

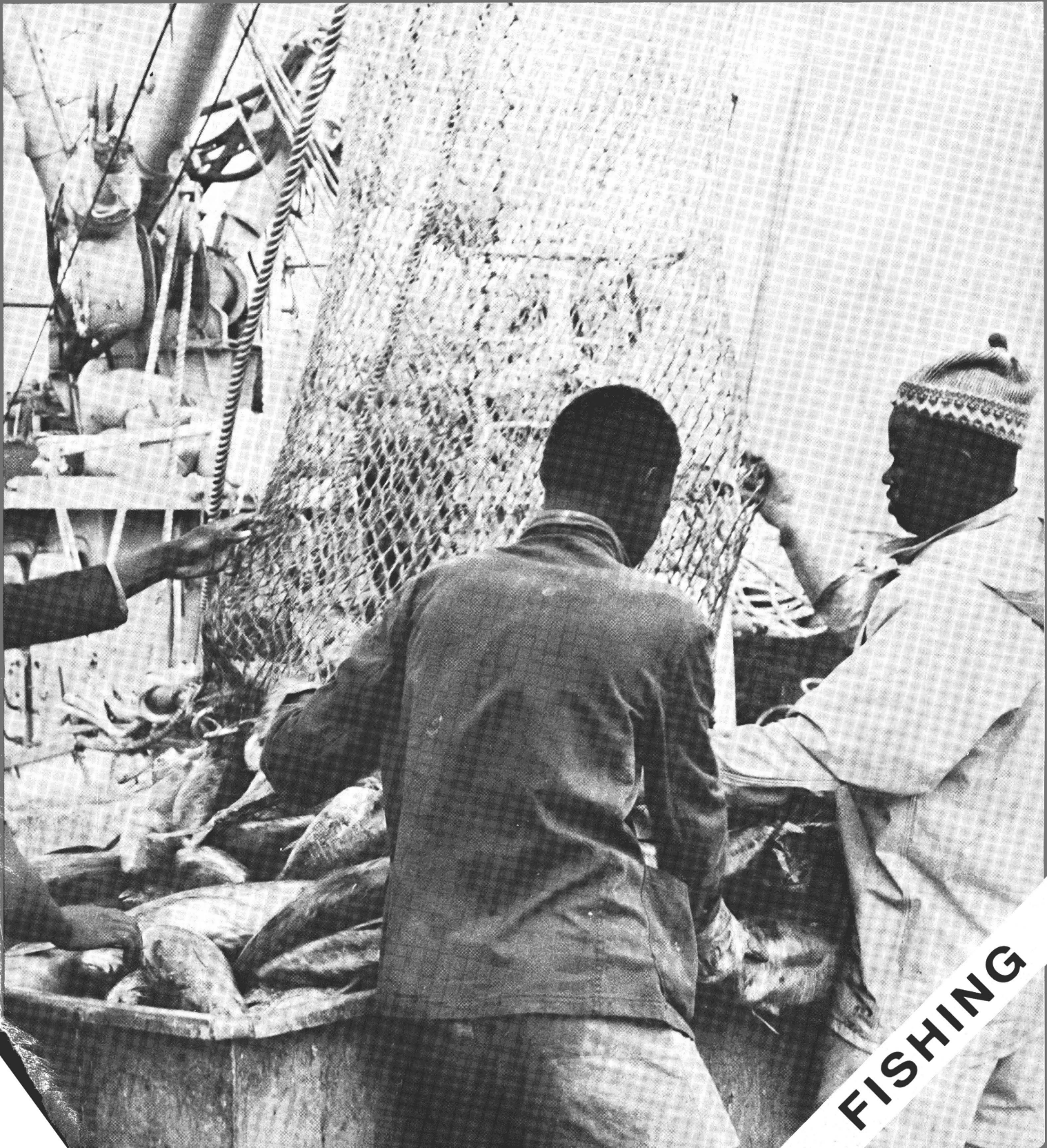


the courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC — EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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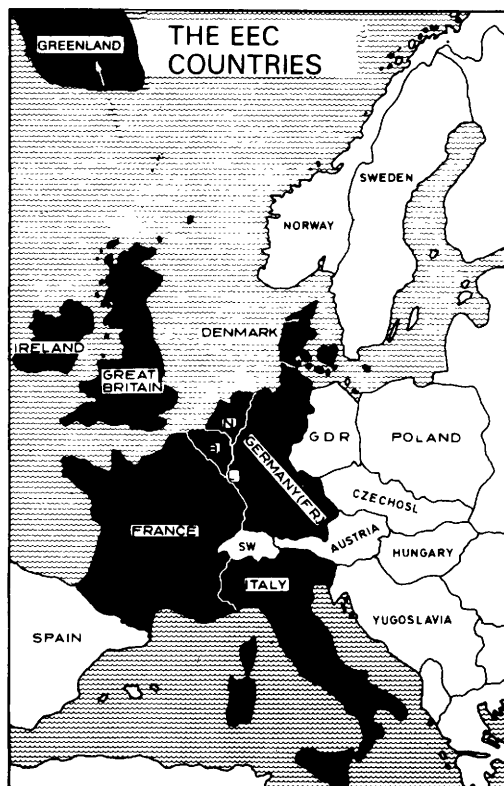
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FRANCE

(Overseas departments)

Guadeloupe
Guiana
Martinique
Reunion
St Pierre and Miquelon

(Overseas territories)

Mayotte
New Caledonia and dependencies
French Polynesia
French Southern and Antarctic Territories
Wallis and Futuna Islands

NETHERLANDS

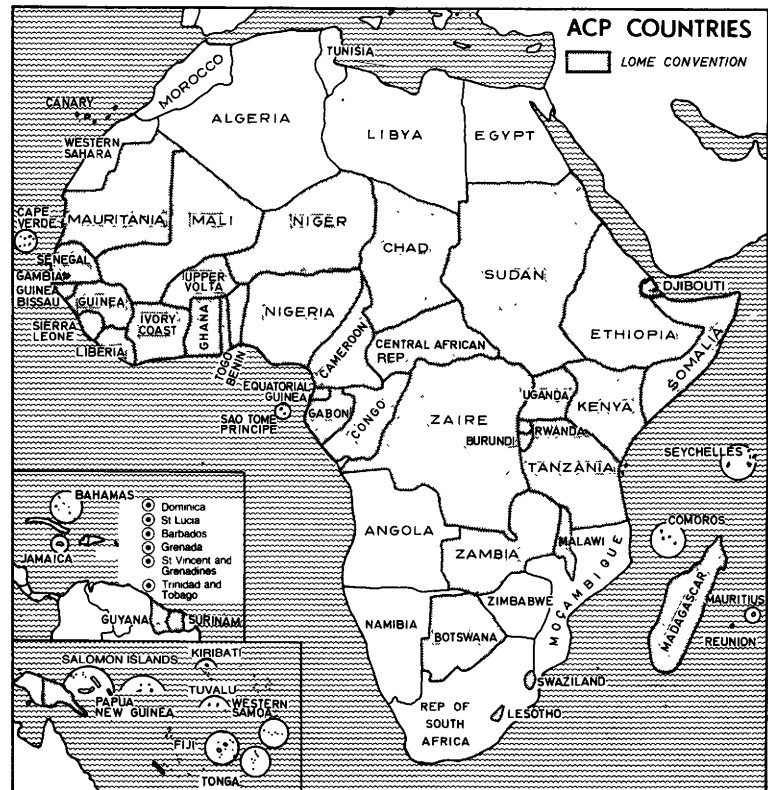
(Overseas countries)

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

UNITED KINGDOM

(Overseas countries and territories)

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



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

Cover: The introduction of modern fishing industries has increased African catches without solving the problems of process distribution and the conservation and reconstitution of fish stocks (Abidjan fishing port, Ivory Coast)

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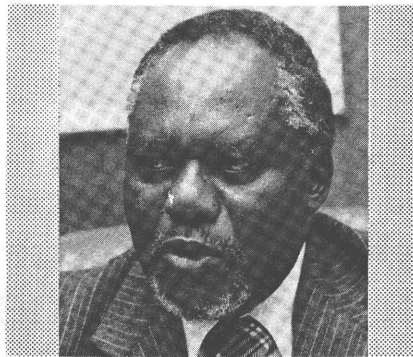
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NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)
ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly,
European Parliament: debate on world
hunger

OPERATIONAL SUMMARY (blue pages)

ACP — The new secretary-general of the ACP group, Thomas Okelo-Odongo (Kenya), took up his new post in August. He arrives at a moment when the ACP states are preparing for the entry into force early next year of the new Lomé Convention, signed on 31 October 1979. ACP-EEC cooperation goes back some time now but has continually been renewed by the addition of new members. Mr Okelo-Odongo therefore also arrives at an important moment for ACP-EEC relations and in the development of the ACP group. He describes to the *Courier* his view of the task in front of him and how he intends to tackle the question of strengthening ACP-EEC cooperation. **Page 3.**



OCT — Netherlands Antilles—the odd men out in the Caribbean? Aruba, Bonaire and Curaçao, the "ABC group", are separated by 900 km from the rest of the country, the "35" islands of St Maarten, St Eustatius and Saba. There are three main languages: Dutch, the official language for administration and teaching; the vernacular papiamentu in the ABC group; and English which is used in the 35 group. "Half-way between an independent state and a colony", the territory contains four regions and six nations, and is relatively well-off considering its meagre resources. In an interview with the *Courier*, Prime Minister Don Martina describes his priorities for the political and economic future of his country. **Page 6.**



Europe — Because they are more numerous than in the national parliaments, play a major role in Europe's politics and are determined to make their presence felt, the *Courier* began a long report last spring on the women in the European Parliament. In this issue the report comes to an end with members of the Liberal and Democratic Group, the Group for the Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members, and the unattached independents. The liberals are represented by Colette Flesch and Simone Martin, and the independents by Emma Bonino and Antoinette Spaak. **Page 19.**



Dossier — It is recognized, particularly among specialists in the field, that fishing could play an important role in the fight against hunger. The UN Conference on the Law of the Sea and the considerable efforts of the FAO in research and the creation of a coherent policy for exploration, exploitation and conservation of fish resources, testify to the important role that fishing could play in feeding the world in years to come. The *Courier's* "dossier" looks in particular at fishing in developing countries and the problems to be overcome. It also considers, among other things, international and European cooperation and the activities of the EDF over 20 years. **Page 58.**



News Round-up — The events which dominate the "news round-up" this time are all linked to the European Parliament—the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly meeting in Luxembourg, the parliamentary debate on world hunger, and a photo exhibition on the women victims of racialism in South Africa organized in Strasbourg by the European Parliament's ad hoc committee on women's rights. Also covered are the recent developments in the North-South dialogue, 5th EDF programming, and the latest commitments under the 4th EDF. **Yellow pages.**



A new feature

The operational summary of EEC development schemes

Regular readers will have noticed, not without some surprise perhaps, that another colour has been added to the pages of the *Courier*.

This issue introduces a new regular feature, the 'blue pages', in an attempt to reply to a long-felt need among those generally interested in keeping up with development and in the world of business in particular. It outlines the state of progress of EEC-financed projects and action programmes, from identification of the projected schemes through financing decisions to implementation. Every two months, all development schemes financed from Community resources will be covered—whether from the EDF in ACP countries under the Lomé Convention, or from the Community budget as regards operations in those Mediterranean countries involved in the Mashraq and Maghreb agreements and in the Latin American and Asian countries for which there are annual aid programmes.

The "operational summary" should be of practical help to people involved in development on both the Community and Third World sides.

— **The recipient countries** will benefit as they and they alone, as it cannot be overemphasized, are responsible for defining their development aims and priorities and are in charge of implementing the projects. The summary presented in our blue pages should be a useful 'control panel' for monitoring the way the financial and technical cooperation proce-

dures set up by the Community are working. And it is the first time, I think, that we have seen a system of reciprocal information between recipient countries that provides details of all the development schemes put forward for EEC financing.

— **On the Community side**, the new *Courier* feature is the result of some useful discussion between the EEC member states and the Commission.

For the member states, which are naturally particularly sensitive about achieving a harmonious distribution of development project contracts, this step forward in information should help improve the conditions of competition when firms tender for Community-financed contracts. It is also in the interest of national firms in the recipient states, as they will now be better informed about what is going on, particularly at regional level; and it will be of advantage to the recipient states themselves, as they are naturally anxious to benefit from wider competition — i.e. to get better prices and work of better quality.

The Commission shares the member states' and the recipient countries' concern about competition and has special responsibility when it comes to the management of Community resources. The "operational summary" is very important as regards the transparency of this management. This is not without significance for an institution that has always been concerned about its position in the public eye.

— **The firms** (contractors, sup-

pliers and consultancies) will also benefit, be they European or from the countries for which the development schemes are being run. The new feature will be all the more useful to them as it provides information about all stages of the schemes. Contrary to Community practice to date, the information will not just comprise publication of the financing decision or the notice of invitation to tender (which will continue to appear in the *Official Journal* of the European Communities). Even if the information cannot in any way influence the financing of Community action, the details on the initial stages of the procedure (identification and assessment of projects) are still valuable to the firms, particularly when it comes to planning their industrial and commercial strategy in the long and medium term.

So I believe that the blue pages, this new section of ours, will make it easier for everyone to know just what is going on.

What's in it for the *Courier*? The new readers we will gain because of their specific interest in the "operational summary" will surely discover something of interest in everything else the magazine has to offer: reports on ACP countries, dossiers, articles on development, the Convention at work, European news and so on.

It only remains for me to hope that this innovation will be seen by all our readers as a new and tangible sign of the success of our cooperation policies. ○

JEAN DURIEUX

New ACP secretary-general Thomas Okelo-Odongo:

“The Secretariat is the executive arm of the ACP”

The ACP group has a new secretary-general. Mr Thomas Okelo-Odongo (Kenya) was elected by the ACP Council of Ministers meeting in Nairobi in May as the successor to Mr Tiéoulé Konaté (Mali), and took up his new post in August.

Mr Okelo-Odongo gave the *Courier* his first impressions of the job and outlined the ways he intends to work for the progress of ACP-EEC cooperation.

► *Mr Okelo-Odongo, you were recently elected head of the ACP Secretariat. What have your impressions of the job been since you started it last August?*

— I must say I find it very interesting and, at the same time, a very busy occupation. My job at the moment consists of doing a number of things. First of all we have meetings which have to be organized.

We have several committee meetings to organize the Bureau of Ambassadors, the extended Bureau of Ambassadors and the plenary session of the Committee of Ambassadors.

The agendas have to be got out in time and the documents have to be produced, translated, reproduced and distributed to the members of the respective committee.

“The number one occupation”

But the implementation of the Lomé Convention is the number one occupation of the ACP. It is the responsibility of the Secretariat to monitor the working of this agreement and to see that things are proceeding well. It is the duty of the Secretariat to assist individual countries that may have problems with the Lomé Convention.

(1) Sugar and beef.



Thomas Okelo-Odongo
“A sort of king-pin”

For example, Zimbabwe, which is in the process of joining the Lomé Convention, had some problems concerning its quota of exports (1) to the EEC. Problems such as this come up every now and again and we have to attend to them.

