there must also be solidarity among people. This is most important. Sacrifices can only be made if they bring about "a genuine reduction in social inequality." In this sector, the European Parliament must look at employment and decide what solutions can be found to maintain it.

— **Independence**. This should be neither aggressive nor conflictual. The idea is simply to "define the conditions of one's own development in an autonomous manner" This independence is particularly important in the fields of money and energy.

"To get the raw materials it needs"

— **Cooperation**. In the field of developing country relations, the Communities have already established what is often exemplary cooperation and the recent negotiations with the associated countries mark the beginning of a new phase. The Community now hopes that the new Lomé Convention will be signed by all the countries that took part in the negotiations."

"Selective cooperation" vis-à-vis the rest of the world should enable Europe to get the raw materials it needs, to offer its partners fair returns and to balance the transfers of technology which must be undertaken with guaranteed equal competition for its industries.

A control and a stimulus

The European Parliament has given great hopes by proposing that the MEPs shoulder a heavy yet exalting responsibility. The assembly's new authority will enable it to increase its action on two fronts:

— **The democratic exercise of its control**. Parliament's most important control is over the budget, Mrs Veil said. "It has the power to amend it or throw it out altogether". She went on to stress the importance of a dialogue on the budget at all levels, adding that "our strength will be all the greater if it is more unanimous and devoid of any spirit of demagogery or unreality". She then pointed out that a responsible Parliament "should not confine itself to fixing how much is to be spent. It should also look at how the receipts are obtained". This will be a crucial problem in the near future. "We know that during the life of this Parliament, the EEC budget will reach the ceiling of 1% of VAT which the treaties provide for own resources. In the coming years, the problem of income will be the most important problem and this Parliament, as a representative of all the people of the Community, that is to say all the taxpayers, will inevitably have to play a leading part in solving it."

Simone Veil also stressed that "the Parliament must exercise control over general policy within the Community. It would be wrong to believe that the institutional limits to its powers can prevent a Parliament like ours, with the political authority which elections have brought, from making its voice heard in

The new President

SIMONE VEIL was born in Nice (France) on 13 July 1927. In March 1944 she was deported to Auschwitz and then transferred to Bergen-Belsen before being liberated in May 1945.

Mrs Veil has a law degree and a diploma from the Institute d'Etudes Politiques in Paris. She became a magistrate in 1956 and was appointed to the Ministry for Justice (prison administration) in 1957.

In 1959, she was appointed national delegate to the International Society of Criminology. She took an interest in the problems of the internment of mental patients, adoption and parental authority. In 1969, she joined the Pleven office as technical adviser. In 1970, the French President appointed her secretary of the Conseil Supérieur de la Magistrature and, in 1972, member of the board of the ORTF (the French broadcasting company) and the Fondation de France.

On 28 May 1974, she became Minister for Health, a post to which she was reappointed in August 1976 and March 1977. She was on the UFC list at the European elections in June 1979, won a seat and resigned as minister in July in order to devote herself entirely to her European duties. □



Simone Veil

"President of the whole Assembly"

any area of Community activities at any time".

— **A greater stimulus for the construction of Europe.** Europe needs more solidarity. Beyond its quite legitimate immediate concerns, the interests of the Community have to be recognized. "Power in the Community is organized in such a way as to make each institution autonomous". But the institutions act in fundamental cooperation. And this is the framework within which any new legislation that the Parliament passes must provide an effective driving force. So Mrs Veil pleads for more work to be done in common with the other institutions, both as regards consultation and the cooperation procedures whereby Parliament should be able to play an effective part in the legislative decisions of the Communities.

Finally, Simone Veil said that "the voice of our Assembly, confident in its legitimacy, will be heard in all the Community institutions and, in particular, at the highest level of decision making. I am thinking especially here of the European Council".

Without losing sight of the fact that MEPs have divergent programmes and ideas, the new President asked them not to make the European Parliament a scene of division and rivalry. She said she would devote the whole of her time and energy to her new task and that she was convinced that the pluralism of the assembly would prove to be a source of enrichment. All the MPs were

moved by the same desire — "to build a Community founded on a common heritage and common respect for fundamental human values".

Jack Lynch: "...The start of a new phase"

The President of the European Council, Irish PM Jack Lynch, congratulated Mrs Veil on her election, stressing the importance of the European Parliament president's role in relations between Parliament and Council. The European elections, he said, were the start of a new phase in the unification of Europe.

No one could tell what the long-term effects might be, but this was certainly the beginning of a new and significant trend. Mr Lynch stressed that the permanent dialogue between the European institutions was one of the original features of the European enterprise.

Roy Jenkins: "Maintaining positive and creative relations with the Parliament"

Commission President Roy Jenkins mainly dealt with the relations between the institutions after the European elections. The Commission saw one of its priority tasks as maintaining positive and creative relations with the Parliament.

More generally, Mr Jenkins said that this Parliament could help "make or

break" Europe. After 20 years of substantial but sporadic progress, certain driving forces had faded, new tensions had emerged and the economic climate was harder.

Mr Jenkins wondered whether "by reasserting the momentum, by rekindling the idealism, we will make it the foundation of a more benevolent continuing future".

We are on the brink of a sombre decade, Mr Jenkins said, and Parliament will have to tackle the real problems facing the people of Europe—without letting the discussion be pulled into the narrow paths of national policy. Europe must keep its vision of greater unity, not of a federation or a confederation, but of something unique. "I am absolutely certain of one thing," Mr Jenkins said, "and that is that it is more dangerous to go too slowly than too quickly."

o o

The end of the meeting was devoted to speeches by the various political groups—Mr Glinne (Socialists), Mr Tindemans (European People's Party), Mr Scott-Hopkins (European Democrats), Mr Bangemann (Liberal and Democratic group), Mr Debré (European Progressive Democrats), Mr Berlinguer (Communist and allies), Mr Manella and Mrs Mammerich (group for the technical coordination and defence of independent groups and members). □ A.L.

The political groups in the new Parliament

Size of groups on going to press

Socialist group	112 seats (27.3 %)
Group of the European People's Party	108 seats (26.3 %)
European Democratic group	63 seats (15.4 %) (1)
Communist and allies group	44 seats (10.7 %)
Liberal and Democratic group	40 seats (9.8 %) (2)
Group of European Progressive Democrats	22 seats (5.4 %)
Group for Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members	12 seats (2.9 %) (3)
Non-attached	8 seats (2.0 %) (2)

The following information on the groups is so far available:

Socialist group

Chairman

Ernest GLINNE
(PS, B)

Vice-chairman

Ludwig FELLERMAIER
(SPD, D.)

Claude ESTIER
(PS, F)

Barbara CASTLE
(Labour Party, UK)

Pietro LEZZI
(PSI, It.)

Ien VAN DEN HEUVEL
(PvdA, NL)

Other members of the bureau: Ann CLWYD ROBERTS (Labour Party, UK), Horst SERFELD (SPD, D.), Charles-Emile LOO (PS, F), Kjeld OLESEN (Socialdemokratiet, Dk), Victor ABENS (POSL, L), Michael O'LEARY (Labour Party, Irl.), John HUME (SDLP, UK), Marcel COLLA (BSP, B), Mauro FERRI (PSDI, It.).

Ernest GLINNE, who was born in Forchies-la-Marche on 30 March 1931, holds a degree in administrative, diplomatic and political science and runs a consultancy. This ex-minister for employment and labour is now MP for

(1) As the election of one of the British conservatives was invalidated one of the seats is still vacant.

(2) This is not the final figure.

(3) The number of the members of this group do not seem definitive.

Charleroi and a member of the Socialist party bureau. He has been a member of the European Parliament since 1968, chaired the EEC/Greece joint parliamentary committee and the economic and monetary committee and been vice-chairman of the Socialist group. He headed the Belgian Socialist party (PS) list in the European elections.

Group of the European People's Party (formerly Christian Democrats)

Chairman

Egon A. KLEPSCH
(CDU, D.)

Vice-chairmen

Emilio COLOMBO
(DC, It.)

Leo TINDEMANS
(CVP, B)

M.-L. CASSANMAGNAGO-CERRETTI
(DC, It.)

Willem VERGEER
(CDA, NL)

Egon KLEPSCH, who was born in Bodenbach (Elbe) on 30 January 1930, studied history, political science and geography and then taught international politics. He is a member of the Bundestag and vice-president of the European People's Party. He joined the European Parliament in 1973 and, in 1977, took over as leader of the Christian Democratic group. He was also on the political affairs committee.

The other members of the bureau are to be appointed later.



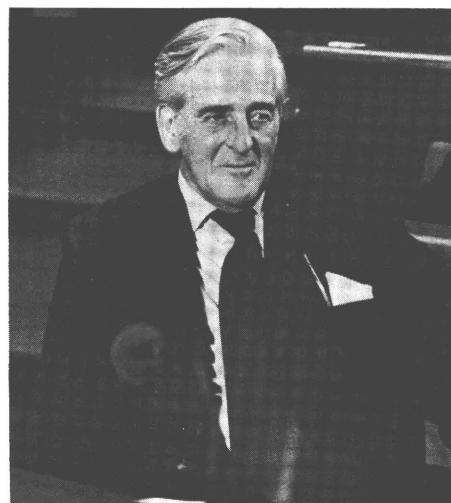
Ernest Glinne

Chairman of the Socialist group



Egon Klepsch

Chairman of the European People's Party group



James Scott-Hopkins

Chairman of European Democrats group

**European Democratic group
(formerly European
Conservatives)**

Chairman

James SCOTT-HOPKINS
(Conservative, UK)

Vice-chairmen

Poul MØLLER
(Conservative, Dk)

Basil DE FERRANTI
(Conservative, UK)

Lady ELLES
(Conservative, UK)

Other member of the bureau: Sir John STEWART-CLARK (Conservative, UK) (treasurer)

John SCOTT-HOPKINS, born in 1921, was first elected to the House of Commons in 1959, representing North Cornwall (1959-1966) and Derbyshire West (1967-1979). From June 1962 to October 1964 he was secretary of state at the Ministry of Agriculture and then Conservative spokesman on agriculture until 1966.

He has sat in the assemblies of both the Council of Europe and the Western European Union. He joined the European Parliament in January 1973, becoming vice-president in 1976. As leader of the British Conservative contingent, he was appointed leader of the new European Democratic group.

Communist and allies group

Chairman

Giorgio AMENDOLA
(PCI Italy)

Vice-chairman

Gustave ANSART
(PCF, France)

*Other member of bureau
(treasurer)*

Bodil BOSERUP
(Dk)

Giorgio AMENDOLA, a doctor of law and a journalist, was born in Rome on 21 November 1907. He joined the Com-

munist party in 1929, was put under house arrest under the fascist regime and fled first to France and then to Tunisia, where he continued his career as a militant journalist. Back in Italy in 1943, he took part in the clandestine political struggle.

In 1945, he was appointed under-secretary to the office of the President of the Council, a post which he occupied until July 1946. He was elected to the central committee and administration of the Communist party and has represented Naples-Caserta eight times in the assembly.

He joined the European Parliament in 1976 and was chairman of the Communist and allies group in the outgoing parliament.

Liberal and Democratic Group

Chairman

Martin BANGEMANN
(FDP, D)

Vice-chairmen

Jean-François PINTAT
(UFE, F)

Vincenzo BETTIZA
(PLI, It.)

Cornelis BERKHOUWER
(VVD, NL)

André DAMSEAUX
(PRL, B)

Tove NIELSEN
(Lib. party, Dk)

Colette FLESCH
(PD, L)

*Other member of the bureau
(treasurer)*

Hans NORD
(VVD, NL)

Martin BANGEMANN, a father of five, was born in Wanzleben on 15 November 1934. He studied law and now has a practice in Metzingen. He has been a member of the FDP since 1963, on the federal party bureau since 1969 and was general secretary from October 1974 to October 1975. Since 1972, he has been an MP in the Bundestag and chairman of the working party on Europe in his parliamentary group. He joined the European Parliament in 1973 and became vice-chairman of the Liberal and Democratic group in 1975. He is vice-president of the European Liberal/Democratic Confederation (LED) and chairman of the confederation's programme committee.



Giorgio Amendola

Chairman of the Communist and allies group



Martin Bangemann

Chairman of the Liberal and Democratic group



Christian de la Malène

Chairman of the European Progressive Democrats group

Group of European Progressive Democrats

Chairman

Christian de LA MALENE
(DIFE, F)

Vice-chairmen

Patrick LALOR
(Fianna Fail, Irl.)

Kay NYBORG
(Parti du Progrès, Dk)

Winifred EWING
(SNP, UK)

Nicole CHOURAQUI
(DIFE, F)

Sean FLANAGAN
(Fianna Fail, Irl.)

Christian de La MALENE was born in Nîmes (Gard) on 5 December 1920. He holds a doctorate in law (Paris) and is a sociologist. He was MP for the Seine region from 1958 to 1961 and from 1962 to 1978, the short break being to take up a ministerial post in the Debré cabinet, where he was secretary of state in the office of the Prime Minister, with special responsibility for information. In the Pompidou cabinet he was minister for scientific research and atomic and special questions. He has been a Paris councillor since 1965 and, as such, has often reported on the budget for Paris. He is currently a Paris senator (RPR) and first deputy to Jacques Chirac, the mayor of Paris. Mr de la Malène sat in the European Parliament from 1958 to 1961 and from 1962 to the present time. He has chaired the committee on external economic relations and was already leader of the European Progressive Democrats in the outgoing parliament.



Session of the new European Parliament

Marco Panella

Chairman of the group for Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members

Group for Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members

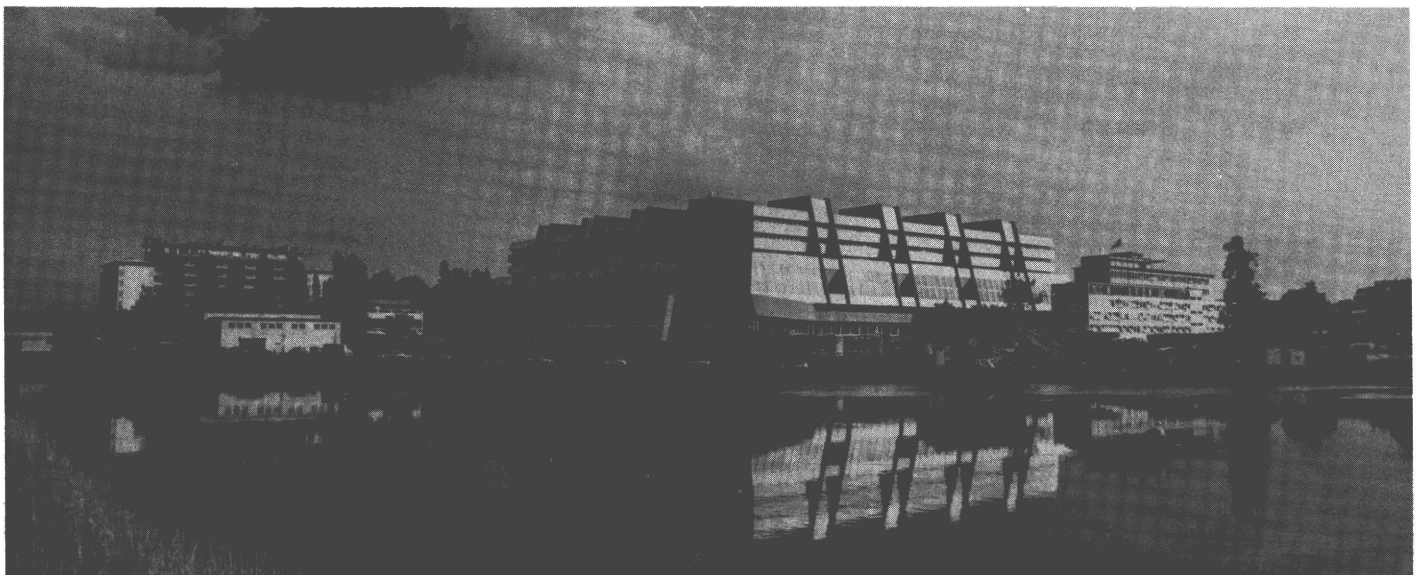
Chairman

Marco PANNELLA
(PR, Italy)

Other member of bureau

Sven SKOVMAND
(Anti-EEC movement, Dk)

Marco PANNELLA was born on 2 May 1930 and is a doctor of law and a journalist. He founded the Radical party and is an MP in the Italian parliament.



A view of a view of a 'Europe' that means to make itself heard

Council of the European Communities

Good end-of-term report on France's six-month chairmanship

Jean François-Poncet, French foreign minister and President of the EEC Council from 1 January to 30 June 1979, gave a positive end-of-term report in Brussels recently on the Community's activities over the last six months. It was by chance that a number of long-standing projects were completed during this period, when the first direct elections to the European Parliament also took place.

Nevertheless, it has been a period of exceptional activity for the Community as far as both the member states and the institutions are concerned.

It would be fair to say that the Community has kept up a good pace over the last six months and that it has emerged from a particularly difficult international situation stronger than before.

The main positive points

At the end of 1978, two internal crises shook the Community. There was the opposition to the entry into force of the European Monetary System (EMS) and there was the institutional crisis with the European Parliament over the 1979 budget.

But, six months later, the EMS is working well and the institutional problem has been solved for 1979 by an internal agreement between the member states in the Council of Ministers. Indeed, it has been solved for the future, during meetings with the European Parliament, and the same situation can now never occur again.

The first alterations to the common agricultural policy have also been made. Mr François-Poncet stressed the importance of the common agricultural policy in the architecture of the Com-

munity and the fact that it was "in danger of collapsing because of the instability of various currencies and the effect they had on the monetary compensatory amounts.

"It has to be realized that the diversity of prices paid to the producers and the resulting disappearance of unity of the market is something the common agricultural policy cannot stand up to for long", he said.

Social questions had also been dealt with. "Fresh impetus has been given to social policy, although we still have most of the way to go.

At the instigation of the French presidency, a start has been made on the problem of changing working hours and we will shortly be making decisions that will take account of the new situations in which, thanks to unemployment, the various European countries now find themselves", the foreign minister said.

In external relations, "the Community is a reality that no one contests". There were three things to note here. "First, the EEC has shown its openness, with the accession of Greece.

Negotiations were considerably, and very usefully, encouraged under previous presidencies and they reached a successful conclusion during the French presidency when the act was signed, at a very moving and dignified ceremony, in Athens.

"It has shown generosity, with the renewal of the Lomé Convention. I should like to say that this is perhaps one of the most significant achievements of this presidency, both because of its importance and because of the problems that had to be overcome en route.

As you will remember, the first Lomé Convention took 19 months, under three successive presidencies, to negotiate, so we completed the recent negotiations in a particularly short time.

Talks of this kind are difficult when they involve nine Community countries, which do not all think alike, and 57 ACP countries, which also have different ideas and interests."

Mr François-Poncet also thought that, like Lomé, the new convention was "a concrete agreement" and that renewal had taken place at a time when "relations between the rich and the poor of this planet are going through what is probably a difficult period. The outcome of the Manila conference, which everyone agreed was a disappointment, is sufficient proof of this".



Jean François-Poncet



And finally, a third aspect of external relations revealed the Community's determination. This was Europe's firm decision to energetically defend its common interests in the multilateral trade negotiations by adopting a joint position which "enabled agreement to be reached between Europe and the USA and which altered apparently unalterable points in the US trading position under GATT".

Three conclusions

Mr François-Poncet drew three conclusions. First, the Community machin-

ery, that it was "fashionable to call unwieldy and inefficient", had shown that it was indeed in working order.

Second, there was a set of institutions on which everyone agreed and "today the European Council has demonstrated that it is the driving force of the EEC and, as such, able to find a way out of any impasse in which the Community might be trapped and to innovate and launch new ideas".

Third, "when Europe is united, its voice carries in the world. It carried in trade negotiations and in multilateral negotiations and it carried at Tokyo. I

think it is fair to say, without boasting, that Tokyo would not have been a success without the conference and the European Council in Strasbourg".

Many problems still to be solved

"Of course, there are still many difficult problems to solve", Mr François-Poncet said; these include the UK contribution to the EEC budget, fishing rights, changes to the common agricultural policy, Euratom and the implementation of energy policies.

A challenge for Europe at this difficult time

Generally speaking, "the end of the 20th century will be a difficult time for Europe. It will have fewer people and its importance will wane constantly, dramatically, as the century draws to a close. It will be more and more dependent, not just for its energy, but for its raw materials as well. And it will be up against competition, not just from the big industrial countries that have been around it for so long, but from new industrial powers that spring up over the world, in Asia in particular. This is a challenge.

It is a comprehensive challenge which is being thrown down before the Europe of today", the minister concluded. □ A.L.



Mr Jean François-Poncet, the French foreign minister, during his press conference. On the left secretary of state Pierre Bernard-Raymond and on the right the French permanent representative to the European Community, Mr Luc de la Barre de Nanteuil

Ireland takes over Council until end of year

It is now Ireland's turn to preside the EEC Council and the various attendant bodies. Ireland took over from France on 1 July for the six-month term.

The "general" council is now presided by Irish foreign minister E. O'Kennedy, the council that deals with the economy and finance by deputy PM and finance minister G. Colley, farm the council by agriculture minister J. Gibbons, and so on for fisheries minister B. Lenihan, trade and industry minister D. O'Malley (energy), etc. The committee of permanent representatives will now be presided by Irish ambassador B. Dillon or his deputy, P. Murphy.

Prime Minister Jack Lynch will preside the European Council to be held in Dublin in November. □

Community issues

Energy

The West and the world energy problem

Electricity, coal, gas, various solid and liquid fuels, whatever its form, modern society depends on some sort of energy for all its activities, industrial, agricultural, commercial, for daily comforts and leisure. But energy is no longer available without strings.

Interview with Dr Ulf Lantzke (*), director of the International Energy Agency

► *What is the IEA for? Does it simply organize debates among energy-consuming countries and publish documents.*

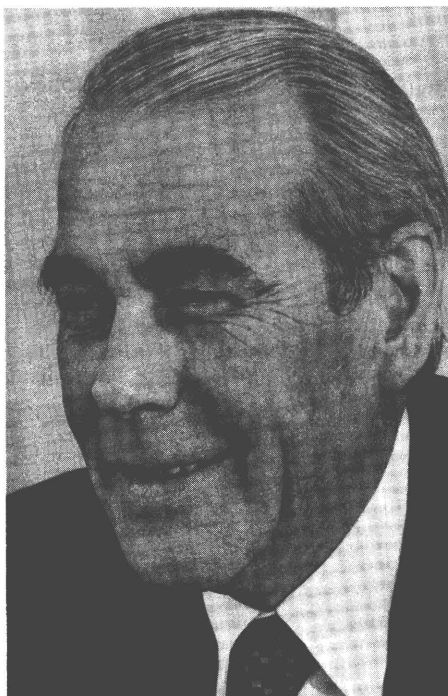
— The Agency was created in order to supply a platform for industrialized countries to do their homework on energy policies. The 1973-74 crisis made it obvious that the energy policy could not be regarded as a purely national issue. Energy is a worldwide problem and so the member countries of the IEA decided to get together and try to concert their policies. They have now done this; they have agreed on 12 principles for energy policies, which

(*) Born in Reierort, Brandenburg (now in East Germany), on 9 June 1927, Dr Lantzke was raised near Berlin and educated in the Ruhr area. His secondary studies were interrupted by military service in July 1944 and he completed work for his school leaving certificate (Abitur) in 1946.

Dr Lantzke attended the University of Münster and received his doctorate in law in 1952. Following his graduation he was employed in the legal service of the State of North Rhine-Westphalia, serving principally in Recklinghausen and Bochum, and he took up private practice in Recklinghausen in 1956.

In 1957 he entered the Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs in Bonn, becoming head of the division responsible for competition problems in the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) in 1962. In 1968, he was appointed head of the energy department responsible for energy policy, iron and steel, and raw materials.

Following the oil crisis of 1973-74, Dr Lantzke was called to Paris in 1974 as special counsellor for energy questions to the secretary-general of the OECD. In November 1974 he became executive director of the newly-formed International Energy Agency.



Ulf Lantzke

they will implement in their national frameworks.

We are following this closely and holding an annual check on what they have achieved. They have also agreed basically on a programme for conservation and a programme for coal development, and for continuing nuclear development. So it's not just a forum for discussion or publications, it is a forum for policy action.

IEA-Community relations

► *How do the IEA and the EEC coordinate their policies, particularly as regards crisis measures?*

— The Commission participates in all our work; it is present at the governing board meetings, it plays an active role and decisions taken by the IEA have to be adapted by the Community to its framework. The emergency system is based on an agreement that underpins the work of the Agency, under which all countries, including the eight community countries which are members of the IEA, have taken commitments. The Community system was developed after these commitments had been taken. We have checked very carefully that the commitments of the Community correspond to the commitments of the Agency—they do, and the only additional element is that France is covered by the Community system but not by the IEA.

► *Does the absence of France from the IEA but its membership of the EEC mean that discussions are often delicate within the Agency?*

— In practical terms, no. Basically, the energy policies of France are quite in line with what has been decided in the Agency, so there is no real difficulty. France is fully informed of what's going on in the Agency through the Commission and also by informal bilateral contacts, so in practical terms there is no real difficulty. In political terms, that is a different issue.

IEA-producer relations

► *The IEA brings together the consumer countries but there is increasing talk of a dialogue between producers and consumers. How do you see that dialogue? What role has the IEA already played here?*

— We have a number of informal contacts with OPEC and other developing countries. We have organized a workshop in order to supply an initial basis for developing countries to better formulate their energy needs and policies and there is participation in that workshop from all around the world; so, again in informal terms, quite extensive contacts do exist, which we welcome because we think that an exchange of views and discussions are necessary for better understanding of the world energy situation.

► *The producing countries accuse the oil companies of overcharging. Do you think that is a fair accusation?*

— Quite a number of factors have contributed to the price explosion of the first half of 1979. I don't see the oil companies as a driving factor in this price explosion. The reasons which have contributed to this are different. There has been a change in the structure of the oil industry which has brought more buyers to the market. There has been a certain amount of hoarding by the consumers and over-emphasis on re-stocking in the second quarter of the year. But there has also been action by oil producing countries. I don't think it is fair to single out one particular cause of the price explosion.

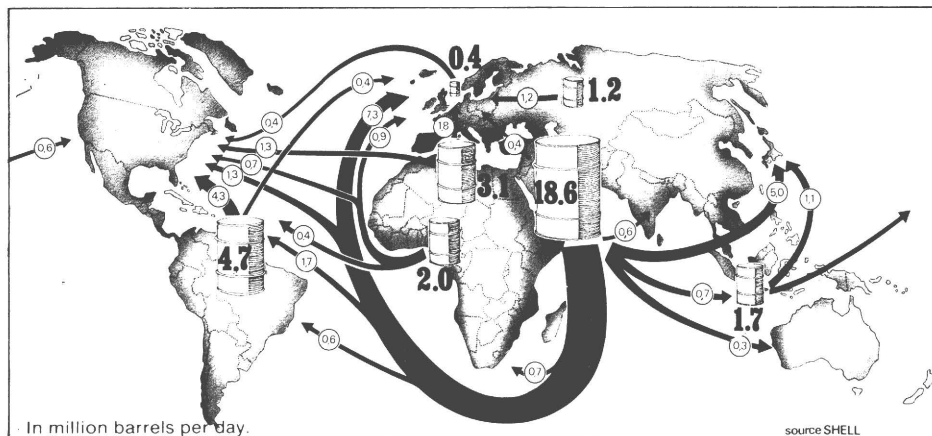
Importance and limits of registering international oil transactions

► *Do you think that the European Commission's proposal, which was adopted by the Strasbourg and Tokyo summits, to register international oil transactions, is sufficient to ensure enough information on what is happening?*

— The registration system is certainly a step forward towards more transparency. I'm not convinced that registration in itself will bring about the results that we hope for. It will contribute, because it will in itself be a constraint to certain speculative movements in the oil market. But we will have to think of a combination of policies, including stock policies and appealing to oil companies to refrain from overbidding in the spot market. We will also have to think about the question of establishing a code of conduct for the oil trade. All these questions will have to be considered and in the end we would hope to be able to set up a system which would prevent the sort of hectic price situation we have gone through in the first half of 1979. The registration system certainly is a contribution to that.

► *The OPEC countries have warned the industrialized countries to cut back on their consumption. Do you think the seven countries at the Tokyo summit were right to deplore the decision of OPEC to increase oil prices?*

— I think the Tokyo summit decision to limit demand country by country is a very important step forward and it's quite independent of the appeal by the OPEC countries. We in the industrialized world must do everything we can to rationalize our demand for oil because, after all, oil supplies are limit-



The world oil trade. — Bold figures show the exports from oil-producing areas, circled figures the destinations of these exports. Most oil from the Middle East goes to Europe.

Since the start of the year the cost (f.o.b. prices) of average Community imports of crude oil have risen by about 57% following decisions taken by the oil-exporting countries.

The prices of the main imported petroleum products, refined as well as crude, rose by an average of 49% in the Community (in dollars, before tax). At prices quoted in Rotterdam, the rise would have reached 92%.

The International Energy Agency

The IEA was set up in the OECD framework in November 1974, following the 1973 oil crisis.

It serves as a coordinating body, both to help member countries face supply difficulties and on research into alternative energy sources.

It has 19 members: Japan, Canada, Austria, Sweden, Switzerland, Greece, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Turkey, the USA and all the EEC countries except France.

The EEC Commission has consultative status in the IEA.

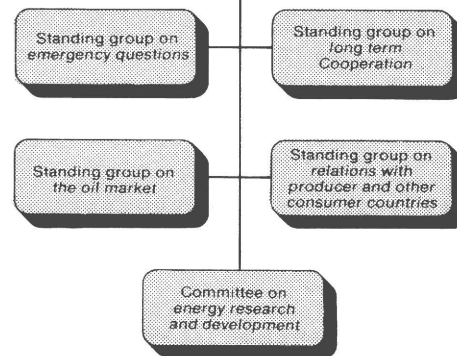
To help cope with shortfalls in supplies, the IEA has drawn up a strategy based on sharing among its members. A shortfall of 7% activates crisis measures.

The IEA is also an information agency and published a major study of world energy prospects in 1977.



Governing board
(and management committee)

Composed of ministers or their delegates from each of the 20 countries.



ed. It is in our own interest not to let a shortage of oil supplies develop into a real constraint for economic growth in the world. That's the basic reason why the industrialized countries took that decision in Tokyo. We very much hope we will be able to follow up the Tokyo summit decision and also convince other industrialized countries to limit their demand for oil.

**Production levels:
Saudia Arabia will
replace Iran in supplying
the industrialized countries**

► *The most important immediate question is that of production. Do you think, as is currently being suggested,*

that the drop in Iranian production can be made up by increased output by Saudi Arabia?

— Basically, yes. I think that with the increase in Saudi production and a decrease in consumption as early as March, the Agency decided that there should be a decrease of 5% or 2 million barrels a day—the combination of both, plus a certain decrease in economic growth, will contribute to a balance in the oil market again.

The big danger is that after that balance has been achieved, and I would expect it to be achieved by the end of the year, public awareness of the problem will decrease again.

The public might react that way when there is no need any more to economize on energy use, because, at least temporarily, the problem will have gone away. Politically we must make

every effort to avoid that and our ministerial meeting has already said we will have to carry demand restraint measures into 1980.

► *What do you think of Sheik Yamani's comment that since the West needs between 60 and 100 million tonnes of oil each year to keep going, the United States should increase its own production?*

— The United States is reaching the limits of its production potential. We foresee big difficulties, just from the reserve potential, in the United States increasing its production.

We think that an increase of about 1 million barrels a day should be possible over time.

But it's an effort which requires investment in a multitude of wells. Alaska is a different question.

There is certainly some additional potential there and we hope that it will be brought to the market.

► *Do you think the United States and the other major oil consumers will be able to meet the IEA's objective of a 5% reduction in consumption by this autumn?*

— We are well on the way to achieving that. Naturally, hard statistics are still difficult to obtain at this time, but in the third quarter already we would hope to attain 3.5 to 4.5% savings and that by October we will have arrived at the full 5%. The difficulty will we hope be to maintain that amount of savings in a climate where the market situation may have eased again.

► *What do you think of the recent speech by President Carter on energy?*

— I think that a really comprehensive programme by the United States has been presented for the first time. I'm not discussing the details of that programme at the moment, but the size of the programme, the weight of the programme, for the first time really matches the size of the energy problem.

So if Congress follows the President, I think this might well be the turning point for the world energy problem.

No single solution to the energy crisis

► *In your view, should we make a choice between saving energy, using more coal and developing nuclear power and new sources of energy or should we develop them all to ensure an adequate supply?*

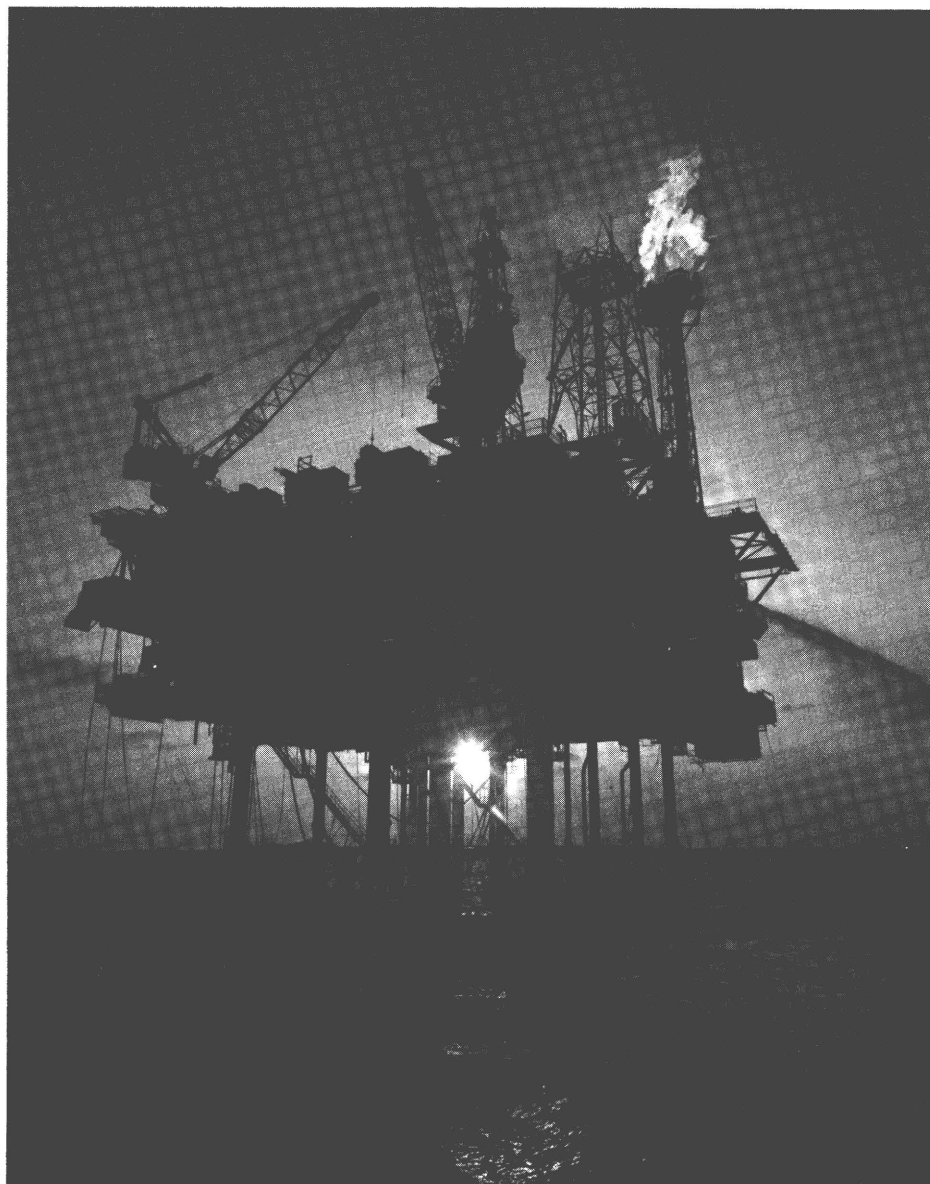
— We said have again and again that we need them all, that there is no single solution. In the immediate future the highest priority must still be economizing on energy use; from that we can achieve immediate results, whereas developing alternative production takes time.

But at the same time as we start a heavy programme of economizing, we must also start developing nuclear power and coal.

Nuclear power will have its constraints and won't be the only solution on the alternative sources side. On the other hand, we can also see that coal development will take time and won't be brought about overnight.

An action programme

► *What were the decisions made at your July meeting on a range of actions*



Oil: for how much longer?

to offset, in the short term, the pressure on the oil market?

— First, we talked about a programme for influencing the spot market, a programme of action which had several points: one, the registration system for transactions in the oil markets; two, an appeal to oil companies in industrialized countries not to bid too heavily in the spot market; three, investigating the system of terms under which the oil trade should be conducted in the IEA countries—a code of conduct. Four, harmonizing stock policies.

Coal: a more important role

► *It was also decided to set up a consultative committee on coal. How will it be made up and what will its role be?*

— IEA ministers decided in May that they want to start policies now to give coal a more prominent role again in energy supplies.

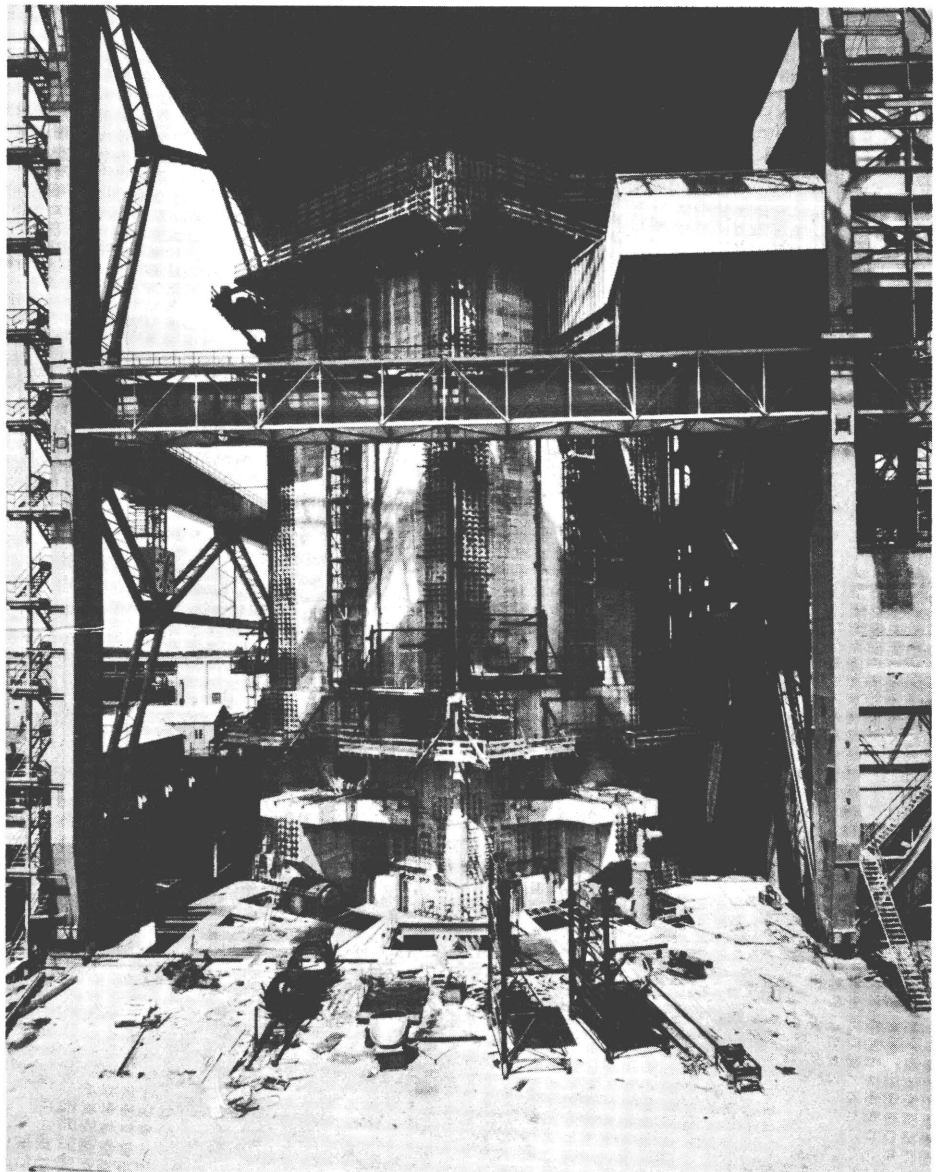
We know that just deciding on principles won't bring about more coal production, trade and utilization, but that we will have to have a practical follow-up to that. We also know that investment—and it's huge investment in all these sectors—will have to be done by private industry. So the logical follow-up to the ministers' decision was to set up an industry-oriented board which would take an operational part in meeting the objectives the ministers set.

We hope that on this board we will have figures who are actively engaged in all the fields that I have mentioned, coal production, utilization and trade, and we hope that such a board would contribute to implementing, the principles the ministers have agreed upon—that they'll be able to tell governments where they see bottlenecks in order to bring about that development, and that in general there will be a stimulus for industry as a whole to actively pursue investment and business opportunities in the field of coal.

► *What would be involved in drawing up a code of conduct for oil transactions?*

— That's still at the stage of reflection. We can see today that the conditions of the oil trade have become a prominent element of overall economic growth.

We have seen in 1973/74 that the price explosion had a negative impact on the world economy and led to a rather deep recession. We are concerned today that the price explosion of the



Building a nuclear power station in France

first half of 1979 will have a similar effect on the world economy.

We already project for the next 12 months a loss of growth of one percentage point worldwide, which is quite substantial, and there is every reason for the world to think about better conditions in the world market in order to avoid such price explosions in the future. The code is not meant to eliminate the spot market which certainly has its functions but to stabilize some of the unfavourable results the spot market has shown in the first half of 1979.

► *Will it be possible for government policies to cope with the energy crisis without a change in the way each individual behaves in the industrialized countries, and particularly in the United States? Do you think people are prepared to make such a change in time to avoid a more general crisis?*

— I think that the public in all the industrialized countries have become more and more aware of the nature, size and gravity of the energy problem. There is no need, in my view, to basically change the structure of our social and political situation. But there is a serious need to adapt, country by country, to a rapidly changing energy situation. I think it can be done; awareness in Europe and Japan is sufficient, even more than governments believe, individuals are conscious that energy is a problem for their economic well-being in the United States, or North America at large.

Progress will have to be made in this direction and a national consensus will have to be developed about the nature of the problem. I very much hope that this national consensus will be brought about by the new programme of the President of the United States. □

Interview by A.L.

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

Report on financial and technical cooperation for 1978

The European Commission's report on the management of financial and technical cooperation under the Lomé Convention during 1978 has some positive comments to make on cooperation as a whole. The Commission notes that the permanent process of dialogue started under the Lomé Convention is working satisfactorily, but adds that it might be a good idea if the most senior officials could evaluate what has been achieved to date, eliminate the loop-holes, correct any errors and provide guidance in the future. The Commission would like the ACP states themselves to prepare a report, especially as they criticised certain delays in payment at a meeting of the ACP/EEC Consultative Assembly. The Commission then points out that the time-lag between the decision and actual payment is not something peculiar to the Lomé Convention. Experts from the OECD's development assistance committee have also found that payments remained blocked between 1975 and 1977 while the volume of development aid commitments continued to grow. According to the DAC, these delays are often attributable to political changes which developing countries themselves want.

The Commission's report looks at the situation from various angles: a break-down according to methods of financing; break-down according to assisted sectors; the major features of cooperation and organizations; cooperation procedures.

Break-down of methods of financing

In 1978, 673 million EUA were committed, as follows:

— **Aid managed by the Commission.** The total came to 540.3 m EUA, of which: 454.3 went towards ACP states' target programmes; 25.1 for special aid; 60.9 for STABEX. Out of this total, 360 m EUA were committed in the form of grants, which means that the level of nonrepayable aid was very high (about 80%).

— **Aid managed by the European Investment Bank.** This totalled 116.2 m EUA, of which: 90.9 was in subsidised loans (in ten ACP countries); 25.3 in risk capital (15 risk capital agreements were signed in 1978).

The major features of financial and technical cooperation

The Lomé Convention laid special emphasis on a series of policies and

principles to be followed:

— **Programming.** The ACP's target programmes are so organized as to take account of any changes in the recipient countries' situation. Twenty-two amendments to target programmes, proposed by the ACP states, were accepted by the Commission departments in 1978.

Assessments of how the target programmes should be implemented vary considerably from one country to another, but by choosing the percentage of projects financed in relation to the overall total of the target programme as the target, the ACP states fall into three major categories: there are 17 countries whose target programmes are financed up to between 70 and 100%; 22 where the percentage is between 40 and 70%; and 14, where the percentage is less than 40%.

— **Special measures to help less developed ACP countries.** In 1978, more than 60% of the funds set aside for programmes went to the less developed countries (their population accounts for 42% of the ACP total). Subsidies accounted for 88.3% of the total aid (62.6% for the other ACP countries), 64% went towards risk capital managed by the EIB, also for the less developed countries (whilst the others received assistance from the EIB's own resources, on special, slightly less favourable terms). Out of the 29 countries covered by STABEX, 21 were among the less developed. The less developed ACP States also received 90% of the food aid granted to ACP States as a whole between 1976 and 1978.

— **Regional cooperation.** This chapter of the Lomé Convention covers: a first programme adopted in March 1977: at the end of 1978, the total amount appropriated was 129.4 m EUA; a second programme adopted at the beginning of 1979: the projects are now in their initial stages. The EIB provided 23 m EUA for two regional projects, of which 20 m EUA went towards a clinker plant for Togo, the Ivory Coast and Ghana, and 3 m EUA for a loan to the Caribbean Development Bank.

The Commission notes that although the situation was "not spectacular", it can be considered as satisfactory considering the objective difficulties involved in regional cooperation, especially in the industrial sector.

— **Micro-projects.** The two year experimental period for these projects has now come to an end. The Convention provided for an amount of 20 m EUA, which has been used by 29 ACP

Also in the yellow pages

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

- II. EDF: new financing decisions
- IV. ACP Embassies
- VII. ACP group

GENERAL INFORMATION

- VIII. OAU and Commonwealth conferences

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

- X. Generalized preferences scheme for 1980
- XII. Council of Ministers
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- XV. CID — assistance in industrial joint ventures

states for programmes totalling 18.6 m EUA. The level of actual credit appropriation is 50% and the Commission considers it satisfactory (the projects did not get off to a start until mid-1977).

— **Small and medium-sized firms.** Lines of credit have been opened to the appropriate local financial organizations. In 1978, the Commission approved seven financial proposals for special loans in this sector totalling 4.7 m EUA, and the EIB granted a further 43 m EUA in loans to development organizations from its own resources. 1.4 m EUA was used in the form of risk capital. Specialized agencies have also been set up (Office for the promotion of small and medium-sized enterprises in the Central African Empire, the industrial development centres in Nigeria).