I have to do the normal correspondence as well as to supervise the work in the Secretariat. So all these make the job rather busy, interesting and also challenging: in this Secretariat we are serving people belonging to three different continents with different cultures and also cooperating with the countries of the European Community.

► *How do you see the role of the Secretariat and the personal role of the secretary-general in getting the whole content of the Lomé Convention implemented?*

— As you know, the ACP group has got its organs: the Council of Ministers, the Committee of Ambassadors and

finally the Secretariat. The Secretariat, as a matter of fact, is the executive arm of the ACP. It is in a position to play a very important role in the implementation of the Lomé Convention. It is the Secretariat that brings together the experts who study and monitor the implementation of Lomé and who attempt to solve any problems that might arise.

The Secretariat is in a position to gather data from different member countries which can be used for collective purposes in negotiating with the Community on the basis of the ACP group. So in this respect, the Secretariat is a very important organ of the ACP.

The Secretariat plays an important role in communicating with its own members. Development is not a one-way traffic. Development means that the member states must perform their own part. The Secretariat could point out to members their own shortcomings in the process of economic and social development.

Now, with regard to the role of the secretary-general, he is a sort of king-pin in all this. He is, among other things, in charge of the Secretariat and must motivate the personnel of the Secretariat. It is his responsibility to coordinate all the activities of the ACP group. He coordinates the work of the various organs as well as the work of the ACP group with that of other organizations. He is co-secretary of ACP-EEC Council of Ministers.

► *What problems might the Secretariat come up against in doing this?*

— Well, problems are always there. The secretary-general has to supervise the staff and try to motivate the staff. This means that at times he has to ask the staff to do certain things that may not be to their liking. It is quite possible that some members of the staff may not be very friendly to the secretary-general, who is working between the Secretariat and the Committee of Ambassadors, etc.

He is dealing with all the ACP ambassadors in Brussels. These are different people with different outlooks and at times different approaches to things. Problems are bound to occur.

► *How might they be solved?*

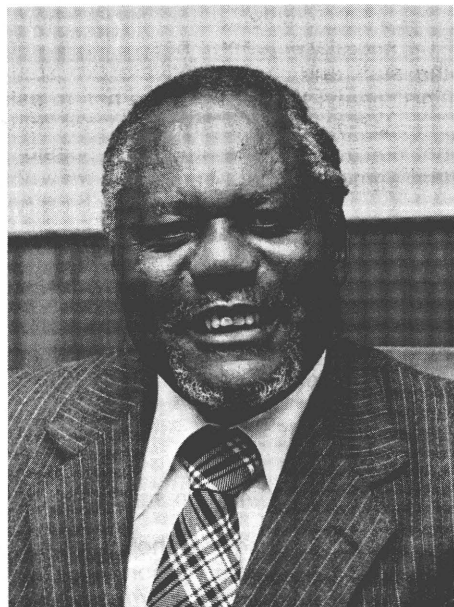
— Well, I cannot say how the problems can be completely solved. I think this is a question of understanding on

all sides. I believe it requires patience on the side of the secretary-general, on the ambassadors' side and as on the ministers' side. Lomé is a form of cooperation involving 70 states. The word cooperation cannot be over emphasized.

The new secretary-general of the ACP group is from Kenya. In 1955 after taking a B.A. in economics and a B.Ed degree at the Visva Bharati University (India), he started a 5 year post graduate course in the United States at Iowa (agricultural economics), and in Washington D.C. where he studied applied economics in the African studies programme, public finance, and took a series of specific courses on Africa's economic and social development, and the impact of European civilization on the continent. He went to London in 1960 and spent two years at the School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS) and the London School of Economics (LSE).

Thomas Okelo-Odongo's professional experience is very wide. He taught in both the USA and Britain, and between 1970 and 1974 was deputy-director of the institute of African Studies in Nairobi. He was a member of parliament (1963-69) and for three of those years assistant minister of finance.

In the sixties and seventies he served in a number of national bodies and in 1976 became executive director of the African Development Bank for a period of three years. He has also attended a number of important international economic gatherings. Mr Okelo-Odongo is 55 and is married with three children.



EEC - Lambiote

► You are head of a group of 60 countries. It is a new international grouping. Would you give a brief description of the creation of the ACP group?

— The ACP group has established some history by now. It has its roots in the Treaty of Rome, which brought the EEC into existence. In June 1963 the first Yaoundé Convention was signed, involving a number of African countries. This was followed later in 1975 by the first Lomé Convention, which brought together several former colonial countries with the European Community.

Soon after signing the Lomé Convention the group of former colonies coming from Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific islands formalized their group in an agreement signed in Georgetown, Guyana. This is how the ACP Group of States was born.

Since then the group has held several meetings which have been used to improve the relationship with the European Community as well as among themselves. The second Lomé Convention, which was signed in October 1979, is another attempt by both sides to benefit from a cooperation in trade and aid. Programmes for intra-ACP cooperation now play a very significant role among the ACP group.

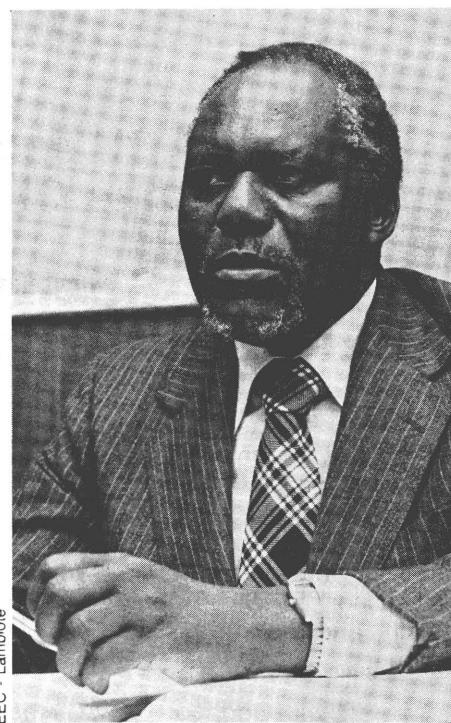
► What progress has the group made in increasing its own cohesion and cooperation?

— The ACP states have taken a great stride in forging their solidarity. The Georgetown Agreement was followed by the Suva Declaration in April 1977; at this meeting the ACP states resolved to strengthen economic and social development cooperation among themselves. Six areas were identified for action.

They were transport and communications, trade, finance, technology, culture and education. In July 1980 the ACP states held another special session in Montego Bay, Jamaica, confined to intra-ACP cooperation.

► How do you see the Secretariat evolving in cooperation between the ACP and the EEC?

— We do hope that the Secretariat will evolve successfully in the cooperation between the ACP member countries and the European Community. We think that in future the role of the Secretariat will grow from strength to strength. We foresee a secretariat better-equipped with financial and human resources to give better services to the ACP states. It will also play a more effective role in the mutual cooperation



EEC - Lambiote

"The word cooperation cannot be over emphasized"

between them and the European Community.

► North-South cooperation is one of the main issues of current international affairs. What's your thinking about this, especially in relation to EEC-ACP cooperation?

— The ACP-EEC cooperation in Lomé Convention is a great phenomenon. This relationship is especially important at this time, when the dialogue between North and South is greatly intensified and appears to be approaching a critical stage. While the North and South are arguing at the United Nations, at the World Bank, etc., in the Lomé Convention an effort is being made by 70 nations to implement an agreement involving economic aid and special trade arrangements.

Taking into account the facts that the ACP countries constitute about three-quarters of the Group of 77 and that the EEC is indeed the "industrial world", America aside, it must be accepted that Lomé has a very important role to play.

This is not to imply that everything is proceeding perfectly in Lomé. There are problems. The results of trade cooperation in Lomé I, for example, was not favourable to the ACP states. Nevertheless, the signatories of Lomé II concretely demonstrated their renewed faith in this phenomenal cooperation between peoples. With effort and with good will on both sides, much progress can be made to the benefit of all. ○

Interview by L.P.

SENEGAL

Attack on the tsetse

A battle is being fought in Senegal to control a winged foe that has subjected large parts of Africa to disease and poverty—the tsetse fly(1).

Fly-infested areas in Senegal's interior coastal region are being systematically sprayed by teams using insecticides and equipment supplied by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) under its Technical Cooperation Programme.

The region, known as the Niayes, is a breeding ground for tsetse flies, which prey on both livestock and humans. The flies transmit trypanosomiasis, a parasitic blood disease which causes cattle to waste away and die, and in humans produces sleeping sickness.

Thirty-six countries in Africa south of the Sahara from the Atlantic Ocean to the Indian Ocean are affected by tsetse flies. If the infested areas were cleared, it would permit a vast territory of some 10 million square kilometres to realize

its full economic and agricultural potential.

The Niayes form part of the drought-ridden Sahel region bordering on the Sahara. As if the tsetse problem was not enough, the Niayes have also been affected in recent times by reduced rainfall, which has brought on near-drought conditions. Thousands of palm trees have died as a result of the lowering of the water table, their lifeless trunks standing like abandoned telephone poles.

Because of the drought, the flies are now more restricted in distribution in bushes and thickets. According to a specialist of the National Livestock Production Laboratory in Dakar, which is conducting the tsetse control operations, this has facilitated insecticide spraying from the ground.

The spraying has been planned like a military manoeuvre. Aerial photographs of the terrain indicate the pockets to be attacked. The pockets are then marked on a map for spraying according to a precise schedule covering the normally dry season. The first spraying, with FAO/TCP assistance, began in March 1980 in Sangalkam, a village 25

kilometres east of Dakar. The project is a continuation of an earlier one launched with the support of France.

The ground spraying is done by teams of workers wearing masks and using knapsack spraying equipment. The insecticide used is an organochloride compound with persistent properties, which is sprayed on bushes and thickets and lasts for the entire five-week period during which the tsetse larvae develop into adult flies. The flies die following contact with the insecticide.

The effectiveness of the spraying is tested through the use of special tsetse traps. The insides of the trapezoidal-shaped traps are coloured a bright blue, which exerts a strong attraction on the flies. The number of flies caught in the trap is an indication of the density of infestation in the area.

Spraying has proven successful in controlling the flies. However, there is always the danger that the flies may return to areas already cleared, since insecticide applications do not alter the vegetation which provides a home for the tsetse fly.

No vaccine against sleeping sickness

The tsetse problem is particularly difficult, as there are 22 species of this small brown fly. Moreover, no vaccine against trypanosomiasis has yet been found. Various other measures in addition to spraying have been applied or tested. One is to clear away trees and brush—the natural habitat of the tsetse. Another, already tried with Mediterranean fruit flies, is to render male flies sterile by irradiation and to release them in numbers sufficient to compete successfully with native males for the available females. Since the female tsetse fly usually mates once in her lifespan, the population gradually dies out through failure to reproduce.

Another promising alternative, which FAO is fostering under its programme for the control of African animal trypanosomiasis, is the rearing of cattle and other livestock resistant to the disease. Such breeds of cattle exist in some West African countries and Senegal has about three-quarters of a million head of trypanotolerant cattle.

Meanwhile the problem remains a pressing one, requiring the cooperation of all governments concerned. The tsetse fly can be brought under control although it may defy extermination. If it is, it would open a new era for millions of people in the African continent. ○

(1) From the FAO, Viale delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy.



Moving into the attack: a team of anti-tsetse sprayers enter an area to be disinfected in a military-style operation

The Netherlands Antilles

One country, four regions, six nations

The Netherlands Antilles are a case apart among the Caribbean islands, distinguished by their far-flung geographical composition, their particular political and economic structures and the variety of languages they use.

The six islands(1) which make up the Netherlands Antilles are divided into two groups(2) according to their location: the islands Aruba, Bonaire and Curaçao (known in Dutch as the "Benedenwindse" islands and also called the "ABC group") 40 to 50 km off the Venezuelan coast; about 900 km further

north are the islands of St Maarten, St Eustatius and Saba, (known in Dutch as the "Bovenwindse" islands and also called the "3 S group"). St Maarten is in fact half French and half Dutch, but there is no official border between the two parts.

Politically, the Netherlands Antilles belong to the Kingdom of the Netherlands. The Kingdom Charter of 1954 gave them internal autonomy, so that internal, economic and social policy is formulated locally. Only defence and foreign affairs are considered common interest, and are therefore Kingdom responsibilities.

A chequered history

The modern history of the Netherlands Antilles starts at the end of the fif-

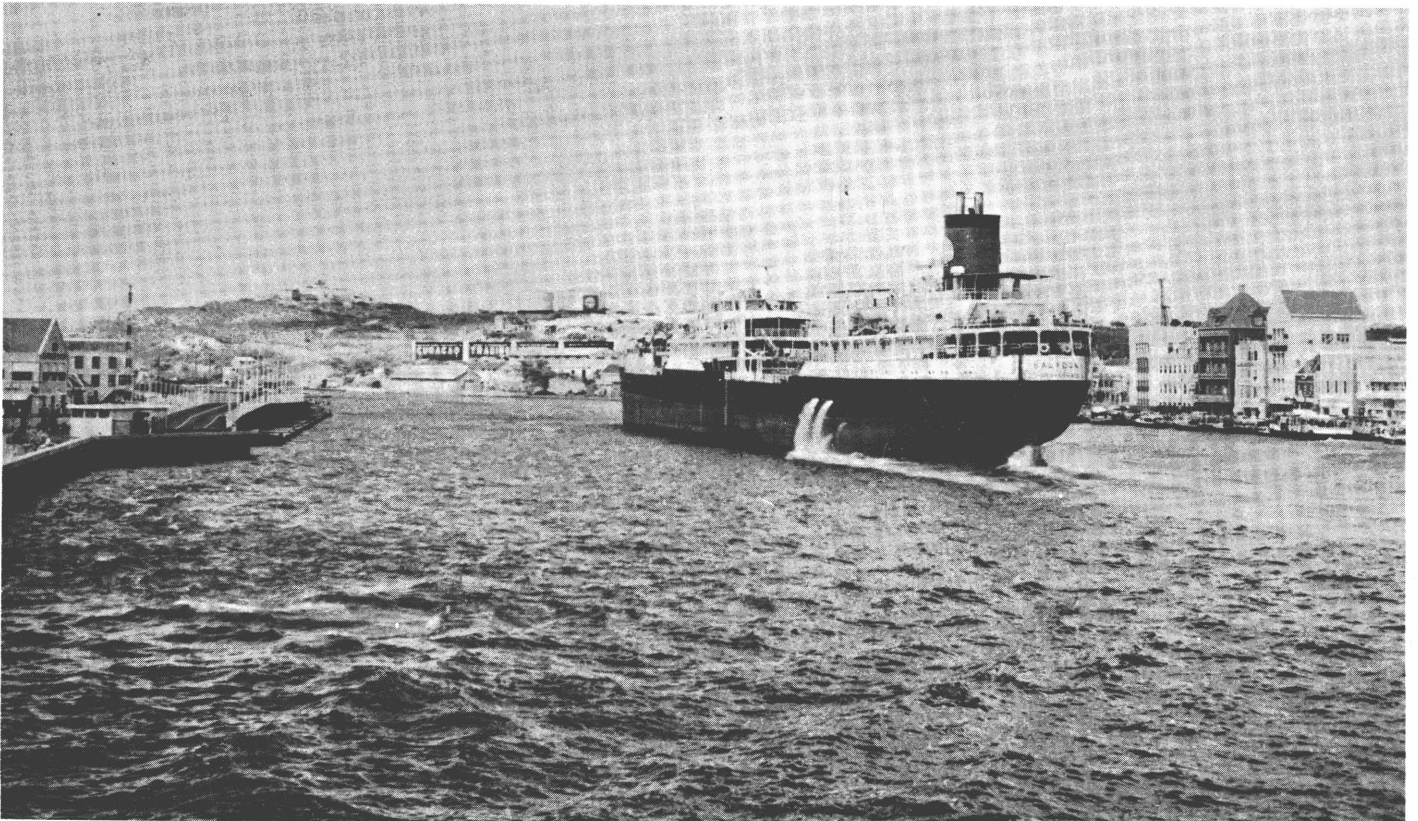
teenth century: in 1493 Columbus discovered the 3 S group on his second New World voyage, and in 1499 the Spaniard Alonso de Ojeda stumbled upon Bonaire and Curaçao, and probably Aruba also.

In 1527 Spain seized the ABC group and kept possession of it until 1634. Its trade and agricultural policy, particularly in the case of Curaçao and Bonaire, resulted notably in the deforestation of the islands—which nowadays are still bleak and arid—and the virtual extermination of the indigenous Arawak Indians, whom they sent to Latin America to work as slaves in the silver and gold mines. The Spaniards took little interest in Aruba, which consequently now still shows most signs of the old Indian civilization. During the war between the Netherlands and Spain, Johannes van Walbeek won the ABC group from Spain (1634).

The "windward" islands, like so many islands in the region, saw power change hands about 20 times in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and it was 1816 before the Netherlands got all six islands completely under control. West African slaves were brought in to work on the plantations and when slavery was abolished in 1863 most of them settled in the islands for good.

(1) In fact there are two more islands in the Netherlands Antilles, namely Lesser Curaçao and Lesser Bonaire, but both are uninhabited.

(2) These two groups have no equivalent names in English; the English names "Leeward Islands" and "Windward Islands" denote different groups of islands.



The availability of deep, sheltered natural harbours gives the Netherlands Antilles a great advantage; picture shows ship sailing through St Anna Bay to the Schottegat harbour in Willemstad, Curaçao

Throughout their tumultuous history the Netherlands Antilles remained a coveted prize owing to their main advantage, which is still greatly envied, namely the availability of deep and sheltered natural harbours. This gave rise to the founding and subsequent affluence of a number of industries which form the mainstays of their economy: trade (Curaçao is the world's fifth biggest port in terms of tonnage handled), ship repairs (from as far back as 1635) and the building of refineries on Curaçao in 1916 and Aruba in 1924.

A complex political structure

During World War II, when the Antillean refineries played a valuable role in the war effort, Queen Wilhelmina promised that freedom would be granted to the Netherlands Antilles, which came under the Ministry for the Colonies at the time. This led to the drawing up of the Kingdom Charter in 1954 under which a central government received a large degree of autonomy; the Queen is represented by her governor and there is an Antillean minister in the Netherlands Cabinet.

The Netherlands Antilles are a parliamentary democracy modelled on the Netherlands. A Council of Ministers and a 22-member "Staten" or Parliament, elected every four years by universal suffrage (since 1945), run the central government policies, which cover: the police force, communications, taxes, social security, public health, education, economic controls, establishment of enterprises, labour legislation, money and banking, and foreign currency.

The islands are divided into four regions or island territories: Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao and the "Bovenwindse" islands. Each of these island territories has its own island government, headed by a "gezaghebber" (lieutenant governor) — (a kind of burgomaster on the Netherlands model, i.e. an official appointed for a specified period by the Queen), - and assisted by an island council with local representatives. These local administrations are responsible for water and electricity supplies, land tenure, school systems, housing, infrastructure, ports, tourism, etc. The central government can annul a decision by an island government if it conflicts with the public interest or runs counter to the Kingdom Charter or laws of the Netherlands Antilles.

One for all, all for one?

The political future of the islands is at present being studied by a Kingdom Commission led by the former Dutch Prime Minister Mr Biesheuvel. This



Oil refining and trans-shipment have played a considerable role in the economic development of the Netherlands Antilles

body has the awkward task of studying the possibility of full independence from the Netherlands and also future relations between the various islands. For a number of historical, social, economic and to some extent even cultural reasons, some of the six islands have grown away from one another—particularly Aruba. There are therefore differing views regarding the relationship with the Netherlands—including the date and terms of a possible independence—and about the future form of mutual cooperation, if there is to be any, ranging from a kind of federal structure to completely separate independent islands.

The latter trend illustrates a marked tendency in the Caribbean for islands to

drift apart, as it were, but eventually this tendency towards separation could well be reversed, even if only for purely economic reasons (economies of scale, etc.). In this respect Mr. G. Curiel, the national authorizing officer of the EDF and director at the department for development cooperation, observed: "having six different development plans must not endanger our united approach either towards foreign donors or towards our main concern, which is the deficit on the central balance of payments".

The Antilleans' gift for languages

The geographical distance between the ABC and the 3 S groups is heightened by the different languages spoken as the *lingua franca* on the two groups of islands.

Dutch is the official language used for administration and education, but the population of the ABC group uses Papiamento as their everyday means of communication, whereas on the windward islands English is the *lingua franca*. Papiamento is a jumble of about 20 different languages, including mainly Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, Arawak Indian and a number of West African languages. On the "half and half" island of St Maarten the odd word of French is heard on the Dutch half of the island. As a result of the boom in the Netherlands Antilles' tourist industry, visitors from both North and South America are served in fluent Spanish and English.

All this naturally has an influence on the unity of the country and leads not only to strange situations (for example,



The "Venezuelan" market at Willemstad, seat of the central government as well as of the island government of Curaçao

bills are debated in Papiamentu in the ABC group and in English in the 3 S group, but are written down in Dutch on all the islands) but also to bottlenecks in education.

According to Prime Minister Don Martina, when children start school they have to make too abrupt a transition from their own vocabulary to the officially imposed language, Dutch. In the ABC group, for example, Papiamentu should, according to him, be introduced in the early years of schooling. But this also rises the problem of how the language should be written: Aruba and Bonaire want to do this on an etymological basis, whereas Curaçao prefers a phonetical approach. In Mr Martina's opinion the problem arouses too much emotion at present and in the end common sense should win the day. He also says: "Dutch will not remain the administrative language for ever and it could be replaced by Spanish or English in order to take the islands out of their linguistic isolation in the long term."

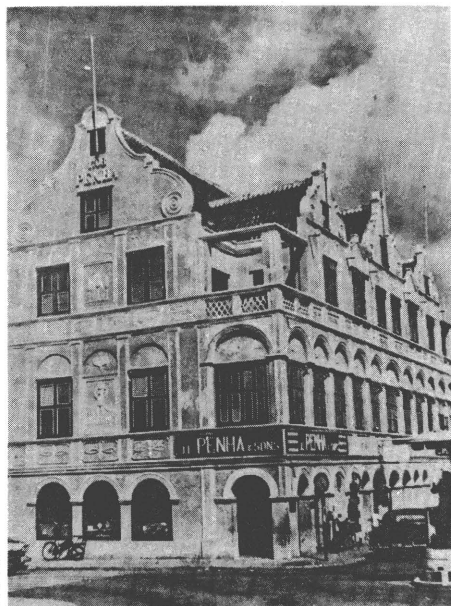


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Tourism, as on this Bonaire beach, is rapidly becoming the country's main development priority

The vulnerability of an open, service-oriented economy

The Netherlands Antilles have exploited their relatively scarce natural resources as fully as possible to date: the deep, sheltered harbours already referred to, around which trading companies, light industries, oil refining and trans-shipment, and ship repairs have developed; sun, sea, beaches and nature reserves as tourist attractions; a labour force for the specialized activities carried on in and around the harbours and also for the labour-intensive tourist industry.



RVD-NA

A typical example of Dutch colonial architecture

Other sources of income are the hitherto flourishing offshore financial operations, which are attracted not so much by the agreeable climate as by the ever more agreeable taxation system. In addition the Netherlands Antilles receive appreciable financial support from the Netherlands, and, to a lesser degree, from the EEC. According to the OECD's Development Assistance Committee, the Netherlands Antilles are among the main recipients of foreign aid, getting US \$195 *per capita* in 1978, for example.

For various reasons there tends to be a dearth of general economic data for the six islands as a whole; one of the reasons is that the 3 S group is a free zone, which makes it almost impossible to compile economic statistics. The Netherlands Antilles are, however, relatively well off: the IMF estimates their *per capita* gross domestic product at US \$3 320 or about Ant. f 5 943 (3). The fact that the Antillean guilder is tied to the dollar is another peculiar feature because the low dollar rates have an unfavourable influence on the Netherlands Antilles' external debt, which is denominated *vis-à-vis* the mother country in Dutch guilders.

The openness of their economy has made the Netherlands Antilles very vulnerable to developments affecting their trade partners which are beyond their control. Their high degree of dependence on imports, the fact that their own market is so small, their lack of water

and the poor quality of the soil hinder their economic development. The substantial rivalry between the islands, especially between Curaçao and Aruba, is not conducive to smooth, coordinated growth. This last factor, combined with the fact that the islands' external relations are looked after by the Netherlands, also restrains the growth of some sectors of the economy.

Tourism is an example of this: air links with Europe and between the islands are handled by the KLM/ALM combination (4). Each island now tends to complain about the KLM monopoly on European routes and the inefficiency of ALM; each island also wants as many direct links with North and South America as possible, but here again the central government and ALM have the real say. Nevertheless one has to admit that the geography of the country is a serious handicap for the national airline ALM, which, because of the distances involved and the different needs of each island, finds it difficult to establish financial structures satisfying all involved (types of aircraft, crews, schedules and timetables, etc.). Each of the islands is viewed separately for the purposes of tourist development and there is little talk of coordination between them, although tourism is considered the largest growth area.

(3) US \$1 = Ant. f1.79.

(4) KLM = "Koninklijke Luchtvaartmaatschappij"; ALM = "Antilliaanse Luchtvaartmaatschappij".

A look at the future

Tourism should in fact be able to absorb some of the relatively high unemployment, estimated at 18% to 19% for all the islands together. The rate varies greatly, however, from island to island: whereas St Maarten has full employment (and even, according to some sources, a shortage of labour), unemployment on the other islands varies from about 10% on Aruba to about 24% on Curaçao. This high figure for Curaçao causes social tension, as might be expected, but its worse effects are partly offset by a smoothly-functioning "unofficial" economy.

This high level of unemployment is partly due to a decline in refining activities, as a result of the oil crisis and also of a far-reaching process of automation. Generally speaking, the economic problem for the Netherlands Antilles is keeping their service-orientated economy competitive, in terms of both the quality of the services themselves and the price, charged for them, amidst increasingly keener international competition.

Mr Statia, the minister for development, summarized the problem as follows: "we need not be pessimistic about our development if we work a little harder. We need a more settled employment situation and greater productivity and also fewer *ad hoc* decisions, with a solidly based, sectoral and programmed approach instead. Independence doesn't mean we shall get a better life for less effort. What we need is a change of attitude and new local initiatives which can keep our depend-

ence on the outside world within bounds."

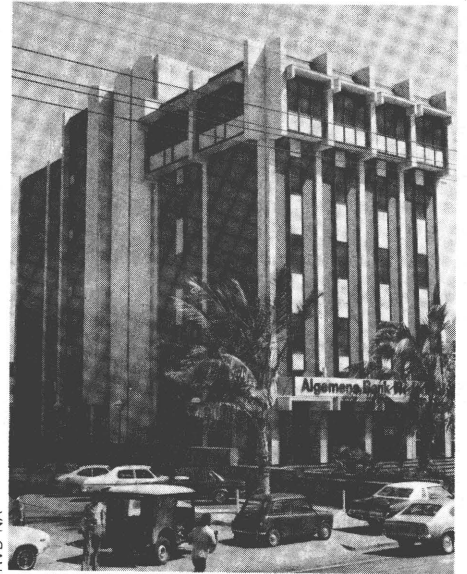
The fourth largest oil-refining centre in the world

Generally speaking, tourism offers favourable growth prospects, but other mainstays of the economy, such as the oil industry and offshore activities, are now in full focus.

The Netherlands Antilles constitute the fourth largest refining centre in the world following Rotterdam, Singapore, and the Virgin Islands. The oil industry there comprises two large refineries (one on Curaçao and one on Aruba) which also trans-ship and store oil, these being activities conducted on Bonaire too. Owing to the depth and accessibility of the harbours, giant tankers can call at these three islands and the oil is then transferred to smaller tankers which can enter the North American refineries situated in shallower harbours.

The Shell refinery and subsidiary companies in Curaçao have about 2 900 people on their payroll and there are approximately a further 1 000 contractors; the figures for the Lago refinery on Aruba are about 1 300 own staff and 600 to 700 contractors. Both these refineries naturally create a number of secondary jobs in ancillary industries, financial services, etc.

Lago's capacity has been reduced from about 600 000 to 500 000 barrels a day but its present output uses only 60% to 70% of this capacity (300 000 to 350 000 barrels a day). Lago belongs to the Exxon group and has suffered



Offshore transactions have attracted over 5 000 investment companies looking for tax loopholes

less than Shell from measures by the USA to protect its own refineries. Shell has dropped from a capacity of 400 000 barrels a day in 1973-74 (of which 250 000-260 000 barrels were exported to the USA) to a capacity of 362 000 barrels per day, of which it too uses only about 60%; of these 220 000 barrels only about 30 000-35 000 can still be disposed on the North American market. The decline in activity (whereas in 1952 there were 18 000 men in service there are now more men drawing a pension—about 4 000—than working employees on the payroll) is, according to Mr De Vos, Shell's general manager, due to a combination of factors, such as: the oil crisis and resulting loss of the US market; the general surplus of refining capacity in the Caribbean; growing competition from Venezuela and, above all, the threat from the newcomer to the industry, Mexico; and the general uncertainty on the world oil market.

During the years following the first oil crisis in 1973-74 the refineries showed poor results: Shell, for example, suffered an aggregate loss of US \$138 million from 1975 to 1978. However, the relative scarcity of oil in 1979, owing to the events in Iran, resulted in such a favourable margin between the price of crude and the price of processed products that the same firm ("quite unexpectedly", according to Mr De Vos) made a profit of US \$221 million after tax; this huge profit was used mainly to offset the losses of the previous years.