— **Transfers of technology.** Transfers mainly covered development of alternative sources of energy, such as solar, biomass and geothermal energy. Only 4% of the credit used for cooperation in energy were used for technological transfers.

— **Staff and management training.** This covered: grants for courses and traineeships; conferences; exchanges of teaching staff; special training schemes; management training. Priority still goes to training schemes actually in the ACP States.

— **The ACP States' participation in choosing projects and their management.** The Commission emphasises "active cooperation" between the EEC and the ACP States and singles out several ways of simplifying procedures, including: a rapid written procedure for projects totalling less than 1 m EUA (in 1978, this affected 33 projects totalling 18 m EUA); faster procedures for special aid needed immediately (up to a ceiling of 300 000 m EUA—in 1978, there were 14 such transactions totalling 2.9 m EUA).

It is up to the ACP states' own administrations to implement the projects. In general, the Commission has found that this system worked satisfactorily and since the last few months of

1978, payments, and thus implementation of the projects, have speeded up quite considerably. In 1978, 125 invitations to tender were issued, totalling 194.5 m EUA, compared with only 71 in 1977. About 28% of the contracts went to ACP firms (a little less than 23% under the second Youndé Convention).

— **Assessment of operations which have been completed.** In 1978, the Commission departments started to assess projects the EEC had financed in two countries, Niger and Rwanda. These had been chosen as test cases.

The initial results will be available in 1979. Two sectoral assessments of rural integrated development programmes and town water supply projects have also been completed.

Cooperation organizations and procedures

Special organizations and procedures were introduced as early as 1976 and 1977.

The major ones are: The Industrial Development Centre (in 1978, the amount of budgetary funds put aside for the Centre was increased); the Industrial Cooperation Committee; coordination and harmonization of aid: 1978 provided several opportunities to start putting this policy into practice.

The effect of these policies has been that specialized Arab agencies have increased the amount of funds committed in the ACP states. □

EDF

After the favourable opinion given by the EDF committee on 10 July, the Commission took financing decisions on the 11, 13 and 23 July concerning the following countries, and raising the total of commitments under the 4th EDF to 2 018 629 000 EUA:

Mali

Tree felling at the Sélingué dam site.

Grant: 1 293 000 EUA.

When the Sélingué dam comes on stream, this will mean flooding 43 000 ha of land, starting in August 1980. Of this 17 900 ha are woodland carrying an estimated volume of 268 000 m³ of standing timber.

The project involves the recovery of almost all of the wood before flooding is completed in August 1981. Most of it (+ 38 000 t) will be converted into

charcoal, while 4% (+ 1 600 m³) will yield logs suited for sawn timber. The project involves supplying machinery and carrying start-up costs.

The cost of the project to the EDF is estimated at 1 293 000 EUA. Belgian bilateral aid will intervene alongside the Community, supplying 675 000 EUA as a follow-up to a contribution of 280 000 EUA by the German Federal Republic.

Zambia

Cotton development project.

Grant: 1 650 000 EUA.

Special loan: 6 050 000 EUA.

4th EDF.

The cotton development project aims at increasing cotton production in Central and Southern Province of Zambia, by infrastructural improvements in input provision, extension and marketing, by improved management of LINTCO (a newly created government authority charged with cotton development) and a national policy with regard to pricing.

The principle effects will be:

- increase of seed cotton production from 6 500 tons to 20 000 tons by year 6
- increase of farmer income and productivity
- foreign exchange savings.

Benin

Improvement of rural facilities in Mono Province.

Grant: 2 521 000 EUA

4th EDF

The aim of this project is to improve the rural structures and the production facilities of CARDER—Regional Action Centre for Rural Development—so as to accelerate growth in crop production.

The particular aims of the project are the following:

- to create a propagation centre for selected seeds based essentially on maize, and set up facilities for treating, packaging and storage;
- to supplement the network of wells in the province;
- to strengthen CARDER's transport facilities;
- to increase training for rural extension workers.

Benin

Improvement of rural facilities in Ouémé province.

Grant: 2 333 000 EUA

4th EDF

The particular aims of the project are the following:

— to create and equip a propagation centre for the production and packaging of selected seeds;

— to improve the storage conditions of agricultural produce for marketing;

— to increase and improve the network of wells in the province;

— to strengthen CARDER's transport facilities;

— to step up training facilities.

Rwanda

Continuation and extension of the Mwaga-Gisakura tea project.

Grant: 160 000 EUA

2nd and 3rd EDF

The project involved the following:

— technical assistance (in 1973 and 1974);

— 100 ha extension of the Gisakura tea plantations;

— the construction of a tea factory.

Malawi

Central lake fisheries.

Grant: 1 300 000 EUA

4th EDF

The objective of the project is to increase fish supply in Malawi in general and in the area of the lakeshore rural development project in particular.

To this end the project will improve equipment and installations at 13 landing beaches and will there organize extension work on better fish preservation and handling techniques in view of a better utilisation of the actual catch.

In order to open up so far untapped or underexploited fish stock which has been identified in the areas of the lake out of reach of the dugout canoes, exploratory fishing will be carried out by the project.

A boatbuilding programme and credit scheme will help fishermen to explore such areas opened up by the project.

The project includes the provision of infrastructure, vehicles, boats and other equipment and of technical assistance for the above mentioned activities.

Upper Volta

Modernization of the Ouagadougou-Koupéla road (1st tranche).

Grant: 450 000 EUA

2nd and 3rd EDF

The project—financed from the resources of the second EDF—comprised the construction and asphaltting of the first part (Ouagadougou-Korgho, about 100 km) of the road linking Ouagadougou to Koupéla. The second part, Zorgho-Koupéla of about 40 km was financed under the third EDF.

Lesotho

Mafeteng-Tsoloane Road.

Grant: 2 921 000 EUA

4th EDF

The project provides for the reconstruction and bituminization of 23 km (Mafeteng-Tsoloane) of the existing gravelled road, between Mafeteng and Mohale's Hoek (total length: 50 km).

This road is a section of the main national road running generally north-south through the fertile, relatively densely populated lowlands bordering the country on the west.

Zambia

Multipurpose agricultural stores.

Loan on special terms: 2 200 000 EUA

4th EDF

The project involves building thirteen multipurpose agricultural stores and associated infrastructure in provincial and district centres, at Kasama, Mansa and Mumbwa, and in rural agricultural growth centres at Musofu, Mulilima, Kakwalesa, Liteta, Mwachisompola, Muchenje, Chongwe, Shibuyungi, Kaoma and Namwala.

The purpose of the project is to support the drive for increased agricultural production through the timely availability of crop production inputs particularly fertiliser, by the provision of adequate storage facilities, and to reduce the losses inherent in the present storage system arising from undue spoilage and handling.

ASECNA member countries

Grant: 2 860 000 EUA

Extension and functional improvement of some of the buildings housing the African School of Meteorology and Civil Aviation in Niamey and the supply of teaching equipment.

UPDEA member countries

Grant: 2 000 000 EUA

Construction of some of the buildings and supply of technical equipment and teaching aids for the College of Electrical Engineering, a new regional establishment set up at Bingerville in Ivory Coast by the Union of Producers, Conveyors and Distributors of Electric Energy in Africa (UPDEA).

The members of UPDEA consist of fifteen English- and French-speaking African countries.

Nigeria

Grant: 1 280 000 EUA

Grant for the 1976-80 multiannual training programme, which is geared

mainly to two specific fields—water resources and cooperatives.

Kiribati

Grant: 170 000 EUA

Works for the extension of Temaiku fish farm to provide a constant supply of baitfish needed for the development of the tuna fishing industry. Skipjack tuna is the archipelago's only resource.

Surinam

Grant: 350 000 EUA

The purpose of this project is to improve the medical infrastructure in the interior of Surinam by extending three existing medical centres.

In order to do this, the project aims to construct accommodation for the medical staff in these three centres, adapt the existing polyclinics and provide medical equipment and an ambulance for use on all kinds of terrain.

Gambia

Rural training

Grant: 100 000 EUA

The rural vocational training project was designed by the government of the Gambia to help the rural population—88% of the total population with an average per capita income of less than 80 EUA a year—to increase their farm production and their welfare in general.

The project consists of the first cycle of a longer education programme for that part of the population which has had no or very little education.

It is intended to start this programme by the training of a mobile instructor team, test training in 7 villages and 6 skill upgrading training sessions for artisans.

Somalia

Grant: 990 000 EUA

Financing a multiannual training programme (1976-80) involving study awards and a scheme to help set up the National Institute of Statistics and Applied Economics.

Mauritania

Grant: 3 380 000 EUA

Project to build and equip 48 primary classrooms in various parts of the country and two colleges of general education in Nouakchott and Zouérate.

Zambia

Grant: 172 000 EUA

Immediate exceptional aid for the supply of a pontoon landingstage for the Kazungula ferry between Botswana and Zambia. □

EIB

Loan for processing chrome ore in Madagascar

For its first operation in Madagascar under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has granted a conditional loan of 1 190 000 units of account (around 345 million Malagasy francs) for constructing a chrome ore (chromite) dephosphorisation pilot plant at Andriamena, 160 km north of Antananarivo.

The loan has been granted to Madagascar by the EIB drawing on European Development Fund resources which, under the Lomé Convention, are managed by the bank for various risk capital operations.

The project will be implemented by the state-owned company Kraomita Malagasy (Kraoma) which works the mines near the site of the pilot plant; the plant is likely to be commissioned in early 1981.

The pilot plant is considered preparatory investment supplementing feasibility studies of a ferrochromium works. Construction is warranted by the need to lower the phosphorus content of the ore in order to match the technical demands of the process to be used at the works.

The works would be built at a later stage in the light of the results obtained at the pilot plant and boast an annual capacity of 60 000 tonnes of ferrochromium, helping both to expand and develop chromite production.

The government of Madagascar is collaborating with a group of European companies comprising Ugine-Aciers, a subsidiary of Pechiney-Ugine-Kuhlmann (France), Gesellschaft für Elektro-Metallurgie (Germany) and Elkem-Spigerverket (Norway) in installing and running the ferrochromium works which might later be built. □

KIRIBATI

Islands likely to become the 58th ACP country

On 12 July a new Pacific country came into being when the British colony of the Gilbert islands became independent under the name of Kiribati (pronounced Kiribas). The new state is to the north of Tuvalu, Samoa and Tonga, and the islands were once part of the same colonial administration as the Ellis islands—now independent and a member of the ACP group as Tuvalu.

The new country has 55 000 inhabitants and the islands cover an area of



684 km² in 5 million km² of ocean. The capital is on the island of Tarawa, with a population of 17 000.

The islands have had internal self government since January 1977. The chief Minister, Mr Ieremia Tabai, has led the country since November 1978, and on 12 July became Beritetenti, or President, of the new republic.

The assembly has 36 members. The rich phosphate resources of Ocean island (Banaba) are now almost exhausted and the country has to find new sources of income.

Other mineral resources are being sought, and fishing offers great potential as well. Agriculture offers limited potential. The main cash crop is copra. □

ACP EMBASSIES

Three new ambassadors have presented their credentials to the Presidents of the Council and the EEC Commission. They are from Cameroon, Ethiopia, and Lesotho.

Cameroon

Mr Mahmoudou Haman Dicko who was recently made ambassador of the United Republic of Cameroon in Brussels replaces Mr Simon Nko'o Etoungou who had been ambassador for over 7 years.

Mr Mahmoudou Haman Dicko graduated from the Yaoundé agricultural institute in 1942. He started his career in 1943 as a civil servant in the technical services for agriculture and animal husbandry.

The new Cameroonian ambassador to Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg and the EEC started his diplomatic career after a period of training in Paris at the French foreign affairs ministry in 1959. From 1966 until the beginning of 1979 he represented Cameroon, in Lagos, Paris and Addis Ababa and was accredited to Khartoum, Jeddah, Lusaka, Dar-es-Salaam, and Nairobi.

Mr Haman Dicko who is a plenipotentiary in the Cameroon diplomatic service is a very well-known diplomat. He is 52 years old, married, and has 8 children.

Ethiopia

The new Ethiopian ambassador to Brussels, Dr Berhane Ghebray, is 41 years old, married and has two children. He has a doctorate from the University of Paris. Although he is new to the diplomatic world, he has nevertheless had long experience of management and as a specialist advisor. He was legal expert to the Prime Minister (from April 1966 to September 1967 and from January to September



From top to bottom the new ambassadors from Cameroon, Ethiopia and Lesotho present their credentials to Commission President Roy Jenkins

1969). Dr Berhane then became lecturer in the faculty of law at the University of Addis Ababa. In 1972, he was made deputy director of the National Ethiopian Insurance Company and from 1976 managing director of the same company.

From October 1974-September 1976 he was a member of the Civil Advisory Council and deputy chairman of the same council's economic committee. Dr Berhane Ghebray speaks 3 foreign languages, English, French and Italian. He is also the author of a book published in French in 1969: "L'administration locale en Ethiopie" (Local government in Ethiopia).

Lesotho

Mr Lengole Bureng Monyake who now represents Lesotho in Brussels is an economist who graduated from the University of London.

He taught from 1952 to 1961 and then he served as a statistician from 1962 to 1967. He was then appointed director of statistics (1967-1974).

He subsequently became permanent secretary at the Ministry of Industry and Commerce (1974-76) and then deputy senior permanent secretary (1976-78). Mr Monyake is 49 years old, married, and has 3 children. □

STABEX

Under article 18 of the Lomé Convention the Commission sent a proposal to the EEC Council on 19 July that it should ask the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers to authorize the use in advance of a maximum 20% of the 1979 tranche of funds for the stabilization of export earnings. The ACP-EEC Council is the only body which can give such authorization.

The Commission has come to the conclusion that the transfers in 1979 compensating for losses registered in 1978 by certain ACP countries are in excess of the available funds. The 1978 tranche amounted to 76.6 million EUA, to which must be added the remainder from the previous year of 77 million EUA, making a total of 153.6 million EUA.

At present some 118.5 million EUA has already been transferred, and further transfers totalling some 50 million EUA will probably be needed to satisfy requests for compensation presented by certain other countries.

Guinea-Bissau

A transfer agreement for 3 591 506 EUA was signed on 26 July with Guinea-Bissau to compensate for losses suffered by the country in 1978 in its groundnut exports. □

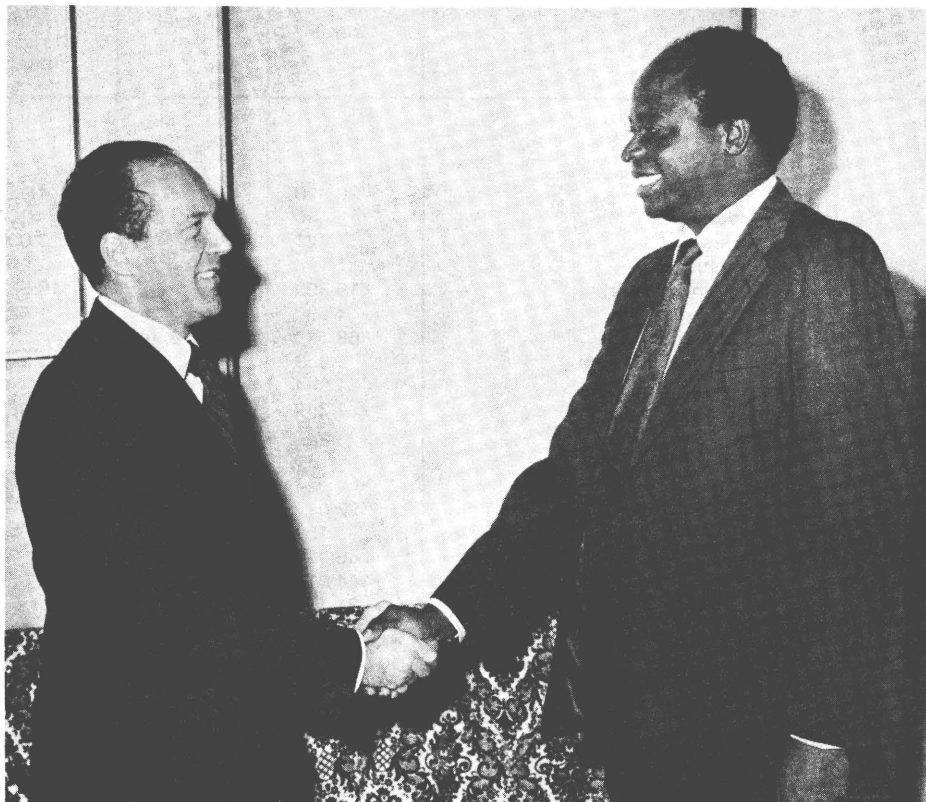
EAST AFRICA

Mr Klaus Meyer's mission

The director-general for development, Mr Klaus Meyer, visited Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda on an official

mission between the 4th and 10th of July 1979.

He was received by ministers and senior government officials with whom he conducted a general survey of the state of implementation of the Lomé Convention and other programmes of mutual cooperation as well as the state of preparations for a new ACP/EEC Convention. □



Kenyan Vice-President Mwai Kibaki welcomes Mr Klaus Meyer to Nairobi

FIJI

Exceptional aid

The Commission decided in July to grant exceptional aid of 300 000 EUA to Fiji under the Lomé Convention. This aid is in response to a request from the government of Fiji and will help deal with the aftermath of the destruction brought about by the cyclone which hit certain islands on 28 and 29 March.

The funds granted must be used for buying and transporting the construction materials needed to rebuild houses and public buildings. □

and its managing director, Sam Montsi, have been making major efforts to attract investment to Lesotho through a range of promotional activities.

In the United States the Minister for Commerce, Industry, Labour and Tourism, Mr Mooki Molapo addressed conferences and visited a number of states. Contact was made with a variety of industrial concerns.

Since its present campaign began the LNDC has met 120 companies, had 18 actual site visits (another 23 are in prospect). Nine projects are under negotiation and 6 have been approved.

The European promotional tour will take place in November and it is planned at present to visit Cologne, Brussels, London and Paris, meeting a number of chambers of commerce, industrial, commercial and financial institutions.

The object will be to make Lesotho better known, and in particular the investment opportunities available. The government and the LNDC have put together a package which they believe will be attractive to foreign investors including tax free holidays, help in establishment, assistance with sites and factory space and access to African, European and American markets. □

LESOTHO

Investment promotion mission to Europe planned

Following a successful mission to the United States in June, the Lesotho National Development Corporation is to repeat the process in Europe in November this year. The Corporation,

STATISTICS

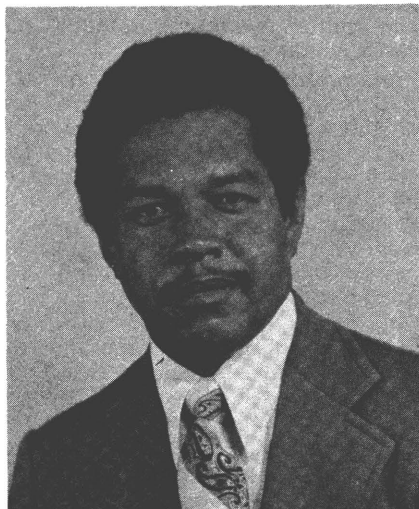
4th EDF State of commitments on 30 June 1979

(in 000 EUA)

Sector	Grants	Special loans	Contribution to formation of risk capital	Total	%	%
I. Development of production				729 329	50.5	38.0
<i>1. Industrialization</i>						
General	20 928	2 365	4 954	28 247		
Extractive industries	2 640	5 000	200	7 840		
Metal industries	721	—	3 000	3 721		
Chemical industries	1 126	—	1 066	2 192		
Manufacturing industries	15 390	53 400	19 584	88 374		
Food and agro-industries	4 597	1 340	462	6 399		
Projects (mainly energy)	68 173	43 820	—	111 993		
Infrastructure in ind-projects	2 353	—	—	2 356		
Craft industries	1 364	—	—	1 364		
Mainly ind. integ. projects	7 342	13 550	24 365	45 257		
<i>2. Tourism</i>	2 041	—	3 250	5 291		
<i>3. Rural production</i>						
General	22 087	6 430	—	28 517		
Plantations	69 156	34 004	—	103 160		
Hydro-agricultural	46 230	13 318	—	59 548		
Agriculture	144 011	4 033	3 650	151 694		
Stock raising	31 172	2 910	—	34 082		
Fishing	9 155	—	—	9 155		
Forests	2 651	1 020	—	3 671		
Various	12 590	—	—	12 590		
Mainly agri. integ. projects	23 878	—	—	23 878		
II. Economic infrastructure				382 876	26.5	20.0
<i>4. Transport and communications</i>						
General	2 400	—	—	2 400		
Roads and bridges	279 400	31 145	—	310 545		
Railways	9 755	24 846	—	34 601		
Ports and waterways	11 556	6 621	80	18 257		
Airports	1 260	1 080	—	2 340		
Telecommunications	10 013	4 720	—	15 153		
III. Social development				303 903	21.0	15.8
<i>5. Education and training</i>						
General	5 774	6 550	—	12 324		
Educational infrastructure	75 862	—	—	75 862		
Sp. projects, professional training and sending instructors	6 661	—	—	6 661		
Scholarships	86 891	—	—	86 891		
Pre-employment probation	—	—	—	—		
<i>6. Health</i>						
General	750	—	—	750		
Infrastructure	42 753	—	—	42 753		
Health campaigns and tech. coop.	—	—	—	—		
<i>7. Water, urbanism, environment</i>						
General	2 832	4 850	—	7 682		
Village water supplies	22 153	9 400	—	31 553		
Urban water schemes	12 198	1 330	—	13 528		
Urban sanitation	8 050	3 750	—	11 800		
Urban projects	10 799	3 300	—	14 099		
IV. Trade promotion				29 160	2.0	1.5
<i>8. Trade promotion</i>						
General	11 251	1 700	—	12 951		
Trade structures	1 368	—	—	1 368		
Fairs and exhibitions	14 791	—	—	14 791		
Trade information	50	—	—	50		
Total I-IV	1 104 175	280 482	60 611	1 445 268	100.0	75.3

Sector	Grants	Special loans	Contribution to formation of risk capital	Total	%	%
V. Exceptional aid				98 083		5.1
Disasters	98 083	—	—	98 083		
VI. STABEX	269 828	—	—	269 828		14.1
VII. Various				106 122		5.5
<i>Various</i>						
Information, documentation	1 547	—	—	1 547		
Seminars	750	—	—	750		
General prog. of tech. coop.	5 911	—	—	5 911		
General studies	820	—	—	820		
Control	97 094	—	—	97 094		
Admin. and financial costs						
Total I-VII	1 578 208	280 482	60 611	1 919 301		100.0

ACP group



Mr H.B. St. John

ACP Council of Ministers

On 1 July Barbados took over the presidency of the ACP Council of Ministers from Gabon. The new president is Mr H.B. St. John, Q.C. deputy Prime Minister of Barbados and Minister of Caribbean Affairs, External Trade, Industry and Tourism.

Mr St. John is a lawyer by profession and is a Queen's Counsellor. He is a prominent member of the Barbados Labour Party and was leader of the opposition in the sixties. He has held his present posts since the party came to power in September 1976.

ACP committee of ambassadors

The ACP committee of ambassadors also has a new chairman in the form of Mr Jerome Ntungumburanye

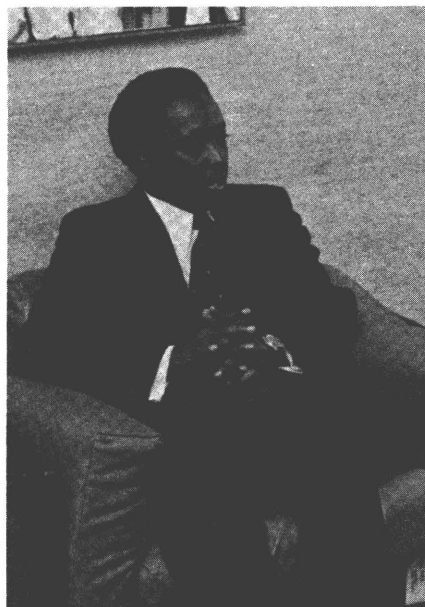
of Burundi who replaces the Jamaican ambassador Mr Donald Rainford.

Mr Ntungumburanye has represented his country in Brussels since 1977 and has behind him a military career, during which he was chief of staff and vice-commander-in-chief of the Burundi armed forces. He was also in the general administration of security and immigration. Later he entered the government where he held the portfolio of information.

The new bureau of the ACP committee of ambassadors is now composed as follows:

Chairman: Burundi (Central Africa);

Members: Ethiopia (East Africa), Sierra Leone (West Africa), Lesotho (Southern Africa), Surinam (Caribbean), Papua New Guinea (Pacific). □



Mr Jerome Ntungumburanye

EXHIBITIONS

Participation of ACP and non-associated developing countries at the London Impo-Expo fair under the Community's promotion programme

London Impo-Expo's aim was to help the ACP and other developing countries enlarge their markets within the EEC. The programme covered three weeks from 16 July to 3 August and included one week on selling techniques, one important exhibition and one follow-up week devoted to consolidation of contacts made during the exhibition.

Strong participation by ACP countries

Within the Community's programme some 21 ACP countries attended: Barbados, Botswana, Central African Empire, Fiji, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Nigeria, Solomon Islands, St. Lucia, Swaziland, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda and Zambia.

The Community also helped 18 non-ACP developing countries: Afghanistan, Argentina, Bangladesh, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, Nepal, Pakistan, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Thailand.

Egypt attended too within the Mashraq agreement, and other countries and territories attending were Antigua, Malta, Monserrat, St Kitts, St Vincent and Tunisia.

The fair was a follow-up to the 1976 London Impo-Expo which was a great success and at which 42 countries were represented. □

GENERAL INFORMATION

Commonwealth Conference

Agreement on Zimbabwe

The first ordinary session of the Commonwealth Conference to be held in Africa came to an end on 4 August in an atmosphere of cooperation and optimism. The discussions were wide ranging including developing economic cooperation, political issues such as apartheid, and of course Zimbabwe (Rhodesia), which dominated the conference.

The issue of Zimbabwe was discussed by an inner group of countries, Australia, Britain, Jamaica, Nigeria, Tanzania and Zambia, who agreed on six points:

- that Britain had a legal responsibility to bring Zimbabwe to legal independence under black majority rule;
- that all parties in the conflict should be involved in a solution;
- that a solution should include a democratic constitution containing safeguard clauses protecting the rights of minorities;
- that a government formed under such a constitution should be chosen after free and fair elections, supervised by Britain and with Commonwealth observers;
- that the Commonwealth welcomed Britain's decision to call all party talks;
- that the object was to end the fighting, lift sanctions and ensure a durable solution;

Some 39 delegations from the 41 members of the Commonwealth attended the Lusaka meeting. Queen Elizabeth II, in her capacity as Head of the Commonwealth formally opened

the session. In total the Commonwealth governments represent almost 1 000 m people in all the continents of the globe.

Twenty-nine of the 41 members are also ACP states. □

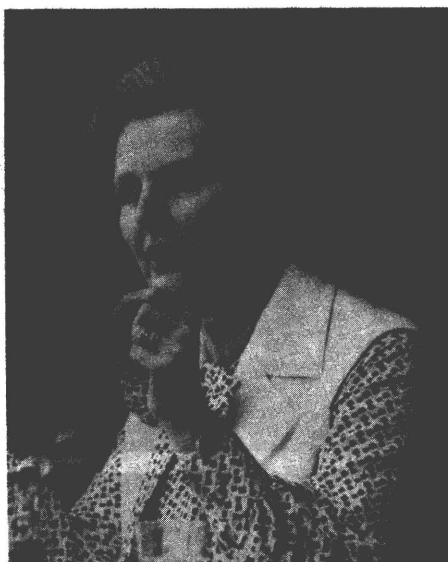
OUA SUMMIT

The 16th ordinary session of the OAU heads of state and government ended in Monrovia, Liberia, on 21 July. President Tolbert, elected chairman for the year, closed the meeting with an appeal for unity.

The meeting covered a wide range of issues, among the most important of which were the Western Saharan conflict, Zimbabwe-Rhodesia, racism in South Africa, the drawing up of an African charter on human rights, and the arrangements for the new pan-African news agency which will be set up in Dakar.

Considering the international economic situation, the OAU Council of Ministers regretted the inadequate results of UNCTAD V in Manila, and noted the more positive state of the ACP-EEC negotiations.

It called on both sides to come to a speedy and satisfactory conclusion and signing of "the new Lomé Convention". □



Two of the leaders lost directly involved in the search for a settlement in Zimbabwe (Rhodesia), Mrs Margaret Thatcher, British Prime Minister, and President Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia

UNITED NATIONS

The European Community's contribution to the UN's International Children's Year

During the July meeting in Geneva of the UN group which monitors activities during International Children's Year, the European Community drew attention to the importance it attaches to children, who make up 20% of Europe's population, even though the EEC treaties in themselves envisaged no global policy in favour of children.

The European Commission has published a leaflet specially for International Children's Year which explains what the Community has done for children. The Commission has also had carried out a major poll of public opinion in the nine Community countries on attitudes and behaviour towards children, and on their needs, the results of which will be published in the autumn of 1979.

The calling of International Children's Year was also the occasion for strengthening various Community policies which affect children.

Among them were 15 million EUA in 1979 from the European Social Fund for the children of migrant workers, and an increase in financial and food aid to the Third World, which partly goes to children. Since it started the EDF has also financed 50 pediatric services, 110 maternity clinics, and 35 mother and child centres in the developing countries.

In conjunction with non-governmental organizations, the Community also financed last year 14 projects affecting children, of which 4 (3 of them in Vietnam) are spread over several years.

It should also be pointed out that these steps taken by the Community are in addition to those undertaken by the individual member states. □

COPPER

No agreement

The Commission participated in the Unctad second intergovernmental group of experts on copper held in Geneva from 25 June-6 July 1979.

The discussions in this group, which had been established by the sixth preparatory meeting on copper to examine a series of specified economic elements for conceivable inclusion in a possible copper arrangement, resulted in deadlock and a divergence of views. The chairman, M. Sirman of Indonesia concluded the meeting, for the record, that the "group was not able to arrive at agreed conclusions on the most appropriate mechanisms for achieving the objective of stabilization of the world copper market or on the modes of cooperation of such mechanisms".

The group was essentially an "expert" meeting requested to give technical guidance for a political deci-

sion by the forthcoming 7th preparatory meeting on copper in October as to whether a negotiating conference on a copper agreement should be convened. In the light of the difficulties encountered during the June-July gathering, the 7th preparatory meeting is likely to involve negotiations over these basically different points of view. □

MAGHREB-MASHRAQ

In July the Commission allocated 1 400 000 EUA from the funds available under the Maghreb-Mashraq cooperation agreements in favour of Syria for the supervision of work on the Tall-Amir Qamishly-Tall A'alo road. □

WHO

Seminar on the health of woman (1)

During the WHO Seminar on Traditional Practices Affecting the Health of Women and Children, held in Khartoum, Sudan, from 10 to 15 February this year, two entire days were devoted to the subject of female circumcision. The meeting provided a suitable medium for exchanges of views and constructive discussions on this topic. All the participants from countries of WHO's African and Eastern Mediterranean Regions unanimously resolved that the practice in all its forms should be abolished.

They showed how aware they were of the need for systematic action and an appropriate approach to deal effectively with this custom, and they recommended the following actions:

— adoption of clear national policies for the abolition of female circumcision;

— establishment of national commissions to coordinate and follow up the activities of the bodies involved—including, where appropriate, the enactment of legislation prohibiting this custom;

— intensification of general education of the public, including health education at all levels, with special emphasis on the dangers and the undesirability of female circumcision;

— intensification of education programmes for traditional birth attendants, midwives, healers and other practitioners of traditional medicine to demonstrate the harmful effects of female circumcision, with a view to enlisting their support for general efforts to abolish the practice.

These recommendations should be helpful to all the countries concerned in dealing with this problem.

Putting them into effect will call for collaborative efforts at all social and political levels, with close coordination between religious, educational and health institutions and community agencies at large.

These increasing efforts on the part of national authorities, together with collaborative actions at the international level, will make effective inroads into this difficult field.

It is to be hoped that the day when female circumcision will be completely abolished is not too far distant. □

(1) Source: World Health, May 1979, WHO, Geneva.

EIB

Loan for a power station in the Lebanon

The European Investment Bank has granted a loan for 7 million units of account towards financing three additional 70-MW generating sets at the Jieh thermal power station near Beirut.

Extension of the Jieh power station is one of the key measures undertaken by the Lebanese government to spur the country's economic revival—increased electricity output is indispensable to the planned—for expansion of industrial and commercial activity and to meet growing domestic demand.

The loan, which has been granted for 10 years at a rate of 5.15%, follows a first loan of 3 million EUA granted in June 1978; both form part of total financing of up to 25 million EUA which the bank has scheduled for part-financing the project (20 million "exceptional aid" offered to Lebanon by the Community, which the bank is implementing in the form of long-term loans, together with 5 million under the terms of the financial protocol between the Community and Lebanon).

This protocol provides for financing totalling 30 million EUA, comprising 20 million EUA of loans from the bank's own resources (i.e. mainly from funds raised on the capital markets) and, from Community budgetary funds, 8 million EUA of grants—intended partly to finance a 2% interest subsidy on EIB loans—and 2 million EUA of loans on special conditions. □

The loans are being spread over the construction period (up to 1981) and disbursed to the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR), a body set up by the state to implement the national reconstruction programme, which on-lends the funds to Electricité du Liban. □

NICARAGUA

Emergency aid

On 25 July Mr Haferkamp, Vice-President of the Commission, received Mr

Eduardo Ramon Kuehl, a special envoy of Nicaragua's new government, to whom he expressed the Commission's sympathy towards the work of economic and democratic reconstruction undertaken by that government.

Mr Haferkamp informed Mr Kuehl of the decisions taken that day by the Commission to grant emergency aid of 200 000 EUA to Nicaragua and to earmark some 2 million EUA, under the programme of financial and technical aid to non-associated developing countries, for reconstruction projects to be submitted to it by the Nicaraguan government.

The head of the Commission delegation to Latin America, Mr Maciotti, will go to Nicaragua immediately to enter into contact with the authorities of the country.

This aid is being granted in addition to the food aid of 1 650 t of cereals and 100 t of skimmed milk powder which, by a Commission decision on 16 July 1979 under the 1979 food aid programme, will be allocated to the International Committee of the Red Cross for its humanitarian work in Nicaragua.

The food aid granted to the ICRC and to the Catholic Relief Service for the people of Nicaragua since the beginning of the year comprises 3 000 t of cereals (including 1 350 t under the 1978 programme) and 360 t of skimmed milk powder (including 160 t under the 1978 programme) of a total value, inclusive of transport costs, of 0.7 million EUA at world market prices and 1.2 million EUA inclusive of refunds. □

ANGOLA

Emergency aid

The Commission is to contribute the sum of 100 000 EUA to help implement a \$2 million programme set up by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to assist some 50 000 Angolan refugees who have returned home on their own initiative. The programme, half of which is being covered by Scandinavian aid, is designed to permit the social rehabilitation of the refugees within a very short time. It mainly involves the supply of agricultural implements, seeds, household utensils, clothing and equipment for schools. □

CORRECTION

An error appeared in report on Upper Volta in issue No 56 of the *Courier*. On pages 11 and 12 the production of sorghum should have been 500 kg/ha and 1 200 kg/ha, and not 500 t/ha and 1 200 t/ha as we indicated. □

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Generalized preferences scheme for 1980

The Commission has recently transmitted to the Council its proposals for the implementation of the 1980 generalized preferences scheme for processed agricultural products and manufactures and semi-manufactures originating in the developing countries. The total value of the Community offer will be around 9 500 million EUA, compared with 7 500 million EUA in 1979.

The Commission points out that its proposals are being presented against the background of an unfavourable economic situation overshadowed by the great uncertainty caused by the increase in the price of energy products. Moreover, the fact that the initial ten-year phase of the generalized preferences is coming to an end—1980 being the last year—is an argument for maintaining the present structure of the GSP scheme. It would be inappropriate to consider making fundamental changes before the guidelines for the second stage of the GSP have been clearly laid down.

While allowing for these two factors, it should be noted, however, that the 1980 scheme contains substantial improvements, notably as regards the offer of industrial products. This improvement demonstrates the Commission's concern to continue pressing ahead with extending on a pragmatic basis the preferential advantages accorded to the developing countries.

An outstanding feature of the 1980 scheme is the inclusion of China among the beneficiaries under the Community's GSP. So far as textile products are concerned, the detailed arrangements for their inclusion in the scheme will be laid down following the conclusion of the EEC-China agreement on trade in textiles.

The 1980 scheme

With regard to **agricultural products**, the Community had already made efforts to assist the developing countries by implementing from 1977 onwards its offer on tropical products—made in the framework of the multi-lateral trade negotiations (MTN)—and in 1979 it extended its offer further. For 1980, therefore, the Commission is simply proposing to make a number of adjustments which it considers necessary, namely: the improvement of the tariff reduction on dried bananas, technical adaptation of the tariff arrangements for Virginia tobacco in order to lessen the effect of the introduction of the EUA on the calculation of the minimum specific duty in certain member states, the possible improvement of the Community reserve share for pineapples other than in slices in order to ensure better use of the quota and, lastly, adaptation of the tariff arrange-

ments for palm oil to take account of the new tariff classification which is being considered by the Council.

With regard to **industrial products other than textiles**, the Commission has adopted 1977 as the reference year for calculating the quotas and ceilings, the result of which is to increase fairly substantially the volume of imports covered by preferential arrangements. In view of the economic situation in the Community, the Commission has proposed for certain sectors either a more moderate increase than would result from the normal calculation, or that the volume be maintained at the same level as under the 1979 scheme. Leaving aside non-sensitive products—for which the normal calculation has been applied in full—the increase in the volume of preferential imports still works out at around 16% (5% for sensitive products, 11% for "hybrid" products and 25% for semi-sensitive products other than refined petroleum products, the volume of which has been frozen at the 1979 level).

In order to align the generalized preferences scheme for **textiles** on the system of quantitative control established in the framework of the multi-fibre agreements (MFA), the Commission is presenting once more in 1980 the same proposal it put forward in 1979, concerning which the Council has already taken a number of decisions of principle.

In the case of **jute and coir products**, the Commission intends to propose that the tariff exemption be maintained in 1980, provided that the voluntary restraint agreement concluded with the principal supplier countries (India and Bangladesh)—which expire at the end of 1979—have been renewed.

Lastly, the Commission will be organizing once again its programme of seminars and publishing its practical guide for representatives of business and trade with a view to improving the use of the GSP by the beneficiary countries.

Ten years of progress

The Community's generalized preferences scheme was implemented on 1 July 1971 for an initial period of ten years, in accordance with the undertaking given in UNCTAD.

For **processed agricultural products** the scheme provides for the partial suspension of tariffs for a list of specific products. The number of products covered rose from 147 in 1971 to 310 in 1979, while the value of permissible preferential imports rose from 450 million EUA in 1974, the first year of application of the GSP in the enlarged Community, to 1 300 million EUA in

1979. Apart from soluble coffee, cocoa butter, preserved pineapples and tobacco, which are subject to tariff quota arrangements, preferential imports are not subject to quantitative restriction.

For **industrial products other than textiles**, the scheme provides for the total suspension of customs duties on all manufactures and semi-manufactures originating in the developing countries, within the limits of a quota or tariff ceiling. The quotas and ceilings are calculated on the basis of imports from all the beneficiary countries in the reference year, plus an additional amount of 5% of imports from non-beneficiary countries in the latest year for which statistics are available.

For the 1980 scheme, 1977 has been adopted as the reference year (replacing 1974) and as the basis for calculating the additional amount (replacing 1976).

The aim of the system is to ensure a steady increase in the volume of preferential imports. In view of the economic situation, however, the Community has had to stipulate more moderate increases at various times, and even in some cases to freeze certain quotas or ceilings, in order to take account of difficulties in the industry or industries concerned. But the overall volume of the offer in the industrial sector (excluding textiles) rose from 2 800 million EUA in 1974 to 5 100 million EUA in 1979, i.e. an increase of 82%.

Under the scheme there are four categories of products, which are subject to arrangements of varying severity, depending on the degree of sensitivity of the products concerned:

— 16 sensitive products (13 EEC and 3 ECSC) subject to a system of tariff quotas allocated in national shares (with a Community reserve share in some cases) with a maximum country amount of 50% (this being the maximum share for any one beneficiary country); reintroduction of customs duties is automatic once the limit is reached;

— 25 "hybrid" products (all EEC) subject to Community ceilings (not allocated in national shares) with maximum country amounts, normally of 50% but reduced to 15% for certain more strongly competitive beneficiary countries;

— 83 semi-sensitive products (80 EEC and 3 ECSC) subject to a general system of Community ceilings with maximum country amounts, backed up by arrangements for surveillance of imports in order to enable customs duties to be reintroduced rapidly in the event of the limit being reached, should a member state so request;

— Lastly, non-sensitive products subject simply to ceilings with maximum country amounts, for which the reintroduction of customs duties in the event of the limit being reached remains, generally speaking, no more than a theoretical possibility.

EIB

Loan for irrigation in Greece

The European Investment Bank has granted a loan for 20 million units of account to help finance an irrigation project in Thrace (North-Eastern Greece).

The loan, granted under the second financial protocol signed between the European Community and Greece, has been made available to the state for 20 years at 6.85%, after deduction of a 3% interest subsidy financed from the Community budget.

The protocol, which entered into force on 1 August 1978, provides for a Community financial contribution of 280 million EUA, including 225 million in the form of loans from the bank's own resources (i.e. chiefly the proceeds of its borrowing operations on the capital markets), 10 million in loans on special conditions (30 years, 2.5%) deployed by the bank as agent for the Community and using Community resources, and 45 million as grant aid also drawn from budgetary resources and used chiefly to finance a 3% interest subsidy on EIB loans totalling up to 150 million EUA.

Depending on the areas concerned, irrigation will be carried out using either surface water from a diversion dam on the Ardas river or groundwater in the Evros valley.

The project will cover a total of 93 250 acres/37 760 hectares in areas which number among the least developed in Greece. In addition to stock-farming, production focuses on the cultivation of wheat, potatoes, vegetables, fruit and sugar.

The works are scheduled to be brought into operation between 1979 and 1985, offering full benefits by 1993. They will make it possible to boost agricultural production for the domestic market and replace certain imported animal products.

The project should, moreover, markedly raise the standard of living of some 17 800 farming families; the intensification of farming should lead to the creation of an extra 5 000 permanent jobs.

This latest operation brings to 101.3 million EUA the volume of financing granted by the bank for irrigation in Greece with six schemes, involving a total area of around 320 000 acres/130 000 hectares, attracting loans.

Finance for industry and tourism in Portugal

The European Investment Bank has advanced 15 million units of account in

support of small and medium-scale ventures in industry and tourism in Portugal. The operation takes the form of a global loan to the Banco do Fomento Nacional (BFN), which is to allocate the proceeds for investment projects selected with EIB approval.

The loan has been granted under the terms of the financial protocol between the Community and Portugal, which came into effect on 1 November 1978. This provides for the granting of 200 million EUA worth of loans from the bank's own resources, the bulk of which will thus be funded out of its borrowing operations on the capital markets.

Three quarters of these loans will attract a 3-point interest subsidy, for which 30 million EUA have been set aside in the Community budget.

The loan carries a term of 10 years and bears interest at 6.25% after deduction of the 3% interest subsidy.

BFN was set up in 1959 as a public institution and is the chief source of long and medium-term investment finance for Portuguese manufacturing industry.

It plays a key role in the implementation of the government's policy of encouraging industrial investment and offering incentives to the private sector to join with the public sector in actively pursuing the economic development of the country.

BFN has already received two global loans from the EIB, for a total of 24 million EUA, under the 150 million EUA exceptional emergency aid package put together by the Community for Portugal at the end of 1975.

The funds were mobilised by the bank in 1976 and 1977 for long-term lending. Of these global loans, 22.9 million EUA have so far been allocated, in support of 40 ventures, involving the creation of some 2 500 jobs.

Loan for Madeira airport, Portugal

The European Investment Bank has also lent 11 million units of account towards financing works designed to improve air traffic safety at Funchal airport, Madeira, Portugal.

The loan has been made to *Aerportos e Navegação Aérea (ANA)*, a public undertaking responsible for airports and air traffic control, for 15 years at 6.6% after allowing for a 3% interest subsidy financed from the Community budget.

The project, costing at a total of some 22 million EUA, involves constructing safety areas (stopways) at each end of the runway, extending the parking apron, improving runway lighting, beacons and radio navigation aids and resurfacing the runway. The works are expected to be completed in the first half of 1982.

The part of the generalized preferences scheme dealing with textiles is being revised to take account of the agreements concluded in the context of the MFA. Under the old scheme the Community offer rose from 68 000 tonnes in 1974 to 87 000 tonnes in 1979, i.e. an increase of 29%.

Examination of the schemes for successive years shows that the preferential opportunities made available by the Community have risen consistently for all categories of products, notwithstanding the more modest increase for certain of the more sensitive products. The total value of the Community's offer rose from 3 250 million EUA in 1974 to around 7 500 million EUA in 1979. The average rate of use of the ceilings and quotas is about 60%, the actual rate being in general higher for the more sensitive categories.

In addition, from 1975 onwards the Community has steered its scheme in the direction of more balanced distribution of the preferential advantages, by making access to the preferential advantages easier for the least developed countries and at the same time restricting the benefit derived by the most competitive countries.

Since 1979 the 25 least developed countries, as given in the United Nations list, have been granted total suspension of customs duties on agricultural products and, with regard to industrial products, exemption from the reintroduction of customs duties in the event of ceiling or quota limits being exceeded. □

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Indochinese refugee rescue operations

Acting on the resolution adopted by the European Parliament on the tragedy of the Indochinese refugees, Mrs Simone Veil, President of the European Parliament, has forwarded a cheque for US \$1 368 430 the equivalent of 1 000 000 EUA, to Mr Poul Hartling, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

In its resolution of 19 July 1979, the European Parliament, deeply concerned at the mortal danger threatening the South-East Asian refugees, decided to allocate this sum to the United Nations High Commission for Refugees to enable it to "step up its operations to rescue the boat people".

In her letter to the High Commissioner, Mr Poul Hartling, the President expressed the hope that by means of this contribution the European Parliament could participate, in a spirit of effective international solidarity, in the efforts to help the victims, whose lives are threatened by the situation. □

Studies will also be conducted with a view possibly to extending air traffic facilities which at present handle more than 600 000 passengers a year, mostly holidaymakers.

Tourism in fact plays a key role in the economy of Madeira with its 250 000 inhabitants.

These operations brings to 231 million EUA total financing provided by the EIB for Portugal's economic development.

Loans for hydroelectric scheme and industrial ventures in Turkey

The European Investment Bank has advanced 56 million units of account (almost 3 600 m Turkish liras) in Turkey to promote hydroelectric power and small and medium-scale private industrial ventures, mostly export-oriented.

Three operations have been mounted: a 36 million EUA loan on special conditions using the budgetary resources of the Community, and two global loans, for 15 million and 5 million EUA respectively, using the bank's own resources.

This is the first finance to be accorded under the third financial protocol signed between the European Community and Turkey, which came into effect on 1 May of this year and covers the period up to 31 October 1981.

This provides for the mobilisation by the bank of funds totalling 310 million EUA, consisting of 220 million EUA in the form of special loans, granted by the bank as agent for the Community and using funds from its budget (carrying terms of 40 years including 10-year grace periods, with interest charged at 2.5% per annum), and 90 and 90 million EUA in the form of loans from EIB resources, largely made up of the proceeds of its borrowing operations on the capital markets.

Small and medium-scale industrial ventures

The two global loans have each been granted with a 15-year term and a 9.6% rate of interest to the Turkish government, which will on-lend the funds to the Industrial Development Bank of Turkey—TSKB (15 m EUA) and the Industrial Credit and Investment Bank—SYKB (5 m EUA).

These two loans are the first of financing operations, which the bank plans to mount in Turkey with the agreement of the Turkish government, in support of small and medium-scale private industrial ventures, for a total amount of up to 60 million EUA.

To date, global loan financing of industrial development in Turkey by the EIB (30.2 m EUA channeled through TSKB and 10 m EUA via SYKB) has

helped to bring 63 investment projects to fruition, it being estimated that some 6 200 jobs have been created in the process, and 2 200 more safeguarded.

Hydroelectric scheme

The 36 million EUA loan on special conditions has been granted out of the Community's budget resources to the Turkish government, towards the upgrading of the Keban hydroelectric power station on the Euphrates in south-eastern Anatolia.

The project, which is being implemented by the State Hydraulic Works—DSI—involves the installation of 4 additional generating sets with a combined capacity of 720 MW, giving scope for raising output by about 2 000 GWh per annum.

The first of the new sets is scheduled for commissioning in mid-1981 and the other three will be phased in successively.

In coming years, the demand for electricity in Turkey is expected to rise by 12% per annum on average and the expansion of the Keban scheme should mean it will be possible to stay abreast of this increase and obviate the need for importing electricity.

The EIB has already advanced 40 million EUA worth of credit for the hydroelectric complex at Keban, which came on stream in 1973. □

EEC COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

Conclusions of and follow-up to the Geneva conference on South-East Asian refugees

The EEC Council confirmed the undertakings made by the Community in Geneva regarding the provision of emergency food aid for refugees of South East Asia through the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

These undertakings are as follows:

- The provision of 20 000 tonnes of rice (in addition to the 8 000 tonnes already approved by the Council decision of 4 July 1979) to cover 50% of the needs of refugees in South-East Asia up to February 1980;
- the provision of 1 500 tonnes of vitaminized milk powder (in addition to the 1 500 tonnes already approved by the Council decision of 4 July 1979);
- the provision of 10 m EUA for the general programme of the UNHCR for refugees in South-East Asia;
- the allocation of 2 700 tonnes of rice

for Cambodian refugees in Vietnam through the UNHCR.

The Council also decided to earmark for Cambodia—as regards both the populations expelled by Thailand and those remaining in Cambodia—an appropriation of 4 m EUA to be implemented as and when the appropriate channelling could be arranged through international organizations.

The Council invited the Permanent Representatives Committee to make the necessary technical arrangements and agreed to re-examine the matter of food aid to Vietnam at its September meeting in the light of the developments in this area in the intervening period. □

EEC-ASEAN

Towards a commercial and economic cooperation agreement

The Commission has decided to propose to the Council the conclusion of a commercial and economic cooperation agreement with the member countries of the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN).

The Commission has already had exploratory conversations on the form and content of the proposed agreement with the five ASEAN governments as decided at the ministerial meeting between the Community and ASEAN in Brussels in November 1978.

From the Community viewpoint a formal cooperation agreement would facilitate and encourage European participation in the economic growth of one of the most rapidly-developing areas of the world which is also a major source of raw materials.

For the ASEAN countries an agreement with the Community would help them to achieve a better balance as between their different economic partners and would provide an impetus to their internal economic integration.

This would in turn strengthen the political stability of the region, which is a vital element in preserving the peace of the whole of South East Asia, as the Community specifically recognized on the occasion of the ministerial meeting.

The proposed agreement

The aim would be to conclude an agreement providing a framework for strengthening and diversifying trade and economic cooperation between the two regions. A joint cooperation committee would be set up for the purpose of exploring and implement-

ing the different practical forms of cooperation.

In the trade field the agreement would be non-preferential. The parties would undertake to develop and diversify their trade, to study ways and means of overcoming non-tariff obstacles to trade and to cooperate in solving common commercial problems, particularly with respect to commodities.

The JCC would also provide a forum for reviewing trade promotion activities and for consultations on measures likely to affect trade.

In the field of economic cooperation, taking into account the potential complementarity of the two regions, the parties would commit themselves to encouraging closer industrial cooperation and mutually beneficial investment, as well as cooperation in the fields of science and technology, energy, the environment, transport and communications.

The agreement would be of an evolutionary nature, flexible enough to take account of economic and political developments on both sides.

No area of cooperation within the competence of the contracting parties would be excluded in advance.

The economic background

Taken together the five ASEAN countries have a total population of 247 million (1977), only slightly less than the Community. The economies of the member countries are among the most rapidly growing in the world.

Within ASEAN between 1973 and 1978, the annual growth rate of gross domestic product in real terms varied between 6.8% and 7.9%, compared to the Community's growth rate of less than 3%. In terms of GNP per capita (1976) the five countries range from \$250 in Indonesia, \$380 in Thailand, \$410 in the Philippines, \$860 in Malaysia and \$2 700 in Singapore.

The ASEAN region is exceptionally rich in natural resources. It is the principal world supplier of natural rubber (80%), abaca fibres (80%), tropical hardwoods (75%), palm oil (60%), and coconut (50%) as well as being a significant producer of oil, copper, sugar, coffee, tobacco, rice and tin.

Trade with ASEAN has been expanding fast, though the Community's share in ASEAN's external trade has continued to fall behind that of Japan. EC exports to ASEAN rose from 1 656 million EUA in 1973 to 3 860 million EUA in 1978, increasing from 2.05% to 2.22% of the Community's total exports. EC imports over the same period rose from 1 777 to 4 280 million EUA (from 2.11 to 2.34% of total imports).

From the ASEAN point of view the Community's share in the region's

exports fell from 15.7% in 1973 to 14.7% in 1977 while its share of total ASEAN imports fell from 16.5% to 14.6%.

Japan is now ASEAN's major trading partner with over 25% of its external trade, followed by the US with over 20%.

In the field of foreign investment Japanese investments in ASEAN have grown rapidly and at the end of 1977 were estimated to represent 32% of total foreign investment over the previous ten years.

Community investment on the other hand has fallen during the same period and stands at 14% of the total. The USA had 16% of the total. □

ENERGY

Mr Brunner receives Mr Gherab, Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on new and renewable energy sources

In response to the invitation from Mr Guido Brunner, the Commissioner responsible for energy, Mr Mohamed Gherab, secretary-general of the United Nations conference on new and renewable energy sources, visited the Commission of the European Communities in July 1979 for talks with the Commissioner and his principal advisers.

The visit is in preparation for the conference on new and renewable sources of energy, which has been convened for 1981 by the United Nations General Assembly.

The purpose of the conference is to plan concerted measures for promoting the development and use of new and renewable energy sources to help meet all future energy requirements, especially those of the developing countries, in conjunction with efforts to speed up their development.

The first meeting between the secretary-general of the conference and the Commission produced a fruitful discussion on the new and renewable energy sources which have been put on the conference agenda: solar, geothermal, wind and tidal energy, ocean thermal energy conversion, biomass conversion, firewood, charcoal, peat, draught animals, oil shales, tar sands and hydro power.

The Secretary-General stressed the importance of a major and practical contribution by the Community to preparation of the Conference.

Mr Gherab and Mr Brunner agreed to maintain contacts between the Commission and the conference secretariat until 1981. □

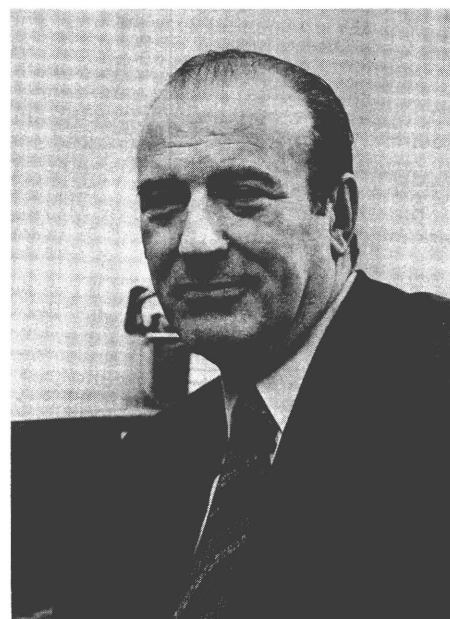
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE

A new chairman

At its 169th plenary session on 28 June the EEC's economic and social committee selected a new chairman to replace Mrs Fabrizia Baduel Glorioso, who had been elected to the European Parliament earlier in the month.

The new chairman is Mr Raffaele Vanni who was general secretary of the Italian trade union organization, l'Unione Italiana del Lavoro, and an executive committee member of the economic and social committee between 1969 and 1976.

He is currently a member of national council for economics and labour in Italy and a secretary of l'Unione Italiana del Lavoro.



Raffaele Vanni

The economic and social committee has not been uninvolved in the negotiations on a new ACP-EEC convention.

A delegation led by Mr Precigout attended the huge meeting in Geneva in June which brought together representatives of economic and social bodies from the ACP and EEC countries.

The meeting was held on the initiative of the joint committee of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly.

The committee has also entrusted to its section on external relations the drawing up of two studies, one on development cooperation policy and the economic and social consequences of applying certain international norms regarding working conditions, and a second on the problem of investment guarantees within the context of relations between the Community and the developing countries. □

EEC-YUGOSLAVIA

Negotiations

The negotiations between the Community and Yugoslavia were resumed in Brussels on 2 and 3 July with a view to concluding a cooperation agreement to take over from the trade agreement which has been tacitly extended since 30 August 1978.

The Yugoslav delegation was headed by Mr. Stojan Andov, a member of the federal executive council responsible for EEC and EFTA affairs; the Community delegation was led by Mr Wilhelm Haferkamp, the Vice-President of the Commission responsible for external relations.

This negotiating meeting was designed to enable both delegations to state their respective positions and views on the future of EEC-Yugoslavia relations, taking into account Yugoslavia's specific situation as a non-aligned European, Mediterranean country and member of the Group of 77, and the outcome of the discussions held in February and April 1978 and the exploratory talks conducted by Mr Haferkamp in Belgrade in June 1978.

The cooperation agreement under discussion is a new type of agreement but follows along the lines of the Belgrade joint declaration, which was signed on 2 December 1976 and testifies to the two parties' wish to strengthen, deepen and diversify their cooperation links.

The delegations firmly expressed satisfaction at the excellent atmosphere in which their work was conducted.

They agreed to hold a further negotiating session at a date to be determined in the near future. □

URANIUM

The commission grants 5 m EUA for prospecting

On a proposal from Mr Guido Brunner, the Commission has just approved the distribution of the 5 000 000 EUA allocated for 1979 as aid to uranium prospecting programmes within the Community.

Thirteen of the eighteen requests for aid received by the Commission were granted, eight of them concerning new programmes. The prospecting areas are in Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Unit-

ed Kingdom (Scotland and Northern Ireland) and Denmark (Greenland).

This financing operation under article 70 of the EURATOM treaty covers the period up to 1981. This is the fourth tranche of a programme that started in 1976. □

TRADE

Oil imports burden Community's external trade balance

In the first quarter of 1979 the EEC's external trade grew much more feebly than internal trade, according to the latest edition of *Eurostatistics*. Imports went up by 10.2% (as against the same period of the previous year) to 47.3 bn EUA.

Increased demand for oil and higher oil prices were mainly responsible. Meanwhile exports increased by only 8% to 43.5 bn EUA; not least because of the weak economic recovery in the USA. Import coverage was thus only 92% and the deficit on the trade balance widened to -3.8 bn EUA (1st quarter 1978: -2.6 bn EUA).

The upward economic trend in Italy also had an impact on its imports from non-EEC countries (+26.9% for the first three months) with the expansion in oil imports putting a strain on the trade balance.

However, even with the stronger position of the lira, exports also increased considerably thus moderating the worsening of the trade balance, which widened by 302 m to -869 m EUA.

The United Kingdom did not profit fully from the advantages of its own oil production: imports decreased by 3.9%, but at the same time exports shrunk by 8.2%. The result was an enlarged deficit of -1 304 m EUA in January to March 1979 as against -979 m in the same period of 1978.

The Netherlands also reported a higher deficit (-1 814 m EUA), although it had the lowest import coverage rate of 61% followed by Ireland with 63%. The largest absolute deterioration of a trade balance was that for Germany, whose surplus was reduced by 394 m to +2 210 m EUA. □

RESEARCH

Commission's second energy research programme approved

The second four-year energy research programme submitted by the

Commission, as proposed by Mr Guido Brunner, has just been approved by the Council. This almost triples expenditure on solar energy research and doubles the effort put into energy conservation.

However, the level of expenditure proposed by the Commission and approved by the European Parliament has been reduced by the Council from 125 million to 105 million EUA.

The new programme, which runs from July 1979 to June 1983, represents a continuation of the first four-year energy research and development programme, which got under way in July 1975.

With the funds it provides the Community will be able to finance several hundred cost-sharing contracts with industrial undertakings, universities and research establishments in the member states, even though the reduction in the allocation of funds means that it will not be able to carry out all the projects which had been planned.

The programme is divided into five sub-programmes: (the figures in brackets indicate the funds allotted under the 1975-79 programme)

- energy conservation 27 million EUA (11.38 million EUA);
- production and use of hydrogen 8 million EUA (13.24 million EUA);
- solar energy 46 million EUA (17.50 million EUA);
- geothermal energy 18 million EUA (13.00 million EUA);
- systems analysis and strategy studies 6 million EUA (3.88 million EUA).

In the solar energy sector major importance continues to be attached to photoelectric energy generation, advanced solar heating technologies and the generation of energy from biomass, which are particularly promising under the conditions in the Community.

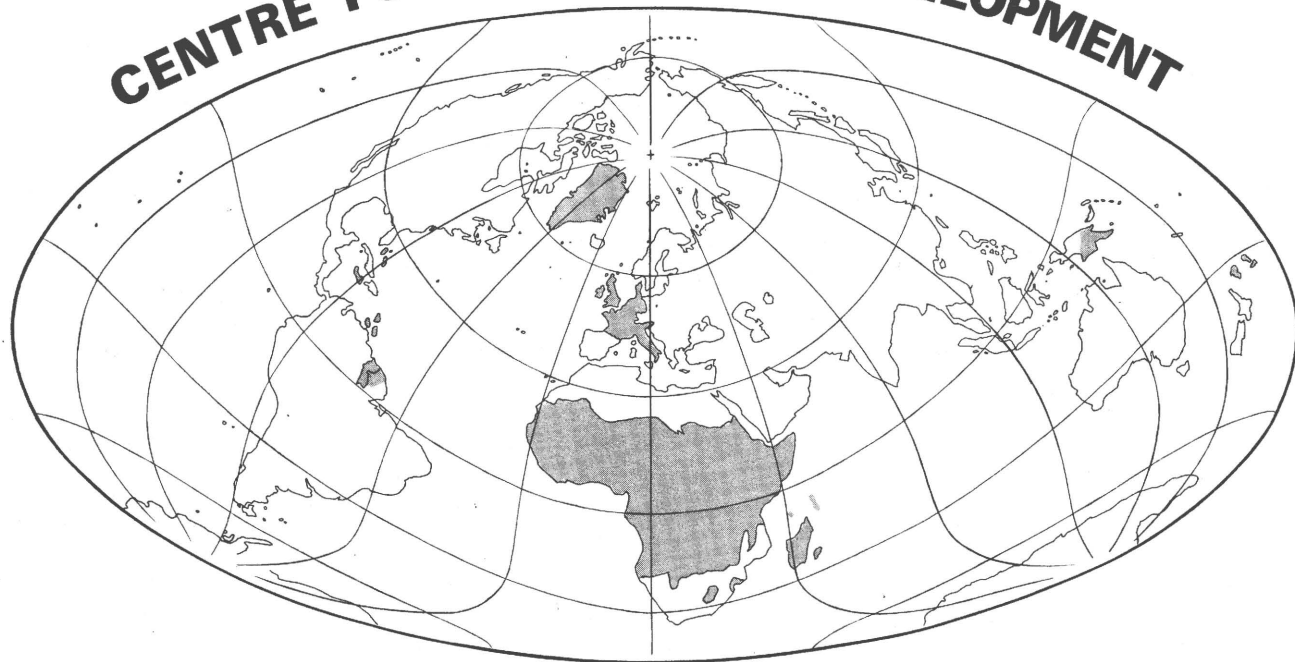
Funds are also being provided for the completion and testing of the 1 MW solar power station which is being built in Sicily.

Research on energy conservation relates to the three most important energy-consuming sectors: households, industry and transport. Two other important areas are also covered: energy conversion and the transport and storage of secondary energy.

In financing the production and use of the hydrogen sub-programme, account is being taken of the fact that only in the long term will hydrogen be competitive as an energy carrier, although it is already important as a chemical starting material.

In the geothermal sector efforts will concentrate on locating promising areas, on assessing their geothermal potential and on research in connection with the exploitation of hot rocks. □

CENTRE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT



BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

CID assistance in industrial joint ventures

The Centre is receiving large numbers of requests for assistance in setting up industrial joint ventures in the ACP states. When these requests are supported with sufficient information, the Centre can move quickly to an assessment of the proposed project and to the search for potential joint venture partners. But when the request lacks supporting information, we find it necessary to write back to the sponsors asking for the additional data. This issue of Business Opportunities contains some guidance on the supporting information which is needed. The Centre welcomes requests for assistance in the setting up of industrial joint ventures.

Opportunities in ACP states — Offers from EEC firms

Furniture industry in Kenya

Ref. 79/58a

The Kenya External Trade Authority (Ministry of Commerce and Industry) is looking for enterprises that are interested in a collaboration in the form of a joint venture, subcontracting, or transfer of know-how for the furniture industry.

Kenya has a wide range of softwoods and hardwoods suitable for commercial exploitation. Many of

the hardwoods have long been established in the high quality furniture market. Further information is available from the Centre or direct from the Kenya External Trade Authority. P.O. Box 43137 — Nairobi.

EEC offer of joint-venture in flour milling

Ref. 79/59b

A well-established EEC company has developed a compact flour mill with a capacity of processing 300 kg-1 000 kg of wheat, per hour.

This could provide a yield of good quality flour to meet the demands of a market of up to 25 000 people.

The mill can be adapted for use with other cereals.

The mill is supplied in a container and cost is of the order of UK£ 50 000 f.o.b. at a European port.

The company is interested in supplying the mill and the necessary training: equity participation can be arranged.

EEC offer of joint-venture in tyre retraining

Ref. 79/60b

An EEC company offers complete plants for the vulcanizing of new treads onto worn truck tyres, bus tyres and the types of earth moving vehicles. Such plants can be profitable at scales of 10 000 tyres a year or more.

The company offers joint venture participation in equity.

Industrial development by joint venture

The Centre for Industrial Development receives each day requests for new manufacturing projects in ACP states. This is most encouraging and the Centre does all it can to respond to the requests for assistance by getting these proposals examined, discussed with potential joint venture partners and eventually moved towards implementation. In general, proposals coming from the public sector are well prepared and the Centre is able to move quickly to the search for a technical partner.

A large proportion of proposals, particularly from the private sector, however, are quite incomplete and the Centre has to enter into correspondence with the sponsor setting out the need for additional information. The Centre is heavily overloaded with requests and delays are inevitably occurring.

It should be recognized that if the Community industrialist is to be persuaded to study a particular proposal for a joint venture in an ACP state, it is essential that the proposal is clear and convincing in its statement of:

- the product which is to be manufactured;
- the market which is to be served;
- the availability and cost of the raw materials;
- the amount of equity which the technical partner is invited to take.

And last but not least, the enquiry should be accompanied by the name of a bank which is willing to supply references.

The initial request does not need to be a full feasibility study but should include the above information which is the minimum required to attract the attention of the Community industrialist. This article sets out some guidance as to the type of information to be compiled.

The product

This is a simple statement of the product, or products and, where appropriate, the price to which the product will be put. It should be set out in sufficient detail to enable the types of plant and machinery required to be determined.

The market

This information is critical and may require a preliminary market survey. If the product is to replace an imported product, a good starting point will be the import statistics produced by government but care will be needed in interpreting the statistics as the categories of product classification are often very broad, a market survey should include an assessment of the competing products whether they are imported or are locally produced.

If the product is currently imported, the survey should show the landed cost of the imported product, the import taxes payable, and the price paid by the wholesaler to the importer. It will be useful also to give a description of the present pattern of trading e.g. importer-wholesaler-retailer and the intended pattern of trading e.g. manufacturer-wholesaler-retailer, or manufacturer-retailer.

It is essential that the technical partner should be able to compare the pricing of the manufactured product with the existing price structure. If it is intended to export the product, the necessary market study might best be left until a prospective technical partner has been found.

Raw materials

If the planned manufactured is largely an assembly operation, the bulk of the raw materials will be imported. In this instance you should identify which raw materials, if any, are to be obtained locally. Check on their quality and their price and include this information.

If the product is to be made largely from local raw materials, it is essential to specify the cost of suitable raw materials delivered to the factory. The question of suitability can be difficult: in the case of industrial minerals it will be sufficient in the first instance to enclose a copy or extract from an analysis or a geological survey report. If this is not possible, it is recommended that you send a 2 kg sample by separate mail. In the case of industrial minerals, moreover, the information should be given as to the extent of the deposits (and thus how long they will last).

Fixed and working capital

If you have not been able to calculate the fixed and working capital requirements, the Centre will be pleased to be of assistance. It would however be helpful if you could make your best estimate of the

total finance involved and the manner in which you suggest the finance should be raised. The whole of the fixed and working capital has to be found by way of loan and equity, the two must not be confused. If it is planned to cover 60% of the cost by way of loan, then the remaining 40% must be covered by equity.

This example has a debt/equity (D/E) ratio of 60/40 or 1.5/1. Higher ratios are possible: a high D/E is called "high gearing", it carries its own risks but does sometimes permit the best of production equipment to be used.

Once the debt/equity ratio has been decided, you must find the equity. If the equity is to be held locally, there may be no problem. If however, you want a foreign partner to take joint venture equity, then you must decide how much equity you want him to take.

The maximum amount a foreign partner can take may be determined by your national legislation. But apart from this, you may not be able to find a foreign partner willing to take more than say 25% of the equity. That would mean in the example quoted that he subscribes 25% of 40% of the total capital required i.e. 10%.

The Centre welcomes enquiries or proposals for new or expanded industrial ventures. Enquiries should be fully supported by the information discussed herein. All such requests and proposals will be progressed as quickly as possible. The Centre will normally check the information to determine that it is complete and that the project appears to be viable.

We then make direct contact with industrialists whose interests seem to match the enquiry and we publish the existence of the proposal far and wide in the Community.

Towards effective industrial cooperation

The role of the Centre is based upon the need to foster mutually profitable cooperation between experienced EEC and ACP industrialists.

Many ACP states wish to see this cooperation involve a level of equity participation which is sufficient to ensure that the EEC partner deploys and continues to deploy management resources which are adequate to bring about good professional and industrial training of ACP personnel at all levels and ensure the long term profitability of the project.

Figure 1 illustrates the types of skills which may be contributed to such a venture and the need for a control structure which will lead to the necessary cooperation.

This structure with adequate control may be contrasted with Figure 2. Figure 2 illustrates a form of so-called technology transfer and industrial cooperation which has been commonly practiced hitherto.

This type of cooperation, typically based on the use of consultants in the preliminary phases and then a turn key contract, is unlikely to lead to long term transfer of technology and has been known to result in manufacturing facilities which rapidly become inefficient.

The CID can help to promote long term cooperation and durable transfer of technology. Where the ACP principal so wishes, the Centre looks for the EEC partner who is prepared to make a real equity investment. However the CID takes care to check that the taking of equity constitutes a real investment at an adequate level and is not a cloak for the setting of hardware.

Figure 1

ACP project and industrial cooperation promoted by CID

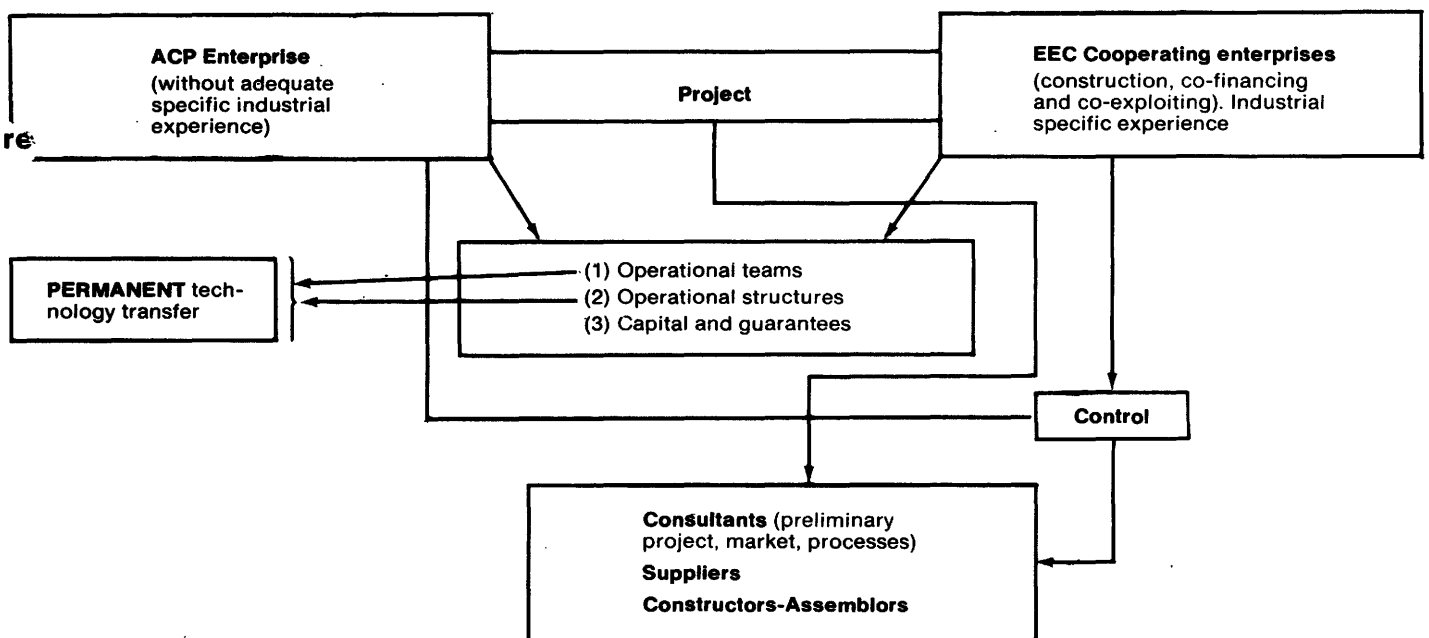
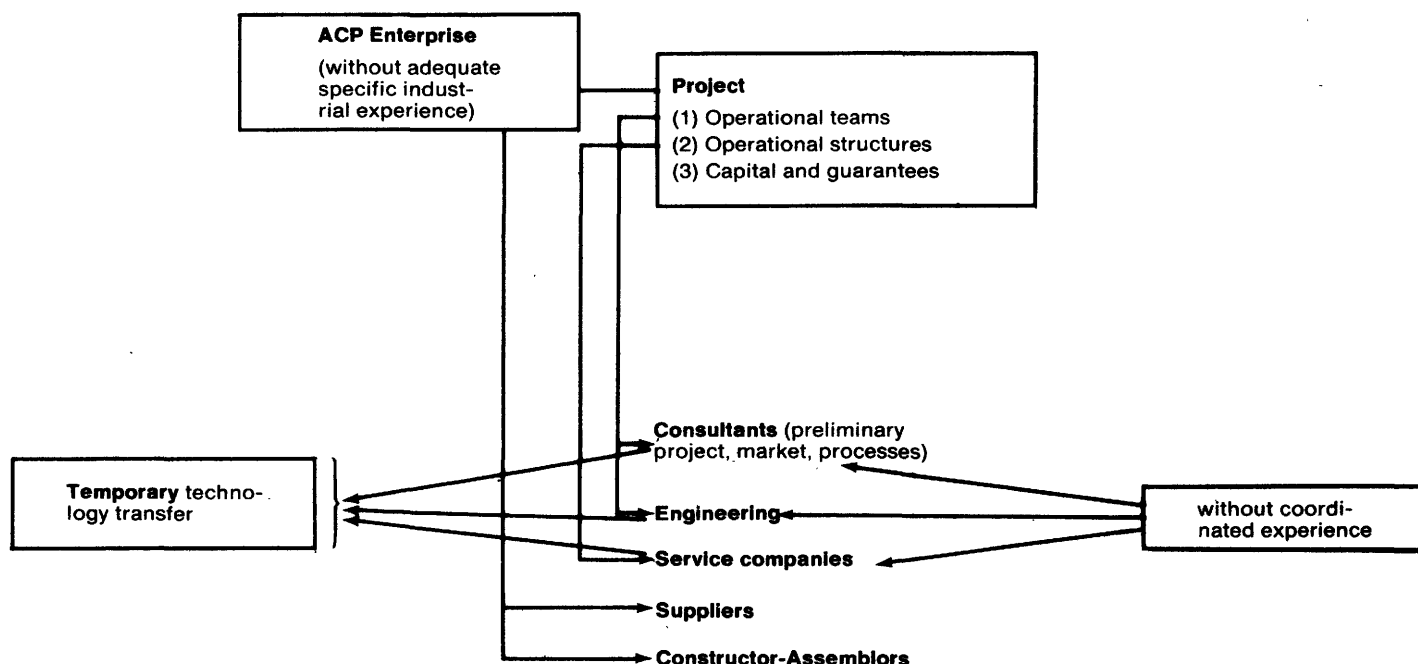


Figure 2

General situation 5 for the implementation of an industrial ACP project



**Information meeting for European businessmen in the timber and furniture trades
Brussels, 4 October 1979**

This meeting will be held at the Centre for Industrial Development. It is in line with the policy established by the timber-producing countries in general, and those of the Economic Community of West African States in particular (and at the request of the ECO-WAS executive secretariat, which has carried out regional economic and customs surveys), to increase the return on their timber by processing it locally into manufactured products.

This adds a great deal of value to the raw material.

The aim of the meeting is to encourage the Europeans to set up new industries in the timber-producing countries to manufacture:

- domestic furniture
- office furniture
- furniture for collectives
- building materials for both indoor and outdoor uses.

These new industries may be set up in partnership with local entrepreneurs or in any other way acceptable to the producing countries.

Participants can count on receiving all the information they need to consider starting or setting up such industries, including data on the kinds of timber

available, on the cost of factors of production, on local and regional markets and export potential to Europe and the USA, and on the assistance the CID can offer.

European businessmen interested in this sector who have not yet received an invitation to the meeting are cordially invited to contact the CID. □

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) 735 80 73.**

Is a European energy policy now possible at last?

by Jean Claude RENAUD(*)

In the period following the 1973-74 crisis, despite the shock it gave the EEC countries, the divergence of interests amongst them and the prerogatives they insisted on preserving prevented all but very slow progress in working out a European energy policy. At this time the Commission set about gathering together all the common features of the member states' policies to form the basis for a collective approach.

Although the tension generated by the events in Iran resulted from a relatively small gap between supply and demand—the latter, as it happened, swollen by the harsh winter—it has led to further serious disturbances in the international oil market, which have lasted some months now. The energy problem, hitherto treated by some with a measure of levity, has again become one of the politicians' main worries. However, unlike five years previously, the Nine—bringing into play a common desire to act, many times expressed, notably at the last European Council meeting in Strasbourg—were able to give particular impetus to cooperation among industrialized countries on energy policy. There was a good meeting in Tokyo earlier this summer.

Pre-1979

Before the Iranian crisis the Community set about singling out a number of basic guidelines on which all the member states would be able to agree and transforming some of these guidelines into action.

Unanimous agreement was reached on the following guidelines:

- reducing the Community's dependence on imports and cutting down the share of oil in its energy supplies;
- diversifying the source of those supplies as far as possible;
- developing the rational use of energy;
- encouraging the establishment of new sources of energy.

These principles are expressed in papers prepared by the Commission on

the objectives for 1985 and then for 1990.

Although it would seem obvious that nuclear energy should play an important part in supplying the Community with energy, some member states have not yet been able to commit themselves to using this source. The Commission has presented three communications on the resources to be deployed to solve certain problems raised by the use of nuclear energy (reprocessing fuels, disposal of radioactive waste, fast breeders).

On a practical level, these principles were set out either as directives and regulations or as proposals concerning the various fields of application.

The rational use of energy

Measures were adopted governing the heating of buildings, the use of energy in industry, the operation and labelling of household appliances.

In this field, as in that of new sources of energy, pilot projects, presented by the bodies concerned in the various member states, have been financed with Community aid (the total available for these schemes amounts to 55 million EUA over a period of four years for energy-saving and 95 million EUA over five years for new sources of energy, including the conversion of coal).

Coal

Practical steps have been taken, involving in particular large-scale technical research. Other measures are planned in order to promote the use of coal in power stations and to encourage trade in steam coal between member states.

Oil and natural gas

Even before the 1979 difficulties arose, the Community was granting financial aid for projects to develop new techniques for oil and gas exploration and exploitation under difficult conditions, as in the North Sea. The European Investment Bank, for its part, was financing gas works and the construction of oil and gas pipelines.

Efforts were also being made to ensure some transparency in the transactions of the oil companies and

measures were planned to cope with any serious supply crisis.

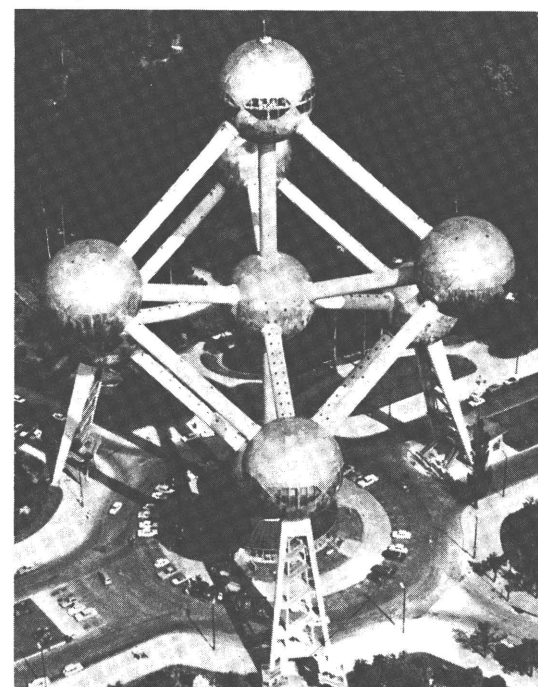
Nuclear

Apart from the communications referred to above, the Commission is carrying on its back-up action for nuclear development in the member states: uranium prospection on Community territory, safety of reactors, health protection, monitoring of nuclear plants. All these schemes show how eager the Community is that this, in its opinion essential, source of energy should not go unused, and at the same time promote the objectives of the Euratom treaty, notably in respect of the protection of workers, the safety of the population and the protection of the environment.

Since March 1979

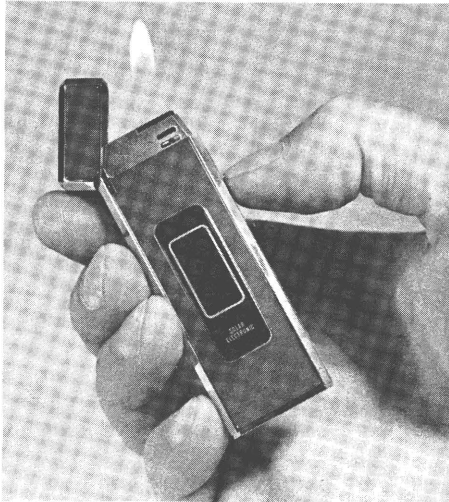
The problems brought about by the energy situation were the subject of important discussions and statements in March and later in June, first at Community level and then among the major industrialized countries at the Tokyo Summit on 28 and 29 June.

Not only did the crisis in Iran result in an oil supply shortfall of some 3% in the first six months, but the producing countries decided, on 29 June, on a considerable price increase—from approximately \$13.50 to between \$18 and \$23.50 a barrel. Over the same period, the disarray in oil supplies generated speculative price increases on the spot markets.



The Brussels Atomium, 1950s symbol of the hopes pinned on the atom

(*) Principal counsellor in the energy directorate general of the EEC Commission.



Solar-powered cigarette lighter from Germany—can research come up with something more useful than a £100 trinket?

Preparations for the European Council meeting at Strasbourg were made by the energy ministers at the Council meeting on 18 June. The ministers discussed future Community measures to achieve greater transparency of the oil markets by improving the flow of information and introducing a system for registering oil purchases; guidelines for stabilizing and reducing oil imports by changing the pattern of consumption were also worked out.

The European Council meeting in Strasbourg on 21 and 22 June stressed the urgent need for action to redress the present structural situation and announced that the Community was ready to set an example in worldwide energy strategy. The Council confirmed its determination to step up efforts to limit oil consumption by substituting other forms of energy. It welcomed the measures on registering international oil transactions and on energy savings introduced by the Council meeting of energy ministers, but stated that Europe could pursue its efforts on these fronts only if the other industrialized consumer countries made comparable efforts.

At the Tokyo summit, the Community's representatives urged their American, Japanese and Canadian counterparts to adopt measures similar to those envisaged by the Community in order to reduce oil consumption by 1985 and reduce the volume of trading on the spot market.

The consensus reached at the meetings of the Council (energy) and the European Council and then at the Tokyo Summit has made it possible to work out an energy strategy based on energy savings, the development of alternative sources of energy and international cooperation, without which the world would be in danger of sliding into an economic crisis of the first order. □

Tomorrow's Europe

Towards a second European renaissance

Under the title "The good and bad cards in Europe's hand", the last issue of the *Courier* contained the first part of the report by André Danzin, chairman of CERD, the European research and development committee. The second and final part which now follows is a further resume of Danzin's "Memoirs of Hope", which casts Europe in a new role in the world and provides Europeans with a plan for a different kind of civilization (see our book reviews).

Danzin says the "second renaissance" we could live through, if we really want to will be an economic, cultural and spiritual event, as the last renaissance was. Europe's future hangs on a merciless international economic clash and a collective social aspiration of which Danzin detects various elements in a "somewhat heteroclitic and contradictory set of manifestations including Vatican II, the Club of Rome, May '68, Solzhenitsyn, Sakharov, the new philosophers, the ecological movement, the development of women's status and so on".

The European institutions are caught up in this movement. They will have to lend it support, particularly in the field of science and technology, and it will give them new vitality.

The call to a new type of development

Man has always multiplied and the effects of accidents, famine, epidemics and wars have been short-lived. The general trend is upwards. Population increases; there are more and better tools. Economic production is expanding, as are our knowledge of nature and man, our capacity for trade, transport and communications, our cultural, aesthetic and philosophical achievements—and the destructive power of our arms.

This intermingling of various kinds of growth is called development. In the rich countries, development has speeded up in a curious and unbalanced way since World War II. Technological progress has accelerated away from cultural developments which are still marked by concepts rooted in the past. Growth has stopped being mainly spiritual and became mainly material, and it has brought greater complexity and interdependence in its wake.

Rejecting zero growth

A few years back, the Club of Rome announced that we were fast approaching the reasonable limits to the exponential growth in our consumption of scarce raw materials and energy, that the world was of finite dimensions and that we were reaching the limits. This warning disturbed the sense of comfort underwritten by the mystique of growth and it was interpreted, contrary to the authors' intentions, as a sign of profound pessimism.

In recent years we have been able to get the measure of the dangers. In the short term, the risk of running short of



Will information become Europe's biggest industry? The British Post Office's "Prestel" system already gives access to potentially unlimited information through a TV and telephone hook-up in the home

basic supplies is small in all but two, admittedly essential, products—oil and, for people in the tropics, food. The experts agree that pollution could be kept down to acceptable levels if 2-2.5% of GNP was spent on controlling it. Nothing fundamentally tragic for the human race emerges from this analysis and young people should not imagine that they will inevitably be beset by apocalyptic catastrophes in the future.

But Europe cannot avoid the issue of the problem of growth. As far as it is concerned, the limits of the world and interdependence have a profound and immediate meaning. They bring home its cruel shortage of raw materials and its dependence on suppliers over whom it no longer has any political control. In recent years, intellectuals have oscillated between two extremes, neither of them practicable. Boosting consumption at all costs, as in the 20 years after the last war, or the opposite tack, adopting a policy of zero growth.

It is hard to imagine what society would be like if it was forced to decelerate. In all probability this sort of economy would lead to fixed structures and considerable social rigidity. Instead of always being able to use their initiative and being rewarded for a spirit of enterprise, individuals would be fixed in stagnant organizations where promotion depended only on seniority. This society would evolve through sedimentation and crystallization to fossilization. The absence of any reward would mean that there was no incentive to make an effort. The liberty of the individual and the group would be considerably reduced by the fragility of a static equilibrium, whereas the adaptability of the dynamic equilibrium of growth can easily absorb errors and so encourage risk-taking.

A policy of zero growth is a quest for static equilibrium. Any mechanic knows that the only balance is a combination of dynamic forces and biologists have proved that life is essentially movement, happenings, conflict and surprise. But static equilibrium is attractive to many, for it seems to promise refinement to the point of perfection—to guarantee security and eliminate opposing interests that have outlived their usefulness. This is the attraction of nothingness, man's fascination with death.

New fields of growth

Europeans need to shape themselves in action. Thought and action are inseparable.

They need a programme of objectives, but it must be one which cuts out excessive consumption of the energy and raw materials that Europe lacks.

Demonstrate that it is possible to embark on a new type of development and you could get people moving, rekindle their spirit of enterprise and unleash the forces of change. Announce that a new growth model is in sight and young people will be able to believe in their future and will be encouraged to make the necessary sacrifices. There are two potential fields of growth that are not dependent on materials in short supply and that are in harmony with the spiritual upsurge that is characteristic of evolution. They are information and leisure time.

Information, a new sector of activity

The complexity of society is increasing rapidly. This means that services have to be provided and all kinds of administrative, financial, commercial and technical information has to be processed. And new specialists have to emerge to deal with the collection and communication of knowledge.

Take the case of the three traditional sectors, agriculture, industry and services, in the USA. In 1970-80 specialists in the collection, processing and distribution of information(1) will come to outnumber those working in exclusively agricultural, industrial and service

(1) Information in the broadest meaning of the term, i.e. including statistical data, general knowledge, events, ideas, etc.

jobs combined. Western Europe is five or 10 years behind the USA, but it is following the same path.

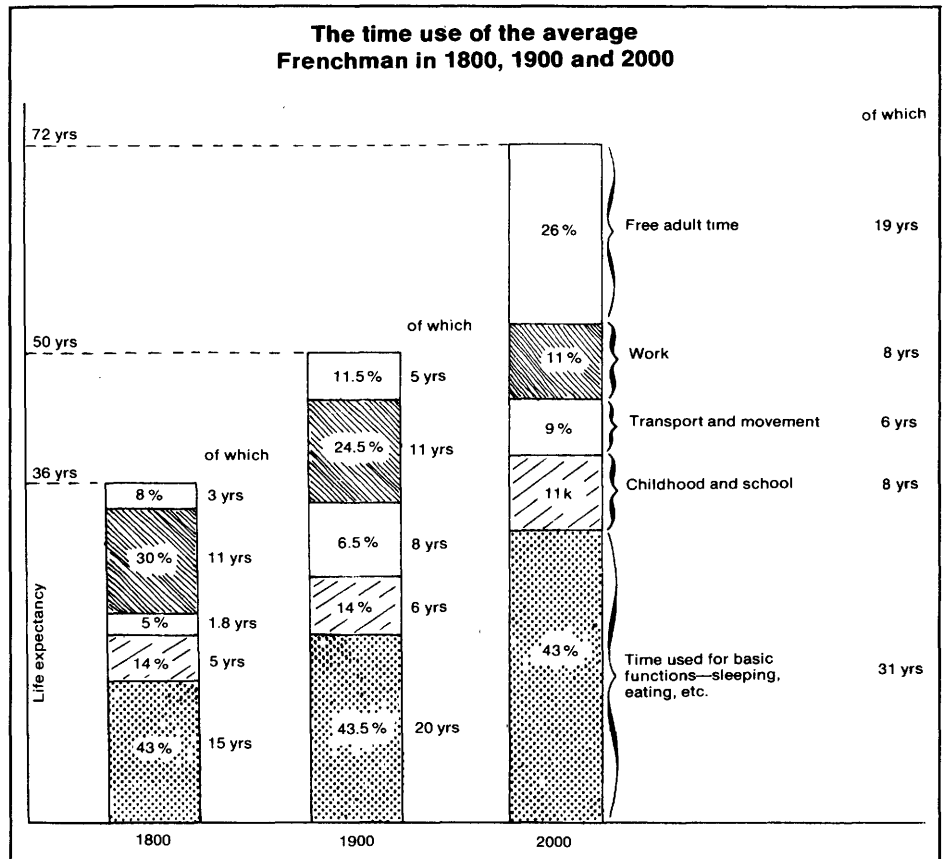
So it is reasonable to say that force of circumstance will, if not halted by too great an economic crisis, lead us towards an economy in which most activity is linked to information. This is fundamental in the case of Europe as the collection, processing and distribution of information consumes little energy or raw materials but does require plenty of good brains.

Leisure time: a matter of civilization

Man's days are numbered and he knows it. Is time therefore not the most important thing we have? And is not the most important reflexion, on the quality of life, that which leads us to the best possible use of the time we have?

Every civilization has pondered on this. For the ancients, pleasure was *otium* (free time, noble time, a time for culture and reflexion), as opposed to *negotium* (the time for business). This idea has spread to industrial Europe. It has been constantly at variance with pleasure. *Otium* was the preserve of the elite, a privilege of the powerful and the wealthy. But the leisure time of the few was only made possible by the hard work of the many.

Life expectancy in Europe has risen from 36 years in 1800 to 72 years today, i.e. from 315 000 to 630 000 hours. Yet



the time devoted to work remained stable, at around 100 000 hours per head, between 1800 and 1960, in spite of the fact that life expectancy doubled over that period. Working time began to drop sharply over the 1955-65 period and had reached 85 000 hours by 1975. Extrapolation of variations recorded over the last 20 years and observation of what goes on in the USA suggests that, provided there is no reversal of the trend, working time will have dropped to 70 000 hours by the year 2000. And we know what the causes are: longer childhood, pension schemes, holiday pay and a shorter working week.

So the greatest change is in the amount of free time available to adults, i.e. the time they get, over and above their years of retirement, once physiological time (periods devoted to working, sleeping, eating, hygiene and transport) has been deducted.