The Netherlands Antilles make about US \$16 million and US \$18 million a year from Shell and Lago respectively. Aruba and Curaçao also enjoy a good many social amenities and relative prosperity as a result of their oil industry. However, in these industries



A view of Oranjestad, the capital of Aruba, with part of the free zone in the foreground and the "Hooiberg" in the background

themselves, which give the skyline a magical appearance at night, there is little optimism concerning the future. To quote Mr De Vos: "despite our performance in 1979, in the long term we are rather pessimistic about being able to maintain present output; OPEC will keep the margin between crude and the processed product much narrower and adjust it more quickly and there will certainly be no lack of competition in this region."

Offshore activities looking for tax loopholes

Although the offshore sector creates only about 1 000 jobs, it is a lucrative source of income for the Netherlands Antilles, which annually receive over Ant. f 70 million, or about US \$40 million, from it. The offshore companies number about 6 000 and most of them, i.e. 4 000 to 5 000, are "established" in Curaçao. They are mainly financial subsidiaries of concerns established elsewhere and also banking firms, investment companies, holdings, companies owning real estate, patents, copyrights, etc., shipping and trading companies, and insurance companies.

If the amount of tax paid—and this is admittedly low: 2.4% on the first Ant f 100 000 of capital earnings and 3% on the rest—is taken as a basis, the total yearly turnover for the entire offshore sector may be estimated at about US\$15 000 million.

According to a representative of a Netherlands Antilles subsidiary of a medium-sized European bank, who would prefer to remain anonymous, the attraction of the Netherlands Antilles for European firms lies above all in the fact that the Netherlands' tax agreements with other countries (allowing no double taxation of income) are also valid there. By creating a subsidiary firm (very often "sleeping" or one which exists on paper only), one can therefore benefit from the favourable taxation system in the Netherlands Antilles.

The Netherlands Antilles offer US financing companies wanting access to the European capital market another favourable channel in that there is no withholding tax, and there are also a few other advantageous tax loopholes. The whole package of tax benefits is, however, being gradually eroded from the Netherlands, particularly by the Noteboom Law, which has raised the national return on the entire business assets of Netherlands investment subsidiaries in the Antilles from 3.6% to 6%, and from the USA, where the government is considering a number of measures which would severely cut back the present benefits.



The Curaçao Drydock Company for ships up to 120 000 dwt employs about 1 200 highly skilled workers

The Netherlands Antilles view all this with concern because the abolition of their tax benefits would have serious repercussions on their finances, which are not very healthy anyway. For example, the total deficit of the central government together with that of the island governments of Curaçao and Aruba was Ant. f 64 million in 1978 and Ant. f 72 million in 1979.

Curaçao: a close concentration of activities

Curaçao is the largest island in the Netherlands Antilles in terms of both area (472 km²) and population (160 000). The capital, Willemstad, is also the seat of the central government and, as well as boasting a typical mixture of architectural styles, it has a particular feature: vessels of up to 120 000 dwt sail along the Sint Annabaai, a narrow canal, passing through the town centre, as it were, to the sheltered Schottegat. The island has other ports also, of which Curaçobaai (200 000 dwt) and Bullenbaai (500 000 dwt) are equipped to take giant tankers (VLCC) (5) and other large vessels.

In the view of the lieutenant governor, Mr Ornelio Martina, the ports are clearly the "driving force" of the island, and around them have developed oil refining, trans-shipment and ship repair activities, with a 120 000 dwt dry dock

(providing employment for 1 200 highly skilled workers), industrial plants in a free zone, and shipping and trading companies.

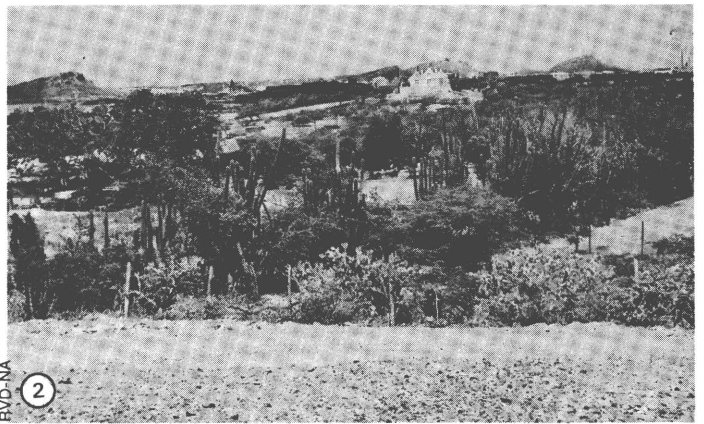
The representative for development, Mr Dias, feels that the port will attract new activities in the future, and a large number of projects are in fact in the pipeline. Negotiations are being conducted with Eisen und Metal (Federal Republic of Germany) for the setting up of a ship-breaking joint venture; contacts have been made with Rotterdam to obtain advisory services and know-how for the building of a container port; studies are being conducted for a cement factory (there are reserves for 60 to 65 years) in collaboration with a German firm; the dry dock company should be able to use new techniques, etc. Mr Dias also stresses the "rigid" rules of origin which form an obstacle for firms wishing to set up in the free zone which would want to dispose of their products on the European market.

Despite the unofficial labour market, unemployment in Curaçao has reached the point of causing severe social tension, and this finds expression in, among other features, a rising crime rate. Mr Martina and Mr Dias both see this as a possible threat to the growth of tourism, which appears to have a good future. Mr Dias urges a more professional approach and points also to the importance of the current negotiations with the Netherlands concerning a new air transport protocol. According to Mr Martina, KLM interests have hitherto repeatedly blocked an extension of air

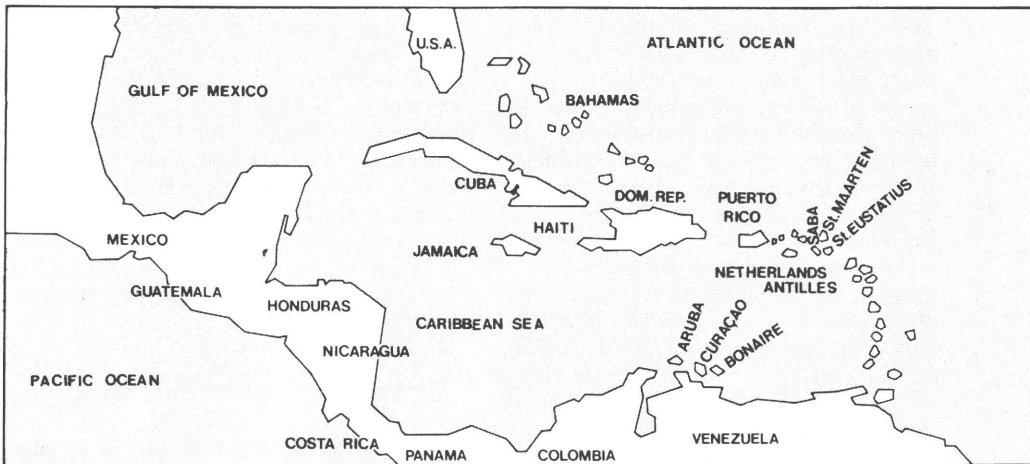
(5) VLCC = very large crude carrier.



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(1) Saba, a cone-shaped volcanic outcrop. (2) The arid countryside of Curaçao. (3) Remnants of St Eustatius' rich history. (4) The centre of Philipsburg, capital of the Dutch part of St Maarten. (5) The commercial centre of Oranjestad, Aruba. (6) Peace and tranquillity on Bonaire



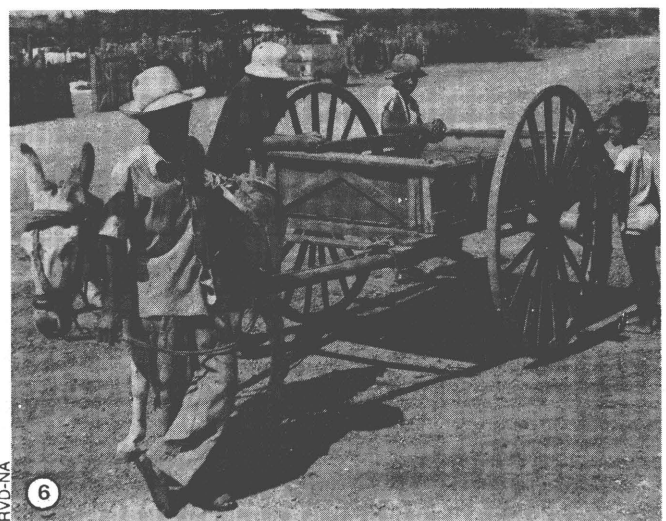
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traffic between Europe and the Netherlands Antilles.

In 1978 Curaçao accommodated over 178 000 tourists and approximately a further 173 000 visited the island from cruise ships. Of longer-stay tourists on Curaçao about 65% come from Latin America and elsewhere in the Caribbean; 20% are Americans and only 10-15% come from Europe.

The Venezuelans—over 80 000 of them—come mainly to exercise their increasing purchasing power by going on shopping sprees in the busy shopping centre by day and gambling at one of the many casinos by night.

Aruba: the importance of a warm welcome

The westernmost island in the ABC group owes its prosperity to the Lago refinery and also to its flourishing tourist industry, which derives maximum benefit from the beautiful sandy beaches. The island is about 190 km² in area, has a population of about 63 000, and, unlike the other islands of the Netherlands Antilles, is almost entirely flat, apart from the 185 m high "Hooiberg".

Besides scope for expanding fishing, the island authorities wish to launch new activities such as stock-breeding and the production of citrus fruit, the main aim of all being to stop having to import supplies for the hotels.

As the "gezaghebber", Mr Francisco Figaroa, and the representative responsible for development, Mr Daniel Leo, explained, Aruba is aiming to maintain and expand a kind of luxury tourist industry. Provided that there are the necessary air links—here too the present facilities attract much criticism—it should be possible to raise the hotel capacity from the present 2 200 rooms to 3 200 rooms within three years.

According to the director of tourism, Mr Odulio Arends, Aruba tries above all to establish a friendly atmosphere for a holiday on "an island which is like a dream come true". Up to now Aruba has mainly tapped the US market, from which 60% to 65% of the total of 185 000 tourists (1979, not including cruises) come; the others come mainly from Venezuela and other Latin American countries, accounting for about 30% in all. More intensive promotion campaigns will, however, be conducted on the latter markets, and also on the European market. The social side-effects of tourism (drug-taking, rising costs of housing, etc.) are naturally felt, but overall this sector is directly or indirectly responsible for over 50% of all

jobs on Aruba. According to economic director Mr Van Trikt, tourism has become an almost "unavoidable priority", which must be carefully planned and monitored.

Bonaire's natural beauty

The 9 000 inhabitants of Bonaire have no shortage of space on their 281 km² island. After the relative bustle of Curaçao and the US-style beach resorts of Aruba, it has, with its beautiful landscape, something quite different to offer from the rest of the ABC group. The authorities have turned much of the island into nature reserves, which are, among other things, an ornithologists' paradise because of the very varied range of bird species found there. The underwater flora and fauna on the other hand, constitute a tourist attraction which draws many snorkellers and divers. According to the director of tourism, Mr Niki Tromp, the promotion of tourism in Bonaire is aimed mainly at these "target markets", i.e., divers' clubs and nature-lovers. Mr Alfred Sint Jago, the "gezaghebber", and Mr Humphrey Wout, the representative responsible for economic development, recognize, however, that an economy based solely on tourism could be rather vulnerable and therefore aim also to attract small export-oriented industries.

Up to now about 20 000 tourists a year (including 7 700 from Aruba and Curaçao!) have visited Bonaire and the authorities want to see controlled growth, with the figure rising to 60 000 by 1990. The aim here is not mass tourism, but non-seasonal visits by nature lovers. Bonaire also feels that it is

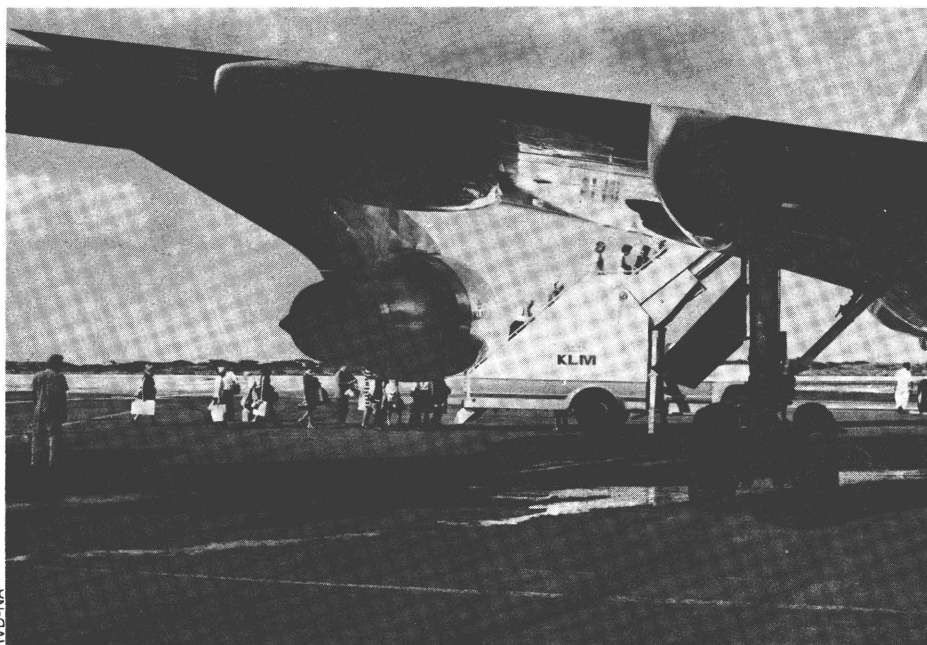
hard done by as regards air links and considers the ALM service not up to much.

In addition to its tourism and some offshore activities, Bonaire has mainly the BOPEC oil trans-shipment port (no refining) for ships of up to 500 000 dwt, a small textile firm and salt-pans which are visible from afar and which produced over 300 000 t of salt in 1979. Other features marking the Bonaire skyline are the tall transmission towers of the Nederlandse Wereldomroep and Trans World Radio (the latter run by a US religious community).

Generally speaking, the ratio of the scattered population of Bonaire to its area makes most infrastructure operations very expensive, and the small size of the local market is a factor which raises the cost of living to above the Curaçao level, since most products which have to be imported are trans-shipped at Curaçao and not delivered direct. Bonaire has, however, an enviable peacefulness which the sight of a flock of pink flamingoes only serves to emphasize.

St Maarten: growth problems

The Netherlands' half of the largest island in the windward group is clearly wrestling with growth problems. The "gezaghebber", Mr Pandt, who is also responsible for Saba and St Eustatius, readily admits that the boom in the tourist industry—which owes much of its appeal to the mixture of French and Dutch culture here—has developed so fast that it is now rather out of control. The three islands together have about 16 000 inhabitants (St Maarten 13 600),



Airline communications are of vital importance for the development of tourism on each of the six islands



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Bonaire's tourist promotion aims mainly at two "target markets", divers' clubs and naturelovers

but almost 50% of them are foreigners, making up an equivalent proportion of the labour force. St Maarten itself is "bursting at the seams" with tourists, since the influx of approximately 300 000 visitors, mainly Americans, necessitates rapid adjustment of most of the infrastructure (roads, airport, water and electricity supplies and waste disposal), and this cannot always be done that quickly or under sufficient control by the authorities.

According to Mr Pandt, "economic pressure often overrides the normal laws and rules designed to protect the ordinary citizen".

Mr Jan Welage, the vice-president of the Hotel Association (for the whole island), is uneasy about the already perceptible consequences of the US recession and is also unhappy about being at the mercy of the airline companies, which do not hesitate to pass on the cost of fuel (there has been a 350% rise in fares to the USA). He too sees a definite future in tapping the European tourist market, provided again that there are good communications and a collective approach is made by all the Netherlands Antilles islands together.

The Juliana airport—the busiest in the Netherlands Antilles, with denser air traffic than the whole of the ABC group together—is a good example of the economic explosion, which can no longer be kept under control. In 1979 there were 33 000 aircraft movements and the tower controlled a further 15 000 aircraft passing through the island's airspace. The airport had to deal with over 600 000 people, and this year the figure will be over 700 000. The IATA computer, fed with all the data concerning the airport, has arrived at the conclusion: this airport cannot

function! In addition to all the airport's limitations as regards available space and technology, the island is in the hurricane belt, as was demonstrated when hurricane Allen snapped off the main beacon pole.

All this is more than sufficient to put Mr Schotborgh, the airport manager, who is also an FAA accident prevention counsellor, under constant pressure and to make him very pleased at the prospect of enlargement and extensions to be financed by the EEC.

St Eustatius: historical fame

The 21 km² St Eustatius may be seen as a symbol of majesty in decline. The numerous ruins of forts and warehouses still testify to its period of glory in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Whereas there are now only 1 500 inhabitants there were then almost 20 000. Americans show singular veneration for what was then called the Golden Rock: not only did the US colonists receive their weapons and supplies from Europe via St Eustatius during their struggle for independence, but it was also here that the flag of the young American nation, flown by the American warship Andrew Gloria, was first recognized by the firing of a salute from Fort Oranje in 1776.

The United Kingdom did not take kindly to this and in 1781 Admiral Rodney showed St Eustatius how "misplaced" this open support was.

Today the island tends to live on this reputation and from the few thousand tourists who come for the crab fishing among other pleasures. The island is also becoming well known for its handicrafts, particularly woodwork.

Saba's beautiful vegetation

Saba, which rises steeply out of the sea, is in fact the top of an extinct volcano. About a thousand people live on the 13 km² rock, which is about 900 m high. This cone-shaped volcanic outcrop attracts more rain than the other windward islands and Saba's particular feature is the variety of its tropical vegetation, with about eight different types which vary according to the altitude.

Tourists can make rather spectacular landings in small aircraft, or call by ship, whereas before they had to be rowed to the coast in a small boat. As on St Eustatius, plans to extend handicraft activities are also being put into effect.

A bigger role in the Caribbean and in the world at large

For all that they have in common and all that sets them apart, these six islands are clearly looking for their own international identity, firstly in order to play a full role in the Caribbean region and, in the longer term, to establish their presence in the world at large. Ambitions of acquiring sovereignty lie not far beneath the surface, but for the moment the islands have no wish to rock the boat.

Even if the political future is uncertain, the islands' leaders are clearly decided on the natural course of action: to preserve the relative prosperity of the Netherlands Antilles while trying to overcome the obstacles to their further economic development. ○

ROGER DE BACKER

“We hope to develop into a sovereign state, but it will be planned properly”

An interview with Don Martina, Prime Minister of the Netherlands Antilles

Since 1979, Don Martina has headed the coalition government in the Netherlands Antilles. Educated in the United States, this former finance officer in the Curaçao government headed the social affairs department of the central government before winning the elections which followed the fall of the government of his predecessor, Mr Rosendaal.

In an interview with the *Courier* he discussed his priorities for the political and economic future of his country.

“Our prosperity really stands out”

► *Prime Minister, how do you explain the relative wealth of your country given the lack of natural resources?*

— Indeed, it is striking that our community enjoys a certain degree of affluence compared with the surrounding islands. This is chiefly attributable to the establishment of two big refineries on Curaçao and Aruba, but other factors are the role we have played in the history of this region, our shipping and air links and of course also the application and energy of our own people carrying on these activities. Therefore I would not say that our prosperity is merely apparent because compared with the rest of this region it really does stand out.

► *Can the Netherlands Antilles be regarded mainly as a centre providing services for this region?*

— Our economy is based on the provision of services insofar as we act as a kind of intermediary in delivering products to the international market. Even the biggest industries such as the refineries can be regarded as a kind of service industry since we refine oil coming from Venezuela and other members of OPEC. In addition, a large part of our economy is actually geared to and based on the provision of services in the fields of shiprepairs, offshore activities, tourism and air links. The services we provide therefore have to do with the fact that in our economy the main factor of production which we supply is labour because we have very few other factors to offer as inputs for industry. In view of all this we can indeed talk about an economy based on service industries.

Tourism: diversify the markets

► *Within the service sector tourism is occupying an increasingly important place. Are you not worried that you are putting all your eggs in one basket?*

— No, that is certainly not the case. While it is true that tourism does occupy a very important place in our economy for Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao and St. Maarten, I must point out that where possible we are gearing our future to diversification. In addition to our leading industries, namely oil refining and tourism, we are also endeavouring to turn our islands into a financial centre and we want to take greater advantage of their location by making them into a kind of transit port between Europe and both North and South America. We are therefore making a real effort to diversify; but we are, of course, subject to the constraints imposed by international developments.

► *In connection with the repercussions of international events on the Netherlands Antilles economy and in view of the priority you give to tourism, are you able to keep the development of this sector adequately under control?*

— Ultimately, the decision to come here rests entirely with the tourist himself and the circumstances which influence that decision are largely beyond our control. Tourism is, however, a fact of life and the trend will increasingly be towards “mass” tourism. Before, it was mainly the well-to-do tourists who visited the Netherlands Antilles, but now the man in the street too is travelling more and more. Of course the number of visitors will fluctuate in line with the economies of the countries our tourists come from, but because of this we will try to extend our markets. At present



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Prime Minister Don Martina

“We are exactly halfway between complete independence and full colonial status”

our tourists come mainly from America and Venezuela, but the aim is to penetrate further into Latin America and attract European tourists too; thus we also want to break in on various new markets.

Keeping the services competitive

► *Can the Netherlands Antilles remain competitive as a service industries centre, in terms of the prices charged compared with other islands in the region and the actual quality of the services provided?*

— It is a fact that when a comparison is made differences do indeed exist with regard to the level of prices and costs, and yet it is also true that in our service activities we endeavour to keep our costs down so that the “product” that we have to sell still remains attractive. Despite our relatively high inflation rate we are not in such a bad way on that score as America and Europe or certain other islands in the area; also the higher energy costs and increasing imports over the last five to six years have not been too harmful to the Netherlands Antilles.

Oil future in doubt

► *What is the general role played by the oil refineries in the Netherlands Antilles economy and to what extent*

has this sector suffered from the energy crisis?

— The 1973 crisis has indeed had a dramatic effect on the place, function and role of this industry in our economy to date. Firstly, there has been an enormous change in our markets. Before, the bulk of sales went to North America but these have now been substantially reduced, particularly in the case of Shell, although a considerable proportion of Lago's output is still sold on the American market. The energy crisis led America to change its policy and it has now gone over to importing more crude oil and less in the way of refined products.

The energy crisis has had a big effect on capacity utilization by both Lago and Shell. Of course, we have felt this in our economy; for instance, over the past few years these companies have not invested as much in building new plants. The money they are investing is going more on the maintenance of existing installations. The future of these refineries has become uncertain as the companies no longer supply one large market but sell their products on various markets. It may therefore be stated that the energy crisis has adversely affected the place and role of the oil industry in our economy to the extent that the continuity of these operations, and how their future can be guaranteed, is now a matter for serious discussion.

► In connection with this discussion we often hear about the problems experienced by developing countries in negotiations with "multinationals". What is the situation in the Netherlands Antilles?

— The fact is that in the Netherlands Antilles multinationals are no different

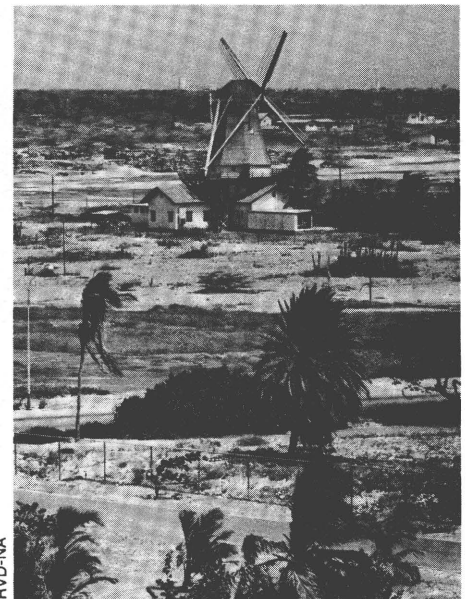
from anywhere else. Historically, they have played a role in our community. That role has now decreased: 15 to 20 years ago the status, power and influence of these firms was far, far greater than today. In those days, for instance, you would find that when the government set up certain advisory bodies these companies would be directly represented in them. Now neither Shell nor Lago are as such represented on advisory bodies. However, they are present in the employers' association; an employee of Shell will perhaps be appointed by the established business community, but Shell as such is not specifically represented.

I must also say that their relative contribution to our national product has decreased; even the number of people currently employed by them has been substantially reduced, as have their additional activities in the social and other fields. Their influence insofar as government decisions are concerned has also dwindled dramatically. The fact remains, however, that they are powerful industries in our community and one has to take account of their considerations.

Growth of offshore activities threatened

► What is the significance of offshore activities for the Netherlands Antilles economy, and what are the prospects for this sector in view of the increasing opposition of certain countries and the growing competition from other quarters in the Caribbean?

— The fact is that offshore business in the Netherlands Antilles has made great strides over the past five to six years. Revenue from direct taxes on the offshore transactions accounts for a



Dutch influence in the Aruba landscape

good quarter of our total revenue from taxation. This sector is therefore of great importance to our economy. In terms of employment opportunities it also provides around 1 000 skilled jobs. The problems are that Dutch policy has not been such as to stimulate the growth of this sector and there are also new developments taking place in America. Here, two factors are of particular importance: firstly, we are currently renegotiating a tax treaty with America which will possibly incorporate certain constraints, since it alleges that money from drug rackets is being "laundered" via the Netherlands Antilles. We repudiate this allegation as these concerns are thoroughly checked out before they set up by means of a detailed investigation into the past record of the persons involved and the investors. We intend to keep our islands free of characters with a dubious reputation in the world of finance and investment. In addition, in the United States an internal federal bill has been lodged concerning the withholding tax on foreign investment. If this goes through it could certainly have an adverse effect on the growth and continued existence of this sector.

Also, it is true that there is a fair amount of competition in this type of activity. We must therefore maintain and improve our infrastructure, particularly as communications and telecommunications are of cardinal importance in this area of activity. But in addition to the availability of skilled labour and infrastructure, political stability also plays a big role. Admittedly, there are other islands in the region which also want a share of this business but we have so far had the edge because of our existing infrastructure and the reputation which the Netherlands Antilles has already built up in this sector.



The tourist boom—over 300 000 visitors in 1979—has confronted St. Maarten with serious problems of adapting its infrastructure



RVD-NA

Fr. l. to r.: Joseph De Man, Commission delegate, G. Curiel, national authorizing officer and director for development cooperation, Roger De Backer, Don Martina, Prime Minister

Planning the political future

► *With regard to political stability, Prime Minister, the big question is how you see the future of the Netherlands Antilles, particularly in the light of the activities of the Biesheuvel working party?*

— The present political structure dates back to the '50s. We feel that its days are over. There are enormous bottlenecks and a lot of resentment at the present structure. With regard to the internal structure, a discussion is now taking place aimed at finding forms and structures which will enable the islands to determine their own fate and maintain cooperation links. What type of links? That is a matter for discussion. The general opinion is that all this must

come about with a minimum of fuss and that we must allow whatever time is necessary to achieve this. It must therefore take place systematically. The relationship with the Netherlands itself is another issue: in view of the fact that we consist of six islands, those six islands will have to arrive at the closest possible agreement if we are to change the links with the Netherlands. In fact there are differences of opinion here: Aruba, for instance, wants independence before Curaçao, but in the "bovenwindse" islands they will not hear of this. There are six different sets of wishes and opinions.

We must therefore take time to work out insofar as possible a common negotiating basis supported by all the islands together before making

changes. I hope—and I must stress this—that the Netherlands Antilles will not be the last islands to achieve sovereignty. At any rate it is our hope that we will develop into a sovereign state, though when that will be is not yet known. That state may take on a variety of forms but we want to arrange things so that the people are themselves completely behind this movement. Since opinions differ on this matter, we must take our time in order to prepare things well in advance and reach a consensus insofar as possible. The situation is in a state of flux, but there is no cause for concern as we are on the right track and have no need to worry about the process being a jerky one; on the contrary, it will be planned properly.

► *So the desire to achieve a consensus on the islands' political future is shared by all of them?*

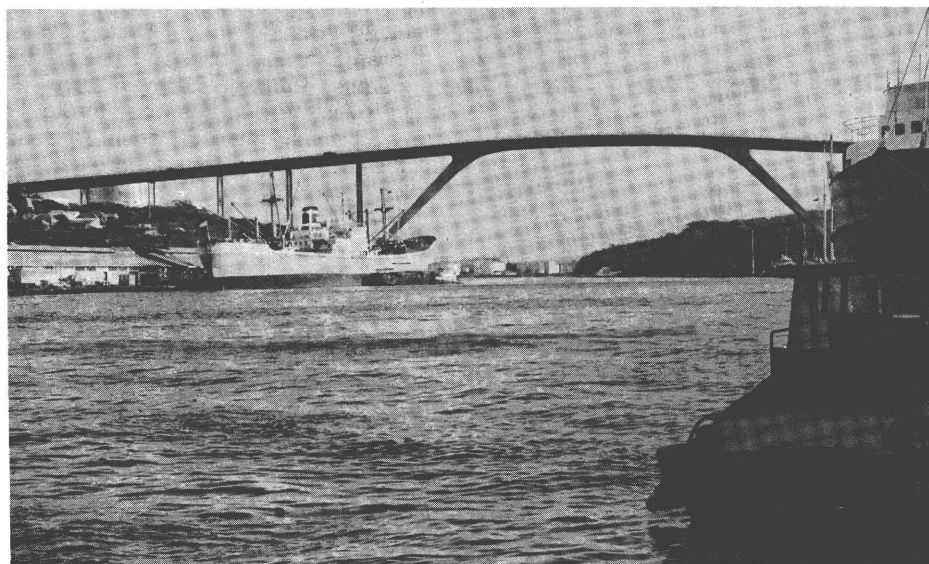
— At any rate it is perceptible on all the islands and what is also being said is that there is a need for some kind of cooperation. What form that cooperation should take, however, is the subject of our discussions. All the islands have expressed the desire for cooperation to continue in future.