The average man or woman in 1800 only got 25 000 hours leisure for a whole lifetime. Between 1920 and 1975, free time increased tremendously (from 45 000 to 135 000 hours) and extrapolations suggest something like 145 000 hours for the year 2000, a figure that could well go as high as 170 000 hours

if transport time could be cut from two and a half to one hour per day.

Even if these figures need to be weighted to take account of growing fatigue due to the deteriorating quality of the environment since 1945 (which might push up the time required for vital rest by one hour per day), the major phenomenon of the last half century is still the increase in the time which adults have to spend on things other than basic needs and earning money.

Leisure time could be distributed over a lifetime in a variety of ways. Part-time jobs, early retirement, sabbatical years and shorter working weeks are possibilities. Formulae such as these, tailored to the individual, could encourage a large percentage of non-working women to take jobs, thereby also fulfilling a deep-rooted desire. The working population would thus be greater overall, but each member of it would work shorter hours.

Vast opportunities for improvement would be offered to craftsmen and to artists of all kinds and for adult education in all subjects. Of course, there could be no question of returning to methods used in pre-industrial cottage industries. The individual production of

one's own goods would be supported from above by a specialized industry producing prefabricated products and special tools, but a considerable amount of added value would probably be provided by the labour of the users themselves or of their parents and friends. Thus leisure time activities could be a time for conviviality that the constraints of productivity make impracticable in firms, shops and administration.

But Europe does not produce enough capital to pay for the new collective and individual investments. It does not obtain enough surplus from its economic activity to absorb the costs of the social and commercial imbalance that would be engendered by a change-over from a civilization based essentially on the production of material goods to one of a communion of minds.

Solidarity between Europe and the South: a huge economic pull

This is why it is vital to imagine a third focus of growth of a more familiar kind that is more in conformity with industrial investments and the technical resources available in the industrialized countries. If this third focus could continue to promote greater productivity everywhere and if these gains in productivity could engender a big enough economic surplus, then the financing of a transition to a renaissance would no longer be an insurmountable barrier. The idea of a more human society would no longer be utopic. It would become a project.

To ask this question is to reflect on the nature of the market and where the real needs lie.

The answer is clear. The real need for greater consumption is felt by the world's 2 000 million (and, before long, 4 000 million) poor.

It is impossible to talk of the economic future of Europe without including the vast possibilities of Community development that would be opened if financing could be provided to equip the developing countries. This would open the way for 30-50 more years of growth for European firms. It would generate a considerable amount of economic activity.

Although not comparable in size or complexity, the present situation is not unlike the post-war period when Europe and Japan were emerging from economic ruin thanks, in particular, to the Marshall Plan and its extensions. This act of solidarity was more than plain generosity. It was intelligent and, in return, the USA got direct and indirect contributions to its own development worth many times the initial outlay.



Advertising can implicitly reduce people to the level of objects—a degrading characteristic of the consumer society

The purchasing power which rising prices have given the suppliers of what are now increasingly scarce products (oil, gas, minerals, tropical foods, etc.) is already beginning to help some economies in some parts of the world get off the ground. Europe is directly involved. It has to ensure that it stays involved and must associate its own development with this.

Towards a civilization in which the individual achieves his own fulfilment

The reader who looks upon the unification of Europe as an opportunity for revolution will perhaps be disappointed, although he should not underestimate how far the anticipated changes will go.

If we moved towards the production of durable goods that can be repaired and towards a systematic energy-saving policy, our industrial apparatus would undergo profound modifications that would call into question its structures, its methods of attracting customers and the technical specifications of the articles produced.

If information became one of the driving forces of growth, Europe would have to catch up with the USA and accept competition from Japan (which is already in a powerful position as far as these specialities are concerned).

If leisure-time activities were conceived as a factor of economic enrichment as well as a factor of the development of the values of the human personality, people would become much more responsible about the proper use of freedom, new tax and economic incentive methods, making a stronger effort with adult education, creating a new do-it-yourself industry, exerting pressure to reduce time wasted travelling and introducing a new housing policy.

If it was thought reasonable to reduce working time to the equivalent of a 32-hour week (but arranged in a variety of ways ranging from half days to a four-day week and including sabbaticals and early retirement), a considerable effort would first have to be made with productivity, to make up for the attendant economic losses, and a profound reform of our habits would be required as there would probably have to be a much smaller proportion of non-working, unskilled and unemployed people than there are today.

If the transfer of technology, etc. to the developing countries became one of the focuses for the Community's export drive, organic links of reciprocity could be set up so that certain of our buyers get the means of financing their imports and, in the long run, we would have to accept the emergence of new

poles of competition and rivalry in the field of advanced technology as well.

If consumer habits changed and the desire to succeed by one's own individual efforts was more important than the illusory accumulation of material goods, we would leave behind us a civilization of waste, envy and unfulfilled desire and move on to a civilization where the individual succeeds through his own efforts, where he is aware of and responsible for the rewards of his labours and his talent, acts and feelings which, in the past, were the province of the privileged few.

And if all these projects converged, man would be ready for a civilization based on relative material frugality but on prodigality of the things of the mind—probably the only practicable solution if there are to be 12 000 million people and far less inequality in the world.

A strategy of priorities

The future of Europe hangs on an international economic confrontation and on social aspirations. These are the aims on which most of our available means should be deployed.

Western man is not a frugal being. He is used to material plenty, to a civilization of comfort, to his car and to his colour TV. He eats well. He can hope to own a holiday home and he can dream of going to distant places, to the theatre and to museums. He can practise winter and water sports. He thinks he is entitled to a long, peaceful and comfortably off retirement. He expects to be able to take care of his health by both preventive and curative treatment. He wants his children to stay on at school and to go in for non-manual jobs if possible. He wants insurance against loss of employment or health.

If he has not got such advantages, he still thinks society ought to give them to him and he demands that it does.

But these are fragile advantages and they can only be obtained if all the members of the population work hard. Europe's results, outlined in the first part of this report (*Courier* no. 56, July-August 1979) shows clearly enough the difficulty of the task at hand. Without any great political power in a world where there is pitiless competition in the international division of labour and without any natural economic advantages except the quality of the labour force, the prospect of winning trade battles is small without an iron will and the backing of a large percentage of society.

Europeans should therefore go on improving the productivity of their agriculture, their industry and their services if they want to remain competitive.

They must also keep on working on technical innovation so as to keep ahead of their competitors. This will enable them to export more and so to import energy and other primary products that are vital to their economic life. But people living in western Europe must understand that they will feel the finiteness of the world, the scarcity of raw materials and the elimination of pollution weighing heavier on their shoulders as every year goes by.

Competitiveness depends on mass production

The EEC must not lose sight of the implacable rules of the economies of scale. When a product or a service can be mass produced, the cost price decreases with the amount manufactured. Any drop in the price of a given product will depend on how far industry has developed and whether it is partly or fully mechanized. The more advanced the methods, the lower the price⁽¹⁾. The obvious conclusion here is that Europe will not maintain its purchasing power against international competition unless it accepts certain constraints attendant on the laws of price formation in mass production, in particular if it unifies its principal markets for innovation. Furthermore, technique and regulation standardization measures should enable it to introduce new constraints to suit its particular characteristics. In particular, it could get its industry to produce long-life products which could be repaired instead of rapidly consumed, and it could have articles designed so that scarce raw materials could be recycled. It should also aim at making prices more honest so as to take account of the protection of its particularly fragile social and ecological balance.

The challenge of the multinationals

All too often, the Treaty of Rome has failed to live up to expectations and instead of condensing large-scale multinationals across frontiers it has in fact led to mergers of competing groups within particular countries. Instead of the interpenetration of markets, the formation of these oligopolies has given us a strengthening of national particularities. This is exactly the opposite of what should have been done to balance the power of the big US and Japanese groups. And, although there are one or two exceptions, real transnationality in the common market has only been achieved by European com-

(1) However, cottage industry is more economical for small-scale production. In other words, price depends both on the size of the market and the degree of sophistication of the product.



Notre Dame de Paris

Gothic architecture let light and colour into Europe's greatest buildings. What expression of faith today could point to a second renaissance in the construction of modern Europe?

panies in the small countries (the Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland).

The spread of innovation as well as industrial competitiveness is affected here. For the development of techniques is such an expensive business that research, development, demonstration and promotion costs have to be amortized on the markets of several large consumer countries all at once.

So, to stay competitive, i.e. to do no more than survive, European industries have to be gigantic and this is not compatible with the geography of western Europe. Nor does all we have said about social aspirations and cultural force augur well for success in large-scale concentrations. There is more to it than choosing between all or nothing. There are fields in which Europe must succeed in large-scale enterprises. It can succeed if it wants to do so. But, ideally, we should develop consumer models whereby production is done by small units. This would probably be to the advantage of the common market.

The enterprise, the right place for social communication

Today, many young people wonder about the notion of work. It is perhaps not an attack on the value of work in itself, but more the fact that attractive targets are not put up to encourage effort. One might therefore say that the citizen will never be properly recon-

ciled to society so long as employment is considered (rightly or wrongly) as alienating for a large part of the working population.

The place of work tends to be the enterprise, in the broadest meaning of the term, i.e., a human community specialized in the performance of a given series of tasks. It may be an industrial or commercial company, but it may also be a non-profit making body or it may be concerned with running a university, a hospital or a whole town.

The enterprise must be recognized as the main centre of the production of wealth. It processes raw materials or information to obtain goods for its clients, purchasing power for its employees and profit for the capital of its shareholders and creditors, and it produces resources for the community in the form of the many taxes it has to pay. The enterprise also provides a living for its suppliers. Profit is indicative of proper adaptation. It is a brake when negative and an accelerator when positive.

The enterprise is, by its very nature, a place of tension and conflict. It should be a privileged place in which to learn about living in society. If the way it works was explained to him, the employee would grasp the complexity of the world today, its implications of finiteness and interdependence and the need to take certain economic and social constraints as fact. The enter-

prise has replaced the parish or the village as the centre of social communication, and this points the way to a reconciliation between man and his work.

Understanding must be facilitated by reducing complexity via decentralization. Enterprises must be split into as many smaller units as are required to enable production or processing to be done on a human scale. This decentralization must be accompanied by extensive delegation of power, so that as many employees as possible are involved in seeking to make the best of the constraints and conflicts in the firm.

The individual must also be given more responsibility in his work and conditions must be right for the whole team to take decisions.

Experiments in pilot workshops, in Italy in particular, where only an outline of the job is given and the work is then shared out by the team, are part of this movement towards new ways of sharing responsibility, which is so essential to western European culture.

Finally, Europeans do not like the idea of certain manual jobs and they have them done by millions of migrant workers who are cut off from their own culture and family. The fact that there are so many workers living in what amounts to almost deportation conditions is a scandal in the light of the criteria suggested by the cultural values of which the Europeans are so proud.

If work were better organized and more use made of machinery and automation, it would be technically possible, provided vast investments were made in research, development and production equipment, to cut out many of the jobs now done by what has to be termed the sub-proletariat.

Research and innovation

With 8 000 - 12 000 million people likely to be sharing this planet in the 21st century, technological progress alone can provide a way of facing up to the upheavals that are rightly forecast. The answer cannot be to stop short as this would mean staying in the most vulnerable position. Nor can we turn around and go back, whatever the so-called attraction of the past.

The only way we can hope to provide properly for such a large population is to make rapid progress on many fronts, with nutrition, new forms of energy, environmental protection, the saving and recycling of rare resources and the quality of life. And this can only be

achieved by a fresh scientific advance and the proper application of new technology.

The science of living things

It would be wrong to believe that science has exhausted its most fruitful resources. Quite the contrary, a science of life is now emerging, a study of living systems concerned with both biology and society (insect societies, human societies, and individual and social behaviour) and using systematic analysis and models.

Everything points to the fact that recent biological discoveries have enormous practical potential. Their promise is comparable to that of physics at the turn of the century. We must capitalize on this. Europe would be very much to blame if it did not foster ambition here, as success in this field can be achieved relatively more cheaply than in other sectors of research (energy physics, for example, where there is a far less obvious economic and human impact).

Fortunately, the science of life (or of change and complexity) will rapidly become more promising if over-complexity and a failure to understand the change cause the post-industrial society to grind to a halt. Europe, with its high-density population, its easy communications that geography and history have provided and its cultural assets, seems remarkably well placed to succeed in these fields.

Yet there are still many barriers to overcome. There is the individualism of the European researcher and his hesitancy when it comes to accepting the constraints of multi-disciplinary research, there is the lag between science making a discovery and industry putting it to use and there is the general misunderstanding of what multi-disciplinary research means.

There is a hiatus between the real problems arising from the life of the firm and the authorities where social science research is carried out and the tendencies of this research to take refuge in esoteric concepts. And so on.

If Europe is to survive, it must go on innovating both with quality and quantity. As far as quantity is concerned, we have got to improve by 50% or 100% if we want to catch up with the Americans or the Japanese. And, as to quality, we have to increase yield and back up the efforts of the individual countries of Europe with Community aid. This is the only way we can get over certain obstacles pertaining to size and heterogeneity. And we must also make sure that international scientific com-

petition is brought down to the level of man's needs and social desires, so that we can stop the pursuit of prestige and power which is a handicap for Europe and a stumbling block for the post-industrial society.

The new renaissance: a civilization of the mind

The gravity of Europe's situation lies in the unusually profound nature of the clash of short- and long-term interests. The die is cast but we will have to wait until the end of the century to see who the real winners and losers are.

It is time we outlined a project and decided what means will make Europe the laboratory in which a new way of life, the breeding ground for a new renaissance, is created. For in international competition, Europe can still choose its battleground. It does not have to fight on economic terms alone. It could also lead its main competitors in a process towards a better way of life that is in close harmony with the main features of the European identity.

We can only give a rough idea of what this new renaissance will involve, as it will be the babies and the school-children of today who actually bring it about. The minds of these future leaders will be shaped not by written tradition and a world of machines but by the environment and the civilization of information that we have entered without even realizing it. Their outlook cannot be assimilated to ours, as audio-visual means and programmable computers will have been used in play and artistic creation, be it music or the plastic arts throughout their childhood and adolescence, at the time their sensibility is being formed.

However, if we accept the risk involved in prediction, we can use what we know of the way evolution is going, i.e. of the trend towards complexity and spiritual awareness.

This second renaissance will be a response to man's deep-seated desire to increase his individual and collective spirituality. Civilization in the 21st century will move towards the things of the mind. Or it will come up against considerable human and material barriers.

There are probably many solutions and many approaches that would improve the consumption of cultural assets and compensate for the limitations on material goods. But they all involve fairer sharing of our intellectual, artistic and social culture, which, it is increasingly clear, is the most precious possession we have. □

A glance at Community life⁽¹⁾

TRANSPORT

Cheaper air fares: Commission outlines ideas for future

A basic no-frills point-to-point ticket; the introduction of a third-class fare; special fares for a limited number of seats on a no-refund or limited refund basis; a European round-trip ticket.

These are among the ideas the European Commission has come up with in order to bring air fares more within the reach of the average citizen in the European Community and to help airlines become more profitable as a result of greater use.

In the slipstream of the Commission's initiative. Sir Freddie Laker, the British airline operator who introduced cut-price fares on the Atlantic routes, announced that he hoped to start a similar service to 35 European cities from next January.

In a memorandum setting out its ideas for the nine Community governments, the Commission points out that it is anxious to help develop the Community's air transport industry to suit modern conditions which would enable it to take advantage of recent important changes in civil aviation on a world scale.

In addition to promoting lower fares, it would like to see more competition between airlines on scheduled services. It also favours an end to over-booking by the introduction of a compulsory scheme of compensation for passengers left stranded in this way at airports. The Commission wants the airlines to provide a more comprehensive service to the public, particularly by the development of more flights between regions in the Community, as well as taking into account the protection of the environment—for example, by using less noisy aircraft.

In addition, the Commission sketches out ways in which action at Community level could help improve the financial soundness of airlines and reduce their operating costs. It is also interested in improving the lot of airline workers.

However, the Commission's power to change the practices of the Community's airlines is limited and it is depen-

(1) Euroforum

dent on the nine governments to take action. It is hoping that it will be able to start a dialogue on the future of air transport that will lead to specific measures later.

In its memorandum, the Commission points out that the structure of air transport is dominated by extensive government influence over bilateral agreements, routes, fares and capacity. This means that direct competition on fares is limited on scheduled flights, although there is competition between airlines on other forms of air transport such as charters or special low-budget services.

The Commission feels that the governments should agree to ask the airlines to introduce a certain number of cut-price fares on scheduled flights and that if the established airlines are slow to do so other operators should be allowed to fly on a limited number of routes which are currently closed to them.

The Commission would also like to see the development of more cross-border services between regional centres which are at present neglected by the major operators who prefer to confine themselves to the more profitable main routes between capitals and other large centres of population.

**Percentage of capital held
by the states
in main European airlines**

Air France	98.90 %
Air Inter	49.90 %
Alitalia	99 %
British Airways	100 %
KLM	78 %
Air Lingus	100 %
Lufthansa	82.16 %
Luxair	25.57 %
Sabena	100 %
SAS	50 %
British Caledonian	private
UTA	private

One of the difficulties faced by the Commission in ensuring that there is no abuse by an airline of a dominant position and in ensuring that competition exists as far as possible is that it does not have the same powers of investigation as it has for other industries where it can impose penalties on firms which distort competition and thus limit consumer choice. The Commission suggests that it should be given this power.

While lower fares might appear to be primarily in the interest of the passengers, the Commission believes that they would help make airlines cost-effective because they would encourage more people to fly and thus increase the productivity of costly aircraft.

It also suggests that it can help make airlines more profitable through the simplification within the Community of procedures and customs documenta-

tion in air freight transport, and the harmonization of technical standards in the construction of aircraft. It can also use Community funds to back research into the development of new and more efficient aircraft.

The next step is for the Commission's ideas to be discussed in the Council of Ministers. While we await the outcome of these discussions, it might be worthwhile pondering over a few statistics to put the current controversy over European air fares into perspective.

Although European fares on scheduled flights are generally compared unfavourably with those in the United States, they are in fact only about 20% higher on average.

A more comforting thought is that air fares in Europe have actually become much cheaper over the years when compared with the rise in the standard of living. If we start with a base of 100 in 1964, the index for the cost of living had risen by last year to 270. In the same period, the index for air fares rose from 100 to only 206.

Nevertheless, the Commission believes that there is room for improvement both in the interests of passengers and of the airlines themselves.

**Airbus:
the sky's the limit
for European
aviation cooperation**

A new breed of plane spawned by growing European aerospace cooperation is nearly 10 years old and is proving so successful that it could serve as a model for other products and industries.

The highly-popular Airbus wide-bodied aircraft programme was originally launched in 1969 and has since carved out a spot in aviation history by grabbing a large chunk of the commercial market from American giants which have traditionally enjoyed a near monopoly in international skies.

Already the plane is the second most popular king-sized aircraft after the Boeing 747 and ahead of such well-known producers as Lockheed and Douglas. This masterpiece of European cooperative engineering is bringing an increasing number of jobs in five European countries.

The results are felt not only in skies all over the world but all the way down to the small towns near factories in France, Germany, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Spain. Some 18 000 people are currently at work on the Airbus programme and it is estimated that the number could grow to 40 000 by 1983.

As a truly European type of undertaking which has been urged for years by

experts as the only way to meet the American challenge, the programme could serve as an example for the computer, microelectronic or other industries. In each case, European national companies are hardly a match for their continental-scale American rivals.

Increasingly cost-conscious airlines have ordered some 200 of the economical models and the potential could reach some 2 000 planes. Companies such as Lufthansa, Air France, Alitalia, KLM, Swissair, and even American lines such as Eastern, which is run by ex-astronaut Frank Borman, have purchased the planes. Airlines from China, Japan and other distant countries are also contemplating orders. Last year, Airbus Industrie raised its share of world commercial airliner orders from 6% to 19%.

The future looks bright as more and more airlines look for replacement planes and find in the Airbus a plane that consumes less fuel, makes less noise and provides other cost benefits.

This most illustrious example of European aviation cooperation is by no means the first and experts hope it will be followed by other successes. The first attempts included the Anglo-French Concorde.

There has also been steady development of cooperation in the aerospace field which will lead later this year to the launching of the first European Ariane rocket from the European Space Agency test centre in Latin America.

But experts as the European Commission in Brussels for years have urged an intensification of such efforts. These attempts began in the early 1970s under industrial affairs commissioner Altiero Spinelli and have been supported by the current commissioner Etienne Davignon.

Both have urged increasing cooperation among the aircraft manufacturers in Europe to plan ahead for the next generation of civil airlines. They have argued that, like in so many other industrial and technological fields, the costs of financing and providing a market for such ambitious undertakings are too great for any one European country to bear.

To continue to produce such aircraft in independent fashion, as in the past, would merely allow the American giants to continue their dominance of the world markets. So far, however, such efforts to stimulate cooperation have met with only limited success at the official level.

But the Airbus experience, led by France's Aerospatiale, Germany's Deutsche Airbus and the British Aircraft Corporation, needs to expand to other partners if it is to meet interna-

tional competition, especially the American one. American producers even benefit from the Airbus as well since the engine and electrical equipment are American-produced and 31% of the income from Airbus goes to them.

But the main lesson to be learned is that the smaller European national aviation producers need to stop competing among themselves. This is unfortunately the case with two European planes with 120-seat capacity which are competing for the same market: the British BA 146 which will hit the market in 1983 and sell an estimated 45 planes a year, and the Dutch Fokker 28 which sells some 14 models a year.

The Airbus project has proved, however, that European manufacturers can sometimes overcome their own rivalries, and work together successfully. The recent rates of production of two planes per month and three a month in 1979 are no longer enough to meet the orders.

The chairman of Airbus Industrie, Bernard Lathière, said that production should be increased to six or even eight planes per month by 1982-83, which would require a workforce expansion to 40 000.

The advocates of greater cooperation point to this increase in work, which could be the fruit of more such successful joint undertakings, as an inducement in a period of record unemployment.

ENERGY

An Indian summer if we don't take energy-saving more seriously

Despite the warm summer weather in Europe, the pressure is still on to save more energy. This is the season of replenishing stocks in preparation for next winter but, due to the oil supply shortages and rocketing prices caused by the Iranian crisis, this is proving difficult.

Some progress has been made in cutting down consumption. Between 1974 and 1977 the Community managed to save 80 million tonnes of oil equivalent (mtoe) annually. This is equivalent to about 8% of its total energy needs.

But, in order to reach the target set for 1985, an extra 1% will have to be saved over the next six years.

Looking further ahead, the European Commission has now suggested a longer term target. It wants gradually to reduce the ratio between economic and energy demand growth below 0.7 by 1990.

This would mean that an increase in the use of energy of less than 0.7% should be needed to fuel each 1% growth in gross domestic product.

In proposing new lines of action, the Commission urges that the nine member states should adopt comprehensive energy-saving programmes by 1980.

The Commission has proposed two new measures in order to save more energy. Firstly, it intends negotiating voluntary fuel consumption targets with the European car industry for both motor cars and light vans.

Secondly, the Commission suggests that work in setting international standards for measuring energy consumption, especially of heaters and domestic appliances such as cookers and fridges, should be speeded up.

Saving energy, points out the Commission, does not necessarily mean a lower standard of living. Instead, it should be viewed as a change of life style an incentive to develop new industries and products which use energy more efficiently.

The Commission has put forward its own energy-saving ideas consisting, on the one hand, of price guidelines and, on the other, ways of encouraging a better use of energy.

For example, better use can also be made of energy in the home, industry, public offices and transport. In the home, more efficient heating systems and individual metering in apartment blocks and other buildings shared by different families could be introduced. Industry could be given financial aids for investment in energy-saving equipment. Offices should be built to stricter standards while heating, cooling and ventilation should be more closely controlled.

In addition to its energy-saving proposals, the Commission has now come

up with a new import target for 1990. It wants to limit the Community's dependence on energy imports to 50% and to freeze oil imports at the 1978 level of 470 million tonnes for another five years beyond 1975, which was the date originally agreed by the Nine.

This, of course, will require a much greater effort on the part of all the member states at the same time, as well as a change in public attitudes towards energy. The Commission is concerned both with the disparity in the energy policies of the member states and also with the fact that they are unlikely to limit imports to the 1985 target level.

The Commission suggests a number of measures to help achieve the 1990 target. Apart from greater efforts to save energy and to inform the public about the need to do so, it believes that nuclear, coal and hydrocarbon programmes should be stepped up.

The Commission suggests that more coal and nuclear power stations should be built. It thinks that they should provide at least 75% of the Community's electricity supplies, instead of 60% at present.

The Commission regards 1990 forecasts of Community oil and gas production as insufficient. It wants more efforts made in exploring new reserves.

To underline the seriousness of the situation, energy commissioner Guido Brunner said in Brussels recently that between now and 1990 the Community would need to invest around £ 25 000 million a year in the development of its own energy supplies.

He added: "We have no time to lose. What is not invested in right now will not exist in 1990".

REDUCING BARRIERS

Nurses win right to care for us where they please

Nurses need no longer take jobs as au pairs or as companions to cantankerous old ladies to get the chance to travel or work abroad. They now have the right to practise their chosen profession in any European Community country.



A Community law came into force which recently gives nurses who are Community citizens the right to establish themselves in any of the nine member states provided they have proof of their formal qualifications.

The ruling applies to state registered nurses in the United Kingdom and general registered nurses in Ireland or their equivalents in other Community countries.

They should effectively have been employed as nurses responsible for general care for at least three of the five years prior to getting their diplomas, including taking full responsibility for planning, organizing and carrying out nursing care of patients.

Some countries, like Belgium, already employ nurses who have qualified in other member states. Now all nine countries will be obliged to consider job applications from any Community nationals. And, of course, successful job hunters will automatically have the right of residence and benefits like social security and health insurance.

This doesn't mean that nurses everywhere will be packing up and looking for jobs in other countries. In most instances they will have to be able to speak the language of the country they are planning to work in. But it does mean that the categories of professional workers allowed to practise in all nine countries is on the increase.

Doctors and lawyers already benefit from the Community's basic principle of free movement for its citizens. It is hoped that vets will be granted the same rights next year and dentists shortly afterwards. The European Commission is working on similar proposals to give midwives, architects, accountants and tax advisers the same professional freedom.

Footballers have even been taken into consideration. A decision taken by the European Commission and European football federations gives professional footballers the right to play where they like within the Community. They are not, of course, eligible for national teams, but they can play for clubs in whichever country they want.

Blue-collar and non-professional white collar workers have had the freedom to work in any Community country since 1969. But giving professional workers the same rights has posed problems. Qualifications and professional demands vary from country to country and some compromise is necessary.

It is not just a matter of granting workers freedom but getting all nine member states to recognize each other's qualifications. Even so, problems may still arise.

To keep those involving nurses to a minimum, a second law has just come into effect dealing with the coordination of training for nurses.

An advisory committee on training in nursing has been set up to help ensure a consistently high standard of training of various categories of nursing personnel throughout the Community.

The Committee is made up of three experts from each member state—one from the practising profession, one from a recognized training establishment and one from the national health authority or competent equivalent.

A committee of senior officials on public health has also been set up to cope with any difficulties that might arise from implementing the law and to identify any changes that might be needed.

For, although free movement for the professions works in theory, it will be some time before the practice is seen to be perfect.

the high British standards of fair play were maintained

The home side was the BBC, which for years has been screening on TV the popular "Match of the Day" football programme on Saturday evenings. The team playing away from home was London Weekend Television (LWT), which was the champion of all the independent television companies in Britain.

BBC considered that LWT were definitely offside when they reached an agreement with the English Football League to record and transmit all English football league matches (Scotland has its own league).

If the move had been allowed to stand, the BBC would have been excluded from covering these games. But the ripples would also have been felt on the continent, since other Community countries would have been able to get their recordings showing the finesse of English football from only one source—the independent programme companies.

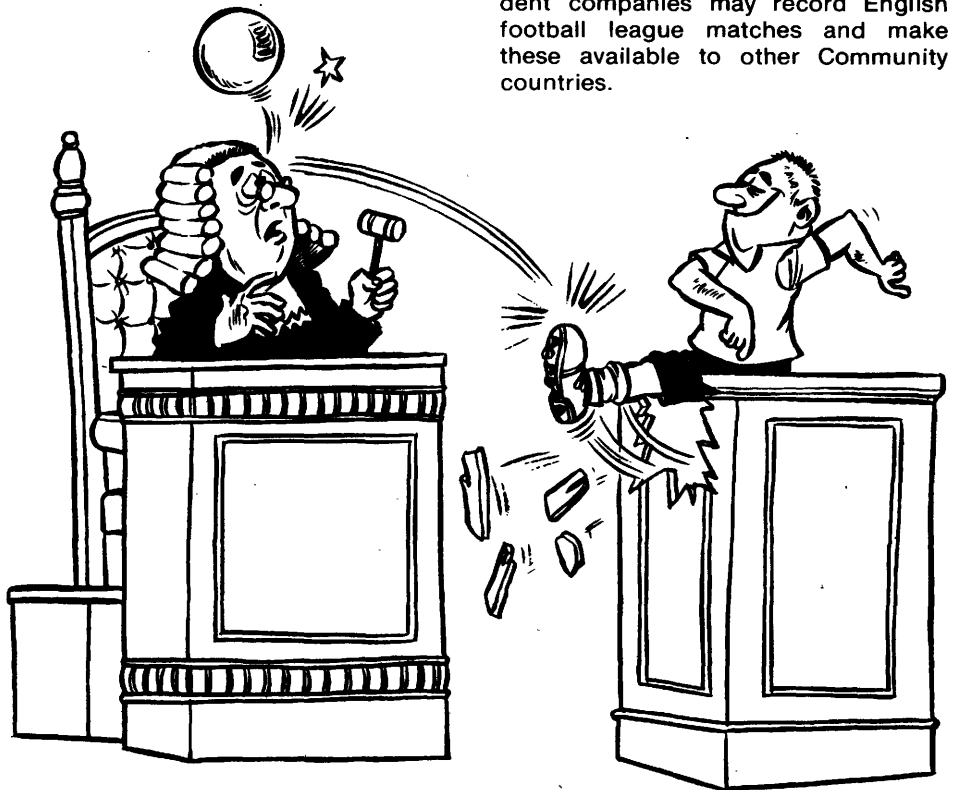
Definitely not cricket, said the BBC. The European Commission, which is responsible for ensuring free and open competition throughout the Community, agreed, arguing that this created a monopoly in an area of significant public interest to the Community as a whole. Football is, after all, one of Europe's major sports.

With the threat of legal proceedings hanging over them, the participants decided to shake hands and replay the game. Now both the BBC and independent companies may record English football league matches and make these available to other Community countries.

SPORT

British TV football result will please all European fans

When the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) cried "Foul" recently, the European Commission had to blow its whistle and intervene to ensure that



YOUTH

Making the voice of youth heard in the Community

Brussels these days is a centre for pressure groups—there are groups representing industrialists, agriculturists, trade unionists, consumers and so on. But, until recently, there has been nobody representing young people.

However, with the establishment at a meeting in November 1978 of the first youth forum of the European Communities, young people can now make their views heard in Europe.

Gilbert Véron, the forum's general secretary, sees it as "the mouthpiece of organized youth in Europe". Its task is to act as a political point of contact between young people's organizations and the European institutions, especially the European Commission and the Parliament.

Although its finance comes from the Community budget, it is completely outside the Community institutions and, as is the case with any other such pressure group, the European institutions are not officially obliged to listen to it or even to ask for its views. Nevertheless, a well-organized pressure group is hard to ignore.

The forum brings together youth associations of a social, cultural or general nature, as well as youth organizations of many political colours. Its membership is composed, on the one hand, of the nine member states' national youth committees and, on the other, of 21 international youth organi-

zations, some, but not all, of which are politically or religiously motivated.

So, although the forum cannot claim to speak for all young people in Europe, it does represent a very wide cross-section of young people who are active in one way or another. For Gilbert Véron, the wonder is that such a mixed bag could even come to agree on the creation of the forum.

The forum now has its own permanent secretariat in Brussels and has already got down to work. The subjects in which it is interested are wide-ranging and include unemployment among young people, their living and working conditions and the Community's educational and cultural situation.

Priority subjects so far, though, have been the current renegotiation of the Lomé Convention, the Community's relations with South Africa and the 5th UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD V) in Manila. The forum's working parties have already drawn up reports on these subjects.

Gilbert Véron is hopeful of getting a fair hearing at European level. The European Parliament, whose role in setting up the forum was crucial, has recently stated that it considers it important that there should be close and regular contacts between it and the forum. For the Commission's part, its social partners office maintains close links with the forum and coordinates relations between it and the rest of the Commission.

One of the forum's main handicaps is the fact that young people do not stay young for ever and that it therefore has a very fast turnover in membership which may cause problems in the continuity of its work. Its trump card is, though, that since many of the young people belonging to the organizations,

which make up the forum will in years to come hold positions of influence, the views they express now are worth listening to.

THIRD WORLD

Close encounters of a useful kind



Space-age technology is increasingly being used to help poor parts of the world obtain food and develop their resources. The Community is a firm believer in the value of this new-fangled hardware.

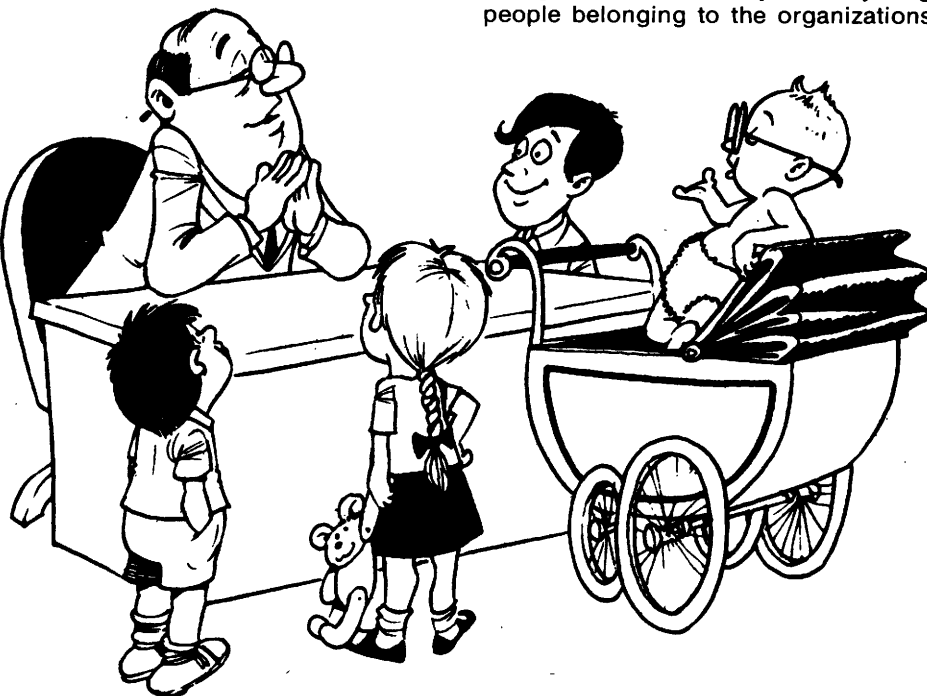
The use of satellites and distant sensing has been part of the Community's efforts to assist the Third World for some years. It all began in 1972 when projects it sponsored led to an inventory—prepared by aerial photography and sensing devices—of the rice and coffee crops in Madagascar.

Since then the Community's Joint Research Centre has worked with the European Space Agency, to which most European countries belong, and with developing countries in the Lomé Convention to intensify the use of such space science. Countries in the Mediterranean region have also benefitted. The focus has been on remote sensing of the earth's resources weather forecasting and telecommunications.

Currently the Joint Research Centre is looking closely at using such technology to prepare inventories of forestry or agricultural resources and the management of water resources and water storage.

It is also considering aid to set up a regional centre in West Africa to handle information from eight countries in the drought-plagued Sahel region. This information will help weather forecasting in the region, one of the poorest in the world, and thus contribute to better management of what agriculture exists.

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Books about Europe

Louise WEISS — **Combats pour l'Europe (Fighting for Europe)** — Editions Albin Michel — 361 pages — Bfrs 377 — 1979

At a time when Europe is in the limelight, the focal point of many thoughts, discussions and hopes, it is fascinating, and maybe necessary, to read this second volume of Louise Weiss' memoirs. Even the title tells us something.

In *Une petite fille du siècle*, Louise Weiss recounts her adolescent struggles, how World War II was a disaster for her generation and how, as a journalist, she founded the weekly *Europe nouvelle*, which found international fame as soon as the negotiations for the Treaty of Versailles began. This time the peace has been signed and we read that she is travelling tirelessly across the ruined continent, devoted to a reconciliation between France and Germany, to the flourishing of the democracies of the Danube and to the reopening of relations with the Russia of Lenin and Stalin (both of whom she met in Moscow in 1921) but, above all, to the permanency of the League of Nations.

At the same time, Louise Weiss, her talent emerging more clearly every day and surrounded by illustrious friends such as Aristide Briand, Gustav Stresemann and Paul Valéry, monitors international conferences, gets to grips with dossiers and founds a school for peace where the most famous Europeans of the day come to speak.

But she still has time for the literature and art of her time. Her writing, her school and her house are centres of thought and generous deeds. She is tireless, cheerful, interested and human.

But alas, democratic Europe was not to be and the tide of facism mounted as Goebbels, as Hitler's emissary, ranted from the platform of the League of Nations. This disaster Louise Weiss lived through. Her analyses are dazzling, her portraits unforgettable and her adventures extraordinary. And the dramatic tale of the failure of Europe on the eve of the second world war is full of lessons for those who hope to see Europe, finally, built today.

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Jean-Pierre QUENTIN — **Pratique de l'Europe Communautaire (European**

Community Practice) — Memento API L, 27 rue Hoche, BP 178, 78004 Versailles — 97 pages — 1978

Europe is prey to conflicting dangers, says Jean Chenevier in the preface to this work, and most of them are due to a lack of information about EEC achievements and about what is involved in building the Community. So agreement ought to be reached on distributing such information.

The author's first aim was to produce a simple, highly practical book for economic operators in the EEC. Too many firms still ignore the potential benefits for exports, inter-company cooperation, financing, access to information and so on. But he does not think the unification of Europe amounts to just the creation of a common market with strictly economic aims. These technical and practical elements, that are important in themselves, form the basis for integration that will embrace social, political and cultural aspects as well.

These various questions, which may appear esoteric, are presented clearly albeit with a certain amount of simplification. Quentin is an ideal author for a work of this kind. After a special assignment with an "association for information about Europe", he went on to be head of general information and documentation and then industry, trade and the professions at the Paris office of the EEC Commission. He is now adviser at the CEREC EEC study, research and education centre, collaborating, in particular, with the Institut de l'Entreprise sur les questions Européennes.

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J.A. GREGOIRE — **Vivre sans pétrole (Living without oil)** — Editions Flammarion — Service ALF, 26 rue Racine, 75278 Paris — 215 pages — Bfrs 293 — 1979

Of all the engineers who have helped make the motor car what it is today, the name of Grégoire stands out because it was he who invented the front wheel drive. But, as early as 1974, he understood the threat that the oil crisis held for man's favourite piece of machinery.

Since then, he has been looking for ways to go on driving with less and less fuel. And alongside this problem,

he sees another, infinitely more serious one. How can man survive with ever-decreasing oil supplies and soon with no oil supplies at all?

Grégoire has spent several years studying all possible solutions to these vital questions. New fuel? New sources of energy? The anxious reader will follow the arguments closely, as his life and maybe the survival of both himself and his descendents depends on the outcome.

"There was a fivefold increase in world consumption between 1950 and 1975. There was a fantastic economic boom, the high point of the oil-based civilization.

"Between 1975 and the year 2000, world consumption should stabilize. In 25 years it will only rise by 41%, although it rose by 500% over the previous 25! This incredible change will alter man's destiny. It is the beginning of the end for the civilization based on oil", writes Grégoire.

This prophetic, visionary and startling work should shake us out of our misguided euphoria. For our whole civilization, of which oil is the basis and the car one of the greatest achievements, will be in danger tomorrow. This careful study, which is backed up by interesting figures, does more than look at the threats to our future. It proposes some surprising solutions.

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Jean CASTAREDE — **De l'Europe de la raison à celle du cœur (From a Europe of reason to a Europe of the heart)** — Fernand Nathan — 383 pages — Bfrs 347 — 1979

In the space of 30 years, Europe has taken shape in concrete achievements of essentially economic inspiration, thanks to the will of a handful of eminent politicians. This Europe was born of the threat of the cold war and consolidated by Franco-German reconciliation. It began with six members, expanded to nine and will perhaps one day have twelve. Today, with its common market set up by the Treaty of Rome, it can be proud of its place as the second largest economic unit in the world, after the USA, and the largest as far as external trade is concerned.

But the building of Europe is not without its problems. There have

been agricultural marathons, financial tensions and the defence of individual interests. These crises need examining and simplifying and this is what Castarède sets out to do in presenting a summary, a chronological list, tables and a glossary for each subject.

With direct European elections, the people of Europe must remember that the world, the context for the development of their continent, has changed. In addition to the problems of civilization and the economic crisis, there is a threat of world-wide political and military destabilization. Our one chance of survival is to forge a new model for man, reflecting the Europe spirit. The unification of Europe, in the initial stages, has been a matter of reason. And reason must not neglect the heart.

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André DANZIN — **Science et la Renaissance de l'Europe (Science and the Renaissance of Europe)** — Editions Chotard et Associés, 1, rue Garancière 75006 Paris — 212 pages — Bfrs 456 — 1979

EEC commissioner Guido Brunner and Nobel Prizewinner Ilya Prigogine wrote the preface to this book which is the outcome of discussions by 21 scientists (translated by one of their number).

They are all members of CERD, the European R & D committee, and they all have experience of running public or private research centres. They are all from the Community and each of them is free to express his opinions in the committee, independently and with no other dictates than those of his own conscience.

Danzin, the author, is chairman of the committee. He studied at the Ecole Polytechnique and the Ecole Supérieure d'Electricité, is head of the Institut de Recherche d'Informatique et d'Automatique and a member of the Club of Rome. It was his colleagues who encouraged him to give his personal view of Europe, shaped in the light of CERD discussions, in book form.

The work is also an official report to the EEC Commission, aimed at helping with the design of a Community scientific and technological policy.

It sounds the alarm about the future of Europe, if nothing is done to improve the way things are developing. But it is full of hope—provided some action is taken.

Institut d'études européennes — **Le Rôle de l'Europe dans le nouvel ordre économique international (Europe's role in the new international economic order)** — Editions de L'Université de Bruxelles — 355 pages — Bfrs 690 — 1979

Europe's role in the new international economic order was the main subject of a lively colloquium organized last October by the Institut d'études européennes at the University of Brussels (ULB). The two-day meeting allowed many leading academic figures and others directly involved in the North-South dialogue to outline the respective positions of the industrialized and developing countries on the main issues of the negotiations on a new international economic order.

These notably included: raw materials (with reports on oil and the "integrated programme"); the transfer of technology; and industrial redeployment, which requires unprecedented restructuring on the part of the older industrial countries.

Each subject was covered by two reports, one presenting the industrialized and the other the developing countries' points of view, followed by discussions with a numerous participation. A final session then wrapped up opinions on Europe's role in the new international economic order.

The colloquium was of a high level and the university setting made for frank discussions, bypassing the familiar tactical approaches and clarifying the issues which fundamentally concern all involved in the North-South dialogue. This publication of the main points made in the colloquium may help lead to acceptable solutions and the establishment of the basis of a new international economic order.

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Alfred LAU — **En route pour l'Europe (En route for Europe)** — Univers-Verlag, Bielefeld — 148 pages — 1979

"Building gateways is one of the main occupations of man and principal concerns of architecture. Having civilized America (and other continents), the Europeans have now got to discover Europe." So says Leo Tindemans, one of the prime movers in the construction of the new Europe. He goes on to say: "the precise aim of this book is to provide a stimulus and open gates. So let's go in..."

The fact that the artists, architects and philosophers of yesteryear were known and could practice throughout the length and breadth of Europe says a lot. Any university would welcome them and students were free to choose their own teachers. Anyone with creative talent needed no other identification than his name and his reputation. We have taken a great step backwards in this respect and nationalism has exerted harmful and regressive pressure.

The authors of this joint, three-language production suggest that one day we cure our blindness and unite behind the European standard for the march towards the United States of Europe.

The book also provides a brilliant illustration of Europe past and present, confirming one of the aspects of the great European ideal.

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Yves DELAHAYE — **L'Europe sous les mots — Le texte et la déchirure (Europe behind the words — the text and what lies beneath)** — Payot, 106 bvd Saint-Germain, Paris — 200 pages — FF 55 or Bfrs 418 — 1979

Are political texts like old garments, worn thin in parts and showing lining or a patch of skin? Are there bare patches in political texts where other, more revealing texts show through?

In a previous work (*La frontière et le texte*), Yves Delahaye laid the conceptual and methodological bases for the semiotics of international relations. This new book is both an illustration and further stage in the project. The author analyses French (Chirac), English (Callaghan) and German (Schmidt) political writings and a common statement by the nine member states. He reveals, as a contrast to a genuine desire for union, that the member states are unable to imagine a Europe in any image other than their own or conceive of any original architecture for its construction.

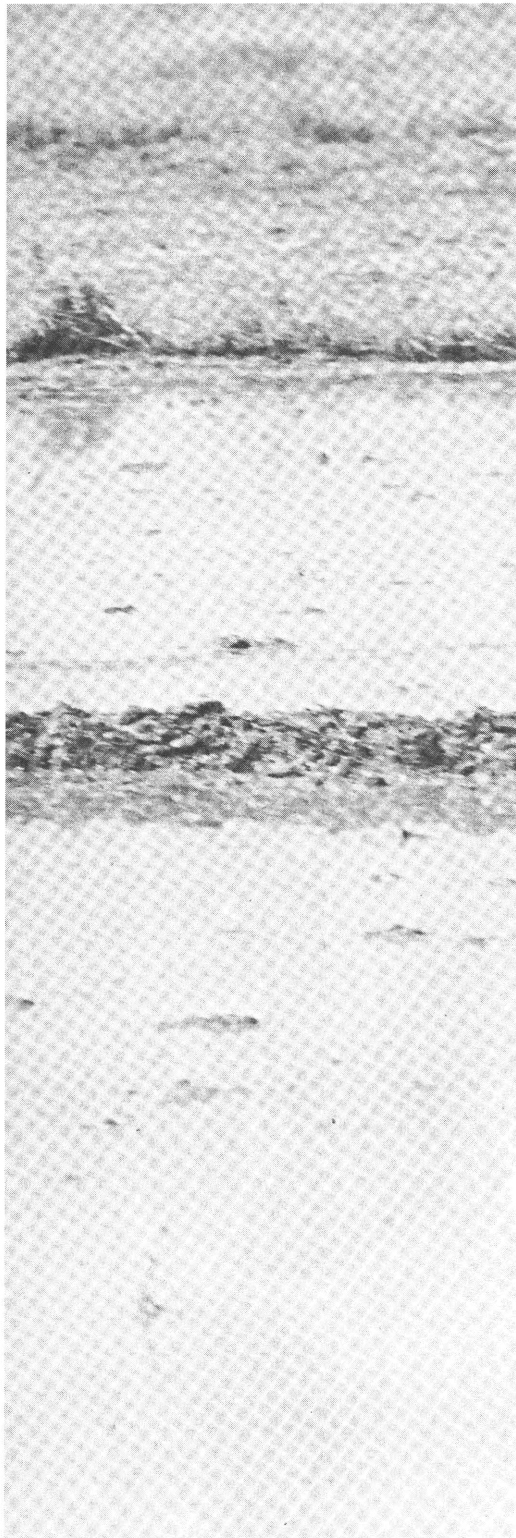
In addition to this discussion of immediate history, there is another, more intimate debate in which the author questions his own action. He does not confine himself to analysing the words of the actors on the world stage. He also looks at his own and tries to reveal his innermost thoughts. This approach, both self-destructive and regenerative, gives the reader the means of contesting the author, and the latter the opportunity for greater self-knowledge.

Agrarian reform and

The central issue of agrarian reform is not so much land itself as water and the means of production



rural development



“There are 4 000 million people in the world today and 73 million more are born every year, more than 70% of them in rural areas in peripheral countries. More than a quarter of the world population is hungry. There are 500 million illiterates, 1 000 million people without medical care and 200 million children without schools. And none of these people has more than \$100 a year to live on.”

So said Hernan Santa Cruz, secretary-general of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development held at FAO headquarters in Rome on 12-20 July. But this does not tell the whole story of the poverty and backwardness of those living in the rural parts of the developing world. The standard of living and immediate prospects of more than 2 000 million “peasants” in the Third World is evidently such that they are socio-economically and educationally backward. And in most of the developing countries there is an ever-widening gap between incomes and standards of living in the town and in the country. The breakdown in ecological balance due, for example, to desertification is a further cause of rural unemployment. It is also one of the reasons why people move away to the towns, where there is nothing for them and they only find a different kind of poverty.

The general problems of the developing countries have already been discussed at many international conferences which, with their sectoral approach, have started to tackle some of the technical issues. But the agricultural lag in the developing countries is at the root of a series of problems. Their effect on the urban areas increases

daily and they have repercussions on the economic life of the whole country and, ultimately, on the expansion of the world economy too. So a global approach must be adopted, not just because rural areas hold the potential solution to the food crisis but also, and above all, to ensure that these deprived populations acquire a minimum of human dignity. These sectoral analyses are “links in the same chain of problems and the solutions to the problems also lie, ultimately, in the agricultural sector and in the transformation of agriculture to bring it up to the level of development in the towns”, Mr Santa Cruz said.

The agrarian reforms that are needed must do more than just alter the system of land ownership. There must be a whole series of social, economic, technical and cultural measures that will modernize the structures on which the standard of living of the rural populations depends. At national level, this will mean providing access to water and land, helping with marketing and storage, carrying out infrastructure work and research, providing education and technical training, creating non-agricultural jobs and generating rural industries, getting the local people (women in particular) involved and so on.

At international level, in view of their dependence on agricultural exports, the developing countries want to take account of international trade, cooperation with other developing countries and the rôle and influence of external financial patterns, be they trade investments or official aid. And all this must fit into the new international economic order. □



PHOTO FAO

Changing rural Africa

The poverty of the rural areas of the developing countries has been sadly familiar for many years. But, unlike their European counterparts (think of the economic and socio-political influence of agriculture in Europe), the farmers of the developing countries rarely get the attention they deserve, either under national development policy or from donors of external aid.

"We should mobilize our forces and make a head-on attack on the backwardness of the rural parts of the developing world", said Hernan Santa Cruz, veteran Chilean diplomat and secretary-general of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development which met in Rome in July to seek a comprehensive way of altering structures and institutions to combat the poverty and underdevelopment of the rural populations. "This situation is one of the main reasons for the present world crisis", Mr Santa Cruz told the *Courier*.

A triple target

In November 1977, the 18th two-yearly FAO conference decided to call an international conference to deal with this problem. Back in 1966 there had already been a world conference on agrarian reform, with Mr Santa Cruz in the chair, but the main aim on that occasion was to reform the system of land ownership. This is where the recent conference differed. There was a triple target, Mr Santa Cruz said: "Ensuring the well-being of the hitherto marginal rural populations. Restoring a balance between demographic pressure and availability of food. And reducing and ultimately eliminating discrepancies between town and country areas. This means reform. Not just the revision of land ownership, that is called for in many places where there is undue pressure on the land, but reforms that will transform the economic, social, technological and cultural conditions of the rural areas, i.e. all those sectors that determine the present state of neglect of the developing world."

National and international reforms

This is tremendous undertaking and a whole range of measures will be required to do it. As well as being ensured access to land, water and other natural resources, the rural

communities must be actively involved in their own economic take-off and they should be the first to decide what exactly is required. And here African women certainly have an important, if little recognized, role to play. Work has to be done on infrastructure, and the marketing and storage of agricultural goods has to be improved. Industrial decentralization, not just in agro-industry but throughout the whole sector, could cut underemployment and unemployment in rural areas, as could the creation of other non-agricultural activities. The people living in these areas are entitled to education and technical training and research and extension schemes must also be run for their benefit.

These measures at national level must fit in with a new international economic order of which agricultural reform and development policies are an integral part. The measures must be aimed at international trade, including the role of transnationals and the influence of external (private and public) aid and investment flows. Here again, the developing countries can help each other and could step up their cooperation.

Time is short

Although the figures cannot give the whole, cruel picture, the basic data gathered by the FAO in preparation for the conference reveals a disquieting situation, to put it mildly. Total arable land in the developing countries, for example, increased from some 750 million ha in 1965 to 811 million ha in 1975, while the rural population went up by 320 million over the same period, in spite of a massive move to the towns. In Africa alone, the figures rose from 170.4 m to 183.5 ha and the rural population from 208.4 to 253.9 m. Over the same decade, the number of people working in agriculture went from 648.1 m to 709.2 m (and from 80.3 m to 91.4 m in Africa alone). This means roughly that there was one extra worker for every extra ha of land brought under cultivation in the developing countries in general.

But the system of land ownership does not necessarily keep pace with the increase in arable land. The number of peasants without land is growing constantly and access tends to be very unequal. In 1970, when a world agricultural census was carried out, Africa had 11 million workers without land and 141 million smallholders (including tenants). In the same year, smallholdings (i.e. farms of less than 2 ha) accounted for 66% of all African farms but only 22.4% of the total area. In the Far East (smallholdings also

less than 2 ha), the figures were 71.1% and 21.7% respectively, in Latin America (less than 10 ha) 67.2% and 3.6% and in the Middle East (less than 5 ha) 54.6% and 9.8%. In Africa, the average smallholding was in fact only 1 ha, as against 2.8 ha for farms overall.

Food production—Africa off to a bad start

More than 450 million people in the Third World suffer from hunger and malnutrition and, although relatively few of them actually starve to death, more than 15 million every year die of diseases caused by not getting enough to eat.

In the developing world in general, food production only increased by 0.3% between 1970 and 1976. The figures for each continent show a deficit for Africa, where the population expands faster than food production. The growth rate of food production in 1970-1976 was -1.4%, as against +1.4% in the Middle East, +0.5% in Latin America and +0.2% in the Far East. So, Africans had the smallest percentage of the recommended minimum calorie intake in 1972-1974, with 91% (as against 92% in the Far East, 100% in the Middle East and 107% in Latin America).

Grain production in the developing countries as a whole only increased by 0.4% between 1970 and 1976 (-0.8% in Africa!) and so imports of grain are rising, having reached 20 million t in 1975. The FAO estimates that they could go as high as 80 million t in the '80s. Here again, Africa is running a large deficit, as it imports more than 30% of the amount it produces (1975). The same occurs in the Middle East, but in the Far East the figure is only 9.6% and in Latin America 7%.

The poor productivity of the land in the developing countries is one explanation. But it is by no means the whole story. Agricultural production per ha in the developing countries was 1.9 t as against 2.4 t in the developed countries in 1972/73. Each farmer in the developing countries produced 1 t whereas his counterpart in the industrialized world produced 6.8 t. So here again, Africa is way behind, with scarcely a third of the industrialized world's production, although the other developing continents manage at least half of this amount. African production per capita was only 1/15 of the level in the industrialized world (as against 1/5 in the Middle East, for example).

Smallholdings (less than two hectares) make up two-thirds of the total number of farms in Africa but cover less than a quarter of the total land area farmed



Hernan Santa Cruz, secretary-general of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development: "a frontal attack must be launched on the backwardness of the rural developing world"

Access to water and other factors of production

Productivity and yield in the developing countries will obviously be poor if they do not have access to the same technological benefits as the developed countries. The amount of fertilizer per ha of arable land is fairly significant here. The developed countries used more than 100 kg per ha, whereas the developing countries as a whole used less than 20 kg and Africa only 5.6 kg fertilizer per ha in 1975.

But, of all the developing regions, Africa is the one with the highest rate of increase in irrigated land, with 3.3% (Far East 2.1%, Latin America 2% and the Middle East 1%). But Africa is merely trying to catch up and irrigated land still only represents 1.1% of its total arable land (Latin America 8.7%, Far East 20.3% and the Middle East 22.8%).

Although there is no shortage of land in Africa, access to water and other, more technical factors of production seem to be the key to a real surge in agricultural and rural development.

A poor record

From every point of view, Africa has to have structural reform if the agricultural situation is to be rectified. "It is very clear that, of all the developing regions of the world, Africa as a whole is the worst affected", Mr Santa Cruz said. This continent, with more than 40 of the 57 ACP countries, contains most of the least developed countries and most of what the World Bank calls the "extremely poor" countries.

In Africa too, agricultural modernization and the introduction of agro-industry have often led to the marginalization of the traditional rural sector. There is an increasingly marked move to the towns, soil deterioration is common and there are frequent breakdowns in the ecological balance, particularly during the periods of drought in the Sahel. Even now, "the sands are advancing".

In the individual countries, the gap between rich and poor is widening and, notwithstanding the expanding slum areas and poverty belts, it is the whole quarter of a million Africans living in the rural areas of the continent who are in greatest need of a change in their time-honoured structures. Not just via controversial green revolutions, but by global, comprehensive approaches of which the Africans themselves must be the main initiators. □

R.D.B.

The current state of rural development in Africa

In September 1978, the FAO presented a study at its tenth regional conference for Africa on agrarian reform and rural development in the region. The study highlighted "some deficiencies in current national policies which tend to widen the gap between urban and rural populations".

In its analysis, printed below, the FAO outlined the main constraints which hamper development of the rural areas in Africa.

Demographic pressure and urbanization

In order to improve rural environment, many governments have, in the past, mounted environment programmes aimed at controlling and/or eradicating both human and animal diseases. These programmes have had some measure of success and have resulted in the increase in both human and animal population. As indicated in table 1, the crude birth rate has improved while the crude death rate has declined, the combination of which has resulted in increased gross reproduction rate (fertility rate). This in large measure is the result of the spread of modern medicine, although medical services remain inadequate in most countries.

Some adverse effects of the accelerating growth in population is the pressure generated on land. The ratio between population and arable land in Africa is among the lowest in the world; 1.6 persons per hectare (ha) of arable land on average, against 2.3 in Latin America and the Near East, and as much as 4.1 in the Far East. However, this conceals the fact that Africa has immense unexploited land and water potential, and hence referring to population pressure on land in Africa would appear paradoxical. The crucial impediment is the inability of African countries, constrained by lack of capital, to bring potential land into productive use.

The phenomenon is that some African countries have the highest demographic growth rates in the world. Against an average world annual population growth of 1.9 per cent and 2.4 per cent in developing market economies in 1970/75, some of the most populous African countries had growth rates exceeding 3 per cent (Kenya 3.3%; Algeria 3.2%; Zambia 3.2%; Tanzania 3.1%). Over half of Africa's population lives in countries where the growth rate is above that of the developing market economy countries' average.

This fast increase in population, which is a relatively new phenomenon in Africa (it was just over 2% in the early 1950s) is quite a disrupting factor when it occurs in relatively static socio-economic systems which are found in most rural societies in the region. The increasing fertility and declining mortality rates would result in an increase in the population of the extreme brackets (the young and the old). This modification in the age structure of population would result in a higher dependency ratio as evidenced by table 1. Such a modification upsets the balance between production

factors and consumption requirements. Together with the total growth in population, it increases the pressure on cultivated land, provoking either an intensification of land use or reducing the fallow periods in areas where shifting cultivation is practised. This could lead to a decline in the level of soil fertility in a region where fertilizer use is negligible. Alternatively, it would generate a "push" pressure on migrations, as has been observed in the Sahel and a number of high population density areas.

Migration has to be considered together with other demographic characteristics in the region. In part, migration originated as a result of population increases and in part stimulated by the "pull" effect exercised by expectations of higher incomes and better living standards outside agriculture. They occur towards the direction of urban and industrial centres, but also take the form of migration towards other rural areas in search of more and/or better marginal land, or shifts from agriculture to tertiary activities within the rural sector.

The pace of urbanisation has been quite fast in the region. The average increase in urban population in Africa has been 5.3 per cent a year between 1960 and 1970 and 5.5 per cent between 1970 and 1976. This is higher than the average of all developing countries where the rate of increase has been 4.4 per cent and 4.3 per cent during the respective periods. Urban population which was only about 10 per cent in 1960, went up to 18 per cent by 1970. See Table 3.1 for details.

The pattern of migration is age and sex specific with males between the ages of 15 to 34 having the highest propensity to migration. Social changes which accompany such migration involve separation from the land of migrant ancestral roots, separation of generation and sexes, and to a certain extent leaving behind the children and the old people. Because of this pattern of migration, the population of most urban centres are socially imbalanced, there being more males than females while in rural areas women exceed the population of males by about 7 per cent only. The average age of the farmers has been advancing from about 35 to 40 years.

Such migration could contribute to the decline in food output. There could be three main causes. The first concerns the deterioration of the family life as a result of the migratory labour system. In this system, the role of women becomes very arduous because they have to bring up children, undertake agricultural tasks and maternal care for the children. Another problem concerns the relatively low wages in real terms received by the migrants. Out of the income they have to purchase domestic requirements where they are working; this leaves a very small saving, barely a third of the earnings, for repatriation to the family left in rural areas. The other problem is that the most able-bodied persons are withdrawn from agricultural production. The old and young people left behind are unable to produce sufficient food to feed themselves and the urbanites. Although Table 3.1 shows that the dependency ratio is about 1, continued rural to urban migration may raise this level in the rural areas with adverse effect on agricultural and food production.

No serious attempt has ever been given to check rural to urban migration. This was due possibly to the uncritical acceptance in the early sixties that there was considerable disguised unemployment in agriculture. Consequent upon this acceptance, industrialization was launched to absorb an apparent surplus labour force from agriculture. It was



Population growth puts increasing pressure on the land and accelerates the drift to urban centres which are unable to cope with the newcomers

contended that the remaining labour force would increase their labour input to compensate for that which has been withdrawn. It was widely held that there would be no reduction in food and agricultural production. Labour use surveys in Africa have indicated that there is a limit beyond which further labour withdrawal could lead to a reduction in output. This has been corroborated by indices of population, agricultural and food production rates in Africa. There is some evidence that an inverse correlation exists between the degree of urbanization and the level of self-sufficiency in food supply.

Limits to the land's capacity

However, the overall population increase has had some adverse effect on population-carrying land capacity. In the past, it was generally held that land was not a major constraint to rural development as it was in plentiful supply. This notion is currently being questioned. In the past, the authorities were concerned largely with human population growth and its effects on environment but it has now been realized that it is imperative to rely on population equivalent(1), a notion that takes into account the nutritional requirements of both animal and human population. If this is taken into account, population-carrying capacity of the land is much limited in certain areas where overstocking of animals exists. This type of high pressure on the land, which causes deterioration of the environment, is aggravated in cases like the Sahel.

Under conditions of rainfed agriculture, a number of areas experience seasonal moisture deficits, which largely control the pattern of agricultural practices. As the value of agricultural products is low, farmers usually find it economically unattractive to undertake the intensive type of cultivation involving heavy capital outlays and operating costs. In extreme arid cases, irrigation is the only alternative. There are also vast areas in the Africa region which are infested with tsetse fly, a vector of trypanosomiasis and human

sleeping sickness. The infestation precludes the keeping of livestock and human habitation in areas which are fertile and if reclaimed could provide additional virgin fertile land for the expansion of cultivation and human settlement. Also, large areas of the region are under swamps which, if reclaimed, could open up opportunities for the production of high value crops including the keeping of livestock. Other ecological constraints arise from lack of economic, commercial and social infrastructure and rural roads, marketing facilities, water supply and health facilities.

Technical inputs

Agriculture in the Africa region has been developed over many years and agricultural systems have achieved certain equilibria which change very little despite exhortation. Livestock form a separate component of agriculture, and complementary relationship which exists between crop and livestock has not been exploited. The distribution of improved seed varieties is limited to the principal export crops and is well organized. For traditional food crops hardly any organized system for distribution exists; farmers plant seed saved from the previous season's crops.

The application of technical production inputs (fertilizer, pesticides, herbicides, etc.) is restricted to export commercial crops. There is a wide variation in the level of application, averaging about 7 kg per hectare of arable land in the 1970's. The average dosage also varies from less than 1 kg of nutrient per hectare in Chad, Ethiopia, Mali and Upper Volta to 5 kg per hectare in Malawi, 7 kg in the Sudan and 8 kg in Botswana. The dosages are far below optimal requirements. Like fertilizer, pesticides are not used on a large scale.

However, in the absence of reliable research results, judgment on the use of these technical inputs should be made with caution. In a number of soils, fertilizer responses are uncertain while in others incremental output accruing from the use of the input is inadequate to be economically attractive to the farmers.

(1) Alan C.G. et al., *Africa Survey*, John Wiley and Sons, New York.

In the field of animal production, no substantial breed improvement has taken place because of difficulties in controlling animal diseases through chemical means. Local breeds are tolerant to these diseases, but the animals are of poor genetic material and quality. The introduction of improved breeds has been impeded by lack of preventive measures against diseases.

The effects of mechanization

Many governments have introduced tractor cultivation as a measure to increase agricultural production. Up until now, there is no evidence to indicate that mechanical cultivation has had any substantial impact on the agricultural production scene. The potential benefit of large acreages cultivated and higher yields through more timely cultivation and planting, have been offset by high costs, low outputs per tractor and a tendency to substitute tractor for labour. Emphasis on the mechanized farmers' programmes have overshadowed the development and promotion of appropriate less sophisticated technology such as ox-drawn implements which have a greater potential than tractors for increasing internal factor productivity of land and labour under traditional farming practices. It would also act as a stepping stone to full mechanization in due course by training farmers to handle gradually an increasing acreage.

Characteristics of the land tenure system

It would appear paradoxical to talk of land tenure as an institutional constraint to rural development in Africa because of the land-surplus situation. As presented in the illustration, several factors are responsible for the emer-

“Up until now, there is no evidence to indicate that mechanical cultivation has had any substantial impact on the agricultural production scene”



PHOTO FAO



“In the field of animal production, no substantial breed improvement has taken place because of difficulties in controlling animal diseases”

gence of different types of land ownership and use. In the African region as a whole, five broad types of land tenure can be delineated: (i) feudal and/or semi-feudal; (ii) traditional communal; (iii) individualisation (market economy); (iv) plantation ranch and (v) emerging socialist category.

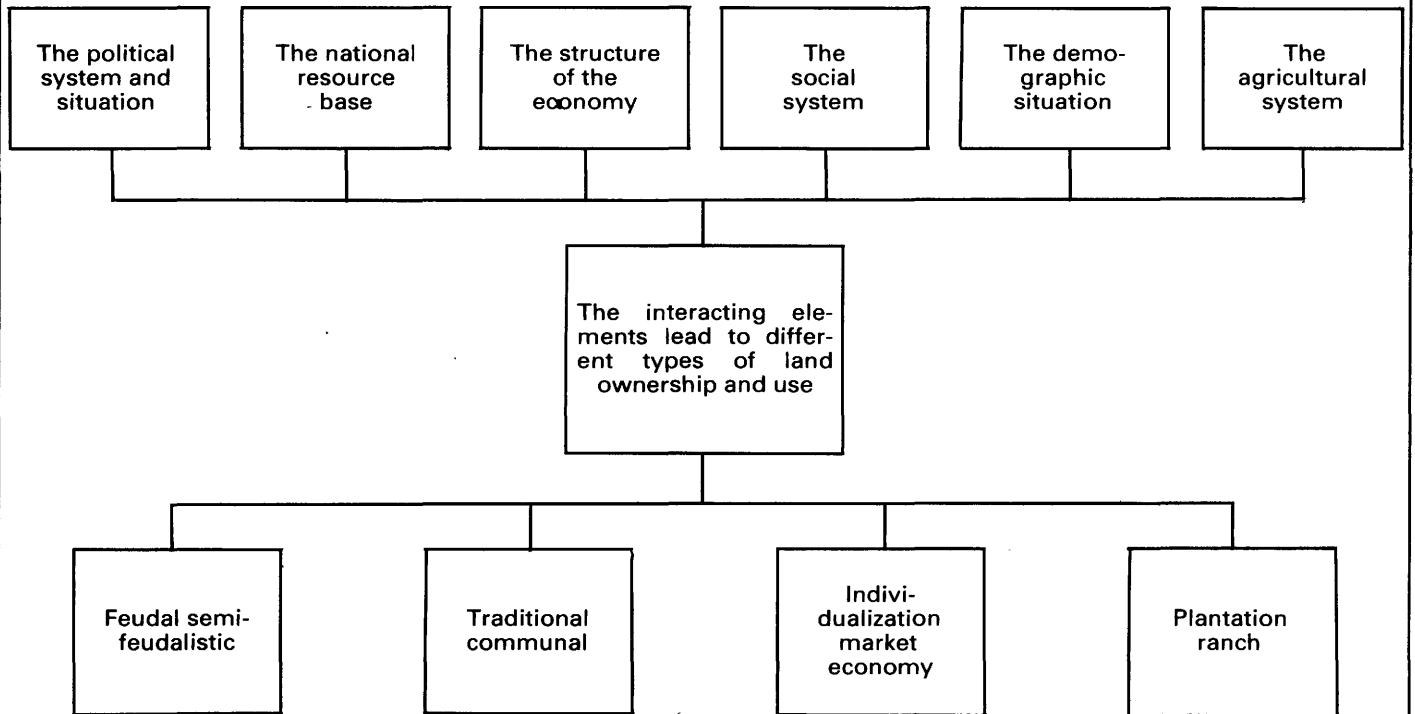
The predominant land tenure system is the traditional communal usufruct over land which varies from country to country. In a number of countries the land is either vested in the tribe or clan, and its use is regulated by the tribal or clan chiefs in whom is vested authority to allocate land for cultivation by members of the tribes or clans. Individual right of use of land is limited to the period of agricultural production after which land may revert to communal ownership. Because land is held in an owner-like possession during the cropping cycles, it is possible under this system for one to acquire a *de facto* permanent ownership especially in areas of high population density. This has been happening in the eastern part of Africa.

In most areas of western Africa, the sovereign right over land has been vested in the clan chief as “stool” land. The chief’s subjects have had no difficulty in acquiring land as it could be allocated to them as much as they are able to use. During occupancy, the users have indisputable tenurial right over the land. In land surplus areas, land can also be allocated to strangers (non-members of the clan).

However, in recent years a process of individual ownership, secured by title deeds over land, is emerging. Land administration laws have been reformed to take account of this element. The laws now permit entrepreneurial individuals to acquire land and have it registered to ensure security of tenure. Whilst such land expropriation has helped to boost the production of certain crops, it has also marginalized a number of peasant farmers. For instance, in the savannah belt, valley bottom land is suitable for rice cultivation. Entrepreneurial individuals have expropriated some tracts of land in these valleys which is used by the indigenous population for seasonal grazing during the dry period and also for hunting. Rice cultivation precludes seasonal grazing.

Although it is true that the fertile valley soil, subject to seasonal flooding, can best be worked by mechanical aids, the expropriation is benefiting only a few individuals as the suitable technology (tractors, ploughs, etc.) is outside the managerial scope of the peasants. Some chiefs too who

Factors which influence land ownership and use



1. High property concentration
2. Great social economic inequality
3. Low land productivity
4. Low level of technology
5. Operated by tenants
6. High labour intensity
7. Low capital intensity
8. Production mainly for subsistence
9. Institutional structures centralized

1. Low property concentration
2. Sovereign right vested in the community
3. Decentralized cultivation usufruct rights
4. Moderate to high socio-economic equality
5. Low labour productivity
6. Low land productivity
7. Low level of technology
8. Medium labour intensity
9. Low capital intensity
10. Production for subsistence
11. Support services underdeveloped

1. Medium to high property concentration
2. Medium to high socio-economic inequality
3. Medium to high land productivity
4. Medium to high level of technology
5. Capital intensive
6. Fairly labour extensive
7. Market production oriented
8. Institutions and services dispersed

1. High property concentration
2. Great social inequality
3. Great income inequality
4. Medium to high land productivity
5. Low to medium labour productivity
6. Medium to high level of technology
7. Operated by managers and wage labour
8. Production mainly for export

would have stood for the right of their peasants, are giving way to lucrative cash tributes received from land owners. The benefits are retained by the chiefs and not distributed to their subjects. This process is introducing an element of an evolution from the traditional tenurial type to a market economy system somewhat diffused in a situation developing to a *de facto* semi-feudal authority exercised by the chiefs. Elsewhere the land expropriation in the sub-region is taking place, especially in the vicinity of urban centres for orchards and weekend farming.

The plantation type of land ownership emerged as a result of the need for capitalistic form of agricultural production which involves large-scale land alienation. This type of land ownership is common in the wet belts where corporate

bodies or individuals obtain leases over land over a specified length of time for the production of the crops. Such recent alienation and/or expropriation has been for beef ranching in East Africa.

Under pastoral land tenure, the characteristically transhumane situation precludes any claim of tribal ownership but ownership is almost at the national level. Livestock are usually herded over long distances in search of grazing and water, and any sedentary agriculture has so far not been successful. Traditional systems of range management in the past have been simply under the control of the tribal chiefs.

For instance, in Somalia the elders had customary authority to block a piece of rangeland and sanction grazing on it only after the rangeland had adequately regenerated. The

nomads respected this sanction and voluntarily restrained from grazing their animals on blocked rangeland. In recent years the authority of the elders has apparently been weakened, and resulted in a temporary breakdown in rotational grazing of rangeland. However, the Somali authority has restored it, and replaced tribal with statutory sanction for enforcing rotational grazing.

In the Sahel, a similar practice was adopted and the local chief enforced rotational grazing. In the same way, the authority of the chiefs over the years waned, and the system of range management became haphazard and uncontrolled. It led to overgrazing in certain areas, resulting in gully erosion, run-off, etc. Coupled with the recent drought, many people migrated either to the south or urban centres.

In between traditional communal and individual ownership exist several variants of partnership between the peasants and the state such as in the Gezira in the Sudan, nucleus plantations, *paysannat* in Rwanda and Zaire, and collectives in Tanzania and Benin.

Widespread malnutrition

In a number of African countries food production has failed to keep pace with population growth. In many countries (see table 2) the average food energy supply remains well below minimum nutritional requirements, as recommended by FAO and WHO. The average protein content of the diet, expressed by the protein-energy ratio given in table 2, is also inadequate in many countries (a value of 10 to 11 per cent approximately representing the requirement, depending on protein quality); however, since protein is anyway used for energy when the energy intake is deficient, an increase in total food intake is usually the first priority.

Such figures do not give information on distribution of food consumption, and certain population groups are certainly worse off than indicated by national averages.

Protein-energy malnutrition (PEM), particularly affecting young children, is widespread in the region; this can take the form of severe wasting (marasmus), protein depletion (kwashiorkor), or intermediate conditions. Community surveys(1) conducted between 1963 and 1973, covering some 34 000 children (mostly under 5 years old) indicate a wide range of prevalence of at least moderate PEM, in some cases as high as 73 per cent. It is estimated that over 2 million children in Africa may have suffered from severe PEM. It is also known that between 30 to 60 per cent of children below the age of 15 suffer from nutritional anaemia and this is much higher for children below the age of 5. As a result of nutritional deficiencies, infection and vulnerability to disease, infant mortality rates are rather high in Africa compared to the rest of the world.

Training for the rural areas

In the Africa region generally, the educational system has tended to emphasize conventional schooling, and technical education and vocational training have been overshadowed. The school leavers, whose education and training have geared them for white-collar jobs are now not willing to accept jobs they regard as inferior. In addition, they have also acquired "reserve price" for the supply of their labour. If earnings fall below this "reserve price", they would not accept the jobs, and instead they would rather migrate to urban and industrial centres.

(1) See Recheigl (Jr) M, (ed) (1976) *Man, Food, Nutrition*, Ohio, CRC Press, pp. 3, 6 and 7.

The loss of the authority of local chiefs in the Sahel, who traditionally decided the grazing rota, has led to overcrowded pasture and the breakdown of the ecological balance



PHOTO GTZ/RAU

As far as the agricultural sector is concerned, five levels of education and training can broadly be distinguished: (i) the Faculty of Agriculture and Veterinary Science which award degrees in agricultural science and veterinary medicine; (ii) agricultural colleges or institutes which award diplomas; (iii) certificate courses which offer awards for specialized skills (dairy technology, fitters, refrigeration mechanics, etc.); (iv) in-service training for staff; and (v) farmer training: outdoor, and residential courses of short duration.

Despite these training facilities, the graduates from these schools have not been able to meet manpower needs. This is largely due to lack of proper manpower planning. In several countries one extension worker is responsible for over 15 000 farmers. Because of regional disparities in potential areas for agricultural development, the few available technical staff are usually concentrated in favoured agricultural areas quite often earmarked for export-oriented production. In areas where extension services are reasonably adequately staffed, their effectiveness has been reduced by lack of transport facilities, access to the latest technical information on applied research results, lack of demonstration tools, frequent transfers, numerous financial handicaps and heavy administrative workload. The other problem is insufficient training of technical staff in the arts and science of extension services. One serious weakness in farmer training is the denial of women to attend such courses, despite the fact that they play a cardinal role in agricultural activities.

There is a dualistic situation in the labour market. In urban areas labour enjoys the advantages of organized trade unions and collective bargaining and minimum wage legislation operates. In rural areas this situation is quite different, and it becomes impossible to retain youngsters in the land because of widening disparities between rural and urban income. The gap is further widened by the operation of fiscal policy which taxes export crops thereby depressing income in rural areas.

Many governments face the same dilemma. They often require that the agricultural estates and plantations should pay statutory wage rates, but operators of these enterprises responded by intensifying the use of capital-intensive technologies in order to reduce production cost.

In an attempt to increase agricultural production and provide employment to the rural population, many governments have established state farms, farm settlements and youth and revolutionary mechanised brigades. The impact of these strategies has been minimal because of the excessive expense involved in running them. In many cases, they remain a major drain on foreign exchange through the operation of capital investment allowances, rebates on fuels, subsidized repairs and training centres.

The unequal distribution of wealth

In considering the economic setting, three dimensions have to be taken into account: (i) the ownership of the national wealth, (ii) spatial and (iii) time horizons. Some 70 per cent of the economically active rural population derive their livelihood directly from the agricultural sector but their combined contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) averages about 30 per cent. This anomaly arises from the fact that the rural people are engaged largely in non-mining primary production activities whose contribution to GDP is small. The secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy account for the bulk of monetary GDP.

This disparity is reflected in the distribution of the national wealth which remains highly skewed. On average some 25 per cent of the populations own 70 to 80 per cent of the

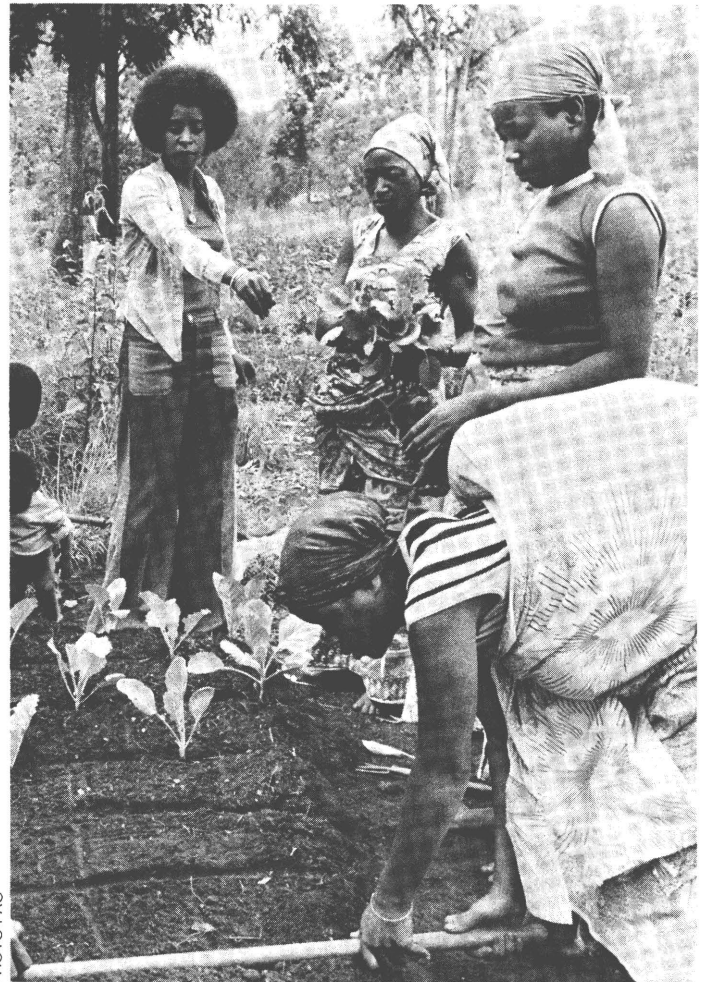


PHOTO: FAO

“One serious weakness in farmer training is the denial of women to attending such courses, despite the fact that they play a cardinal role in agricultural activities”

national wealth. The 25 per cent are those people living in urban and industrial centres leaving the bulk of the population owning a meagre quarter of the national wealth. Through various indigenization measures of the national economies, attempt is being made to effect equitable distribution of income. The effect of the measures is still minimal as the indigenous elite are replacing expatriates and the rural population are not yet sharing equitably the national wealth.

Within each country there exist wide regional disparities in the level of development and hence geographical distribution of income. In most cases, development efforts are concentrated in moist well watered areas which usually receive disproportionately a large share of investment support both from the private and public sectors. Such disparities have encouraged migration from one rural area to another.

The time dimension consideration is related to the realisation of targeted objectives. These could be for achieving a certain level of targeted economic growth rate, increasing per caput income, equitable distribution of the national wealth, the removal of regional imbalances in development, provision of social services, etc. This would require short, medium and long-term planning. So far, many plans in Africa tend to emphasize a project approach whose economic rate of return can easily be quantified. Such an approach ignores the social aspects of development. There is need to re-examine planning methodologies, and to increase indigenous research and development whose results would suit local conditions. □

Table 1
Some social indicators of development in Africa
(Population characteristics)

	Crude birth rate	Crude death rate	Infant Mortality rate (live birth)	Life expectancy at birth (Years)	Gross reproduction rate	1975 Population			Age Structure			Dependency ratio
						Rural	Urban	% Urban	0-14 Year	15-64 Years	65 Over	
						million			%			
Chad	43	23	160	40	—	3.46	0.56	13.9	41	55	4	0.8
Gambia	43	23	65	41	2.8	0.43	0.08	15.0	41	55	4	1.0
Mali	50	27	—	37	3.3	4.93	0.77	13.5	49	49	2	1.0
Mauritania	44	23	169	41	2.9	1.14	0.14	11.0	44	51	5	1.0
Niger	52	22	162	43	—	4.16	0.43	9.4	45	51	4	0.9
Senegal	46	23	156	—	3.0	3.17	1.25	28.2	42	54	4	0.9
Upper Volta	49	29	182	35	3.2	5.53	0.50	8.3	43	54	3	0.9
Sahelian						22.82	3.73	14.0				
Guinea	47	25	216	—	—	3.56	0.86	19.5	44	47	9	1.1
Guinea Bissau	41	30	47	34	—	0.40	0.12	23.1	—	—	—	—
Liberia	50	21	159	53	2.6	1.30	0.41	24.0	42	55	3	1.2
Sierra Leone	45	23	183	41	2.9	2.44	0.54	18.0	42	55	3	1.1
Coastal West						7.70	1.93	20.0				
Benin	54	26	110	—	—	2.52	0.15	17.9	46	48	6	1.1
Ghana	47	18	155	47	3.2	6.41	3.26	35.0	47	49	4	1.3
Ivory Coast	46	23	140	42	3.1	4.24	2.10	34.1	42	55	3	1.0
Nigeria	49	25	157	39	3.3	59.00	16.60	22.0	45	53	2	1.2
Togo	31	29	179	40	—	1.84	0.40	18.0	47	47	6	0.9
Coastal East						74.01	23.21	23.9				
Western Africa						104.53	28.87	27.62				
Cameroon	—	—	142	48	—	4.88	1.52	23.9	39	56	5	0.8
CAE	—	—	175	40	—	1.11	0.67	37.6	42	54	4	0.9
Congo	44	21	160	42	—	0.81	0.53	39.6	49	46	5	1.0
Eq. Guinea	35	22	53	41	—	0.24	0.08	25.0	14	82	4	—
Gabon	33	25	—	39	2.0	0.36	0.13	26.5	34	61	5	0.6
Equatorial						7.40	2.93	28.4				
Angola	—	—	203	35	—	4.92	0.55	10.0	42	54	4	0.9
Burundi	41	20	138	41	2.8	3.66	0.07	2.0	45	52	3	0.9
Rwanda	50	22	163	43	—	4.24	0.12	3.0	51	46	3	1.2
Zaire	44	23	104	41	2.8	18.05	6.68	27.0	42	55	3	1.1
Eq. Central						30.87	7.42	19.4				
Central Africa						38.27	10.35	21.28				
Botswana	45	14	126	55	3.2	0.56	0.11	17.0	46	49	5	1.0
Ethiopia	46	25	84	39	1.0	24.85	3.07	11.0	45	51	4	1.1
Kenya	50	17	—	50	—	11.61	1.74	13.0	49	46	5	—
Lesotho	37	15	106	46	1.1	1.17	0.04	4.0	41	55	4	0.8
Madagascar	—	—	—	—	—	7.69	1.14	13.0	—	—	—	—
Malawi	54	28	142	39	3.2	4.68	0.41	8.0	44	52	4	0.9
Mauritius	25	8	164	63	2.3	0.86	0.03	3.0	40	56	4	0.9
Mozambique	43	23	93	41	2.8	8.13	1.11	12.0	40	56	4	1.5
Somalia	47	22	—	40	3.0	3.15	0.03	1.0	46	52	2	0.9
Swaziland	52	24	—	41	3.5	4.45	0.49	10.0	48	49	3	1.0
Tanzania	47	22	163	43	3.2	13.56	1.17	8.0	44	53	3	0.9
Uganda	45	17	136	49	—	10.51	1.04	9.0	47	48	5	1.1
Zambia	50	21	—	44	3.3	3.59	1.33	27.0	46	51	3	1.3
Eastern Africa						94.81	11.71	11.0				
Africa						237.61	50.93	17.65				

Source : Various IBRD Reports on "Economic Conditions and Current Prospects".

Table 2
Average per caput energy and protein supplies for selected African countries 1969-71

CAE	Energy (Kilo calorie)	Protein (grams)	Energy as a percentage of requirement	Protein/ energy ratio
Chad	2 060	72.8	86	14.1
Gambia	2 370	62.6	100	10.5
Mali	2 170	68.9	92	12.7
Mauritania	2 060	75.0	89	14.5
Niger	2 180	72.2	93	13.2
Senegal	2 300	64.0	97	11.1
Upper Volta	1 940	65.9	82	13.5
Sahelian				
Guinea	2 040	43.9	88	8.6
Guinea Bissau	—	—	—	—
Liberia	2 040	36.1	88	7.0
Sierra Leone	2 240	49.0	97	8.7
Coastal West				
Benin	—	—	—	—
Ghana	2 200	46.3	96	10.5
Ivory Coast	2 490	60.3	108	9.6
Nigeria	2 290	59.9	97	10.4
Togo	2 160	51.4	94	9.5
Coastal East				
Western Africa				
Cameroon	2 230	58.9	96	10.5
C.A.E.	2 170	47.5	96	8.7
Congo	2 060	39.8	97	7.3
Eq. Guinea	—	—	—	—
Gabon	2 210	55.7	94	10.0
Equatorial				
Angola	1 910	39.9	81	8.3
Burundi	2 330	61.0	100	10.4
Rwanda	2 160	61.5	93	11.3
Zaire	2 040	32.7	92	6.4
Eq. Central				
Central Africa				
Botswana	2 040	65.1	87	12.7
Ethiopia	2 150	68.6	92	12.7
Kenya	2 350	70.9	101	12.0
Lesotho	—	—	—	—
Madagascar	2 350	52.9	104	9.0
Malawi	2 150	54.4	93	10.1
Mauritius	—	—	—	—
Mozambique	2 190	41.0	94	7.4
Somalia	1 770	56.9	77	12.8
Swaziland	—	—	—	—
Tanzania	1 700	42.5	73	10.0
Uganda	2 230	55.3	96	9.9
Zambia	2 040	63.6	88	12.4
Eastern Africa				

Source: FAO (1975) Population Food Supply and Agricultural Development Table I-C.

Rural development and the international environment

How do external economic relations affect development in general and rural development in particular? The question is far from being answered. There are experts to argue that exported goods and imported capital are major means of stimulating growth and there are specialists of equal eminence to draw attention to the dangers of extraverted and dependent development. It is clearly impossible to solve this complex problem, or even to do justice to the various arguments, in just a few lines.

This article avoids any major theoretical discussion. Instead it starts with one or two points the different theories have in common, tries to analyse how trends in external economic relations have developed in relation to rural development and suggests how the situation could be improved.

The problem of extraverted economies

The way agriculture fits into the economy and how external economic relations (trade and aid) affect it can only be defined on a national basis, taking account of the country's socio-economic and ecological situation and how it relates to the fundamental options of the development strategy. Yet many countries are faced with similar problems. In many developing countries, the extraversion and disarticulation of the economy (inherited from the colonial era) is still a major problem and these countries are still exporting a limited number of barely processed agricultural products onto what are often unstable international markets. Relations between the agricultural and modern sectors of their economies are also only slightly developed and they depend to a large extent on trends in the world agricultural commodity markets. So production must be diversified and directions changed to get the different sectors of a developing economy more integrated. External economic relations, as an integral part of national policy, can make an important contribution here.

At national level, external aid can facilitate or speed up the restructuring of the agricultural sector by putting extra resources at a country's disposal. If commercial relations were better planned and controlled, more could be made of the national economic potential.

At international level, improved organization of the agricultural commodity markets would undeniably create an environment conducive to the development of the Third World. Although there has certainly been some progress here, further improvement is still possible (and, indeed, vital) as regards stabilizing prices at remunerative levels and ensuring both access to markets and the volume and conditions of aid.

A global analysis of the trend in trade relations and aid flows, and ways of improving them, must be based on a general and abstract plan. Although the concrete problems of the producers and the individual features of the countries and the products are completely lost to sight when large groups are being dealt with, this sort of exercise is useful in

that it makes it possible to outline how agriculture will fit into a new international economic order and say what part external relations will play.

Aid for rural development

If rural development policies are to be applied, then large investments must be made in agricultural production and in the various activities before and after it along the food production chain. The governments of the countries concerned have to decide on what is to be invested where, and to take steps to see that the necessary national (private and public) means are deployed. External aid can only be a complement to the efforts of the national, but it does have an important part to play in activating any national resources that would not otherwise be used.

It goes without saying that it is very hard to see just how much needs to be invested in rural development altogether and what percentage of the amount can be financed by external aid. Any estimate, however good, is still conjecture founded on what may be doubtful assumptions. However, a brief look at the FAO estimates is still instructive:

— In the first World Indicative Programme, which the FAO drew up for the discussions on the second development decade, it was estimated that, on average, annual investments of \$10 000 million (1979 prices) would be required to raise the growth rate of agricultural production from 2.7% (the figure for the 1956-66 period) to 3.7% (nearer the growth rate of demand).

— In the preliminary draft of *Agriculture in the year 2000*, a study which helped shape the international development strategy for the third decade, the FAO came up with a much larger estimate. It suggested that, to raise the agricultural growth rate from 2.6% (achieved in 1961-1965 and 1974-1976) to 3.6% during the last quarter century, annual investments of something like \$60 000 million would be required. About \$18 000 million of this should be financed by external aid.

Although both these estimates are open to question, a comparison of the two figures gives an idea of the size of the problem and reveals an awareness of its urgency (particularly since the food crisis of 1973-74).

Estimated needs go far beyond the investments that have actually been made in agriculture so far. This is true of both the national contributions of the developing countries themselves (there are unfortunately no assessments) and external aid. Suffice it to say that as much external aid is estimated to be needed in agriculture alone as was given in official development aid altogether in 1977!

Yet the donors have been making a considerable effort since the early '70s and official contributions (all sources) to the agricultural sector trebled, from \$2 200 million to \$6 600 million, between 1973 and 1977. This means that aid has in fact doubled in real terms, giving an annual growth rate of 20%.

Aid for agriculture is usually provided on softer terms than aid for other sectors, because it tends to be more concentrated in low-income countries which get better conditions than most.

In addition to these public funds, \$1 000-2 000 million of private capital from abroad is also invested in agriculture



“What is needed is a comprehensive cost/benefit analysis of the place of export crops in the national economy” (photo: harvesting groundnuts)

every year. Provided there is a suitable structure to receive the investments in the country in which they are made, they will be of considerable importance as they provide extra financial resources as well as technical knowhow and management ability.

There is no doubt as to the need to step up aid to rural development. Leaving aside the problem of boosting official development aid, that part of aid that goes to agriculture can be increased, first and foremost, if the donors take steps to give greater priority to aid to this sector, to make procedures more flexible and to adapt the criteria by which aid is allocated.

The developing countries themselves must also introduce measures of their own to speed up the flow of aid. If they stepped up their own investment efforts, it would be easier to integrate aid into national schemes, and if they improved their rural development planning and the way they identify and prepare worthwhile projects, they would more easily attract external financing to the sector.

Trade in agricultural products

Traditionally, agricultural products are one of the Third World's greatest sources of foreign exchange. But the structure of world trade has changed a lot since the early '60s when something like 75% of the Third World's exports (except oil) were food and raw materials.

This dropped to 48% in 1976 and, although the Third World is still a net exporter of these products, the rate of coverage of the agricultural trade balance fell from 2.6 in the late '60s to 1.6 in 1976. And the Third World's share of the food and agricultural raw materials market dropped from 37% in 1960 to 30% in 1976(1).

There are two main reasons for this. One, the trend in international trade structures; two, the trend in economic structures in the developing countries.