Relations with the EEC

► *What is your general view of cooperation with the European Economic Community so far?*

— In fact we have a twofold relationship with the European Economic Community. Firstly, owing to the fact that we are part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, we have certain opportunities to trade with the EEC; this has not been a great success, partly because we ourselves have few raw materials and partly because the EEC's rules of origin are so stringent that projects involving the manufacture of products which might find a market in the EEC have not exactly been encouraged.

Studies are being made of the kinds of things—particularly semi-manufactures—which could be processed and sold on the EEC market. So far, however, the scope has remained very limited: there is a fairly small number of products that are sold on the EEC market, such as rum and certain oil products. Secondly, we receive development aid from the EEC and this has certainly made a big contribution to the development of our islands. In a number of areas substantial needs have been met; for instance there have been a number of major transport infrastructure projects, such as roads and airports, and also training schemes involving schools, vocational colleges, etc. All this has made a very positive



RVD-NA

Thanks to the Queen Juliana Bridge across St Anna Bay, ships can dock without loss of time in the sheltered Schottegat

and very welcome contribution. The fifth EDF, which is now being negotiated, will be of considerable importance to us, particularly in the field of tourism, for the opportunities which have now been created in that sphere mean a great deal to us.

Getting to know the Caribbean neighbours

► *Do you have any specific ideas on regional cooperation—which has so far been very low-key—both with neighbouring ACP states and with other OCT?*

— Certainly there are possibilities in a number of fields. In the educational sphere, for example, contacts and cooperation have been encouraged: we have a fairly young university which is a member of the Association of Caribbean Universities, and there is a certain amount of exchanging of senior teaching staff. Hence there is cooperation in a number of functional areas. Generally speaking, the islands and countries in the region are engaged in a process of getting to know one another better and of exploring the opportunities for joint and cooperative action. This will take time. There is increasing contact between the Netherlands Antilles and both the Spanish-speaking and the English-speaking parts of the region. So though this is an area in which progress is slow, as even those of us in the region do not know one another so well, that situation is changing. Various activities have, however, been developed by international organizations, particularly the specialized agencies of the United

Nations and the World Bank, at which we meet one another and as a result get to know one another better, for instance in the Caribbean Development Group.

► *Do you think that the Netherlands Antilles has so far—perhaps for too long—been regarded as a kind of outsider, both because of its political structure and the difference in language?*

— It is true that we have great difficulty in explaining our constitution to the uninitiated. This is a very awkward exercise as we are exactly halfway between complete independence and full colonial status. This creates problems for us. I must say, however, that on the basis of my own experience we are completely welcome in the region and are not regarded as not being part of the Caribbean area. We are accepted both by the Spanish-speaking and the English- and French-speaking islands in the region.

“We must not rely so much on others developing our islands”

► *Are you optimistic about the islands' economic, social and cultural future?*

— I believe that this region will have to push for a greater say in, and more power and influence over, its own economy. As you know our economies were initially built up to serve the “metropolitan states”; therefore if you analyse these economies there is very little basis for consolidating them as they are

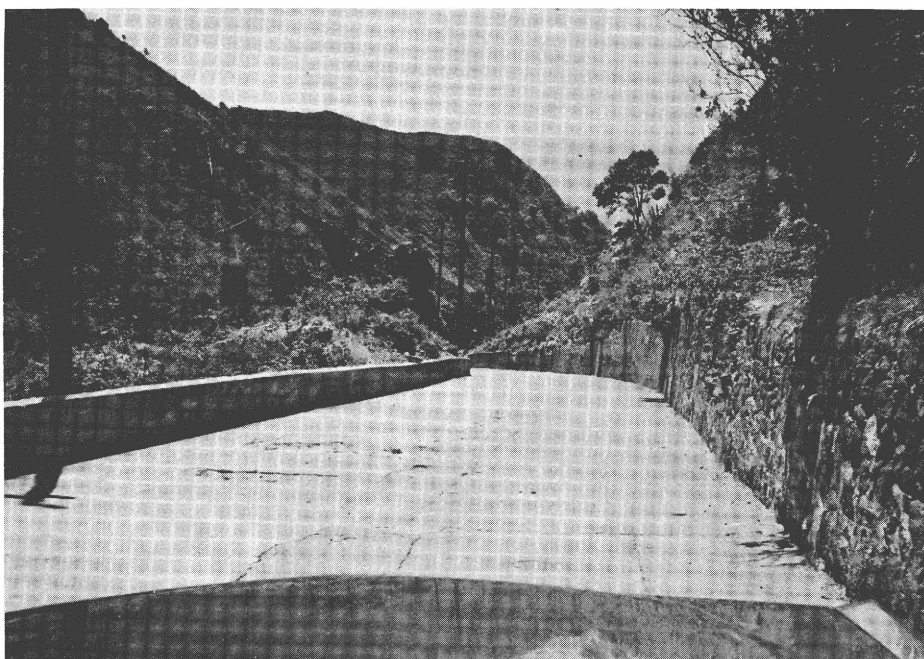


A beach view of St Eustatius (in the distance, Saba). From 20 000 inhabitant in the 17th-18th centuries, population today has dropped to less than 1 500

geared to providing for and satisfying American or European needs. The different sectors of the economies are therefore frequently too separate from one another. Furthermore, there are possibilities which have not been properly exploited, given that the end result was not directly intended to meet local requirements but was a function of someone else's needs; and it is also true that the decision-making power frequently was not wielded locally but abroad. Thus we have a dependent economy and our efforts must be directed towards reducing the degree of dependence where possible. It is a very difficult exercise—we are well aware of this—but our efforts must be directed towards this end. I am very optimistic, not pessimistic, and I believe that the Caribbean region must play a major role in world affairs. The region is increasing in importance; it is very important as a source of energy supplies, for Venezuela, Columbia and Mexico have big reserves of crude oil; there are also products such as bauxite, much of which comes from this region; in terms of its location and as a link between continents the Caribbean region is in a key position.

I believe therefore that we have our own role to play in world affairs. Only we must train our people and give them know-how and experience so that we can take the right decisions at the right time in order to promote growth in our economies. We must discover the opportunities ourselves and not rely so much on others developing our islands. I believe that we must be much more aggressive than we have been in the past in seeking to discover our own potential and in taking the initiative ourselves. ○

Interview by R.D.B.



Saba attracts a great deal of rain and has eight different types of vegetation varying according to the altitude

The Netherlands Antilles and the EEC

The Netherlands Antilles has been associated with the EEC since 1964, in accordance with the convention amending the Treaty of Rome and the successive association decisions of 1964, 1970 and 1975, and has therefore had aid from first four EDFs.

It received 13 384 000 u.a. under the first EDF, most of which was channelled into infrastructure:

- schools and equipment for them, primarily in Aruba and Curaçao, accounting for more than 30% of the total;
- ports, in Curaçao and St Eustatius, accounting for 25%;
- the airport at Aruba, with 25%;
- infrastructure for low-cost housing on Curaçao, with more than 10%;
- roads in Bonaire, with almost 6%.

Emphasis during the second fund was again on infrastructure, but this time nearly 4% of the total 17 872 000 u.a. which the country was allocated went on studies of various sorts and on study grants for trainees. 44% went on improvements to port facilities at Willemstad, Bonaire and St Eustatius, 22% on the Curaçao road network, 12.5% on the new market in Curaçao, 11% on a seawater distillery at St Maarten and 6% on a control tower and a platform at Curaçao airport.

Infrastructure got a smaller, but still predominant share of the third EDF allocation, taking almost 92% of the 16 740 000 u.a. total. Attention was concentrated on airport infrastructure this time, 68% of the money going to the Curaçao and Bonaire airfields. The first project was to build tracks and extend parking facilities and the second to lengthen the runway so that large aircraft could be catered for. The other aid went on building schools (in particular a technical middle school in Aruba) and on ports and roads. More than 8% went on training, technical assistance in general and a variety of studies.

The 4th EDF indicative programme, for an agreed amount of 19 100 000 EUA, is now being implemented and is much more varied than previous programmes. Training, general technical

assistance and studies get 19% of the total and 4% goes to trade promotion and tourism. Infrastructure only accounts for three-quarters of the amount and three projects are to be financed—a hotel training school in Aruba, improvements to the St Maarten airport and the reconstruction of the slaughterhouse at Curaçao.

So the total sum this country has received under the four first EDFs is something like 67 million EUA, which does not include administrative or financial costs. Overall, 91% has gone on infrastructure, almost 8% on general technical assistance, training and studies and 1% on trade promotion.

It is worth noting that local firms have been responsible for much of the infrastructure work.

The geography of the Netherlands Antilles, with its two groups of three islands 900 km apart, poses considerable problems, particularly when it comes to a proper communications infrastructure. Four international air-

ports may seem a lot for 360 000 inhabitants, but look at the structure of the country's economy—there are no natural resources, agriculture is rudimentary and the economy is largely dependent on the services sector, particularly the tourist trade.

The prosperity of this very sensitive sector depends on external factors (the standard of living of the tourists and the cost of air fares and of fuel in particular) over which the beneficiaries have no control. And there are internal factors too, particularly having a modern and attractive reception infrastructure.

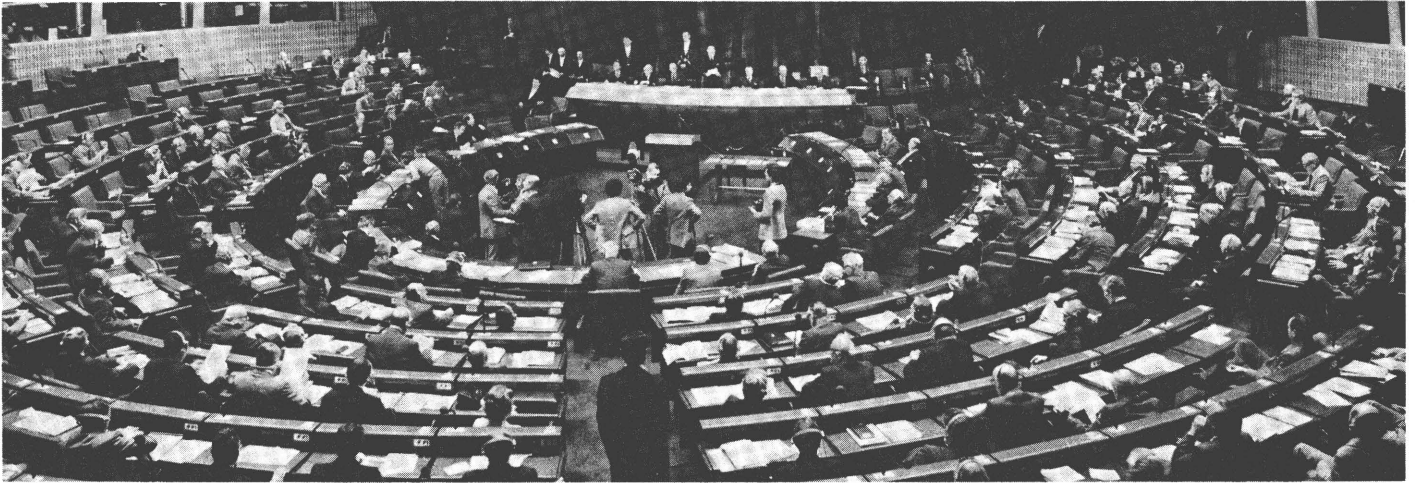
So it is hardly surprising that, when the 5th EDF indicative programme was drawn up, the government stated its intention of continuing its drive to improve the infrastructure that is so vital to the country's development and to channel three-quarters of the aid (20 million EUA) into the tourist sector, particularly the ports and airports, so as to attract an increasing number of visitors and thereby improve the general economic situation and the wellbeing of the people who live on the different islands. ○

Joseph DE MAN(*)

(*) EEC Commission delegate in the Netherlands Antilles.



The majority of EDF projects in the Netherlands Antilles have been channelled into infrastructure; here an access road to the Queen Juliana Bridge in Willemstad, the capital



Women in the European Parliament

In this *Courier* series on the women elected to the European Parliament last year, five political groups have already been covered. The series now ends on the Liberal and Democratic Group, the Group for the Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members, and the Non-attached members.

As before, the interviews are based on three sets of questions: on the European Parliament, on women's status and rights and on the particular interests of the Euro-MPs concerned. For Colette Flesch, the latter includes Third World issues; for Simone Martin, the regional and common agricultural policies; for Emma Bonino, energy; and for Antoinette Spaak, the environment, health and consumer protection.

VI. The Liberal and Democratic Group



Colette Flesch

There are seven women among the 40 members, representing nearly all the nine EEC countries, of the Liberal and Democratic Group.

Group vice-chairman Colette Flesch is a quaestor of the Parliament, a member of the ACP-EEC joint committee and Consultative Assembly, a former chairman of the Parliament's development cooperation committee and a Luxembourg MP, besides being mayor of Luxembourg.

Simone Martin sits on the regional policy committee and the mixed EEC-Japan parliamentary committee. She farms in France and was a former agricultural union leader, and naturally follows all common agricultural policy questions with close attention. ○



Simone Martin

Colette Flesch

“The new parliament is much more lively and interesting than the old one”

I — The European Parliament

► *You are a quaestor of this parliament and it was you who polled the most votes in the election for the job. What exactly does a quaestor do?*

— That's a good question. France, Italy and Belgium have quaestors but the parliaments of the other member states of the Community don't. What does a quaestor do? Well, I think you can sum up the job in a fairly humorous way by saying that he looks after the moral and material wellbeing of his colleagues. Any questions that are to do with the MPs rather than the administration are within their province. This may mean dealing with facilities in the meeting rooms, with the car parks or with specific problems between MPs and the administration. There are five quaestors at the moment and what has struck me particularly is that they all come from countries which don't have them.

There are two from Ireland, one from the UK, one from Germany and me from Luxembourg. So we are all new to the job.

► *But with your work and your experience—you sat in the old European Parliament, after all—you know all about parliament from the inside. The new Parliament had a fair number of problems with procedure at the beginning and rules of procedure designed for 200 MPs obviously weren't going to be right for 410. Have these difficulties been overcome now or are they in the process of being overcome?*

— To my mind, it was only to be expected that we would have these problems at the beginning. Just as it was to be expected that the Parliament had to find its own way of doing things—which also made for procedural problems. I think we have gone a long way since then. We have overcome a number of problems and the procedure committee is working on a new version

of the rules now, which should help us cope with the rest of the problems.

► *And what about the questions of substance that the Parliament has dealt with? How do you see the overall situation after a year?*

— To my mind, the new parliament is much more lively and interesting than the old one, for a number of reasons. First, election by direct universal suffrage certainly did something for parliament's prestige and it drew a lot more attention to its work and its debates. And it gave the members more confidence. They felt more representative and so they made their presence felt much more strongly than MPs in the previous parliament did.