There is no denying that trade between the developed countries (agricultural products and manufactures) has

(1) Note that its share of the manufactures market went up from 4.2% to 7.7% over the same period.

expanded particularly fast since the early '60s. The Third World's share of total exports (except oil) was 17% in 1960, and had dropped to 13% by 1976. And the figure for food and agricultural raw materials dropped too, from 35% of total trade (except oil) in 1960 to 21% in 1976.

The blame for the waning importance of the Third World in agricultural trade cannot be laid on particularly discriminatory trade policies. The developed countries do have tariff and non-tariff barriers against imports of some agricultural products, but progress since the early '60s has certainly reduced them. There can be no question either of a deterioration in the terms of trade.

The unit value of agricultural exports has in fact gone up by 6% p.a. on average since the early '60s (when the figure was 4.6% for agricultural exports from the industrialized countries).

However, the demand for certain tropical products has only increased slightly in the industrialized world because the market is relatively saturated and synthetic substitutes are available. But not all products are affected in this way and the phenomenon alone is not enough to explain why the developing countries' relative share of the world agricultural product trade has decreased.

So we have to look at a second series of changes that have to do with the trend in economic structures in the countries of the Third World. Agricultural production in these countries has increased by an average of 2.7% since the early '60s and internal demand by 4%. This explains why agricultural exports only increased by 2% while Third World agricultural imports increased by an average of 5.5% p.a. This increase was to a large extent due, to a larger deficit of staple foods, particularly grain, of which imports have trebled (volume) since the early '60s.

An interesting comparison can be made in this context between the growth rates of industrial production in the Third World (6.4%) and of agricultural production (2.7%).

Obviously the problem of the developing countries' agricultural exports cannot be dealt with in isolation. It first has to be considered in relation to the trend in agricultural production and the balance of supply and demand at national level.

If we are to ensure that trade helps rural development as much as possible, then we have to make a thorough cost/benefit analysis of the place of export crops in the national economy and to the various socio-economic groups. The results of this and of an analysis of national demand (in particular of food products) and the various means of satisfying it should, as they reveal export opportunities and import requirements, be a guide for any decisions on production and investment.

This problem should be seen against the international balance of supply and demand. A certain number of measures can be envisaged at this level to give developing country products easier access and to regularize the markets. There are already international agreements between the importers and exporters of certain products aiming to restrict price fluctuation, ensure regular supplies and expand outlets.

They do not always function satisfactorily, but it is to be hoped that progress can be made soon, within the framework of the UNCTAD negotiations for example, since negotiations for certain products are already in preparation or fairly well under way. □

MARC FRANCO

Policies and programmes affecting agrarian reform and rural development⁽¹⁾

Growing inequalities and worsening poverty in the sixties have had a particularly stultifying effect on the economic growth of the poorest countries in the first half of the seventies.

Whereas the period since 1965 has seen a continuing programme of reforms, varying according to place and time, two main types of measure may be discerned: first, those aimed at an equitable distribution of rights to land and water, as a start toward increasing productivity and meeting the needs of the rural poor; second, those aimed at technical modernization, broadly within existing structures, including package programmes, area development projects, extension, education and health services, improved nutrition and family planning. These measures are not mutually exclusive—the second type often accompanies or follows the first and both are continuing processes.

The first type of programme has the goal of alleviating poverty directly by increasing the productivity of peasant producers, and promoting the more equitable sharing of the benefits of economic growth. The effects of the second type are less direct and their success in helping poor people depends upon the extent to which they are inhibited by existing agrarian structures, the level of investment in the rural sector and political acceptance.

The distribution of rights to land and water

The programmes and problems which affect the distribution of rights to land and water in Africa are not the same in all parts of the continent, and are markedly different from other regions.

In northern Africa (the Maghreb countries) the main problems in the early sixties concerned the relationship between the modern agricultural sector (mainly foreign-owned estates) and the traditional sector composed of the majority of the people living in the rural areas. The restructuring of the agricultural sector was important as these countries gained independence. Algeria's experience merits special attention. Initially, foreign-owned estates were consolidated and organized into self-contained units (*unités d'autogestion*) averaging nearly 1 000 hectares. The programme involved basic modifications in the cropping pattern in an attempt to limit the effects of foreign markets (e.g. wine) on the production. Most observers agree that, whereas initially production declined, there was at the same time an

increase in the income and consumption levels of the estate workers who were involved in the management of the units. While *autogestion* seemed a formidable aim in its early years, it proved later to be less difficult than reorganizing the traditional sector with its problems of inequality and lack of supporting services. The agrarian revolution of the early seventies aimed at solving all these problems. Absentee land ownership was virtually abolished; ceilings were placed on the size of landholdings; surplus land was distributed in leaseholds; and beneficiaries were required to become members of multi-purpose cooperatives. There were noteworthy experiments with different kinds of cooperative arrangements, e.g. "pre-cooperatives" and "cooperative groupings" (i.e. more formal cooperatives), both types being able to obtain necessary credit and inputs.

The impact of the Algerian agrarian reform on the distribution of land rights has been beneficial, and while evidence on production is mixed and scanty, a crucial factor was that reform in the modern sector generated adequate resources for use in improving the traditional sector.

Restructuring

South of the Sahara, customary tenures traditionally vested in tribal chiefs have for generations provided a safeguard against extreme inequality. But these arrangements have begun to disintegrate under commercial pressures, arbitrary misuse of powers and the gradual emergence of exploitative tenancies. Inequalities in the distribution of rights to land have become evident in Liberia and Kenya.

The major challenge in the region is to adapt customary tenures to development needs, without sacrificing their traditional inbuilt equity. Some countries responded by separating the areas subject to customary tenures from others, by creating statutory land boards limiting the powers of the tribal chiefs (e.g. Botswana) and by granting individual titles on public lands (e.g. Liberia). Such measures have helped to slow the negative effects of the demise of the traditional tenures. However, with demographic pressures and further commercialization, conflicts between the two systems of tenure can be expected to emerge and become more serious.

Recently, a number of countries have promoted programmes to restructure their rural areas, particularly Malagasy Republic and Ethiopia. The latter, with a high degree of concentration of landownership and widespread share tenancy, had no significant reform until 1975, when new measures set low ceilings on landholdings. Peasant associations, which excluded landowners occupying more than two hectares, played an important part in the redistribution of expropriated land.

Precise details are not available and overall consequences have yet to be analysed, but former servile tenures were abolished and many landless people gained rights to land and water. Tanzania has produced a novel solution to the problem, the "ujamaa village", discussed later in this section.

Africa, more than any other region, demonstrates the close interrelationship between the improvement of the physical and social environment on the one hand, and the efficient use of land on the other. Control and eradication of

(1) Taken from "Review and analysis of agrarian reform and rural development in the developing countries since the mid 1960's" — FAO.



*"Recently, a certain number of countries have encouraged programmes aimed at restructuring rural areas".
Madagascar and Ethiopia (see picture) are examples*

animal diseases such as *trypanosomiasis*, which had caused under-exploitation of the natural resources of some 10 million sq. km, and of human disease such as river blindness, which had forced people to abandon large areas of fertile land in west Africa, will increase the availability of land and water in a number of countries.

Development programmes

In many African countries, development approaches inherited from pre-independence days centred upon export crop development, which accounted for more than 80 percent of agricultural research expenditure in the early sixties. Marketing boards, cooperatives, extension services and credit agencies also concentrated upon these crops, with further encouragement through pricing policies and provision of transport and marketing facilities. As a result, the production of food crops received relatively little support from the state.

Though there has been a shift in programmes toward food crops since 1965, commodity development programmes continue to concentrate on export crops (e.g. cotton in Mali, groundnuts in Senegal and Gambia, tobacco and cotton in Tanzania and tea in Kenya). Some of these programmes have had notable successes and have benefited large numbers of smallholders and helped to increase productivity.

A brief review of the development programmes in African countries suggests that concentration of limited resources and trained personnel on export crops does not always lead to an equitable distribution of available resources which will also ensure adequate food supplies for the poor.

Even when export crop development is necessary to take advantage of the benefits that international trade might provide, programmes framed in a broader perspective would

better meet the interests of the small farmers. The overall improvement of the physical, economic and social environment needs also to be taken into account.

Where there is inequity in distribution of land rights, the full potential of the programme designed to improve benefits to the lowest income group is not realized

Studies on tobacco development programmes show that smallholders who switched a large portion of their land and labour from food crops to tobacco experienced a food shortage in the off-season. Inputs, particularly fertilizers, purchased from cooperative societies were sold to buy food, which in turn reduced tobacco yields on small farms and increased debt repayments.

Programmes, such as those promoted by the Agricultural Finance Corporation in Kenya, the Agricultural Industrial Development Bank in Ethiopia, and the Malawi Master Farmers' Programme, favoured the small farmer. The Ethiopian and Kenyan experiences have indicated that, where there is inequity in the distribution of land rights, the full potential of the programmes designed to improve benefits to the lowest income group is not realized. Many programmes showed that, during implementation, gradual erosion of objectives tended to favour a privileged few within the rural community.

Recovery rates of loans made to farmers were also low and the rate of default was higher among richer groups. The adequacy of loans on flexible terms, taking into consideration local needs and conditions, is important. The emphasis on group responsibility and group benefits to reduce the cost of credit distribution, ensure repayments and bring new savings into the financing system needs to be given special attention. Such credit should be linked with marketing arrangements and extension services which would also benefit group approach. □

Rural exodus and industrialization (*)

The period since 1965 has been marked by an impressive record of overall economic progress—but these advances cannot mask underlying structural problems. Disparities in standards of living between urban and rural areas have steadily increased. This gap, already enormous when the period began, widened relentlessly.

Developing countries have been engaged in an historic effort to build their national economies. They have given highest priority to urban-oriented industrialization; but the rural sector of national economies has often been neglected.

2 000 million persons, nearly half of all people on earth, live in the villages and countryside of the developing world. The great majority of these rural people have not shared equally or not at all in the fruits of progress. According to recent World Bank estimates, about 40% of the total population of developing countries live in absolute or relative poverty, and 80% of this number reside in rural areas.

Thus in the mid '60s, a rapid migration of rural people into urban areas started. The wish to participate in the economic progress produced a shift to the towns and the cities of the Third World countries called "the largest migratory movement in human history". This "rural exodus" still continues. An estimated 50.6 million people will arrive in the cities of developing countries every year until 2 000.

Why rural people move out

Manpower movements from agrarian to industrialized urban areas are no doubt a result of the inequality produced by one-sided industrialization of the Third World.

The move to a town is often looked upon as the only way out of a difficult situation. Usually it does not reflect any specific attraction towards town life—except maybe for younger people.

An econometric test in Ghana showed that although the level of education was an important factor in migration, income differentials were the most significant ones. In the Sudan, as well, the primary reason for migration appears to be an anticipated income differential. Evidence in Nigeria suggests, that overpopulated lands have stimulated labour movements to the towns.

Another aspect of rural life which may lead to migration is the system of social and economic control extended by the family and village elders; this has been cited for instance as an influence on young people leaving rural areas of the Ivory Coast.

Results of the "rural exodus"

The huge wave of rural people seeking employment and more favourable economic possibilities in the industrialized urban areas does not seem to be ending in the near future.

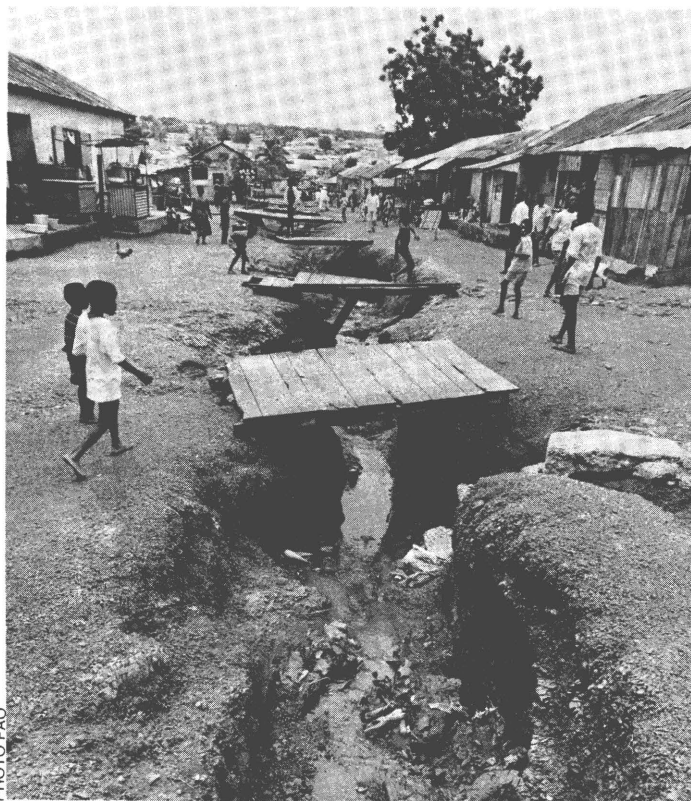


PHOTO FAO

"The usually high expectations of newcomers to the cities have turned to disappointment and have produced the danger of an explosive mass often living under miserable conditions in the surroundings of the industrialized centres"

And even despite this continuous urban migration, the rural population of the less developed regions (estimated at 2 060 million in 1975) is expected to rise to 2 890 million by the end of the century—thus confronting developing countries with a twofold problem: a. over-urbanization and urban unemployment as a result of urban migration on the one hand; b. a relentlessly growing rural population without any chance of sharing in the advantages of an urban-oriented industrialization.

The size of today's total urban population already exceeds that of the active population engaged in manufacturing. This over-urbanization has led to extremely high unemployment rates, and the usually high expectations of newcomers to the cities have turned into disappointment and have produced the danger of an explosive mass often living under miserable conditions in the surroundings of the industrialized centres.

In recent years development agencies and some national governments have become aware of these circumstances. They have initiated a swing in the allocation of development resources away from urban development and more capital intensive activities in an attempt to reverse the one-sided development which has so far neglected rural areas.

Change in development strategy

At first sight two different strategies seem possible to stop the vicious circle of rural underdevelopment—urban migration—over-urbanization and urban unemployment:

(*) From the UNIDO information service.

- a) faster development of work opportunities in urban areas;
- b) rural development increasing employment opportunities in agrarian areas.

The first solution would create an even vaster rural exodus than thus far known. And one of the most serious effects would be the difficulty of supplying the steadily growing population of these huge cities with sufficient agricultural products.

The projections of food needs could even lead to a dangerous rise in dependency which is directly contrary to the goals of developing countries. Current production and demand trends indicate that the cereal deficit of the developing world, which stood at 16 million tons in 1970, will rise to over 90 million tons by the year 1985.

Since this reveals the interrelationship between agrarian development and the overall structure of society, the second solution—rural development—seems to be the more adequate and favourable alternative. It would not only improve the quality of life of the rural poor, but also ensure a higher agricultural productivity to meet the food needs of both rural and urban areas of the Third World.

The process of rural development will of course vary according to the conditions and perspectives of 170 different countries and territories composing the developing world. But its primary global objective would be to offer increased economic opportunities through productive employments and a more equitable distribution of income and wealth.

Different aspects of rural development

If development in a wider sense is to be carried closer to where rural population already lives rather than encouraging migration to major centres of economic activity, alongside the development of agriculture has to be established a larger variety of production activities.

The prospects for improvement in the social and economic conditions of the rural population will increasingly depend upon labour-intensive rural works programmes and other non-farms activities.

Apart from creating real industries in the rural areas, "an important element of rural development strategies in many African countries is increased craft production"

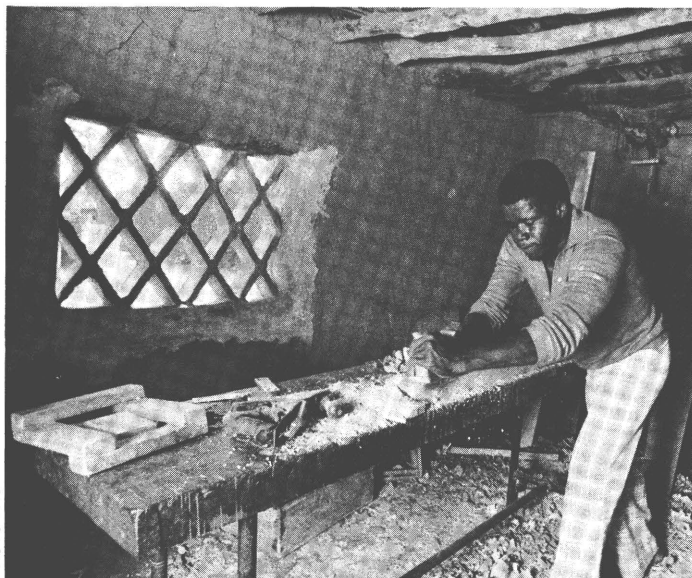


PHOTO FAO

In some African countries labour-intensive rural works, such as soil conservation and afforestation, do not only offer employment possibilities but help to restore the ecological balance, thus removing one of the most serious causes of poverty.

Considerable opportunities for additional non-farm activities in rural areas have to be oriented towards local needs. These encompass manufacturing, repair and maintenance, construction, processing of local raw materials, and the tertiary sector.

An important element of rural development strategies in many African countries is increased craft production, for which governments have provided financial assistance and facilities for research, training and marketing.

Rural industrialization

At a recent expert group meeting organized by the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), agreement was reached on the need for rural industrialization as a major contribution to rural development through the provision of additional employment and income-generating opportunities.

Rural industries would supply basic needs, goods and services which were more suited to local market conditions than inputs from elsewhere. They would provide opportunities for investing rural surpluses locally and a means of satisfying and refining local entrepreneurial initiatives, as well as increasing the amount of value-added in rural areas.

Besides the availability of credit and the removal of infrastructural constraints, the establishment and growth of industrial enterprises in rural areas is conditioned by an appropriate education and training of manpower.

In the newly independent countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific, emphasis is being placed on the identification of trained manpower requirements and the establishment of training institutions and of extension systems to meet identified needs.

The role of UNIDO

The second general conference of UNIDO recommended that, in view of the basic complementary relationship between industry and agriculture, every attempt should be made to promote agricultural industries which would help arrest the shift to the towns, stimulate food production and provide an incentive for the establishment of further industries based on local natural resources.

There is an obvious need for a transformation of rural society to ensure that the vast potential offered to mankind by science and technology will not be dissipated in a wasteland of backwardness, poverty and social unrest.

In many countries where research investment and output have considerably increased, there exists a renewed interest in agricultural extension and rural industrialization to "narrow the technological utilization gap".

Although rural development is not its primary responsibility, UNIDO has stated that it becomes involved in this field whenever industrial activities are introduced to or promoted in rural areas.

Self-reliance of the peasant communities is to be built up to bring about optimum use of local resources and to change the pattern of development achieved in many Third World countries, which so far has tended to be biased in favour of a minority of the population. □

The participation of the rural population (*)



PHOTO FAO

Working on drainage in Bangladesh. It is a common practice in the Asian developing countries to employ rural labour in non-agricultural jobs, especially for infrastructure

Since the mid-'60s, it has become more and more widely held that it is futile to attempt to implement schemes of agrarian reform and rural development without the participation of the intended beneficiaries, the rural poor.

Development is to be achieved **with** and **by** the people, not just **for** the people. Experience with more participatory approaches to rural development has been mixed over the past 10 years.

The advantages

From various countries' experience, the following advantages of more participatory approaches can be seen:

— more information about local needs, problems, capabilities and experience; since effective planning and implementation require specific information of the sort only local people can provide efficiently;

— better plans, which are more realistic about what is possible, what will be done, what suits actual conditions best;

— resource mobilization, in terms of more contributions of labour and financial resources, as well as land and materials, to the extent that local people are involved in the decision-making and have had some voice in what is to be done with the resources;

— implementation, should be smoother and quicker once understanding and assent have been generated through participation, as people usually cooperate more willingly in decisions and plans in which they have participated even if they are not fully in agreement;

— talent for management and administration, can be developed in the rural sector to complement that of the govern-

(*) Taken from "Review and analysis of agrarian reform and rural development in the developing countries since the mid 1960s" — FAO.

ment, since such talent is usually one of the scarcest resources in developing countries;

— integration of activities and services from below should be more complete and effective than when this is all left to coordination of diverse agencies and plans from above;

— maintenance of investments in roads, canals, terraces, buildings and other facilities is usually better where the local people have been consulted and involved in their creation;

— political support should be greater where the facilities and services created under government auspices are those identified by rural people as more important and valuable;

— better evaluation of the success of programmes, at least with regard to the rural poor, can result if they are involved in assessing the value of programmes from the government;

— broader distribution of benefits is more likely to result to the extent that more persons in the rural sector have participated in the planning and decision-making as well as implementation; efforts can and should be made to involve, directly and indirectly, the rural majority in identifying needs, assessing alternative sources of action and carrying out rural development programmes.

Achieving these advantages depends, of course, on the effectiveness as well as degree of popular participation. Many experiments with participation have not been successful in these terms because of failings on the part of the people and/or the government. Often the amount of responsibility and control over resources given to rural people through one set of institutions or another has been meagre or greatly interfered with. The consequence is that rural people have little incentive to become involved because they cannot play a meaningful role. There are also some possible negative concomitants of participation, which can be discerned from experience in many countries and which are enumerated below.

Decentralization and local government

One of the major means for encouraging people's participation in rural development planning and activities has been decentralization of government decision-making and implementation. It is widely observed that most governmental systems in developing countries are rather centralized, even over-centralized to the point of diminishing effective programming and policies. One of the clearest analyses of this is by the ILO mission to the Philippines in its report (1974). A number of countries have experimented with a degree of decentralization in the past decade or so. One of the largest efforts has been in India with its system of *panchayati raj*. This has brought the governmental institutions and services into the villages and the elected representatives of the villagers were assigned certain responsibilities, particularly with regard to improvement of social amenities. However, according to most observers, the *panchayats* have been constrained in their financial autonomy, their control over technical resources, and their assignment of many "targets" from above. People's participation has often been restricted to voting in elections while subsequent activities of *panchayats* have been undermined by factionalism on the basis of classes or castes. 1/ The Indian Government is presently engaged in an assessment of how the *panchayat* system can be re-organized and strengthened so that it can play a more vital role in rural development and achieve participatory goals.

Community development and "animation rurale"

Some means of popular participation, known as community development (CD) and *animation rurale* (AR), were

introduced in the '50s and '60s into many developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America and into some in the Near East. They helped to establish contact between government institutions, research centres, extension agencies and the peasants at various levels with particular emphasis on training of village-level workers. However, many of the programmes do not seem to have been very successful in accelerating rural development, one reason being that some CD programmes concentrated on social amenities rather than on improved production and therefore did not create the wealth for investment in welfare services. In particular, these programmes seem to have led to an increase of bureaucracy. Programmes of this type are being re-assessed and for the time being it seems unlikely they will be repeated in their previous form.

A more informal type of community development programme is "self help" rural development, in which more initiative is left to rural people. One of the best examples is the case of Kenya, where the *harambee* movement has harnessed community resources for building roads, schools, wells and similar projects cheaply. There have been problems of quality in construction, of coordination in staffing schools and clinics, and of maintaining the facilities once attention has moved elsewhere. But there is great potential in this mode of rural development which should be kept in mind when plans are being made, for there is a danger when plans become more formal in spirit and letter that they may neglect or even discourage self-help. In Sri Lanka, the *sarvodya shramdana* movement, based upon religious and community sentiment, indicates forces potentially valuable for development which normally lie beyond the ability of central government to unleash.

Local organizations

There can be a great variety of local organizations apart from local government institutions; they all make a contribution to rural development, though in nature they vary widely, e.g. some are set up by the government, or at least supported or encouraged by it, whereas others spring spontaneously from the local people; some are public, some private; some are economic, some political, some social; some are single-purpose, such as credit unions for savings and loans, while others are multi-purpose, such as multi-purpose cooperatives; some are segregated by sex, others not, some are homogeneous by ethnic group or social class, while yet others have no such restriction.

Cooperatives

In almost all developing economies cooperative societies are favoured as appropriate forms of group action of people of limited means. There has been considerable quantitative expansion in the membership of cooperatives and extension of their activities to areas other than credit during the period under review. There are also some examples of successful cooperatives in quite a few countries, of which Anand Dairy Cooperative (Amul) in India is the best known. However, quantitative expansion and limited successes notwithstanding, the general consensus is that the cooperatives have not been able to reach, involve and benefit the poorer sections of rural communities. The major reasons for the shortcomings of cooperatives have been the dominance of the rural elite, and overbearing direction of the bureaucracy. Some governments have taken measures to make it obligatory for cooperatives to extend their membership to the rural poor, lend a minimum percentage of credit to small farmers and give representation to weaker sections, such as women, on their boards of management so as to reduce the dominance



PHOTO FAO

*“In nearly all developing economies, cooperation is the preferred working method of groups of people with limited means”
(photo: Nigeria)*

of the rural elite. Almost all have given increased attention to membership training programmes and the provision of necessary support to local cooperatives. A few have sought to restrict the membership of cooperatives to small farmers and other rural poor. Such measures have helped the weaker sections to gain a better access to the cooperatives. But where large numbers of poor have only a limited resource base, the success of cooperatives depends on their access to productive resources, a firm commitment of the state to assist them, and a more flexible procedure in administrative and financial support to the cooperatives. Other forms of associations, outside the legal framework of cooperatives, are dealt with below.

Farmers' associations

Farmers' associations are mainly concerned with improving production and such means to this end as the provision of inputs and extension services and with the processing and marketing of produce. Despite initial difficulties, Malaysia is now having some success in introducing this form of association. Irrigation associations are similar organizations and are found in many countries, often operating on a traditional basis with little formality or legal structure.

Problems

A strong commitment by governments is a prerequisite for promoting peoples' participation in development. Even with such commitment obstacles to popular participation can come from several sources, in particular, the civil service, local elites, the rural people themselves and problems of communication.

The civil service is the factor over which the government should have most control. The attitudes of civil servants, who generally do not come from rural areas, or even if they did, no longer identify themselves with the rural people, are often condescending or even antagonistic. Paternalism is common in the relations between most administrations and

their rural people, and it quickly discourages participation by the rural communities and encourages unrepresentative but pliable persons to come forward for positions of responsibility.

Local elites, a second source of hindrance, are likely to try to monopolize local organizations or to suppress them if unable to influence them. But this is not necessarily so and some of the most effective leadership of rural organizations has come from the more educated and better-off members of the community. The danger of undesirable domination is ever-present, as can be seen in the CADU project in Ethiopia before the revolution, where the larger landowners and town elites dominated a project intended to benefit small farmers and tenants.

The rural people themselves are often divided by ethnic, racial or religious differences, or by allegiance to competing local factions. They may lack the skills and experience needed to organize and implement programmes or may simply be apathetic. Governments which have adopted development plans involving popular participation (e.g. China, Sri Lanka and Tanzania) have found that there are many obstacles to securing full and free participation by the rural majority even when central government encourages it. Governments which are less committed to this approach are bound to find the difficulties even greater since effective participation must be carefully and continuously nurtured.

Finally, the potential role of communication media, whether mass or group, in motivating and informing rural populations in order to stimulate participation and development is now widely recognized but needs to be strengthened. Decisions cannot be made without information on which to base them. Rural populations are handicapped in the decision-making process essential to the adoption of the new working and living habits that constitute development. The solution can only be an enlightened use of communication, both mass and group, to improve the horizontal flow of opinions, ideas and experiences between rural people and rural organizations coupled with a more determined effort to improve the flow of technical information to rural people in a form in which it can be understood. □

African women in changing rural economies

Most agricultural labour in Africa is done by women. If women are not properly considered, "the whole cause of rural development is lost", in the opinion of Dr Achola Pala Okeyo, a Kenyan social anthropologist and development researcher who is a leading figure in the promotion of women's participation in development.

Before the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development opened in Rome in July, Dr Pala Okeyo outlined the problems facing women in rural Africa. Although International Women's Year (1975) had brought the issue to international level, she said, it had only been followed up in a perfunctory way, for instance through the creation of low-level departments of women's affairs or through government decrees which were little more than statements of good intentions. Technical assistance missions still largely ignored the knowledge and feelings of local women and there was a tendency for men to tell women "you go to the new embroidery class while we talk about development", Dr Okeyo said.

A major problem for rural women is that schemes for the transition from subsistence to cash-crop farming simply leave out any provision for growing food and gathering fuel for the home—a woman's task. Land goes under the plough when it used to be under the hoe. At the same time, land is given to heads of families—i.e. men—under the rather colonial assumption that women should be relegated to the kitchen, which destroys the few safeguards to land use that women enjoyed under traditional land tenure systems. If this is pointed out, planners vaguely answer that the matter is a "family" affair where interference would be resented, Dr Okeyo said.

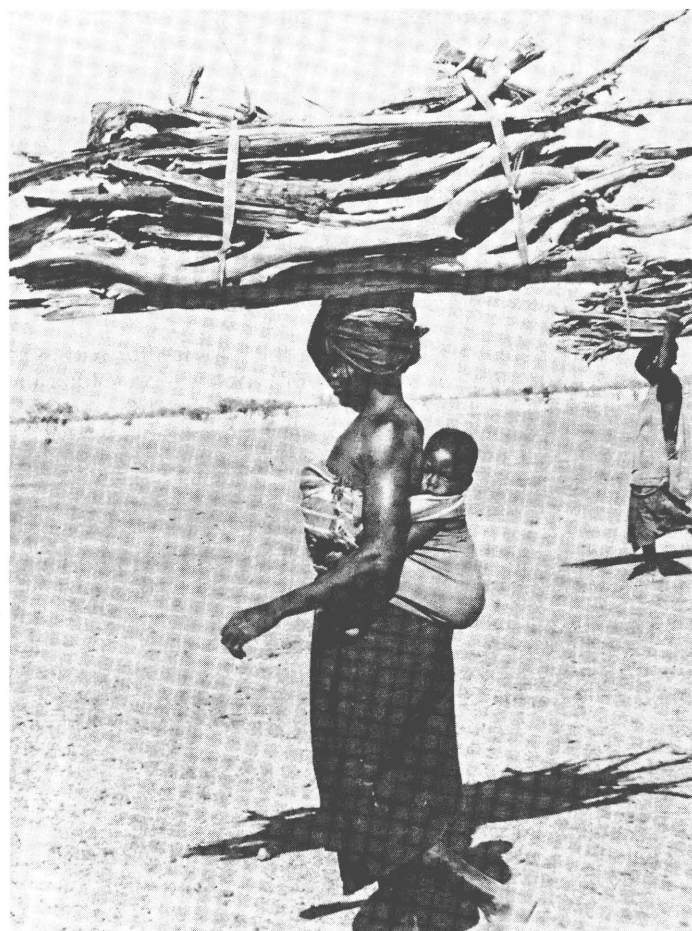
The question of women's participation is still treated as something of a separate issue, outside the mainstream of development. "Planning must integrate women into development. Structural transformation, which includes the role of women, is at the heart of the matter Dr Okeyo stressed.

If women are to take matters into their own hands, their own perception of their roles will need sharpening. Women's organizations are making themselves heard, but are sometimes accused of being remote urban elites serving as career springboards. Dr Okeyo, herself from a rural family, admitted this but pointed out that such organizations must have access to the corridors of power. "The right to resources is a political issue. There is inequality not only between the classes but between the sexes. Women's participation in rural development is a fundamental economic and social question which cannot be dismissed as 'feminism' or given some other such label", she said.

Dr Okeyo's views are outlined in the following paper, given to the encounter seminar for the world press at the WCARRD. **BARNEY TRENCH**

Background

Africa is one of the regions of the world in which women have been farmers alongside their menfolk throughout the



Fetching fuel and water are only some of the many tasks that make a 15-hour day normal for African women



social history of their societies. Although there are variations in the work input by women due to differing production systems, ecological and political factors, research has shown that African women bear significant proportions of the workload in agriculture, animal care, food processing and distribution.

In addition women provide almost all the labour and are responsible for food preparation and family nutrition. In the rural areas their mothering roles as a rule extend beyond the care for children and spouses to that of the extended kin.

Concepts in the local languages which describe women as the "giver of life", "granary" or the "owner of the house" attest to the interdependence of women's roles as producers of food and reproducers of new generations of humankind.

Together these natural and social obligations mean long working days for rural women (5 a.m. to 10 p.m. or later) and certainly a full working week (7 days a week).

Where available, statistics show that women form at least half and up to 60% of the total rural population. Since the average rural population in Africa is between 75% and 90% rural development or agrarian reform strategies have to consider the economic significance of raising the productivity of female labour and an equitable participation by women in the daily processes of change.

These include not merely access to credit and farm input but also access to land, health services and remunerative employment. They (the processes of change) also include participation in development policy formulation and implementation—what one might call the democratization of the decision-making machinery at all levels of the society.

Agriculture

Agricultural work done by women includes preplanting activities, such as land preparation, hand digging and ploughing, followed by planting the seeds, cuttings, hoeing and weeding.

Almost without exception the arduous tasks of transplanting and weeding are always done by women. According to current survey data, women account for 60 to 80% of agricultural labourforce and slightly higher when subsistence farming alone is considered.

When speaking of economically active rural populations in Africa, it should always be borne in mind that a significant proportion of that group is composed of women between the ages of 14 and 49. In peak seasons, time allocation to farm work by rural households is increased.

In the case of women the combination of farm and household responsibilities may amount to as many as 15 hours a day or more. Rural women do not have the luxury of coming home from work and putting their feet up to rest.

From the farm there are children and household chores to attend to. Only at bedtime is there opportunity to rest.

Animal husbandry

In pastoral or mixed economies, women contribute to the care of animals and are nearly always responsible for the processing of dairy products. In many instances men are in charge of large stock while women take care of small stock. Women's work in animal husbandry often includes stall-feeding, grazing sheep and goats and sometimes cattle, and



PHOTO FAO

Nigerian women pound millet: keeping the family fed practically excludes them from any real participation in local rural development

may mean walking several kilometres in search of pasture and water.

Whether in agriculture or animal husbandry, women are frequently in charge of food preservation and processing. They winnow and thresh and store food grains.

Distributive trade

In a number of African countries, notably Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Benin, the role of market women has been well documented. In places they account for up to 80% of trade in foodstuffs and the provision of rural areas with essential commodities.

Although the volume of trade varies from region to region, there is hardly an African society in which women do not carry on some trade even in a small way. Quite often the sale of produce (from their own farms or bought from small producers) is a major source of cash income which enables women to make small purchases of household and personal effects. Studies have shown that even in African societies where religion prescribes female seclusion, women are still able to process foodstuffs which their small children can sell in local markets.

"In some places, women account for up to 80% of trade in foodstuffs and the provision of rural areas with essential commodities"



Impact of development on rural women

Studies undertaken by independent researchers or research institutions since 1975 (International Women's Year) have revealed disturbing trends in the impact of development and agrarian reform on women.

— **Increased workloads** — Urbanization and commercialization of agriculture has led to a greater opportunity for wage work for men than for women. The result is that rural women have to continue to carry out agricultural and household tasks to which are frequently added the tasks of men who are absent in towns.

In situations such as that of southern Africa, where men of the ages between 18 and 45 are absent for as long as 10 to 12 months a year, it has been found that the efforts of women to cope with male absence and increased workloads have had deleterious and psychosomatic disturbances in the young female populations.

— **Loss of opportunity and displacement** — New methods of farming and new farm technologies have displaced women in agriculture and sometimes relegated them to perform their tasks with very backward methods, requiring many hours of work.

— **Loss of opportunity in land use.** — Land tenure reform from customary to statutory systems of tenure is a lauded strategy of achieving rural development. Often the emphasis on land consolidation or land redistribution or settlement is made on the premise that restructuring of agrarian relations and systems of production would lead to higher productivity. In the transition, lip service is paid to the question of equity between the sexes or between social groups. However, the loss by women of use rights to land in many instances is not replaced by new tenure systems, and it is often too easy for land allocating machineries to shrug the problem off by saying, "it is really off our hands, now it is a family matter." In the light of these experiences it seems time now for national governments to reconsider their land reform procedures and the assumption that family farms benefit equally all members of the family.

In one instance it was argued by land adjudication officers that, as traditionally men owned land they were the logical titleholders. In fact this argument, which is fallacious, equates corporate rights to land with their communal safeguards, to individual ownership. Unfortunately, this view is not uncommon in the largely-male administrative committees and boards charged with the supervision of land reform.

— **Large-scale development projects** often neglect to plan for the domestic aspect of the farm family. Instances have been documented in which a tenant (defined as male) is given two hectares of land to grow the main cash crop, e.g. rice. Yet there is no plan in the scheme for fuel, vegetables, root crops or food needs of the family which are a woman's responsibility.

These kinds of problems should indicate new directions of research for rural transformation for equal benefit of the sexes. It is sobering to know that in these circumstances women do not ask even for resources; all they are seeking is a type of restructuring of production relations which enables them to be more efficient at the tasks which are seen to be their responsibilities.

These tasks are not going to disappear in the foreseeable future.

Yet when women exercise resistance to these negative patterns of change they are branded as "traditional", "resistant to change", "slow to learn". In the struggle by women



"In situations such as that of southern Africa (photo: Lesotho), where men of the ages between 18 and 45 are absent for as long as 10-12 months a year, it has been found that the efforts of women to cope with male absence and increase work-loads have had deleterious and psychosomatic disturbances in the young female populations"

against negative trends it must be recalled that theirs is not separate from the struggle against poverty, racism and inequality between the world's people.

These are only a few points to indicate some of the problems that women in the rural areas experience as a result of rural transformation whose ideals are to achieve growth with equity.

Some questions

It may be asked why the role of women in development has to be perceived as a sideline of planned development activities, always in a *post hoc* fashion as if it is an issue peripheral to development strategies? The *post hoc* treatment of women is illustrated by several examples:

— International conferences on development have to be persuaded and even confronted before agenda items on women can be officially accepted;

— Allocation of resources for preparatory work on the situation of women falls far short of adequate targets and subsidies often have to be sought at the last minute;

— Institutional mechanisms ostensibly earmarked to "integrate women in development" often are frustrated into isolation and are often the first to be abandoned when funding/personnel constraints become too pressing;

— National governments often have no clear policy on women and many of the policy decisions have to be made by decrees, which sometimes do not specify clearly what the steps to implementation should be.

One can go on with many other examples. From the point of view of developing countries inequality of opportunity and access to resources have to be understood in the context of the extractive nature of commercial sectors inherited from colonial times and often perpetuated by national interest groups. Insofar as the world continues to be divided between those who produce commodities and raw materials using cheap labour and low wage structures and those who benefit from profits so reaped, effective participation of women in the development process as beneficiaries will remain slow and frustrating. □

ACHOLA PALA OKEYO

More successful pre-packaged agricultural projects

by Mohamedu F. JONES(*)

Many developing countries have established agricultural programmes with built-in services such as extension, credit and marketing facilities which cost considerable financial and human resource investments. These "pre-packaged" projects are designed with the aim of assisting the agricultural sector of their economies in improving the pace, productivity level and direction of agriculture in their nations, with the ultimate aim of improving the real income of the people.

Some of these projects are such that, in a relatively short time, agricultural infrastructural services are provided at a level and pace previously unavailable to the people of an area. At times the projects are designed to improve and extend existing marginal facilities. These projects are generally undertaken by the national or regional authorities in association with, or through a loan from, an international agency or foreign government.

A factor common to most of these projects is that they do not grow out of the economic interaction of market forces over time as such, but are based on the central planners' overall plan for an area.

In this regard, an important question developing countries need to ask is: are these pre-packaged projects beneficial in the long run, or is their very artificiality an eventual inhibiting force on the growth of agriculture integrated with the macro-development of the whole nation?

To put this question more directly, at the termination of the project (a number of them are designed to last a specific number of years), can the market forces support the services established by the projects, and at the same level of intensity and commitment as during the life of the project? Secondly, will the level of farmers' education and acceptance of the innovations introduced by the project reach a stage where they can continue to make effective use of the methodology and system of the project without the continuous "nanny" guidance which can be identified in most agricultural development projects?

Liberia has embarked on an ambitious and far-reaching investment programme designed to substantially transform agriculture from a secondary to the primary source of foreign exchange earnings. Utilizing funds from such diverse sources as the International Development Association, the People's Republic of China and the European Economic Community, among others, Liberia has decided to invest over the next five to seven years a significant percentage of her resources in development programmes designed to "revolutionize" Liberian agriculture.

In a study conducted at the Mananga Agricultural Management Centre near Tsheneni, Swaziland, which is operated by the British Commonwealth Development Corporation, we examined agricultural development projects in

two African countries, the Ivory Coast and the Gambia. Both of these nations are fairly similar to Liberia in terms of regional characteristics, farming methods, present level of relative development, etc. We observed the similarities and differences in two agricultural projects in these countries, as well as elements which were introduced or evolved which could be correlated with the directions assumed by the projects, and primarily, the lessons Liberia could learn from them.

Our approach was necessitated by the fact that it is only a short time since Liberia began to substantially introduce pre-packaged projects in her development, as well as by the non-availability of research information on agriculture development in Liberia at Mananga.

In our study, we observed data and other information available on SODEPALM in the Ivory Coast and the now defunct Chinese (Taiwan) agricultural technical mission to the Gambia.

No conclusion was reached supporting or opposing pre-packaged agricultural projects as a means of economic development, primarily because the depth of our research could not justify such conclusions; and neither was it our purpose. More importantly, it must be recognized that the result and direction of each project in any country is confined to the history of its circumstances. Notwithstanding, general conclusions about projects can be reached through observation of a number of projects.

A trend discovered by the investigators of the Chinese (Taiwan) agricultural mission (CATM) to the Gambia was that a project could be directly associated with major increases in food supply and income, but few other noticeable benefits. The CATM did not give the cooperatives which were developed as an integral part of the project any responsibilities outside coordination of local farmers. The project led to no increase in local institutional capabilities in other aspects of rice production, such as marketing. The development of institutional capabilities is essential, as the financial costs of maintaining such projects at the levels of intensity and service at which they are initiated are great. The failure to develop local capabilities as important adjuncts to agricultural production may lead to the necessity of continuing project services, at great cost, or a revision to old practices at the conclusion of the project. Through development of local institutional capabilities in terms of preparing local people to assume the necessary responsibilities which go with increased productivity, the "nanny" aspects of these projects can be reduced, leading to the creation of African farms as interdependent business entities in the macro-development of a nation.

Non-economic factors

Our investigators also found that CATM failed to develop Gambian technical and maintenance capabilities, which led them to conclude that the scheme would probably have collapsed without continued Chinese support. This decision by CATM was deliberate and pointedly taken as a result of the Taiwanese government's fear of relations with the Gambian government breaking off, in favour of the People's Republic of China, which did happen later. What must be learned from this is: the politics involved in the aid package must be fully taken into consideration by the host government. Non-economic factors must be considered when the agreement is being reached as, in the long term, they could affect the economic aspects of the project.

In both the CATM scheme and SODEPALM, we find as common factors the guaranteed market and price, along

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with the standardized mode and approaches to the farmer. While these may reduce the probabilities of failure, and benefit in the short term the participating farmer, it does not aid the farmer in becoming a self-sustaining and responsible participant in the economic development of his industry. He becomes dependent on the approach developed by the project. In the long term, it would seem that a conscious preparation of the farmer for a responsible and self-sustaining personal input in the operation of an interdependent farm would be more beneficial to the industry and national development as a whole.

The farmer should be given a chance in the scheme to exert more influence in the direction of his farm. Although he may not be educated as to the "successful" methods of farming, a conscious effort must be made, as part of the project, to educate the farmer not only as to the technical aspects of agricultural production (such as fertilizer application, pruning, swamp and irrigation development, etc.) but also as to the various aspects of running a farm which would enable the farmer to view himself as an important input. It would seem that a scheme designed to reduce the influence of "outsiders" as to the direction of the farm, over time, while increasing that of the farmer, would in the long term have more positive influence on agricultural productivity levels than the present paternal, "know best" attitude generally assumed by most projects.

Cultural values

Another factor common to both CATM and SODEPALM was the tribal and cultural values of the farmers. These are both important to the farmers' responses to innovation and the level of technology employed in an agricultural scheme. The development agency implementing an agricultural project should take into account these factors and provide for necessary adaptation. The across-the-board package generally does not take into account the possibility of variant response to technology. Alternative specifics should be provided which would allow a range of approaches to take into consideration those groups which have more difficulty in accepting technological innovations. Where it is found that a group is not responsive to a certain level of technology, alternatives should be provided.

The inclusion of locals in all aspects of the project is essential, as it is probably not possible for the aid team (both expatriate and national) to continue indefinitely in an operational capacity. The locals should be included in the planning stages, as this allows the inclusion of persons aware of the indigenous habits, characteristics and culture of the farmers. By locals, we do not mean the national central planners, but those who are in immediate contact with the people of the area where the project is to be implemented.

The single most important input in developing agriculture is the farmer. Seemingly, too often we approach the farmer and agricultural development in our nation with the negative aspects of peasant farming primary in our minds, without considering those factors which are positive. The pre-packaged programmes are usually designed as taking into consideration mostly the "backwardness" of peasant farming. It would probably be beneficial to also look at those aspects which are "forward-looking", as one can safely conclude that the African peasant farmer, with the many years of farming behind him, must have developed some positive methods of farming which the development agency can utilize in its approach.

Farming under intensive supervision in these projects is probably most useful at the beginning. But a system of graduated reduction in the intensity of the supervision can be devised so as to expand the farmer's capacity for individual growth in operating his farm. We can safely

conclude that the more technical knowledge the small growers and farmers have, the higher probability we have of adapting this knowledge to participation in farm management.

A defect found in the two projects we examined is the basic "share-cropping" nature of the participating farmer. While he owned his farm and was primarily responsible for production, he contributed very little to the major decisions concerning the farm; and had to depend to a large extent on the efforts and direction of others. This may tend to limit the farmer's capacity for growth in the operation of his farm as an interdependent "farmer businessman".

Teaching is a two-way street

We also found that the two projects were designed in a manner which tended to teach the farmer while providing very little opportunity to learn from him. In a mutual "teach and learn" situation, both the development agency and the farmer could combine their efforts in the increase of productivity. The projects should assume a direction which would prepare the farmer to be functionally integrated with the direction of the higher physical production they are designed to achieve.

In the long term, an interdependent and self-sustaining farmer would probably be more beneficial to the agricultural sector than a dependent and directed one. The dependency which is created by the projects tends to be self-perpetuating. The lack of a design scheme which would aid in the creation of a self-sustaining farmer may require the national or regional authorities, alone or through the donor agencies, to provide the services of the project at great costs for an indefinite period; or the structure created by the project could collapse.

Throughout our discussion, we have directed our efforts at discussing pre-packaged agricultural projects with our previous questions as our focal points of reference: can market forces support services established by the projects? Will the level of farmer education and acceptance of the innovations introduced by the project reach a stage where the farmers can continue to make effective use of the same without the "nanny" approach?

The wider context of project planning

We have attempted to demonstrate that a project should not be developed in the isolated context of production targets. For the development of a self-sustaining farmer, hence agriculture sector, efforts should be made to formulate in a conscious, coordinated and correlated manner aspects of agriculture other than the direct physical and technical inputs. The farmers' non-material input, along with local institutional capabilities, should be developed as important parts of the project input into agricultural development.