We also thought that the fact that big political leaders like Willy Brandt, Michel Debré, Jacques Chirac and Georges Marchais, to name people from all parties, would give a boost to whatever parliament did. I think they helped, but to my mind what has strengthened parliament's role and action is the fact that most of the 410 MPs have or are about to have a single mandate, as this means they have much more time to devote to Europe. They can devote more time, often exclusively, to their work in parliament.

And the vast majority of the new MPs are au fait with European problems either because they were MPs before or because, in lots of cases, they are from the socio-professional milieu and already involved in many of the questions affecting the Community. So I think that all this has made the new-look, directly-elected European Parliament more important. It has put it in a better light as far as public opinion is concerned—something that has been helped by the attention the press has focussed on it since the elections last June.

► *True. Never has so much been heard about the European Parliament. So your overall view of the situation is more or less positive, bearing in mind*



Colette Flesch

that the Parliament has had its teething troubles over the first year?

— Yes, we have had our teething troubles and everyone has had to cope with them in his or her own way. The political groups were newly formed and they too had to define their faith. What I mean is, what we have here is a genuinely new institution which has had to find out which way it is going. Certain things have been established fairly quickly and are now ticking over nicely. Improvements could still be made, of course. There are still things we should be sorting out, but overall, my opinion is favourable, yes.

“I am less so negative about dual mandates than some of my colleagues are”

► *I should like to ask you about something you touched on just now. Dual mandates. I don't mean combining a European mandate with a local one. What I am talking about is combining a European mandate with a national one. What do you think?*

— There is a lot to say on this one. Personally, I don't think you can ban dual mandates out of hand. At this stage of integration, I think it is important to have people in parliament who are closely involved in the national scene. But I do also think that we will very soon get to a situation, no doubt by the next elections, where MPs will have to spend so much time on the European Parliament that they have no time for anything else. It's getting more difficult

all the time from a purely physical and material point of view, from the point of view of travel and work organization. In Luxembourg we are in a rather exceptional situation.

As you know, five of our six-member Luxembourg delegation have dual mandates. But we are in an exceptional situation because we live halfway between Strasbourg and Brussels—which, together with Luxembourg, are where parliament's work is done. So we can easily get to any of the centres, leave in the morning and get home at night, which means that we can cope with dual mandates perhaps a bit more easily than others can. But, obviously, for people from further afield, travelling time is a real problem.

► *We shall be coming back to this in a minute. Obviously there is a problem with the work load. But there is maybe an advantage to the dual mandate in that it provides a link between the national parliament and the European one and encourages intellectual contact between the two.*

— That's what I meant when I said that, as integration is at the moment, before the Community takes all the decisions, it is important to have this continual backwards and forwards, this sort of link with the national parliaments, as we can easily put pressure on our ministers in one way or another and get an effect at Community level. And anyway, that is the way it always worked in the past and that's why I am less negative about the dual mandates than some of my colleagues are.

The problem of the seat of parliament

► *That is true. The press in our various countries has often said the same thing. Time, energy, money and efficiency are all lost in these trips between Brussels, Luxembourg and Strasbourg. Luxembourg is obviously very concerned about the problem of the seat. What do you think—do you mind talking about it?*

— No, obviously I don't. Clearly there is a problem here, but I don't think we should overdramatize. First, wherever parliament works, the vast majority of the MPs will have to travel to get there. That's inevitable in a multinational parliament like ours. But on the other hand there is an obvious problem with the staff of the secretariat. And here I would like to remind you of the 1965 solution, officialized in the 1965 agreements, which were not entered into lightly. They were the result of lengthy negotiations which led to the merger treaty and the annexes, one of which was the

decision on the location of the Community institutions. Why did they opt for three centres at that stage? For the simple reason that Strasbourg, Luxembourg and Brussels had a number of arguments in their favour and the governments weren't willing to give in. But the financial aspect of things was also taken into account and if they put the secretariat of the European Parliament in Luxembourg at that stage it was precisely because Luxembourg is halfway between Brussels, where the parliamentary committees meet, and Strasbourg, where most of the plenary sessions are. So the decision was taken in the light of financial arguments too.

Later on, the majority of the sessions came to be held in Strasbourg but some of them, a varying number each year, are in fact held in Luxembourg. So Luxembourg has made major investments in infrastructure for the European institutions in the capital, most recently the hemicycle for the European Parliament, custom-built, a building that can house the new Greek members with no problems or difficulties.

"We would be shocked if our neighbours, the big countries, forgot what had happened"

So we in Luxembourg feel that, obviously, it would be wrong to neglect history and things that happened in the past. Strasbourg, Brussels and Luxembourg have all shown they have a European vocation and that they are ready and willing to take whatever measures are needed to make the working conditions as good as possible. And we would remind you that, in 1952, when the High Authority of the European Coal and Steel Community was set up and no one had any real idea of what this new institution was going to turn out to be, no one except Luxembourg was willing to house it. Over the years we have built up the infrastructure, so we hope that this will not be forgotten. For a country as small as ours it was an extremely important thing. We have given proof of our European convictions and we would be shocked, I mean really shocked, if our neighbours, big countries all of them, just forgot what happened in the past, and turned against the smallest country of the Community.

That is why we are fighting so hard—without wishing to offend Mr Pflimlin, without wishing to rob him of what he has already obtained, no one in Luxembourg wants to throw any doubt at all on Strasbourg's European vocation. It is after all the symbol of Franco-German reconciliation. We don't want to rob Brussels of anything either. That city too has made an enormous effort to

welcome the European Communities, but we think that the same kind of reasoning should be applied to Luxembourg.

II — Women's status

► *You have put your case very clearly. Now can we move onto women's status? You have been an MP and mayor of Luxembourg for many years now. You have also been chairman of a committee of the European Parliament and you are the living image of a young, active woman with a long career before her. What I should like to ask you is, have you in your career come up against particular difficulties because of being a woman? Or has being a woman helped you with the voters or been of use in meeting the vast range of people you have had occasion to come into contact with?*

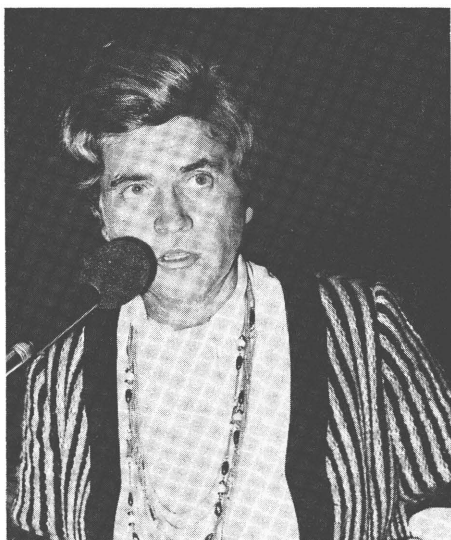
— My feeling on the matter is that there have been no particular problems. I don't know whether it has been particularly useful to be a woman because in Luxembourg the ballot papers don't make it clear whether you are a woman or not, so we don't know exactly how people vote. I personally have the impression that, in 1968, when I stood in the legislative elections for the first time, women were very much in the picture over a whole series of decisions and many women voted for women. But that's only a feeling. There is no statistical proof.

I told you just now that I didn't feel I had met any special difficulties. At the beginning, I think, when you take on a job in politics, you have to work harder if you are a woman because you are watched more closely. I don't look upon that as a real problem, but I can assure you that in the beginning, when I first became mayor of Luxembourg, I spent hours and hours poring over the files because I didn't want to be caught out and hear people say: "well, yes. She's a woman." But once you have shown what you can do, once you have shown that you are willing to do a good day's work, my personal feeling is that there are no special problems.

► *So, bearing in mind that a career like yours is somewhat unusual, being a woman was a stimulant at the outset?*

— I think it was.

► *I suppose that Luxembourg is like the other member states and men and women have the same rights. Yet, even in our countries, there is a practical difference between men and women, in the choice of careers and the way*



"At the beginning, I think, when you take on a job in politics, you have to work harder if you are a woman because you are watched more closely"

those careers develop. What do you think could be done to overcome this state of affairs?

— This is a genuine and very difficult problem. The first thing to do, I think, is to revise the laws to do away with any discrimination. There can't be much of this in the labour laws but there could be elsewhere in the legislation. It was only in 1972, for example, that we reformed our system of marital rights and duties where the Code Napoléon was still used. That was flagrant discrimination.

The second problem is a much more difficult one. You mentioned it in your question. The practical discrimination involved in access to jobs and, more particularly, in the ways careers develop. Some lower-grade jobs always go to women, in spite of the fact that the regulations do not lay down that they should, without any obvious official discrimination. Let me give you an example that cropped up in a survey Evelyne Sullerot did for the Commission once. In the hairdressing profession, the person who gets the lowest pay is the one who does the shampoo—and the only people who do shampoo are women. This is real discrimination. And there is something else that bothers me. As women are getting a better deal, people seem to be getting less bothered about progress with women's right.

What I conclude is that the first thing we have to do is to try and change people's outlook. That will take time. It has to be done slowly but surely, according to the means, the opportunities and the temperament of the individual. Some people have joined the women's liberation movement and are much more violent about it than I am, because I chose to go about it differently, through politi-

cal action more. But I think that there is room for all kinds of approaches and I should not like to condemn any of them, even though I myself have opted for something different from my colleagues.

"There is reticence and a fear of going to court"

► *Don't you think that women in our countries are short of information and if they are subject to any discrimination and right is on their side they still hesitate to take their case to the courts, perhaps because they are shy and perhaps also because they don't have enough information about it.*

— I don't know if it's just a lack of information. Obviously this is one thing, but there is reticence and a fear of going to court as well. Lots of people know they have to take their cases to court. But many others, often, have an instinctive fear of it. And then of course there is the financial problem. Going to court costs money. But I think shyness is a bigger problem among women with no professional experience than others.

► *The UN ran an international conference in Copenhagen in July 1980, further to a previous meeting in Mexico. Unfortunately, it very quickly became a political discussion and I don't feel that much practical good came of it as far as women are concerned. Except perhaps that it is going to make the transition with the problems of the Third World easier, although maybe not for the women of the Third World who have a very hard time in countries where the law is not all it is in Europe.*

— Yes. There is obviously a problem here. But to my mind, it would be wrong to think that the discrimination that really exists in the Third World is necessarily that much stronger than the discrimination we have here in Europe. Take Africa, for example, both French- and English-speaking parts. Take the role women play in trade there. They often constitute the real infrastructure in whole areas of business. So I think it is wrong to overdramatize, to stick to hidebound ways of thinking and a somewhat traditional outlook. Lots of Third World women are every bit as evolved as their European counterparts. Lots of them have posts of responsibility.

But there is a problem, a real one, because day-to-day life in the Third World is often very much more difficult than it is here... There are certainly many changes to be made to the law. And the situation varies considerably from one country to the next. Some of the countries have very sophisticated laws and others have the sort of prob-

lems we sometimes talk about here in the European Parliament, quite dramatic problems.

III — The Community and the Third World

► *Can we go on to the problems of the Third World, with which you are so familiar? You were chairman of the development and cooperation committee for a good long time and you are still a member of the ACP-EEC Joint Committee and Consultative Assembly. Do you think the European MPs are sufficiently aware of the need for interdependence between the developed and the developing world? And do you think public opinion understands the situation?*

— Generally speaking, I think the European MPs are very well aware of what the problems are and they are willing to do everything they can and act as links, if I may say so, to get public opinion moving. There is an information problem as far as public opinion is concerned, I think. I don't really know how we can get over this one. We try. There are many private associations working hard at it. The Commission is doing its best and I think the European Parliament is too, and so are the individual MPs. But it is sometimes very difficult to get this idea of solidarity across.

Interdependence between the industrialized countries and the Third World

As you know, the notion of solidarity was unknown in our countries at national level for a very long time. Some people thought it was reasonable to be well-off while other people were dying of starvation. It took a long time to get rid of this and it took a series of instruments, social security for example, to do it. What we must do is reach the stage where the general public sees international solidarity in the same terms as national solidarity. We don't leave people to die of hunger in our countries and we should have exactly the same reaction to people in the Third World, exactly the same idea about solidarity right across the world. There is a problem of information here, too, as many Europeans just don't realize how interdependent the industrialized countries and the Third World are. It isn't one of our obligations to the Third World. It is an absolute necessity and that is what we have to get across.

► *We import 75% of our raw materials.*

— Yes we do and that is what we should be telling them. During the election campaign last year, I sometimes came under fire from certain members of the electorate who knew I was involved with Third World questions. It was in an area where the textile industry was having a bad time and people asked me how I could be worrying about the Third World when they had problems right there. So I took the example of the textile trade and tried to show them the various economic mechanisms involved. I tried to explain that it was in our interest to help the Third World. But it's a difficult message to get across. Charity begins at home, they always say.

EEC-ACP cooperation "rather exemplary"

► *What is your overall assessment of cooperation between the Community and the ACP states under the Lomé Convention?*

— I think I have to say, even if it is a bit of a cliché, that the kind of cooperation that has developed between the ACP countries and the Community is rather exemplary. It is the kind of cooperation which, in reality, is based on mutual confidence and this is precisely where the role of parliament is so important. These relations we have with parliamentary and other representatives from the associated states do create a climate in which we can raise and discuss problems without reservation. We Europeans can even tell our ACP friends sometimes that we can't do such and such a thing because we have such and such a problem to cope with at home. And they can do the same to us. The MPs have always done a lot to mobilize the good will of the Member States and get them to take extra little steps in the ACP direction. My favourite example of this is the Stabex. We are proud of this. The idea originally came from Mr Armangault, an MP, who was forever talking about the problem, which he found extremely important, at a time when the concept was not yet understood. We know that the Stabex is one of the things that really worked well in the Lomé Convention. We have gone further in the new Convention because now we have the Sysmin as well, which is based on the same principles. So this really is an example of one MP's idea being translated into reality. Of course I don't wish to minimize the Commission's role here, particularly the work of Claude Cheysson, who took the idea up and fought valiantly and bravely, to get it put into

effect. But the fact is that this sort of contact at parliamentary level is extremely important and useful.

► *Don't you think that the difficulties being encountered in other organizations—I'm thinking of UNCTAD and UNIDO and the recent North-South Dialogue here—also point to the very practical nature of the Lomé Conventions, even though there are limits to what they can do?*

— There are limits to what they can do, obviously. That is one of the problems. Obviously we can't do everything. But to my mind the practical aspect is very important and it does lead to a whole series of achievements. We just mentioned the Stabex for example and then there are microprojects. This seems to me to be a very important aspect of the Lomé Convention.

And I should like to add something about Luxembourg, if I may. For a little country like ours, which is not in a position to go in for major projects to aid the Third World, this kind of multilateral cooperation is extremely important as it enables us to do our bit in the joint effort. And it also enables us to benefit from the reciprocal advantages the Convention provides for the countries of Europe that we would never get otherwise because of our traditions, our absence of any privileged links with any of the countries of the Third World.

Getting public opinion moving

► *The European Parliament debated world hunger recently. Do you think this debate, which really did cover some very important things, will have any positive effect?*

— I hope it does. I think the debate on hunger was very carefully prepared by the various parliamentary committees and an enormous amount of good will was generated. One of the crucial problems of our societies of abundance is to find answers for the problems facing the Third World. But it is clear that what we do in the European Parliament will not be translated into hard fact immediately. We aren't the executives. We are not the organizers. What we can do is get public opinion moving in our countries and I think the recent debate should certainly do that.