The farmer should be included in all facets of the planning and implementation stages of the project. The project should be designed with the active idea of increasing farmers' interdependence and self-sufficiency, while reducing the level of supervision. The technological approach should be designed on a differentiated scale to account for variations in adaptability to innovations among the different groups participating in the scheme.

Conjunctively, the project must develop the capabilities of the locals to assume control of the marketing functions and allow more room in the design for the interaction for marketing forces. This may well lead to the reduction of the influence of "outsiders" in the agriculture sector, and may lead in the long term to the creation of a national agriculture economy which is both more productive and self-sustaining.

□

M.F.J.

Rural development policies in various ACP countries

TANZANIA

From independence, in 1961, to the Arusha declaration, in 1967, Tanzania went through a confusing series of experiments, in the search for a consistent national development strategy, which left the rural areas in a tangle of land policies reflecting traditional, colonial and modern legislation. Under the initial three year development plan and the first five year (1964-69) development plan, moreover, a laissez-faire economic policy put the emphasis on the domestic private sector and private foreign investment in industry, while 90% of the population depended on the land for their living. There was economic growth, but no real development.

The Arusha declaration was a thorough-going socialist statement which set Tanzania on a different tack: agriculture was to become the leading sector of the economy; domestic resources were to be mobilized under a self-reliance strategy, turning away from foreign capital and capital-intensive techniques; and rural life was to be physically reorganized on the basis of the ujamaa ("familyhood") collective village, with the main development decisions made at grass-roots level.

The declaration has remained the basic policy document supporting the rural development strategy. The basic means of applying this strategy have included the nationalization of major industries, banks, firms, buildings and agricultural estates, fiscal policy, control of pay and prices, decentralization, the creation of new marketing and distribution systems, rural credit schemes and "villagization".

Development villages: half-way to ujamaa

By 1976, 90% of the population were in villages, either old or new, with an average of 1 300 inhabitants each. Cooperatives were abolished and the Villages and Ujamaa Villages Act had given considerable legal powers and status to the villages, which elected their own councils.

However, a certain amount of persuasion, in the form of material and financial incentives, proved necessary to get people to move into the villages, and the insistence on the communal ethic was relaxed in favour of more individual holdings.

Very few of the 7 500 villages registered have yet qualified as truly ujamaa villages and it is admitted that the individual holdings are generally doing better than the communal farms.

The policy of "rural socialist transformation", some 10 years on, seems to have been more successful in establishing the social and political framework of a rural economy than in developing agriculture itself. The Tanzanian WCARRD country review paper attributes this to three sets of factors:

— firstly, those related to traditional peasant behaviour such as conservatism, inadequate response to price incentives, and traditional work patterns in which men work less than women;

— secondly, adverse terms of trade for export commodities;

— and thirdly, national investment, pricing and credit policies, the adoption of inadequately proven technical packages and a lack of adequate staff.

Social infrastructure

The most significant programmes of rural development in Tanzania relate to health, water supply and education. Plans are made for rural hospitals, dispensaries and health centres which also serve as schools. Health standards have improved substantially since 1967 and in many areas rural people willingly construct dispensaries, health centres and even regional hospitals with minimum government contribution. However, shortage of paramedical staff remains a problem.

The government is planning to provide a source of clean drinking water for every village by 1991. Local people help in building and maintaining water systems, but the lack of technical knowledge amongst the villagers and the need to use the cheapest means cause major problems.

Rural electrification also met with problems because of the high cost of repairs and maintenance compared with the small revenue collected from the electricity consumers. Research is now being conducted to find cheap alternative sources of generating electricity. Small-scale industries in rural areas are short of able managers.

The government is therefore encouraging those with the required resources and skills to participate in research and management. The school syllabus has also been changed to

President Nyerere of Tanzania receives a commemorative medal from FAO director-general Edouard Saouma at the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development

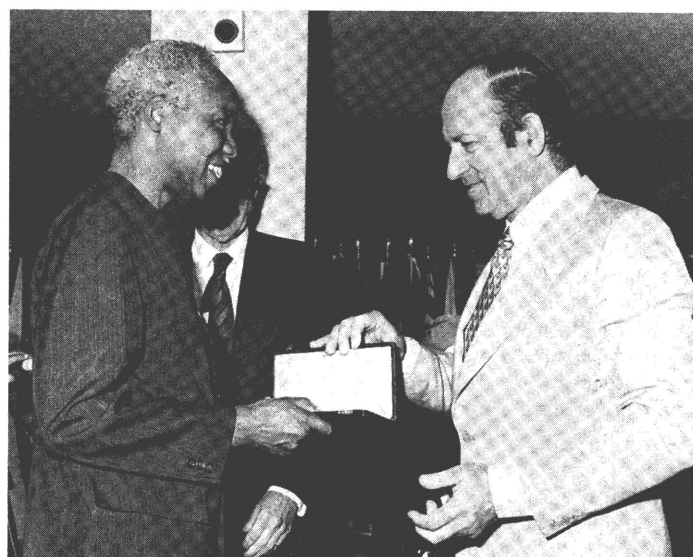


PHOTO FAO

put more emphasis on technical and agricultural training in pursuance of the goal of education for self-reliance.

Not all children of primary school age yet attend school, which is the ultimate intention, but substantial numbers now do so. Encouraging trends are also noted in schemes to combat adult illiteracy and to give further help to the newly literate.

Food self-sufficiency by 1981

Meanwhile, agricultural production is recovering from the 1974-75 drought and Tanzania is working towards food self-sufficiency by 1981. The policy of rural socialist transformation continues to attract aid from many financing organizations, who appreciate the government's emphasis on basic needs and the grass-roots approach, and agriculture minister John Malacela is fairly optimistic about the 1981 target, while recognizing the perennial difficulty of increasing productivity quickly while "socializing" production structures. As he sees it, the main problem is getting the inputs to the farmers, in terms of both training and materials.

To quote the Tanzanian country review paper: "The experiences encountered to date since the adoption of the Arusha declaration in 1967 have been a mixed bag of both achievements and disappointments. A major element which should be noted at the outset is the slow take-off of the various institutional changes.

Notable among these are the ujamaa villages and the decentralization programme, which have been plagued by lack of appropriate implementation capacity and ignorance on the part of the villagers in planning and deciding on their development programmes.

The biggest constraint of all has been the lack of adequate manpower to run the numerous development programmes, both in the rural sector and in the central government and parastatal organizations".

However, 10 years or so is a short time for changing conservative attitudes in the rural population. The ideological content of the Tanzanian rural development strategy has not blinkered the authorities to the lessons of experience elsewhere and, while the Tanzanians make no claims for their strategy as a model for other countries, their pioneering efforts could provide useful guidelines.

JAMAICA

In the last 10 years, Jamaica has drawn up and launched several interlocking agrarian reform programmes aimed mainly at increasing the productivity of its farm land and making agriculture more attractive to the young, among whom unemployment is particularly high. There have been encouraging results, but the programmes have run into natural (poor terrain, drought) and social difficulties which have been too expensive to solve during the balance of payments crisis of the last few years. Nonetheless, the government is going ahead with policies which have already done much to change the pattern of land ownership in 1968/9, when over half the land belonged to a mere 0.5% of the number of farms.

Land lease

"Project land lease" has been the main instrument of reform since 1973 and has allowed the government to purchase over 100 000 acres of land for leasing, under various conditions, to small farmers who are given credit in kind for land preparation—planting materials, fertilizers, etc. An important characteristic of this project is that much better land is being acquired than was the case under previous settlement schemes, which indeed go back to before World War II.

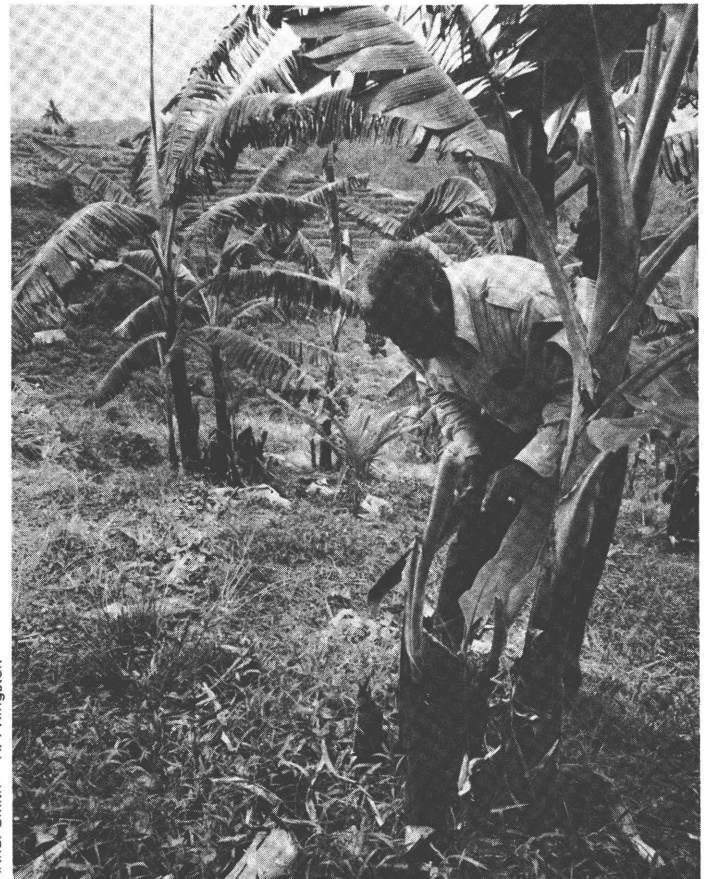
Another important initiative of this period has been the purchase in 1971 of some of the island's biggest sugar estates (formerly belonging to Tate and Lyle and United Brands) and the creation of a number of sugar workers' cooperatives, which got off to a good start thanks to high sugar prices.

However, the sugar price slump of 1976, combined with drought, did much to dampen the initial enthusiasm and the government is now stressing the need for more training, both in cane growing and in management.

Integrated development

In 1977 a more comprehensive approach to land reform was implemented in the form of the first rural development project, funded more or less equally by the Jamaican government and the World Bank. A second project started recently.

They involve the selection and settlement of experienced farm families on prepared land and in housing with water and electricity, serviced by feeder roads, common facilities for farm produce, markets, credit and technical assistance.



Banana plantation in Jamaica
"Maximizing farm output"

Arthur Smith — API-Kingston



Jamaican agriculture minister Seymour Mullings

There was much deliberation before the first project was undertaken and the government's commitment to this approach shows how far Jamaica has moved back to the land since the urban and industrial economic strategy of 20 years ago.

For the future, some hopes are pinned on the primarily youth-oriented "pioneer" farms, which started in late 1977. Within the next five years about 15 000 young (18-25) farmers should be placed on some 37 500 acres in cooperatives of 50-odd members. They will be financially supported for the first few months, but the emphasis is on "discipline and self-reliance" and each farm is supervised by a Ministry of Agriculture manager.

A large number of people have been affected by the land reform programmes and the opportunities for the young to make a decent living from farming have certainly increased. Productivity, however, has been disappointing and profits have been offset by heavy infrastructural costs.

The Jamaican government is concerned to intensify farm training, especially in the sugar cooperatives, and tighten up on the beneficiaries of resettlement whose performance is unjustifiably poor. Under the current 1978-82 five year plan, the problems are seen as follows (1):

- the highly skewed distribution of land ownership and the heavy concentration of the very large number of very small farms on land having steep slopes and poor quality soils;
- the unfavourable topography of a large portion of the land in agriculture and the excessive fragmentation of farm holdings, with many farms too small in size to provide a farm family with an adequate income;
- the inability of some farmers to provide legal documentation of ownership of land;

(1) This and the following list of points are taken from the "country review paper" prepared by the Jamaican government for the WCARRD.

- inadequate measures (in the past) to conserve and protect the limited soil resources of the country and ensure that they are used to their optimum potential;

- the lack of adequate basic infrastructure and social amenities in the rural areas (roads, water, housing, electricity, etc.) makes living in the country unattractive and encourages the migration of the younger population, as a result of which the majority of people on the farm are over 50 years old;

- the low level of skills, know-how and managerial ability of the farm population, as a result of which outmoded practices are employed in many areas of agricultural production giving generally low yields;

- although there is a large pool of unemployed and under-employed persons, there is a disenchantment with the unskilled work opportunities which are available in agriculture and this leads to labour shortages in the sector; the stigma which is attached to agricultural work is also reflected in these shortages;

- inadequate development of group activities among farmers, particularly the small farmers who could benefit from organized cooperative effort;

- inadequate training facilities necessary to up-grade the skills of farmers and to supply the qualified personnel required to perform the duties of a dynamic extension service;

- inadequacy of properly supervised credit facilities for capital formation and working capital;

- the inadequacy of research for the development of improved varieties and cultivars of plants and strains of animals, and the inadequacy of packages for production practices;

- the inadequacy and inefficiency of the marketing system;

- over-emphasis in the past on the production for export to the detriment of production for local consumption;

- the high incidence of preadial larceny throughout the country.

Terracing and tree planting to protect the Jamaican watersheds



PHOTO FAO

Maximizing farm output

The agriculture strategy for the new five year plan basically aims at maximizing farm output and raising living standards on the land, to cut unemployment and slow the drift to the towns, "within the framework of overall development of the economy". The ways of achieving this include:

— payment of reasonable prices to farmers for their commodities in order to provide the needed incentives to bring about increased production, allowing them to earn better incomes and pay better wages reversing the adverse terms of trade between agricultural and non-agricultural enterprises;

— acceleration of the land reform and improved land use programme. In association with this, a number of integrated rural development projects will be implemented and are being planned. Such projects will not only settle farmers and increase agricultural production, but improve infrastructure and provide social amenities;

— implementation of programmes designed to instill confidence in the farming community in areas such as security of tenure, etc.;

— implementation of a substantial irrigation programme, thereby removing one of the major constraints to increased agricultural production and productivity;

— implementation of a major soil conservation programme to protect the various watersheds and at the same time allow farmers to practice more intensive agriculture in these areas without increasing the risk of erosion;

— a reorganized and strengthened research and extension service capable of providing more information and better service to farmers in their various agricultural pursuits;

— a major improvement in distribution and marketing of domestic food crops, with the necessary infrastructure inputs. This to be achieved in collaboration with the ministries of industry and commerce and local government;

— improvement in the administration of agricultural credit and the provision of more credit to all categories of farmers;

— the production of non-traditional export crops for existing markets which can be exploited, e.g. avocados and mangoes;

— rationalization of existing export crops such as sugar, bananas and citrus in order that they might "hold their own" on the world markets and take them off the government budget;

— a major thrust in education at all levels for farmers, extension officers etc., and an improvement in the communication system between the ministry and the farmers and the general public on a whole.

FIJI

Fiji has few of the fundamental problems of poorer developing countries struggling to mobilize their rural sectors. Although scarcely a quarter of its scattered territory (300 islands dotted about 230 000 km² of ocean) is suitable for any-kind of cultivation, the standard of living on the farms is relatively comfortable and the land tenure system has evolved without necessitating radical changes. Fiji's problems are essentially external, due to the combination of its geographical isolation and its dependence on imports.

The population of 588 000 (1976) is divided more or less equally between Fijian (44.2%) and Indian (49.8%) racial components, with others making a disproportionately large contribution in the political and economic spheres. Broadly,

the Fijians own most of the land (83%) and either live off it in what has been described as "affluent subsistence" or lease it out, while the Indian group, who tend to be concentrated in the cane belts nearer the coastal towns, are commercial farmers mainly in wage employment in the sugar industry, which, with coprah, is the mainstay of the Fijian economy.

The big estates, for which Indian labour was originally recruited before World War I, were subdivided in the 1920s and nearly all the sugar is now produced on small farms averaging some 10 acres.

Fijian land is communally owned by social units of loosely related family groups ("matagalis"), in which individuals have little say on their own, and Fijians seem receptive to development projects requiring a community effort. The Indian group's way of life is based more on the individual family.

Agriculture continues to employ nearly half the labour force, although the percentage has fallen considerably in the last 10 years, and the government is concerned to involve more Fijians in commercial farming and create more rural employment.

The major current rural development projects are aimed at sugar, livestock, forestry, irrigation and land reclamation, with particular importance being attached to a rural roads programme which should help solve the problem of getting farm produce to market.

At the same time, the government is stressing the need to develop import-substitution production: in 1977, Fiji's total imports were valued at F\$238M as against total exports

Do-it-yourself at a community development centre in Fiji



PHOTO FAO



FAO

A "good food guide" to teach basic principles of diet in the Pacific. Changes away from the traditional diet have led to malnutrition

worth F\$163M, making Fiji one of the most import-dependent countries in the world.

Health, education and nutrition in the rural areas are generally good, although changes away from the traditional diet and other factors have led to increasing malnutrition. Housing standards are also improving, partly due to the replacement of traditional thatched houses by stronger ones capable of withstanding cyclones.

Lost skills

This has not been enough to prevent a drift to the town and rising unemployment (6.7% in 1976), however, as young Fijians go hopefully in search of something they consider less degrading than agriculture. Sometimes this search takes them abroad; Fiji loses some 4-5 000 people a year on present emigration averages, and shortages of labour in the cane areas are common. More important, many of these emigrants are skilled workers, the lack of whom is a major problem.

Fijian agriculture has a lifeline in the form of long-term sugar agreements, notably under the Lomé Convention, and an encouraging feature of the economy has been the diversification of the pattern of trade in favour of South East Asia and other Pacific islands. But the small local market necessarily limits growth in the commercial and manufacturing sectors of the economy.

While the government tries to bring the Fijian farmers to a more commercial way of thinking—hoping that this will not prove a snake in the garden of Eden, sowing discord between the racial groups—the main new departure for the economy may be in fisheries, as the declaration of the 200 mile zone will give Fiji control over vast marine resources.

The government's thinking on rural development is summarized in the following list of recommendations, prepared for the WCAARD:

- Since opportunities for expansion in the agricultural sector are limited a stronger emphasis should be placed on the development of marine resources.

- Research should be applied and not basic and more emphasis should be devoted to investigating agricultural systems rather than concentrating on single commodities.

- Extension staff should be given a thorough grounding in farm management economics so they can analyse farm problems more critically and systematically.

- The two extreme approaches of concentrating on commodities on one hand community development on the other have been found to be not entirely successful; a balance between the two is called for.

- An effective marketing network backed by adequate resources and manned by well-trained staff is vital to the success of plans for raising agricultural production; this aspect must be thoroughly established before programmes for increasing production get underway.

- Overseas aid should be used only to the extent the local system can absorb it; often there will be the temptation to distort national plans to accommodate aid and this should be resisted.

- Although average GDP per capita is relatively high, income is not equitably distributed; overseas loans to develop the poorer sectors should be provided at concessionary interest rates.

- Fiji should co-operate with Asian and Pacific countries to promote products emanating from cottage industries including handicrafts.

- Rational land-use planning should be initiated early to ensure that all uses are accommodated and that the land is used to its best potential; there are already conflicts emerging between cropping, grazing and forestry uses and between agricultural and urban requirements.

- A greater share of the national budget should be allocated to agriculture than appears to be the case for the past 10 years or so; it is vital for the continuing economic well-being of the country that the productive base is strengthened and broadened.

- The education system must give agriculture a positive "image" rather than the negative support it is being given at the present time.

- Greater support and protection must be given to local products than is the case at the present time; tariffs and licences should be imposed on imports to encourage local production.

CAMEROON

Cameroon has great agricultural potential: scarcely 5% of its area is fully farmed and yet 75% could be. It is perhaps the simple availability of land for subsistence agriculture that has enabled Cameroon to carry on with traditional farm methods and land systems when necessity has been the mother of invention elsewhere. However, in 1973 the government announced a "green revolution" aimed at taking the country's agricultural future in hand by surveying and generally modernizing the farming sector.

The problems of the subsistence sector (over 70% of the population are rural and even 42% of the "urban" popul-

ation are farm families) are basically due to a lack of inputs and organization. Capital investment, credit facilities, growing and marketing structures, extension work and relevant agronomic and sociological research are all inadequate, having been largely directed to the cash crop and forestry sectors which provide the basis of Cameroon's exports. The stagnation of subsistence farming has led to an increasing drift to the towns, to the extent that the net rural population will actually be dwindling by 1980-81, according to current projections.

Agrarian reform has been the object of several governmental measures since 1974, but the availability of land (except in the most heavily populated part of the country, the west) and the continuation of traditional land use practices have made it less of an issue in Cameroon than agricultural development per se.

The measures have been aimed at "social justice and rational use of potential for general development". Briefly, they guarantee the right to private land ownership, both to nationals and to foreigners, while giving the government authority to step in at any time in the national interest. Land is also owned by the state and by collectives. As from 1976, traditional local authorities and the administration have been represented on consultative committees whose job is to settle local land use disputes.

Agricultural development is being approached through a number of initiatives, which cannot be usefully wrapped up under a single label, aimed at getting through to the subsistence farmers while also maximizing export production. Priority is considered necessary for the mechanization of agriculture, training, rural credit schemes and communications infrastructure, and particular attention is being

Villagers in Obokoé, outside Yaoundé, bought this much-needed water pump with an Oxfam donation



PHOTO FAO



PHOTO FAO

Bee-keeping on an agronomy course at the Federal High School of agriculture in Cameroon

given to increasing protein production through livestock and fisheries schemes. FONADER, the national rural development fund set up in 1977, is the main instrument for carrying out rural development projects. Its principal activities include instituting a suitable farm credit scheme, managing a variety of rural projects such as digging wells, renovating plantations and running veterinary campaigns, and providing material inputs to the farmers.

Cameroon's rural development strategy largely depends on official bodies, centrally managed but operating locally, covering specific sectors. Some have been given the job of increasing production in particular areas: they include SODECAO for cocoa, SODECOTON for cotton, SODERIM and SEMRY for rice and MIDEVIV for fruit and vegetables. The national bureau for scientific and technical research, ONAREST, has the task of matching up agronomic research with present production conditions in the country, while other agencies are tackling rural organization: CENADEC and UCCAO, for instance are promoting cocoa and coffee cooperation.

The same approach applies to training, where the accent is on putting promising candidates through specialized colleges—agriculture, teaching, health—and hoping they will be able to raise standards in the rural areas through their knowledge of the local people and conditions.

So there is no peculiarly Cameroonian formula for rural development. Tactics are based on the "locomotive" effect of the big cash crop sector and the "spin-off" effect of training extension workers, with back-up provided by a polyvalent national fund and a number of national agencies each responsible for a particular aspect of a relatively integrated programme. □

B.T.

WCARRD declaration of principles

A declaration of principles and a programme of action were the outcome of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, held in Rome from 12-20 July. They were drawn up jointly by the conference's two commissions—the first, chaired by Tanzanian agriculture minister John Malecela, dealing with national measures on agrarian reform and rural development, and the second, chaired by former British overseas development minister Judith Hart, covering international approaches. The principles forming the guidelines of the action programme are as follows:

- that the fundamental purpose of development is individual and social betterment, development of endogenous capabilities, improvement of the living standards of all people, in particular the rural poor,
- that the right of every state to exercise full and permanent sovereignty over its natural resources and economic activities and to adopt the necessary measures for the planning and management of its resources is of vital importance to rural development,
- that the use of foreign investments for agricultural development of developing countries, in particular that of transnational corporations must be in accordance with national needs and priorities,
- that national progress based on growth with equity and participation requires a redistribution of economic and political power and fuller integration of rural areas into national developmental efforts with expanded opportunities of employment and income for rural people, and development of (people's organizations including) farmers' associations, cooperatives, and other forms of voluntary autonomous democratic organizations of primary producers and rural workers,
- that appropriate population policies and programmes can contribute to long-term social and economic progress,
- that maximum efforts should be made to mobilize and productively utilize domestic resources for rural development,
- that governments should introduce a positive bias in favour of rural development and provide incentives for increased investment and production in rural areas,
- that equitable distribution and efficient use of land and water and other productive resources, with due regard for ecological balance and environmental protection, are indispensable for rural development, for the mobilization of human resources, and for increased production for the alleviation of poverty,
- that diversification of rural economic activities including integrated crop-livestock development, fisheries and aquaculture and integrated forestry development is essential for broadbased rural development,
- that location of industries in the rural areas both in the public and the private sectors, particularly agro-industries,



PHOTO FAO

In the chair for the two WCARRD commissions: Dr John Malecela, Tanzanian agriculture minister, and Dame Judith Hart, former British overseas development minister

- provides necessary and mutually reinforcing links between agriculture and industrial development,
- that policies and programmes affecting agrarian and rural systems should be formulated and implemented with the full understanding and participation of all rural people, including youth, and of their own organizations at all levels, that development efforts should be responsive to the varying needs of different groups of rural poor,
 - that understanding and awareness of the problems and opportunities of rural development among people at all levels and improving the interaction between development personnel and the masses through an efficient communication system are prerequisites for the success of rural development strategy,
 - that constant vigilance should be kept to ensure that benefits of agrarian reform and rural development are not offset by the reassertion of past patterns of concentration of resources in private hands or by the emergence of new forms of inequity,
 - that women should participate on an equal basis with men and contribute on an equal basis in the social, economic and political processes of rural development and share fully in improved conditions of life in rural areas,
 - that international cooperation should be strengthened and a new sense of urgency should be introduced to augment the flow of financial and technical resources for rural development,
 - that all governments should undertake new and more intensive efforts to ensure world food security and to overcome inequities and instability in the trade of agricultural commodities of particular importance to developing countries, and
 - that developing countries, with the support of international development organizations, should strengthen their technical cooperation in rural development and foster policies of collective self-reliance. □

The European Community and rural development

Within the framework of the Community's development policy, various means are available to promote agricultural and rural development in the Third World.

The instruments

The Community has various instruments with which to implement its development cooperation policy, all of which can be used, to varying degrees, to help agricultural and rural development. They are:

— Comprehensive cooperation agreements; the model here is the Lome Convention, though its main features are also found in the agreements concluded by the EEC with the Maghreb and Mashraq countries. These agreements combine all the tools of development assistance, from trade cooperation to technical cooperation, plus Stabex for the ACP countries. Under such agreements, therefore, agricultural and rural development is supported by financial resources (although each state decides on the degree of priority it will give to the rural sector), guaranteed export markets, and in some cases guaranteed minimum earnings under Stabex.

(1) The appropriation for 1979 is \$143 million; the first programme, in 1976, was worth \$27 million.

(2) 1978 appropriations: \$16 million.

(3) The comprehensive cooperation agreements offer even more favourable arrangements, on a contractual basis, to the countries concerned.

An example of an integrated rural development project: the agricultural development of the Comoë area in Upper Volta



— Financial and technical cooperation projects undertaken by the Community out of its annual budget resources(1), for the benefit of other developing countries (mostly in Asia and Latin America). Here priority goes to projects designed to increase production or supplies of foodstuffs, and to increase living standards in country areas.

— A programme of Community financial support for projects carried out in the third world by non-governmental organizations, introduced in 1976(2), mainly benefits the poorest inhabitants of rural areas, and most of the projects are in the agricultural sector.

— The Community devotes a considerable amount of money to its food aid policy (\$720 million for 1979), which can contribute in a number of ways to the development of rural areas.

— The Community's commercial policy towards the developing countries in general makes use of a generalized system of preferences to offer them easier access to Community markets for a large number of their agricultural and craft products(3). In this context it is worth noting that the Community is the world's largest importer of agricultural products.

Financing rural development

In addition to appropriations for food aid, Community funds available for development should reach a minimum annual average of \$1 800 million from 1980. Obviously the proportion of this total going to agricultural and rural development cannot be laid down in advance, as it largely depends on decisions by the beneficiary countries themselves.

However, the large volume of grants in this total (\$1 000 million a year), and more generally the fact that most of the

aid is non-repayable (80% under the Lome Convention and 100% for aid to non-associated countries), means that it is possible in practice to decide to favour rural areas, which cannot develop by building up debt.

Similarly, the introduction of financing mechanisms and procedures suited to the particular needs of rural development means that this option does not need to remain in the realms of theory, but can gradually be translated into practical achievements. This has been the objective pursued by the Community, particularly under the Lome Convention.

The importance of rural development schemes in EEC-ACP cooperation

According to the aid utilization programmes drawn up under the Lome Convention, nearly 40% of the money available as aid for national projects is allocated to agricultural and rural development. This represents an average, however; in many countries the rural sector actually absorbs between 75% and 100% of the funds.

Even more significant is the importance within the agricultural sector of integrated rural development projects and microprojects; these form 43% of the total, against an average of only 8% under the first three European Development Funds. Inversely, the proportion of cash crops has fallen from 49% to 30%.

New formulas worked out for the financing of microprojects have been particularly successful. By involving the initiative and contributions of local inhabitants with Community financing, it has proved possible to launch 35 programmes covering some 1 400 projects.

This approach will be continued and extended under the new convention to succeed the Lome Convention from 1 March 1980, which should enable broader support to be given to rural development operations, for example, such projects will benefit from a greater emphasis on technical assistance, research and the dissemination of know-how; a Technical Centre for Agricultural Development is to be set up for this purpose. Schemes already under way to promote the use of renewable sources of energy in rural areas should also take on greater importance.

"Security" for rural areas

Where an economy is particularly frail, any setback can do irreparable damage; this is particularly true in rural areas, where income is barely at subsistence level. There are no savings, and stocks are low.

The system for the stabilization of export earnings introduced under the Lome Convention (and extended under the successor convention) offers small producers of export crops a vital insurance against "lean years", poor harvests or low prices. With minimum earnings guaranteed, they can buy the seeds and other things they need to keep going. The price guarantee to ACP sugar producers has a similar function; without it, falling world prices would have ruined the rural economy of many countries.

Projects designed to improve storage facilities also help provide security for rural producers, and such facilities are included in many integrated development projects. They figure prominently in Community financing operations for non-associated developing countries, particularly in Asia (27% of the 1978 programme and 33% of the 1977 programme).

Natural disasters threaten not only the incomes, but the very lives of people in the poorest rural areas. This is where exceptional and emergency aid come in: the Community has made considerable use of these forms of aid—under the Lomé Convention (the Sahel operations, for example), from



PHOTO FAO — DRACHOUSOFF

The EEC is backing a 10 million EUA rice-growing scheme in the Bouaké-Nord and Odiéne areas to help cut down on the Ivory Coast's imports of this staple food

budget appropriations, and through the provision of emergency food aid.

Food aid and rural development

Given the wide gap between the third world's food requirements and its food production, food aid must continue to be regarded as a vital lifeline for many, particularly those living in the poorest rural areas.

However, in implementing its large food aid programme (in 1979: 720 000 t of cereals, 150 000 t of milk powder, and 45 000 t of butteroil), the Community tries to encourage schemes going beyond the satisfaction of immediate needs which can contribute to the rural development of the beneficiary country. The most characteristic scheme of this sort is "Operation Flood", in India, which, at the end of a seven-year support programme of aid supplied by the Community in the form of milk products, should make it possible to replace external supplies wholly by local produce. Counterpart funds raised by the sale of a large proportion of the food aid on the market should make it possible to give priority to financing the development of rural production.

But, as the Commission has frequently pointed out, if this is to happen food aid commitments will have to be undertaken on a multiannual basis. □

EEC-ODA commitments to agriculture (1)

(Mio \$ — 1 UCE = 1.2743 \$)

	1974		1975		1976				1977				1978 (3)						
	Total		Total		EDF	Aid non assoc.	EIB (2)	NGO	Total	EDF	Aid non assoc.	EIB (2)	NGO	Total	EDF	Aid non assoc.	EIB (2)	NGO	Total
1. Crop development	15.2		2.4		38.8	1.2			40.0	65.8				65.8	54.9	8.4		0.1	63.4
2. Animal husbandry	16.4		3.7		6.2			0.1	6.2	14.8	0.1		0.1	15.0	19.4				19.4
3. Fisheries					5.4				5.4	2.7	3.3		0.1	6.1	1.9	0.6			2.5
4. Forestry							5.6		5.6	4.0				4.0			0.4		0.4
5. Water development	7.7		13.7		13.4			0.15	13.55	36.6	14.8		0.1	51.5	18.8	10.7		0.8	30.3
6. Land development	16.3		5.4		38.1	16.9	5.2	0.2	60.4	60.3	2.8	0.3	0.3	63.4	10.5	2.4		0.3	13.2
7. Agricultural services						4.4		0.25	4.65	16.3	8.0		0.5	24.8	1.1	27.0		1.6	29.7
8. Agri. devel. banks															4.6	2.3			6.9
9. Agricultural storage	2.8							0.1	0.1		14.6		0.2	14.8				0.4	0.4
10. Supply of means of product.	14.3		1.4					0.2	0.2		1.8		0.1	1.9				1.3	1.3
11. Supply of fertilizers	64.4		34.1					0.1	0.3	9.4				9.4	5.7	3.8		0.4	4.2
12. Agriculture, unallocated					0.2				0.2										
Total (narrow definition)	137.1		60.7		102.1	22.5	10.8	1.0	136.4	209.9	45.4	1.4	1.4	256.7	116.9	55.2		5.4	177.5
13. Manufacturing of means of prod.	3.0																		
14. Agro. industries	1.3		0.2		11.4	2.5	16.0		29.9	5.5			5.1	10.6	5.8	3.8	4.9		14.5
15. Infrastructure and transp.			0.5													2.6			2.6
16. Rural development	0.5				0.3				0.3	13.0	2.1		0.1	15.2	28.5	3.8		0.6	32.9
17. Regional develop. projects	0.9									3.7				3.7	2.6				2.6
18. River develop. projects																7.4			7.4
Total (1-17 broad def.)	142.8		61.4		113.8	25.0	26.8	1.0	166.6	232.1	47.5	5.1	1.5	286.2	153.8	72.8	4.9	6.0	237.5
Technical cooperation	0.8		1.3		1.5				1.5	1.5	3.9			5.4	6.2	10.6			16.8
Total ODA for agric.	143.6		62.7						168.1					291.6					254.3

(1) DAC definition of agriculture.

(2) Special operations.

(3) Preliminary figures.

A rural development project: a gamble on the future

Between July 1976 and December 1977 a sectorial study(1) was undertaken to analyse the effects and results of 10 integrated rural development programmes, financed by the Community. They involved small-scale peasant farming in nine French-speaking African countries (Benin, Central African Empire, Chad, Ivory Coast, Niger, Rwanda, Togo, Upper Volta and Zaire) and form a representative example of such projects financed by the first three EDFs.

Apart from the strictly operational conclusions drawn from the study, it was possible to set out general philosophical guidelines for future projects of this kind(2), and a brief outline of these is published below.

Improve the standard of living

Implementation of a rural development project is to some extent a "venture" and a gamble, even if everything has been done from the outset to provide all possible safeguards through detailed studies, surveys and experiments in the economic, agronomic, ecological, social or other fields. Quite apart from its macro-economic targets the aim of a rural development project must be not only to produce more but also, and perhaps above all, to improve the standard of living of the villagers concerned and integrate their agricultural, pastoral, craft and other activities more fully into the modern economic systems.

Converging interests

This "venture" is exposed to many economic, technical and psychosociological risks. Consequently, the production levels, yields, income, etc., set as targets of the projects must be treated as more projections of what the estimated possible results will be after a number of years given the initial conditions. One of the major factors which makes the projections in question uncertain is the fact that the producers, who are the principal and essential agents of rural development, adjust their behaviour to their own constraints and aspirations, which may differ—and often do differ—from those of the States which draw up the projects and request financing for them and from those of the development institutions responsible for executing the projects.

In order to ensure that the interests of the public partners and peasant farmers converge, it is necessary above all to involve the latter, in so far as possible, in the conception and execution of the development operations, the choices and decisions which they entail and the evaluation of their effects. Such evaluation is, moreover, vital in order to ensure the effectiveness of these operations; it must be carried out in a regular and objective manner throughout the life of the project in order to enable the objectives, strategies and instruments to be adapted to the fundamental aims in the light of the results already obtained and the changes which have occurred in the economic and technical context during the execution of the operations. A high degree of flexibility as regards execution must, however, be reconciled with the rigorousness that is also necessary: the on-going evaluation of the effects achieved is a vital instrument serving this rigorousness and flexibility of approach.

(1) "Integrated rural development projects carried out by the EDF in black Africa: evaluation and perspectives"—a general report by Hugues Dupriez.

(2) Summary and conclusions of the evaluation (ex-post) of integrated rural development projects carried out with EDF aid in Black Africa—report established by the specialized service "Evaluation".

The "expert's" view of rural development (1)

It is clear that the local **socio-economic contexts** in which development schemes are carried out are difficult to understand for those with no experience of living in them, and consequently that "developers" **do not know enough about them**.

Some "developers", whether of local or foreign nationality, tend to regard the rural world as an amorphous world which needs to be "structured" in line with development objectives. Others—and this is particularly true of technical assistance personnel—have a tendency to ignore the social structures and economic or political hierarchies forming part of the context of a project. The rural world is then seen by the "developer" purely in the light of his particular interest; it is viewed as a mass of coffee or cotton growers, or in terms of an "average farmer" controlling all the people and resources on his land. Others have a tendency to idealize traditional structures and impose their egalitarian theories on them, although analysis would show them the importance of the various hierarchical patterns, some of which are time-honoured (gerontocracy, submission of women as a class) and others recent (landless peasant classes).

In their efforts at organization of the rural environment, "developers" often graft new structures on to the existing context. The efficiency, not to say survival, of such structures appears to depend on the continued presence of those who set them up and on the temporary and limited interest of farmers in their operation (for instance, when they are obliged to join groups of one sort or another set up by a development company in order to obtain credit). Consequently, these superimposed structures do not bring lasting changes to the environment.

Moreover, because of lack of a thorough understanding of the environment on the part of institutional officials, lack of more than superficial co-ordination between socio-economic researchers and project institutions, and lack of appropriate teaching of specifically rural African economics, sociology and technology, the people who deal with the farming world often fail to give it proper recognition as a full partner in its own right, it is regarded as a minor partner, even though the success or failure of rural development activities is entirely in the hands of its members. □

(1) Reprinted from the report by H. Dupriez.

Integrated projects... or integrated peasant farming (1)

Analysis of the projects evaluated brings home the complexity of the mechanisms governing the farming activities of the populations affected by development schemes. This complexity can by no means be defined purely in terms of reactionary mental attitudes; on the contrary, all the reports point to profound and fast-moving dynamism among the producers. The complexity derives from the empirical but determined attitudes of peasant farmers operating within the constraints of technical and economic factors perceived in terms of conditions on their farms and in the light of their interest in social change. It can often be misunderstood in the rigid and often simplified frameworks of regulations or projects designed by officials from outside the rural community often unfamiliar with the country itself.

To be truly "integrated", rural development must give very flexible encouragement to the progress of the complex of limiting factors and incentives. The age when it was thought that rural development and progress for the most disadvantaged populations would follow as the result of

accelerating industrial growth has come to an end. Improvement of the circumstances of disadvantaged populations can only be achieved if rural development operations are aimed very directly at the "target groups" whose wellbeing it is intended to enhance from the points of view of economic conditions, health, education etc. Moreover, experience has confirmed that lasting results cannot be expected unless development schemes are taken over completely by the groups concerned. Any number of projects have attempted to achieve rural development "in spite of the local farmer", without his co-operation, irrespective of the context of his skills, imagination, priorities and even his methods of working the land.

In order to increase the effectiveness of resources given over to rural development, it is necessary to enquire into the fundamental thought processes underlying peasant mentalities and the technical, economic, social and cultural behaviour patterns which they determine. □

(1) Reprinted from the report by H. Dupriez.

The integrated nature of the rural areas

The participation of the population in operations for developing the rural economy means that the conception of such operations should take account of the essentially integrated nature of village communities and peasant farms. Specific operations must therefore, above all, be based on a serious study of the existing agrarian systems; they must be conceived essentially in the light of the weak points and bottlenecks inhibiting the progress of these integrated structures, which vary according to the regions and periods concerned. In their conception and implementation projects must in particular reduce to a tolerable level the food risks and financial risks arising for the peasants from the innovations introduced; they must therefore endeavour to reconcile two fundamental needs of the rural world: progress and security of existence.

The integrated character of peasant structures does not, however, mean that those structures are uniform: the peasant world is subdivided into fairly distinct categories whose needs vary. External operations to help the peasant farmers in their technical and economic progress must therefore identify the categories with different problems and fairly

One of the projects assessed was this integrated rural development scheme (photo: building farm sheds) in the Bugesera-Mayaga area of Rwanda



clear-cut differences in resources, and gear themselves to the interests and capacities of the principal categories. The latter must be able to organize themselves into socio-occupational structures which will both enable the peasant farmers to take charge collectively of their own development and act as intermediaries between them and the official bodies or public services. The effectiveness of the operations depends to a fairly large extent on such an adjustment to the environment and on the latter's ability to organize itself into dynamic structures.

A global approach is needed

For rural development operations to be fully effective they must also fit in with national, economic and social policies that are geared in a continuous and consistent manner to promoting the peasant classes and to developing in an orderly fashion the natural resources on which they live. Pricing policies for agricultural products and the means of production and those concerning the content and organization of training (of the young, but also of adults) are of prime importance in these fields. The policies relating to agrarian structures and institutions and those relating to credit and to the processing, storage and marketing of products must also be judiciously conceived and applied so that they do not represent a yoke but a network of incentives for the rural producers.

Mobilize and train the peasants

Finally, the lessons of evaluation stress the need to carry projects through to the stage where their subsequent operation and development can be taken over completely by the populations concerned and the relevant national departments. The progress achieved, even if it is modest, must be viable and lasting. This is why the technical assistance provided for drawing up and executing projects must above all mobilize and train the populations concerned and the national cadres rather than concentrate on administering the funds and executing the operations itself. Without this, the results, spectacular though they may be, obtained at the cost of considerable effort and major expenditure and often having given rise to great hopes, may well be ephemeral and therefore disappointing. □

Ch. VAN DER VAEREN

APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY

Biological control of cassava pests

by Michelle HIBLER(*)

"A lot of people refer to biological control as an art rather than a science", says Dr Fred D. Bennett, director of the Commonwealth Institute of Biological Control (CIBC) in Curepe, Trinidad. And certainly, with biological control of crop pests, you can't apply any hard and fast rules(1): the means—predators or parasites—vary according to geographical location and the insect to be controlled; the certainty and degree of control is variable; the methods may take years to become fully effective.

But biological control offers many advantages. First is its economy and permanence: once natural enemies against a pest are established, the pests are kept in check without further effort or expense. Biological control methods do not carry the threat of pollution or environmental damage, and, unlike chemical pesticides, require almost no energy to produce.

On the other hand, biological control methods can pose risks. If the wrong parasites or predators are introduced, they may attack beneficial insects, or even, in the case of biological weed control, cause severe damage to crops. Rigorous screening trials therefore need to be carried out before parasites or predators are introduced to a new area.

Nevertheless, in some cases, biological means may be the only practical means of pest control. Controlling cassava mites and mealybugs in Africa is a case in point. Because of cassava's long growing period—more than a year—and because it is grown mainly as a subsistence crop, chemical control of its pests is unlikely to be practical. Small farmers can ill afford the time, or the cost, for the repeated applications of chemical pesticides

that would be needed. In some areas of the People's Republic of the Congo and Zaire where young cassava leaves are an important source of food protein, toxic pesticides could also pose too great a risk to health.

Because of cassava's importance as a staple food crop or as a famine crop that ensures survival when the local staple fails, governments have become increasingly concerned about the loss of crops. In recent years, Uganda, northern Tanzania and Zanzibar reported yield losses of 50 to 80 percent due to infestations of the green cassava mite (*Mononychellus tanajoa* Bondar).

The green mite was introduced to Africa from South America by man, having crossed the ocean in infected planting material in the early 1970s. Severe infestations were first reported near Kampala, Uganda, in 1972. A year later, much of the country was infested, and the mite made its way, or was carried, to northern Tanzania and eastern Kenya. The mites travel in an interesting fashion: dangling on silken threads, the females let themselves be

wafted by the breeze on warm calm days. Some have been found to travel as far as 200 miles in this way. Thus they also spread to Burundi and eastern Zaire, and they expanded their territory to other countries.

The cassava mite problem came to CIBC's attention, and in 1974, Dr Bennett requested assistance from Canada's International Development Research Centre (IDRC) to find natural enemies of the mite in Trinidad and Latin America where the pest has been known for some time. The CIBC, a unit of the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux, has specialized in biological control since 1927.

Although mites had successfully been controlled in glasshouses in Europe, attempting to use introduced predators against a mite attacking a field crop was a relatively new enterprise. A tiny creature, the mite can appear in thousands on a single leaf. It sucks the juices of cassava leaves, causing them to drop off prematurely.

A heavy infestation can denude the plant, severely retarding its growth. Very little was known about the mite in the neotropics, and extensive surveys of the mite and of its natural enemies in their natural environment were required, as well as detailed investigations of its biology and ecology.

Dr M. Yaseen, an entomologist at CIBC's West Indian station in Curepe, surveyed the mite in a number of Latin American and Caribbean countries. He



Dr Yaseen brushing mites off cassava leaves

NEILL MC KEE IDRC

(*) Editor, Canadian International Development Research Centre.

(1) See the *Courier* N° 50 p. 70, the Tropical Products Institute.

found that mite densities vary on plants of different ages, severe infestations occurring on plants of 3-8 months. The younger leaves also harbour the greatest number of mites. Infestations are highest during the hot dry season, and are reduced by heavy rains in the wet season. Mite populations also vary on different varieties of cassava. Ten varieties were monitored over two years, and while none were found to be totally resistant to mite infestations, some had smaller populations.

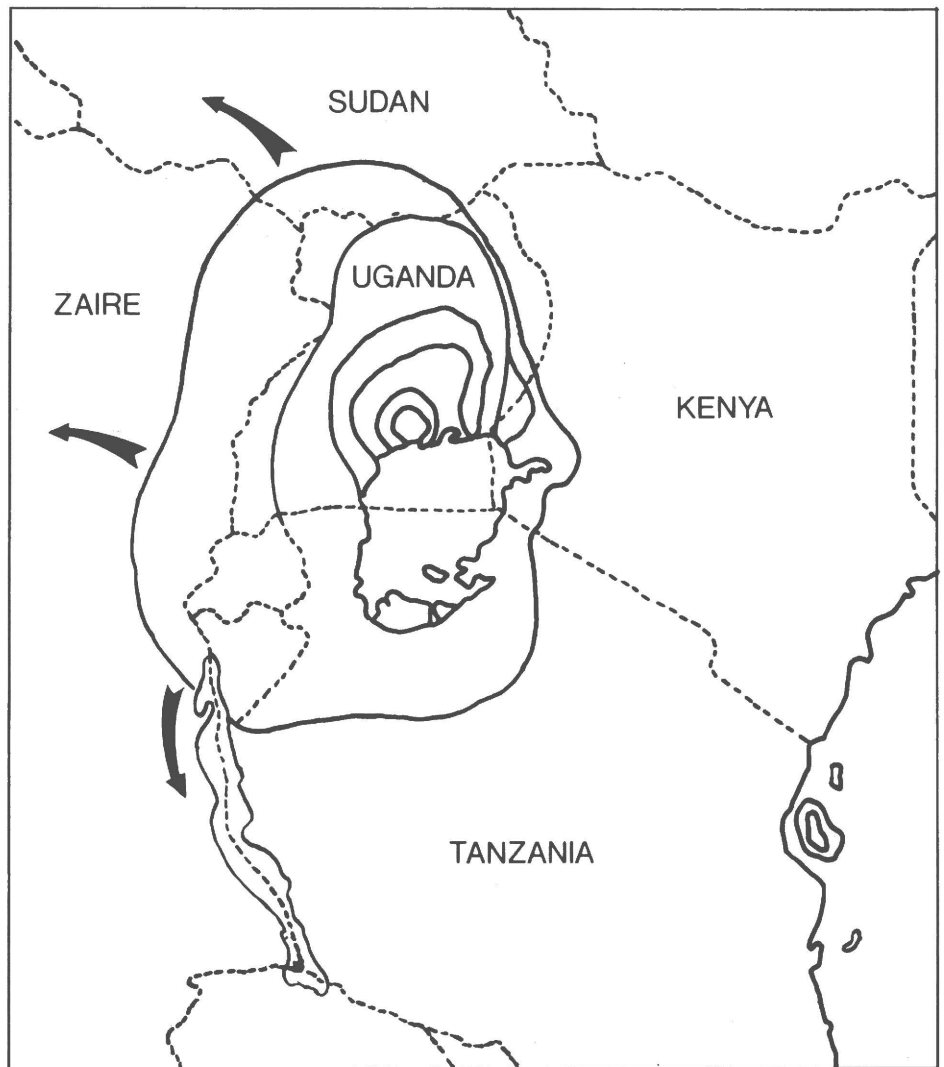
The studies are continuing. In a small experimental plot at the Curepe station, young cassava plants are growing. They were planted in December and three months later, at the beginning of the dry season, a few are showing signs of light infestation. The experiments carried out also aim to assess the effect of different pesticides. "It's pretty much of a losing battle", says Dr Bennett. "You go out the next day and the pesticides have done a marvellous job, but the mites come back faster, and more abundantly, than before." The effects of various fertilizers are also being assessed, as mite densities are associated with nutrient levels. Although the results are preliminary, they indicate that mite populations are higher in fertilized plots.

Drs Bennett and Yaseen identified 14 predators of the mite in the neotropics. One in particular, a small black beetle of the *Staphylinidae* family, *Oligota minuta cam*, was particularly interesting. Its developmental period was short—15 to 18 days—so it could react quickly to a build-up of mites. It fed voraciously, both larvae and adults consuming all stages of the green mite. And, if the green cassava mite was scarce, it could feed on other types of mites.

Studies in Uganda agreed with the findings in Trinidad, and it was decided that *O. minuta* should be released in East Africa. The first shipments were made in 1976 and 1977, and although delays in transportation caused high mortality rates, releases were made at nine sites in Kenya. Unfortunately, a number of factors made it impossible to carry out the recoveries, and an unusually wet year kept the mite population low. Similarly, colonies were sent to Zaire but a breakdown in internal transportation resulted in high mortality.

Arrangements have been made for setting up rearing chambers at the Agriculture and Forestry Research Station at Muguga, near Nairobi, from where *O. minuta* could be distributed to other countries.

At about the same time as the mite was causing ravages in East Africa, a



The spread of the green cassava mite since its introduction into Uganda in 1971



JAIMÉ ROJAS JDR

Dr Bennett examines young cassava plants with Dutch entomology student Wim de Voogd on an experimental plot in Curepe (Trinidad)



JDRC

NEILL MC KEE JDRC



Gathering and preparing manioc in Nigeria. Pest control can considerably reduce the time spent in finding and cleaning food

new cassava pest was also appearing in Central and West Africa—the mealybug *Phenacoccus manihoti*, hitherto known definitely only in Brazil where it is not a major pest. It built up rapidly and spread in Zaire. Because of the serious threat it posed to cassava crops, the CIBC began investigations on this pest, its parasites and predators, again with IDRC support.

Surveys in Trinidad failed to reveal mealybug attacks on cassava, but Dr Yaseen found a few in Tobago, and mealybugs attacking other plants were identified. Further surveys revealed its presence in a number of Latin American countries, including Guyana and Surinam. It was also found that the mealybug was prey to a great number of pests and parasites in Latin America although these were scarce in Africa, indicating the bug's American origins.

The studies have concentrated on developing suitable breeding techniques for the most promising predators and parasites, and methods of shipping them to Africa. "Nurseries" were set up at the Curepe station: sprouting potatoes kept in jars and inoculated with mealybug eggs or crawlers were then used to develop colonies of parasites and pests. A diet of honey, or honey

mixed with agar and sugar, proved adequate for maintaining the adults during shipping.

In August 1978 three types of parasites were sent to Zaire. Another shipment arrived in Senegal in late January 1979, and the parasites are being cultured for release in trial plots. A facility for rearing the parasites is also being established in the Congo. The field work is being carried out by the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, based in Nigeria.

To be fully successful, biological control must go hand in hand with the development of resistant varieties. However, it offers the only short term solution to the cassava mealybug problem in Africa, and the researchers involved feel the project has a good chance of success. "If we were to take a guess as to which project—mite or mealybug—had the best chance of succeeding, I'd say the mealybug because there has been success in mealybug work before", says Dr Bennett. And, according to Dr Bennett, since the parasites and predators selected for the trials are specific to the mite and the mealybug, there is no danger that they will become pests themselves.

Of the mite control project, he feels "we've not really been able to do it justice" because of the delays encountered in the field work. But if you visit Dr Bennett's home garden plot, on the hill overlooking St Augustine, Trinidad, you will see the telltale signs of mite infestation on his cassava plants. But you'll also notice a tiny black beetle, *O. minuta*, on the undersides of the leaves. Dr Bennett will tell you he didn't put them there, they came by themselves, in search of the destructive mite. □

The International Development Research Centre is a public corporation created by the parliament of Canada in 1970 to support research designed to adapt science and technology to the needs of developing countries. The centre's activity is concentrated in five sectors: agriculture, food and nutrition sciences; health sciences; information sciences; social sciences; and communications. IDRC is financed solely by the government of Canada; its policies, however, are set by an international board of governors. The centre's headquarters are in Ottawa, Canada. Regional offices are located in Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East.

Uses for rice husks

Waste material from farm and food products can often be put to good use with the help of a bit of appropriate technology. The *Courier* has looked at rice straw for making roofing boards and here are two uses for rice husks, one developed in the Philippines and the other in India. The first idea is to use this waste material for fueling a cooking stove. The second is a way of turning rice husk ash into a cheap and strong cement.

The rice husk stove

The Filipino for rice husk is "ipa" and ipa stoves were common in the Philippines before the introduction of kerosene, gas and electricity.

Due to the high cost of these fuels now and the increasing cost of wood, the ipa stove is making a comeback.

It gives out an almost smokeless heat and uses a fuel which only costs a few



The rice harvest could provide fuel as well as food

US cents per week for the average family.

More ipa stoves would help to clear the mountains of rice husks which lie around Philippine farms and rice mills.

And the ash makes a good fertilizer—or (see following page) even a useful cement.

The diagram gives an at-a-glance idea of the stove, which is a hollow cement (or clay) block about 3 feet high, 2½ feet long and 2 feet wide.

A galvanized metal hopper with a valve lets the fuel in at one end and a pipe takes out the smoke at the other.

There are two burners and an ash outlet.

Fuel is let in by opening the valve and the stove is started by firing the fuel under the burners with a twist of paper or a little kerosene.

One ipa stove, built by a single local craftsman, caters for all the cooking and heating needs of a hospital at a cost of some 10 cents a day.

Too good to be true?

Write to:

Mario P. Chanco

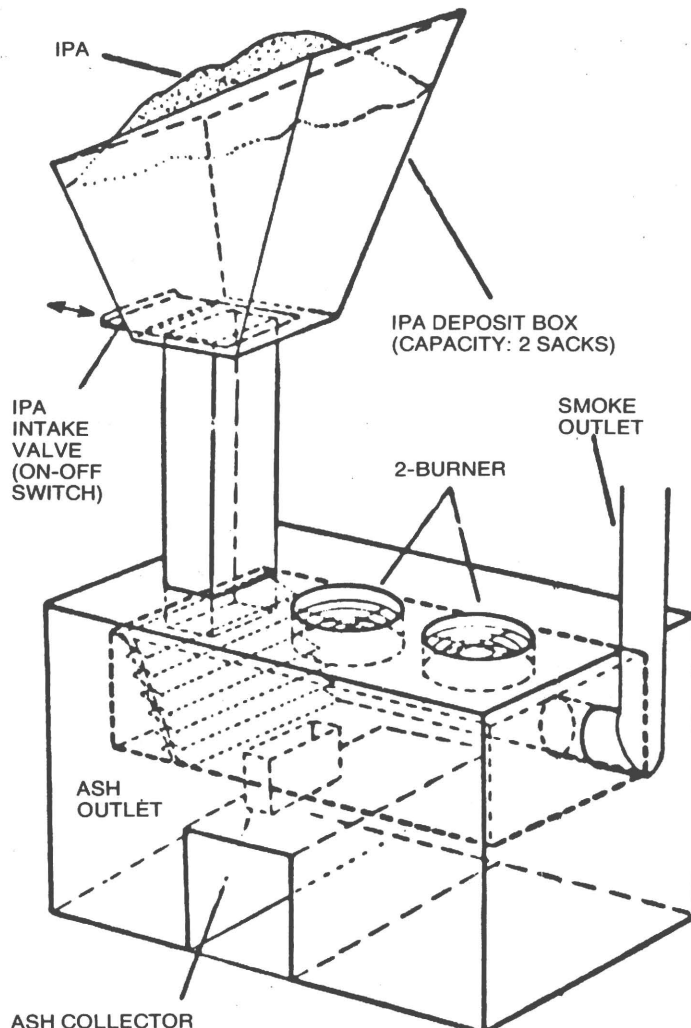
P.O. Box 1365

MANILA

Philippines. □ B.T.

The ipa stove

Reproduced from "Appropriate Technology", vol. 5 no 3



Ashmoh cement

Dr P.C. Kapur of Kanpur, India, has sent the *Courier* a description of this cement made from rice husk ash. The patented process has been developed under his supervision during more than five years of experiments and trials.

Ashmoh requires three raw material: (i) rice husk ash (ii) lime and (iii) a commonly available additive. These three ingredients are ground together in a ball mill (grinding machine) into a fine powder. Ashmoh cement is then ready.

The Ashmoh process requires in all just one single grinding operation in a ball mill.

The ball mill is relatively simple, compact and rugged, requiring very little maintenance. It is ideally suited for small-scale, agro-based industry located in the technologically backward areas.

For a 500 ton/annum Ashmoh plant, about 25 kW power is needed to run the mill, which can also be driven by diesel and steam engines. The ball mills are routinely manufactured in many developing countries.

Ashmoh cement is a hydraulic setting cement similar, but not indetical, to the ordinary portland cement. Its properties compare quite favourably with portland cement.

Typical values for Ashmoh are: (i) initial and final setting times—90 min and 6 hr, respectively; (ii) compressive strength of 1:3 cement-sand mortar cubes after 7 and 28 days curing—150 kg/sq.cm and 250 kg/sq.cm, respectively.

Indeed, carefully prepared laboratory samples of Ashmoh have shown compressive strength in excess of 350 kg/sq.cm.

It has been estimated that in the developing countries anywhere from 40% to 60% of portland cement consumption goes into non-critical civil construction elements, such as masonry, brick laying, plastering, flooring, etc.

For these applications Ashmoh is eminently suitable. In fact, as compared to portland cement based mortars, Ashmoh-sand mixtures are more plastic (less harsh) and are easier to apply.

Ashmoh has a finer particulate structure and consequently superior resistance to water penetration. Therefore, it is an ideal cement for construction of water storage tanks and waterproof lining of irrigation channels and canals.

Ashmoh can substitute for portland cement in the manufacture of hand-moulded or machine-pressed sand-cement bricks, blocks, tiles, well-rings, and in construction of grain storage silos, low-rise low cost housing and many other routine applications. Ashmoh has been successfully used in making standard 1:2:4 type concretes in the compressive strength range of 200-250 kg/sq.cm.

However an unequivocal recommendation for its use in critical, load-bearing concrete elements must await a very thorough evaluation of an intensive long term programme of field trials.

Because of its lower lime content, Ashmoh has better resistance than portland cement to acidic and sulfate environments.

Ashmoh technology, as compared to portland cement plants, requires low capital investment and is highly labour-intensive.

Ashmoh can be manufactured in numerous mini-units dispersed throughout the country, using local raw materials; the cement in turn is meant to be consumed locally. In other words, the adoption of Ashmoh technology should entail negligible transportation of raw materials or cement products.

The main raw material for Ashmoh, rice husk ash, is a perennially renewable resource which is wasted at present. The lime content of Ashmoh cement is less than one half of portland cement.

Therefore small local deposits of limestone can be worked profitably for running Ashmoh plants and this valuable mineral conserved for other essential industries.

The manufacture of Ashmoh is a genuine agro-industry based on an exceptionally simple technology, which can be readily assimilated by relatively unsophisticated rural or semi-rural society.

An Ashmoh cement manual is available for a small sum. For full details write to:

*Professor P.C. Kapur,
Department of Metallurgical
Engineering,
Indian Institute of Technology,
KANPUR 208016*

India. □ B.T.



Harvesting rice in Madagascar

The Ashmoh technique can give rice-growing countries a new use for a waste product

Water project brings prosperity to the Bahamas

by Asif KHAN

People living in New Providence, the most populous and important of the 700-odd islands that make up the Bahamas, used to suffer from daily cuts in water supply—sometimes for as long as 18 hours. And the perennial water shortage also threatened the tourist industry, the backbone of the country's economy.

Things are quite different now, however, thanks to a team of Commonwealth experts who have played a key role in a project to ease the situation. Residents of New Providence, which includes the capital Nassau, no longer have to fear that taps will suddenly run dry.

The tourist industry looks set for a boom. There are plans for building new

hotels and extending existing ones. Luxury cruise ships which previously bypassed the Bahamas are once again calling at Nassau, safe in the knowledge that there is plenty of water to replenish their reserves. On a recent Saturday, there were as many as eight luxury liners in port—the biggest number in the Bahamas' history for one day.

This change has been brought about by a project of the Bahamas Water and Sewerage Corporation which involves transporting fresh water by barge and tankers from Andros to New Providence. Andros is the biggest of the islands in the group; also the least populated, it has abundant supplies of fresh water.

The Bahamas, which lie to the east of Florida in the United States and north-east of Cuba, cover a total land area of about 5 400 square miles, with more than 2 000 rocks and cays as well as

the 700 islands. Most of the population of about 225 000 are of African origin. The country became independent from Britain in 1973, and chose to remain in the Commonwealth.

About 60% of the population live in New Providence, which attracts the largest number of foreign tourists. Its population has been swelled by young Bahamians from other parts of the country looking for employment.

In 1976, the government obtained a World Bank loan to finance the project. The money was lent on condition that expertise was available to implement the plan.

That expertise was provided by the London-based Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation, a part of the Commonwealth Secretariat, established in 1971 to help meet the technical assistance needs of member states.

Two tankers and a barge, manned by British, Scandinavian and local crews and capable of carrying several millions of gallons of water per day, ply between a point in North Andros known as Morgan's Bluff—named after the 17th-century British pirate Captain Henry Morgan—and Arawak Cay in New Providence, some 40 miles away.

Water pumped from wellfields laid with the help of CFTC engineers is stored in two large reservoirs at Morgan's Bluff before being loaded on to the vessels. At Arawak Cay, another reservoir receives the water for distribution to homes and hotels.

The first barge with fresh water from Andros arrived in New Providence amid much fanfare in November 1976. The situation had improved so much by last September that water was flowing through taps throughout the day.

Apart from an occasional emergency, there have been no more cuts in supply, enabling the 10-year-old government of Prime Minister Lynden Pindling to claim it as one of its biggest achievements. Mr Pindling was present at Morgan's Bluff when the first barge containing water—the *Majestic Point*—set sail for New Providence.

Don Tilakaratne, as resident engineer at Andros at the time, supervised the historic first loading. He explained that barging was considered the most suitable method because laying a pipe between Morgan's Bluff and Arawak Cay would have been extremely difficult; the particular stretch of the Atlantic, known as 'the tongue of the ocean', is one of the deepest in the world. □ A.K.



Life giving water

East Caribbean farmers learn new techniques

by Asif KHAN(*)

A major agricultural project launched by a Commonwealth expert in Montserrat is helping farmers of this Eastern Caribbean island to increase production by introducing new techniques and new varieties of fruit and vegetables.

The project involves the establishment of demonstration plots in seven districts of Montserrat, a British dependency in the Leeward Islands group with an area of 40 square miles and a population of about 13 000.

The expert, Inayat Hosein, hopes the project will help Montserrat farmers not only to become self-sufficient but also "commercially-minded." There are ample export opportunities and he would like them to exploit those opportunities to the maximum, he says.

"There is a big shortage of fresh fruit in most of the Caribbean islands—both for the growing tourist trade and for local consumption," said Mr Hosein.

The project occupies 28 plots, divided into one-acre vegetable gardens and three-acre fruit orchards. They are established on land controlled by progressive farmers who are required to work under the supervision of a Department of Agriculture officer and under Mr Hosein's overall guidance. The department provides materials and the farmers labour. All crops are the property of the farmers.

Crops selected for demonstration plots, which are also being used for collecting useful information and research, are tomatoes, okra, peas, cabbages, cucumbers, hot and sweet peppers, carrots, onions, mangoes, avocados and citrus fruit.

Mr Hosein, a 63-year-old Trinidadian who has previously worked as a United Nations expert in Bangladesh and Latin America, said the plots were established to teach farmers modern agricultural techniques.

"They are partly experimental and partly demonstrative," he said. "We are doing it in cooperation with the farmers. They must feel that they are involved. It is important to get them

interested. We just show them the right way to do something, but they must do it themselves. You don't want to do everything yourself for them. You must make them feel that they are part of it to keep them interested."

He is also trying to develop papaya and macadamia nut crops in Montserrat. In addition, he has started a project to help the islanders grow cashew nuts for the first time. For this purpose, he has selected two plots of five acres each in the north and east of the island-regions considered suitable because of low rainfall.

Mr Hosein, who arrived in Montserrat in September 1977 as adviser on orchard crop production to the government, is one of the 300-odd experts of the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation working in many fields in various parts of the Commonwealth. He is attached to the CFTC export market development division headed by Mr Bidu Jayal of India.

The CFTC, a part of the Commonwealth Secretariat, was established in 1971 to help meet the technical assistance needs of member states of the Commonwealth and is financed by voluntary contributions from all member governments.

Although Mr Hosein regards himself basically a citriculturist, he says he has been able to put his experience in other fields to good use in the island.

For example, he has taken a keen interest in beautifying it and is particularly proud of an ornamental garden he has laid in the grounds of the official residence of the governor, Welshman Mr. G.W. Jones.

He has also started a new scheme under which thousands of undesirable mango trees are cut to base and then grafted with desirable varieties, including the Bombay mango which was first introduced to the island from India some 40 years ago.

Grafting has already been carried out successfully on a number of trees and the scheme will be completed in the near future. These trees will then play a major part in the government's plan to promote export of fruit to the lucrative markets of North America and Europe as well as within the Caribbean.

Before taking up his CFTC assignment Mr Hosein was senior lecturer in

the department of crop science of the University of the West Indies, Trinidad. His teaching responsibilities included instruction in plantation crops, tropical horticulture and plant propagation and the supervision of postgraduate students.

On a request to the university from the government of Guyana, he visited that country to investigate a problem which was limiting yields of citrus. In 1974, he was seconded to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations for an assignment in Bangladesh to lead a team of international experts advising the government on the development of a horticulture programme for the country.

Mr Hosein, who is the author of a number of publications, has been running training courses and helping farmers tackle individual problems in Montserrat which regards higher food production as a top priority for its economic development. He has also got many young people interested in agriculture.

Recently he visited the neighbouring islands of St. Kitts and British Virgin Islands at their governments' request to advise on their agriculture development programmes. After his assignment comes to an end in Montserrat this year, he is expected to go to St. Kitts which has asked the CFTC to make his expertise available for two years. □ A.K.



Caribbean fruit and vegetable markets often suffer from gluts and shortages (photo: New Amsterdam, Guyana). The Montserrat project should help regularize supplies

(*) Feature writer for the Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Microprojects under the Lome Convention (*)

The Lome Convention stipulates that the EDF shall participate as an experiment in the financing of microprojects, for which the sum of 20 million units of account is earmarked. Microprojects have met with a highly favourable reaction from both local communities and the ACP states, most of which have included such schemes in their indicative programmes.

By 31 December 1978, 30 ACP states had programmed microprojects, for a total of nearly 19 million EUA. A number of ACP states have already indicated that they will be asking the Commission for amendments in their indicative programmes to further microprojects.

This means that the 20 million units of account made available under the Convention will be inadequate to meet all the requests for financing.

Implementation of the programmes is proceeding most satisfactorily. As of 31 December 1978 the Commission had approved the financing of 28 annual programmes, for a total of over 10 million EUA. In the first half of 1979, it is likely that financing decisions will be taken on thirteen more programmes, for a total of about 4.4 million EUA, bringing the level of commitments to nearly 15 million EUA.

5 million EUA extra

The Commission therefore proposes that the Council of Ministers vote to continue with microprojects and to that end authorize the use of a further 5 million units of account for financing such microproject programmes as the ACP states might wish to carry out with any money remaining over from their EDF-financed indicative development programmes.

To qualify for Community financing, microprojects must:

— stem from an initiative taken by a local community whose active participation must be ensured;

— meet a real, priority need at local level;

— be financed from three sources: the benefiting community (contribution in money or in kind), the ACP state (financial contribution or contribution of public works services) and the EDF (whose contribution may not exceed 75 000 EUA per microproject).

The ACP states present annual programmes within the limits of the appropriations earmarked in their indicative programmes; after examination by the Commission's departments, these programmes are submitted to the relevant bodies of the Community for financing decisions.

Within the framework of these annual programmes, the ACP state concerned takes the financing decisions relating to each microproject with the agreement of the Commission.

The majority of ACP states have wished to make use of the new type of operation. From the outset of the programming 25 of them included microprojects in their indicative programme, and five (Sudan, Sierra Leone, Jamaica, the Central African Empire and Guyana) subsequently requested alterations to their indicative programmes for this purpose.

The amount programmed totals 18 776 million EUA, leaving a balance of 1 224 million EUA, which is likely to prove inadequate to cover requests from ACP states wishing, in the light of the success of their first programme, to have additional programmes financed. In addition, it is likely at the end of the life of the Lome Convention a number of ACP states will ask that any small sums left over from their indicative programmes be earmarked for microprojects.

Financing decisions taken by the Commission

By 31 December 1978 the Commission had approved the first twenty-eight annual programmes submitted to

it, for the amounts given below (in EUA):

Cameroon	270 000
Senegal	340 000
Gambia	370 000
Upper Volta	186 000
Sierra Leone	300 000
Madagascar	2 060 000
Kenya	630 000
Malawi	420 000
Liberia	300 000
Samoa	105 000
Togo	235 000
Jamaica	363 000
Swaziland	75 000
Ethiopia	320 000
Ghana	175 000
Grenada	223 000
Malawi (2nd programme)	580 000
Chad	380 000
Samoa	280 000
Sudan	75 000
Lesotho	190 000
Guyana	122 000
Solomon Islands	550 000
Burundi	166 000
Zambia	300 000
Upper Volta (2nd progr.)	490 000
Sudan (2nd programme)	70 000
Sierra Leone (2nd pr.)	440 000
	<hr/>
	10 015 000

i.e. 53% of the amount programmed, broken down as follows:

in 1976: 1 decision, for a total of 270 000 EUA;

in 1977: 12 decisions, for a total of 5 384 000 EUA;

in 1978: 15 decisions, for a total of 4 361 000 EUA.

At the end of 1978, 3 annual programmes were being appraised by the Commission:

Kenya (2nd programme)	1 370 000 EUA
Sao Tome	200 000 EUA
Samoa (3rd programme)	170 000 EUA

Broken down by country, this shows that:

— 18 countries have presented one annual programme;

— 5 countries have presented two annual programmes;

— 1 country has presented three annual programmes;

— 6 countries have presented no programme; they are: Cape Verde; Guinea; Surinam; Uganda; Papua New Guinea; Central African Empire,

only the last two of which have announced the forthcoming presentation of a programme.

(*) Report prepared by the Commission of the European Communities for the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers.

Content of annual programmes financed

As required by the Lome Convention microprojects covered by the annual programmes proposed must "normally be carried out in rural areas".

The ACP states have fully understood the purpose of microprojects, concentrating on schemes designed to enable the rural population to live and work in improved conditions. The 28 annual programmes for which the Commission has already taken financing decisions can be broken down as follows:

Social infrastructure: 254 schemes or 39% of all schemes;

Rural water engineering and wells: 311 schemes or 23% of all schemes;

Rural tracks and bridges: 163 schemes or 12% of all schemes;

Development of production: 106 schemes or 8% of all schemes;

Storage facilities and markets: 114 schemes or 8% of all schemes;

Processing of crops; small irrigated areas; soil conservation; fisheries; afforestation; stockfarming: 135 schemes or 10% of all schemes;

Total: 1 353 schemes.

The ACP states' requests for financing show that in the majority of cases the initiative for the proposed schemes comes from the local communities which are to benefit.

It is also clear that the schemes cater for basic needs; the two most popular types of scheme, with 62% of the total, covering social needs and water supply. The provision of social infrastructure accounts for 40% of all the schemes. This mainly means schools, but also covers maternity clinics and rural dispensaries, creches, and social centres for women and young people, and so on.

Wells, boreholes and water supply account for 23% of the schemes.

Participation in implementation of the programmes

The implementing rules of the Lome Convention for microprojects state that "the share borne by the ACP state and the community concerned should be at least equal to the grant requested from the European Development Fund".

For the annual programmes on which financing decisions have been taken, the average level of contribution to the total sum is:

— EDF: 41%, with a maximum of 65% (Burundi) and a minimum of 19% (Ghana);

— ACP states: 34%, with a maximum

of 54% (Gambia and Jamaica) and a minimum of 8% (Solomon Islands);

— Local communities: 25%, with a maximum of 50% (Ghana) and a minimum of 11% (Sudan).

The three-way breakdown of contributions is therefore in line with both the spirit of the Convention and the implementing rules.

The total for the programmes is 24 336 000 EUA, which breaks down as follows:

10 015 000 EUA from the EDF;

8 149 000 EUA from the ACP states;

6 172 000 EUA from the beneficiary communities.

In most cases the ACP states' contributions consist of supplying equipment, means of transport and extension staff.

The communities supply voluntary labour, and contribute some construction materials and, exceptionally, money.

The Lome Convention (article 15(1) of protocol No 2) also stipulates that "The Fund's contribution to each microproject may not exceed 75 000 units of account". For the programmes financed, the average contribution is 7 400 EUA per microproject.

Execution of the programmes

The possibility of carrying out microprojects which meet the needs of local communities met with a favourable, and in some cases highly enthusiastic, welcome from the ACP states and the potential beneficiaries. For that reason, and also because the schemes have on the whole been well-chosen, there are few if any problems inherent in the execution proper, apart from those involved in the introduction of any new type of operation.

As microprojects are small-scale grassroots development schemes, based to a great extent on labour and the provision of services, it might be thought that they could be rapidly implemented.

The experience gained from carrying out the first programmes showed that in most instances there are certain minimum timings and other constraints which mean that work cannot start immediately the financing decision is taken.

At Commission level the introduction in October 1977 of an expedited procedure for the approval of annual programmes means that a financing decision can be taken very shortly after the Commission delegate submits a financing proposal drawn up in agreement with the ACP state concerned. It then

takes a further month on average for the financing agreement to be signed.

Work in the field can generally take place only outside the winter or rainy season, and depends on the availability of local labour, which must be freed from traditional agricultural tasks.

Although where microprojects are concerned the normal competition rules may be freely waived, some considerable time may still be needed for price consultations, the award of contracts, and in particular delivery.

It also takes a certain amount of time to set up the organizational framework for the programme, selecting the necessary supervisor(s) and the manager of the imprest fund and opening of bank accounts and related formalities, particularly since in some ACP states such operations need to be given publication in the official gazette.

This means that some considerable time may elapse between the signing of the financing agreement and the start of the actual work.

One must also bear in mind that as microprojects were an innovation introduced by the Lomé Convention initially for a two-year experimental period, it was necessary to work out a method of implementation best suited to their purpose. That is why the implementing rules were adopted jointly by the Commission and the ACP states, and why the Commission, before authorizing the expedited approval procedure, followed the normal procedure for the first few programmes, to gain a better idea of their content.

The new type of operation also gave rise to certain problems in connection with their implementation, which the experience gained from the first programmes should make it possible to avoid in future. Article 17 (1) of protocol No 2 to the Lome Convention states that the ACP state concerned should prepare an annual programme setting out the broad outlines of the projects planned and submit it to the Commission.

This presents no problems as regards the decision by the Commission. For the purpose of implementation, however, it is necessary to draw up a detailed estimate for each scheme coming within the programme. A number of the ACP states have had difficulty in preparing the estimates as some schemes were based on old, out-of-date evaluations, or had been insufficiently studied, or posed technical problems; this meant cancelling or postponing some schemes.

Certain factors obtaining in specific countries may affect the length of time required for execution:

— In certain countries funds from external sources of finance must appear in the budget, which requires parliamentary assent. The same applies to the ACP states' contribution to the cost of the programme.

— In some cases the transfer or disappearance of a technician has put paid to a scheme.

— Temporary shortages, particularly of building material, can hold up work.

— In one instance a local community reluctant to make its contribution because in an identical project all costs had been borne by external aid.

In the ACP states where a second annual programme has already been financed, the experience of the first has been found of value, and the schemes are got under way without problems. The schemes presented have been studied more thoroughly, and the costs more accurately estimated.

The information campaigns mounted by the ACP states to publicize the advantages offered by microprojects gives communities a chance to pass on suggestions for projects to their governments.

With regard to implementation it is found that schemes are more easily carried out if they are linked or complementary to projects being executed, or are coordinated by bodies such as the rural expansion centres in Senegal or the Rural Development Fund in Upper Volta.

Conclusions

Despite a rather slow start and a number of problems due to the novelty of this type of operation, microprojects are undoubtedly ideally suited to the ends assigned them under the Lome Convention.

The enthusiasm shown by the beneficiary communities and the ACP states has been such that the appropriations earmarked under the Lome Convention will be inadequate to meet the demand from ACP states wishing to include microprojects in their indicative programmes for financing before the expiry of the Lome Convention.

The Commission therefore recommends that the Council of Ministers:

— decide in favour of continuing with microprojects;

— accordingly, authorize a further 5 million units of account to be used for financing such programmes of microprojects as the ACP states may wish to carry out with facilities remaining unused under their EDF-financed indicative development programmes. □

Programming and financing decisions				
	Amount programmed (000 EUA)	Amount financed	Date of Commission decision	Date of signature of agreement
Burundi	166	166	27. 7.78	4.10.78
Cameroon	385	270	20.12.76	22. 3.77
Cape Verde	150	—		
Central African Empire	142	—		
Ethiopia	858	320	3. 2.78	24. 2.78
Gambia	500	370	25. 5.77	3. 6.77
Ghana	376	175	3. 2.78	24. 2.78
Grenada	223	223	3. 2.78	24. 2.78
Guinea	1 000	—		
Guyana	122	122	16. 6.78	17. 7.78
Upper-Volta	1 154	186 490	18. 7.77 18. 8.78	19. 7.77 9.10.78
Jamaica	363	363	23.11.77	25. 4.78
Kenya	2 000	630	28. 9.77	12. 1.78
Lesotho	500	190	16. 6.78	17. 7.78
Liberia	300	300	28. 9.77	26.10.77
Madagascar	2 000	2 060	28. 9.77	18.10.77
Malawi	1 000	420 580	28. 9.77 11. 4.78	27.10.77 4. 7.78
Papua New Guinea	800	—		
Uganda	400	—		
Samoa	1 000	105 280	23.11.77 7. 4.78	9. 3.78 7. 6.78
Solomon Islands	1 450	550	25. 7.78	28. 9.78
Sao Tome	200	—		
Senegal	387	340	6. 5.77	3. 6.77
Sierra Leone	740	440 300	18. 7.77 10.11.78	19. 7.77 9. 1.79
Sudan	145	75 70	7. 4.78 24.10.78	16. 5.78 28.10.78
Suriname	500	—		
Swaziland	75	75	1.12.77	13. 2.78
Chad	1 100	380	7. 4.78	29. 5.78
Togo	380	235	23.11.77	4. 1.78
Zambia	300	300	28. 7.78	4.10.78
Total	18 776	10 015		

**Guitar recital
Francis Bebey
in Brussels**



Between concerts in Paris, France and Brazil, Francis Bebey, the Cameroonian guitarist, gave a recital at the Maison de la Francité in Brussels recently.

Hunched over his guitar in his usual style, Bebey sang and recited many known and not-so-well-known poems and songs. His repertoire has expanded considerably since the *Courier* met him four years ago.

Bebey, with his easy smile, is a guitarist in the Pablo Neruda style. Neruda, Chilean poet and musician, once said: "given the choice between talking and remaining silent, I chose to play the guitar." Bebey's choice meant leaving UNESCO for his guitar.

His arrangement of poems by Aimé Césaire and Birago Diop revealed a remarkable affinity between musician and poet. He gave us *Black Tears* (1963), a poem dedicated to the people in the black march on Washington, and *Souffles* (1972). He gave us *Tingrela* (1965), the story of an old African mask and a journey to Brazil with a suicidal ending. And he gave us *Viatique* (1976) and *Ndesse* (1978), both fine illustrations of his musical talents.

Bebey also sings of love and tells humorous tales and his Douala love songs and his satires (*la Condition Masculine*) are great favourites with the public.

After 25 years in his chosen field, Francis Bebey is one of the rare musicians, if not the only one, to have succeeded in giving guitar recitals which could only be African. □

L.P.

THE ARTS

BAHAMAS

The Historical Society

by D. Gail SAUNDERS and Sheena WILSON

The Bahamas Historical Society was founded on 5 October, 1959 by a small group of interested persons including Lady Arthur, wife of Sir Raynor Arthur, then governor of the Bahamas. Lady Arthur was elected patron, and the Hon. Sir George Roberts CBE was elected president.

Miss Mary Moseley, an avid collector of Bahamiana and author of *The Bahamas Handbook* (1926), was elected honorary president.

Mrs Harcourt Malcolm was the first vice president, and Mrs H.G. Christie and Mrs Harry P. Sands, secretaries. The Hon. Harold Christie and Mr Harry P. Sands were active members of the society, and in 1964, on the death of the first president, Mr Christie was elected to that post.

The current president is Dr Paul Albury, who succeeded Sir Harold Christie, after his death in 1973.



Sir Gerald Cash, acting governor-general of the Bahamas, with Dr Paul Albury, chairman of the Bahamas Historical Society, and Mrs Joanne Kelly-Moxey during the historical week organized by the society in 1977

An entirely non-profit organization, the society's aim is to promote the knowledge and encourage the study of Bahamian history. Thus far it has tried to do this by sponsoring monthly lectures, by publishing historical documents, by offering for sale books and pamphlets on Bahamian history and by exhibiting historical artifacts in its museum.

For most of its short history the society has been plagued with the lack of a permanent home. For a brief period in its history it occupied the old

barracks in the Rand (now Charlotte House) complex. It also held an excellent exhibition at the Dundas Civic Centre in 1968.

However, it was not until good fortune came its way in May, 1976, that it secured its own headquarters. On Friday, 21 May 1976 the Imperial Order of the Daughter of the Empire donated their building on the corner of Elizabeth Avenue and Shirley Street to the Bahamas Historical Society.

In its new headquarters (built in 1952), the Bahamas Historical Society



Display at the Bahamas Historical Society's museum in Nassau. Left, Mrs Eloise Carroll with a visitor

established a museum and for the last several years has sponsored a Bahamian history week in October, by putting on special exhibitions.

Additionally, monthly lecture meetings are held at the headquarters. A variety of speakers and topics of historical interest have been aired at the headquarters.

Speakers have included such personalities as labour leader Sir Randol Fawkes, former attorney general and attorney at law Kendal Isaacs and historian Dr Michael Craton, and topics have ranged from "the role of labour in our stride towards nationhood" and "constitutional development" to "Bahamian slaves and their families".

The Bahamas Historical Society also recently sponsored a successful discussion on "The teaching of history in Bahamian schools".

A varied collection

The Bahamas Historical Society Museum is a general museum featuring objects and artifacts that are not mere-

ly historical but are of anthropological, scientific and ethnic value as well. In short, it encompasses in varying degrees most aspects of Bahamian history and culture.

Most of the collections housed in the museum are the donations and/or loans of prominent, old, historically-minded families, many of whose ancestors feature largely in the museum displays.

The collection itself is a diverse and interesting one ranging from the more valuable items, such as the antique books and paintings of historical figures prominent in the colonial era, to displays of local craftsmanship, customs and occupations as featured in the sections devoted to sponging (once a national industry), old iron stoves, pottery and kitchen utensils, and bush medicine in the Bahamas.

The museum's extensive display of marine artifacts salvaged from wrecks, illustrating the heyday of piracy, highlights the geographical make-up of the Bahamas.

The islands' past is also illustrated

through a collection of old photographs recording historical limelights and recapturing the flavour and atmosphere of some of our most prominent historical buildings.

On the whole, the Bahamas Historical Society offers an interesting and broad collection capable of attracting the student/researcher of history as well as entertaining the general public.

Models of schooners, a display of old coinage and an old British regiment uniform are just examples of the more fascinating objects in the museum guaranteed to make a visit worthwhile.

What will the future hold for the society? It is hoped that, through various fund-raising events which have begun, the society's headquarters can be upgraded. Plans are also well advanced towards the publication of a journal of the Bahamas Historical Society.

This review will include society news and also articles of historical interest. The museum will also be expanded. □

D.G.S. and S.W.

BOOKS

Elsy LEUZINGER — **The Art of Black Africa** — Studio Vista, 35 Red Lion Square, London WC1R 4SG — 378 pp.

Professor Leuzinger, a specialist in African studies and former curator of the Rietberg Museum in Zurich (Switzerland), has put together a compendium of African art which must be among the most beautiful and practical ever published.

She divides her material into 24 sections covering the different stylistic regions of black Africa. West and Central Africa predominate to a large extent over East and southern Africa, to which only one section is devoted. In each case she picks out the characteristics of the region while relating them to an overall pattern, providing an excellent commentary on the historical, social and technical contexts of the works of art besides a tactful summary of those she considers the most important.

Each section is illustrated with a number of single-page photographs and a final selection of a dozen or more, printed in catalogue style.

In all there are more than 600 photos, many in colour, all of high quality, and including rarities never shown to the public before. Maps and indices give a clear idea of the origins of the different styles, but Professor Leuzinger never over-simplifies the complexities of a vast and living subject: "I must ask the reader always to add to my account the tacit, sceptical 'perhaps' or 'as a rule'."

Nor does she shy away from an explanation, indispensable to the layman, of what African art is and what purposes it serves. It is a highly readable book containing a wealth of scholarship.

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L. BERG, K. NIMPUNO, R. van ZWANENBERG — **Towards Village Industry** — IT Publications Ltd, 9, King Street, London WC2E 8HN — 88 pp. — £3.25 — 1978

The trades and skills which existed in Third World villages have, in many cases, fallen into disuse because of the drift to the towns. The demand for simple tools and equipment is also declining with the introduction of mass-produced and imported goods. This book puts appropriate technology into its proper place in an overall socio-economic picture, arguing that successful rural development requires the development of both farming and village-based small industries. Growing crops requires ironmongery, carpentry

and masonry just as industry requires machinery.

Based on the authors' experiences in Tanzania, the book looks at village industry from a number of points of view — theoretical, practical, social, official — and contains a good stock of well-processed information. The plentiful and attractive illustrations support the text admirably.

ooo

Francis DE CHASSEY — **Mauritanie 1900-1975: de l'ordre colonial à l'ordre néo-colonial entre Maghreb et Afrique Noire (Mauritania: from colonialism to neo-colonialism between the Maghreb and black Africa)** — Editions Anthropos, 12 av. du Maine, 75015, Paris — 488 pages — 1978

This book provides a methodical analysis of the effect of Western imperialism on the precapitalist Arab-Berber and negro-African societies (studied as such in a previous work—*L'étrier, la houe et le livre*, Anthropos, 1977). Step by step, it traces the effects of this meeting and the formation of a specific structure in the social classes, in the state and in the nation. And it traces its progress, through conflict and through chance.

So the questions dealt with here also concern the neighbouring countries of West Africa, where traditional societies of a similar kind have much the same experience of colonization and decolonization. French imperialism (both colonial and neo-colonial forms) has left the same kind of mark.

The same kind of ruling class has emerged in the same way. There is a similarity in the growing, changing class structure with all its contradictions, and in the dialectics of nationalities and nations within this scheme of things.

The book also gives some (colonial and neocolonial) historical and sociological data, an essential aid to our understanding of the six years of fighting in the western Sahara in which Mauritania and the whole of the Maghreb may even now be gambling their future.

ooo

Centre Interuniversitaire de formation permanente — Les marchés de produits de base (Commodity markets) — 3rd congress of French-speaking Belgian economists — 1978

This book is the outcome of the work of commission n° 4 at the 3rd congress

that French-speaking Belgian economists held in Namur on 17 and 18 November 1978. The general theme was the economy tomorrow: markets, planning, concertation or anarchy, and rigidity of conservatism.

The commission analysed commodity markets and its report contains clear explanations of a series of issues, such as market structures and the nature of commodity prices, the depletion of resources, the distribution of trade profits, the external dependence of the developed countries and producers' associations.

Part two deals with the instability of commodity markets. It begins with an analysis of this instability, giving particular attention to copper, and then goes on to the effects of instability and the way the market responds. The problem of the regulation of commodity markets (compensatory financing and product agreements) is then discussed.

Lastly, the report stresses the importance of negotiations within the framework of multilateral regulations on the principal markets.

ooo

Annuaire de l'Afrique et du Moyen Orient (Yearbook of Africa and the Middle East) — Annual supplement to Jeune Afrique — 1, L'Economie et la Politique — Jeune Afrique, 51, av. des Ternes, 75017 Paris — 564 pages — 1979

There are two major traps to avoid in producing a yearbook. First, being stifled, trying to cover too much ground and turning it into an endless, self-defeating encyclopedia which, if it sees the light of day at all, does so long after it can serve a really useful purpose.

Second, it may be a handy compendium that contains everything, or nearly everything, that is up-to-date, or more or less so, that provides a full coverage, or almost full, but anyway enough to make a good impression. This method is obviously better than the first, but that does not make it good.

So how do you go about plotting a middle course? This is the question the authors again posed before embarking on the latest edition of the Africa/Middle East Yearbook. The answer they came up with is somewhat different from other years.

There are sections on each country, obviously. A yearbook is a yearbook after all. But this time they are more

condensed and concentrate on essentials. In the countries covered, barring catastrophes, revolutions or surprise discoveries (and there have been very few), nothing is more like last year than the year before. It takes more than a few months to overturn the structures of a non-industrialized country and fundamentally upset its agriculture.

Individual maps, which only gave a limited amount of information, have been cut out (a yearbook is no substitute for an atlas) and there are now general maps of Africa and the Middle East. But it is essential to include a precise and systematic study of the major sectors that form the framework of the socio-economic life of this part of the world.

The division is a classic one into agriculture, mining, energy, industry, transport, information and society (seven main chapters) and it brings us back to the original problem of whether a yearbook should be an encyclopedia or a skimpy survey. This year, Jeune Afrique has decided to avoid the issue by dealing with a particular problem in each of the main chapter headings. Cereals, for example, in the chapter on agriculture, and non-ferrous metals (excluding gold and uranium) in mining, hydro-electric power in energy and so on.

Next year the same chapter headings will reappear but different problems (oil seeds in agriculture, iron ore in mining, natural gas in energy, etc.) will be studied.

So, in four of five years' time, the compilers will have produced something really worthwhile. It will look like an encyclopedia but it will still be a yearbook. And one more thing: part one will contain a series of references, so that the countries of Africa and the Middle East can be compared with each other and with the other major countries of the world.

ooo

Bernard HEUVELMANS — Les derniers dragons d'Afrique — Bêtes ignorées du monde (The last dragons of Africa—Unknown beasts) — Librairie Plon 1978 — 507 pages — Bfrs 607

A Brontosaurus terrorizes a Congolese village. On the Algerian/Moroccan border, French soldiers machine-gun a huge hairy snake. In Katanga, Belgian officers in a helicopter photograph a python estimated to be 14 m long. During work on the Kariba dam in Rhodesia, a pterodactyl swoops down on one of the labourers. These are unbelievable stories but they have

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appeared in the press over the last 20 or 30 years. Dragons are still with us.

But fiction has its roots in fact. Can it be that dinosaurs and flying reptiles from prehistoric times still survive in out-of-the-way places on the black continent? Can snakes be more than 10 m long?

Are there still huge beasts to be discovered in Africa? Bernard Heuvelmans, the father of cryptozoology, (the "science of hidden animals"), attempts to answer all these questions and does so with all the rigorousness of the accomplished zoologist that he is, with sound erudition and with unflinching good humour. His basis is his unique fund of information compiled over 30 years.

He calls witnesses, analyses exhibits (photos, native illustrations and anatomical fragments) conducts investigations throughout Africa, demolishes mystifiers, explains misunderstandings (made in good faith), dissects the universal process of the mythification of our information, calls experts and ends up with the wonder lovers and those who immediately reject the marvellous in the same camp. He is sceptical in the true meaning of the word, with doubts about the dogma of both the scientists and the cranks. He thinks, like La Bruyère, that there is a halfway house between credulity and scepticism... and that there are more

animals on earth than ever appear in the zoology books.

ooo

Francis Moore LAPPE & Joseph COLLINS — **L'industrie de la faim — Par-delà le mythe de la pénurie (The hunger industry—beyond the myth of shortage)** — Editions l'Étincelle, 2031 rue Saint-Denis, Montreal Canada H2X 3K8 & 49 rue Vercingétorix; 75014 Paris — 524 pages — Bfrs 448 — 1979

The problem of hunger in the world goes hand in hand with an unbelievable number of paradoxes. Mali's exports of groundnuts to France, for example, rose during the drought, although local food production dropped by 75% over the 67-74 period.

This book is a series of questions and answers, exploring the paradoxes and providing a sound framework for analysis and action to any reader anxious to overcome the world food crisis.

Thoroughgoing research leads the authors to a number of categorical conclusions:

- (1) Each country has the food resources it needs to feed its people properly. It is the inequality of access to the means of production that puts such a brake on production and the redistribution of food.
- (2) The same forces that, by their squandering and inefficiency, monopolize the earth, hold back production in the exporting countries and have a tight hold over the food sector in the importing countries.
- (3) The hungry are not our enemies. They, like us, are the victims of the same economic system which undermines the safety of the food supplies of them and us alike.

Francis Moore Lappé and Joseph Collins run the institute for food and development policy in San Francisco.

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