What we have to see now is what the effects are. But the first reactions in the press were, I think, very positive and it is my belief that this should encourage the governments to commit themselves to the courses of action proposed in the resolution parliament adopted. So it is difficult to have a very precise idea of what the ultimate effect of the debate will be, but I think the very fact that it happened, that it was so carefully prepared and that it has already been publicized augurs well for the future. ○

Interview by
ALAIN LACROIX



Visit to the Litchfield polyclinic (Barbados), financed by the EDF: (l. to r.) Giovanni Bersani, Pierre Lagorce, John Corrie and Colette Flesch of the European Parliament are welcomed by health minister «Billie» Miller and Alwyn Howell, permanent secretary at the Ministry of Health

Simone Martin

“The big problem with the British is not knowing whether they still want to stay in the Community”

I — The European Parliament

► *You had never been an MP before the June elections last year.*

— No, I hadn't.

► *What struck you most when you arrived at the European Parliament?*

— That's a fairly difficult question. Compared to the national parliament I had already watched from the gallery, the European Parliament seemed very much bigger and much more of a mixture, in that I felt strongly the difference when there is more than one nationality involved. You could feel the difference in the traditions and in the ways things are done, which is why it is difficult to get the measure of a problem. And that there were different approaches to problems.

Apart from that, what struck, and indeed shocked, me most when I first arrived—and I came from a socio-professional background—was the way people looked at agriculture in general and the way they went about tackling agricultural problems. I really sensed a rift between agriculture and the other sectors. I don't know if people from other socio-professional backgrounds got similar impressions but, in any case, for me it was a shock.

► *What is your overall assessment of the debates now that the Parliament has been working for a year?*

— I do think that, compared to what is written in the press, things have been fairly positive, particularly if you remember that we have MPs of nine different nationalities, all from different political backgrounds and with different ideas about society. I think the Parliament has actually provided a certain number of answers, set the pattern for Europe as a whole, which is perhaps much more obvious outside Europe than inside.

Certain national positions have become clearer

► *Don't you think that national political struggles have permeated some of the debates?*

— Yes, I do. It was extremely obvious in one or two cases, on the budget and agricultural prices for example. Certain national positions have become clearer. The British in particular are perhaps even more nationalistic than the rest of them and it's a pity. And the French are nearly as bad.

► *Do you think it's a good idea to have national and European mandates or do you think that the work of a European MP is already sufficiently time-consuming and dual mandates should be ruled out?*

— I think each individual should be restricted to a certain extent, but I think it would be wrong to remove any contact with the grass roots and rule out local responsibility.

However, I also think that, in the end, it was a good thing that some of the old MPs were elected to the new Parliament to provide a link between old and new. But it seems clear that, generally speaking, MPs with jobs to do in their own national parliaments tend to find it difficult to keep up with everything the European Parliament does. So I think that everyone has to make up his or her own mind and, personally, I am not keen on dual mandates.

► *One argument that has been put forward in favour of dual mandates is that they maintain relations with the national parliaments. What do you think? Aren't there any other ways of organizing contact?*

— I don't want to make a snap judgement, but I do think that if some of the MPs had just a national mandate and a European one, they might be able to ensure that this contact was maintained and that would be a good



Simone Martin

thing. But in fact what happens is that people with national mandates also have regional or local responsibilities and they are completely unable to cope as a result.

I think we have to find a way of keeping contact with the national parliaments and links between the various ministers. There is nothing like it at present and my personal view—and here I echo many of my colleagues—is that it is a pity. In some debates in fact, and with certain problems, we need to have greater contact with the national authorities.

► *I believe you are a member of the European Parliament-Japan delegation. What is the situation here at the moment?*

— So far we have only had one meeting with the Japanese, when we tried to discuss imports and exports. Japan exports a lot of things to the Community and our trade deficit with them is far too large. This was mainly what we talked about.

II — Women's status

Women believe in Europe more than men do

► *You are a member of the committee on women's rights chaired by Yvette Roudy. What do you think it has achieved so far?*

— You must wait until it has finished its work and then see. But I was very

pleased to see a committee of this sort formed as I do think that, in the final analysis, women believe in Europe more than men do. They proved it at the elections. Many more women came out to vote. They are maybe more worried about peace and international understanding than men.

► *They are less inclined to violence, you think?*

— They are less inclined to violence because they bear children and they are more worried about the future. I think they, more than men want an assured future. Personally, I know I was very concerned that the committee should not just deal with the problems of working women. Not that I'm not interested in this aspect of things, I am of course, but there is already a directive about working women. What I wanted to do most of all was to make sure we didn't forget the other women, those who have always been forgotten so far. I very much want to see women get on in small and medium-sized firms, be they craft concerns, businesses or farms. All women's problems are similar.

► *Don't you think women can be criticized for not being willing to go to court when they are discriminated against and for not showing that they have right on their side?*

— It is true to say that women, particularly when they have to fight individual battles, lack not only courage but also the time and the drive to see them through. It's their upbringing that makes them act like that.

► *Don't they always get enough information?*

— Yes, that is part of the problem. I was talking to some women about this only yesterday. Take the exhibition on apartheid in the parliament building in Strasbourg at the moment. The women are more or less at the same level as their husbands. They fight the same way and often, I should stress, with more violence. And then when things return to normal, they return to normal too—under their husband's thumb.

► *Do you think that the UN convention against all forms of discrimination is a useful step forward as far as principles are concerned?*

— Anything that helps improve the situation is useful. But what does stand out is that everything changes very slowly, even in our countries. Look at what my husband and I are trying to do with our children. I've got two boys and a girl and we have always tried to treat them in exactly the same way. They

each have to do a week's housework, for example, and do various jobs they can cope with at their particular age, but we make no distinction between the girl and the two boys. And with jobs on the farm—there they don't do a week, just a day—it's the same thing. My daughter gets a tractor day and each of my sons gets a tractor day. My daughter has a milking day and so do my sons. There is no difference.

"I don't want to do the sweeping—I'm a boy, don't forget it"

But there are outside influences, the school, their friends and so on and I still find my daughter saying things like: "You won't get me doing the housework regularly just because I'm a girl", and my son saying: "I don't want to do the sweeping — I'm a boy, don't forget it". Outside influence is so strong that it almost outweighs the influence of the family.

► *I think you are bringing your children up very well. Your methods reflect the trends in our countries at the moment when both husbands and wives are working.*

— The problems are different in the country. But I've got a lot of friends who live in towns, I was born in one myself, and I have noticed that young couples in towns are far more equal than couples living in the country. A husband will change the baby's nappy or clear away and wash up and no one thinks anything of it. It's not like that in the country. My first two children were only a year apart—that's very close—and what with the farm and the housework there was a lot to do and my husband often gave me a hand with changing the children, for example. He didn't like it much, but he does plenty of other things, like bottle-feeding. There was one particular neighbour, I remember, who came round one day and was really shocked, outraged almost, to see a man bottle-feeding. He thought it was really lowering for him and he couldn't help saying "look at you man, giving a baby a bottle!".

► *Traditions are powerful. It's only changing slowly.*

— Very slowly and, in the country, even more slowly still.

III — Regional policy and agriculture

► *You are also a member of the regional policy committee, I think. What*



"I very much want to see women get on in small and medium-sized firms"

are the main things it has dealt with over the past year and what results has it had?

— Things aren't going as fast as we hoped they might. Regional policy in Europe is a policy of fair returns and it's a pity that, except for 5% of the ERDF, we seem incapable of getting a real regional European policy going. Each country takes out what it puts into the kitty but it does what it likes, to a certain extent. This, to my mind, is something we absolutely have to alter. We have to have a proper regional policy for Europe.

The biggest gap in the whole of the Community's economic policy is the increasing disparity between the regions and between the socio-professional categories. One way of correcting this is to have a sound regional development policy that will give more help to the poor regions and some underprivileged sectors. And I also think we have to combine regional policy, social policy and a certain amount of aid for economic activity.

More than 5% of the ERDF

► *It is the poorest parts of the Community that have received aid under regional policy; southern Italy, for example, and the Lozère area of France. Are you saying that you expect the Commission to do more in this respect to make more suggestions and produce a stronger, more clear-cut policy?*

— It is not the Commission or Parliament I am concerned with. I think it is the governments, the Council in fact, which have to agree that we have to have more than 5% of the ERDF for the policy. Generalization is called for and the whole of the fund must be used for it.

► *When you say 5% of the ERDF, what do you mean?*

— 5% of the fund is earmarked for regional policy as defined by the Community itself.

► *What happens to the rest?*

— The other 95% goes back to the various countries according to their scale of contributions. What we call fair returns. So only 5% can really be used to implement a proper European policy. The other 95% changes the structures, true, but each country has its own criteria and defines its own areas. That's not a proper European policy. Often, in fact, the money replaces national funds and in some countries people don't realize it actually comes from Europe.

And then we have a social policy that is by no means always coordinated with our regional policy, and an economic policy that has nothing to do with it at all. What we need is a bit more cohesion.

► *You run a large agricultural undertaking in France and you are an agricultural union leader, I think.*

— I used to be.

► *Not so long ago! How do you see the common agricultural policy from your own region's point of view. How is it viewed there?*

— In a very bad light at the moment, I afraid. Very bad. My region is one where we raise cattle and produce dairy products, in the main. Our farmers are very worried at the moment because, in many cases, these regions have very little other potential when it comes to changing activity. So far, incomes have only gone up because productivity has improved. The situation has deteriorated since 1974 because of the energy crisis and for other reasons that are less clear-cut but which have certainly pushed up the cost of intermediate consumption in agriculture faster than incomes. Take a close look at agricultural production prices and you will see that they have dropped by 0.6% p.a. since 1960. If people can no longer improve on productivity, they aren't going to be able to make ends meet, obviously.

► *So your region has a problem when it comes to switching over to anything else on a big scale?*

— That's right. Yet compared to European and national structures, we, where I come from, have something like 50 ha on average, so our structures are good, certainly compared to those in the rest of France, although the land is not very good.

I live next to two départements, the Marne and the Aube, which are very near the Paris basin, and their average harvest of cereals of all kinds is 60 quintals. We only manage 40. And our costs are higher because we have a lot of difficult land and we use up more equipment, particularly tractor tyres. It's a fantastic difference. We also wear out and break more equipment, harrows and ploughs and things. There is a 20 quintal difference in yield per ha. Its fantastic!

"The common agricultural policy has done a lot for all the EEC countries"

► *That shows how sensitive your region is to the common agricultural policy. But, taking a more general view, what do you think of the common agricultural policy, the Community's only really structured policy?*

— My personal feeling is that the common agricultural policy has done a lot for all the EEC countries particularly for their farmers, but for the consumers as well—who tend to forget about it. The aim of the policy was to achieve self-sufficiency in the post-war years when a lot had to be imported and you couldn't get what you wanted. The main aim was self-sufficiency.

It has been a fantastic success for everyone. For the member states' food policies and for the consumer, who certainly benefited, as he now has a reliable supply of food at fairly reasonable prices. Food prices have always kept below the increase in the cost of living. The farmers have benefited too because they have had the support of the national policies which have enabled them to invest, to improve their productivity and, therefore, to raise their incomes. However, over the last few years, there have been changes in the situation. We are beginning to get surpluses and this poses a certain number of problems about reorienting certain products and defining a clear European policy, which we don't have at the moment.

There are two conflicting ideas here represented by those who want to retain the system, to operate a freeze by establishing quotas for each country, region, sector of production and so on, and those who maintain that we are not alone in the world. You have to look a bit further than Europe. Look at world hunger, which the European Parliament debated recently. Are we in the countries that are still rich and privileged, whatever people say, entitled to impose deliberate restrictions on our production when one third of the population of the

world is dying of hunger and another third lives in poverty? And even leaving aside the problem of hunger in the world today, there are the international markets. Can we really keep out of them? Can we really fail to develop our export policy when we in Europe import so much in other areas? Everyone knows about oil but there are a number of other raw materials that are essential to our industrial production. I personally am convinced that we neither can nor should do otherwise than export. You mustn't forget that if the policy we ultimately want to pursue also discourages the agricultural producers, we shall very soon go from overproduction to shortages. These surpluses we hear so much about are very small percentages, even in the dairy industry.

► *For public opinion in Europe, which sees the common agricultural policy as a major achievement that is very detailed technically, there are two things to bear in mind. First, they have the impression that those who have benefited from the common agricultural policy have done so on a very unequal basis. These are the disparities you mentioned just now.*

— Obviously they do exist and they have got to be ironed out.

► *Then a lot of people worry about the surpluses they read about in the press. Milk and butter are particular examples. You come from a region that specializes in dairy farming. What do you think?*

— There's no miracle answer. In fact we have to look for a whole range of answers. First we have to have a proper strategy for production. We have to be able to help all those who are not forced to produce milk to produce other things, because, clearly, milk is the sensitive product and this is an area where there are the fewest possibilities of outlets. If you see the problem in terms of world hunger, then there is much more of an outlet for grain. The developing countries are more in need of grain than milk. And they need it fast.

► *We send them milk powder...*

— Yes, but the Commission told us that this particular kind of milk wasn't rich enough. It was wrong. However, I do feel that we haven't done all the research we might have done. When I see all the publicity that Coca-Cola gets all over the world, in the developing countries included, then it seems clear to me that we haven't done all we can to make this milk powder acceptable there too. But I also think that we need a deliberate export policy for Europe, which we don't have at the moment. The British are particularly wanting

here. I know perfectly well that the British are always being got at, but they much prefer to import from the international markets which, they tell us, are far cheaper. True the costs are lower, but what they omit to point out is that the international market is not an organized market like the European one. What I also say is that, if Europe wasn't self-sufficient today and if it wasn't anxious to stay that way, it might well be that certain international powers might one day decide to use this as a lever to achieve their political ambitions.

► *You mean food as a weapon?*

— I think we need to import; we know very well that we have to import energy and we know that we need uranium and various other raw materials. We can't import everything just like that. We have to have something to trade. And one of the means we have, a quite unrestricted means, is our agricultural production.

► *So, as you see it, the common agricultural policy has to be maintained, although you are not against*

one or two changes, largely due to the cost?

— But it doesn't even cost 0.5% of the GDP of the whole Community.

► *But it's an enormous percentage of the whole Community budget.*

— Yes it is. But it's also a transfer of national policy. You mustn't forget that. In fact, only one policy is properly integrated. The common agricultural policy. All the others are in addition to the national policies of the various countries. We mentioned regional policy just now. That isn't a really European policy. It's a step in the right direction, of course. But with the common agricultural policy we have common prices, common frontiers and so on. We have common organizations and we have national duties that have been turned into Community duties. There has been an attempt at making aid to agriculture a uniform business in all the countries of the Community. But these things only happen in agriculture.

► *So you don't deny there are one or*

two alterations to make. But overall, the common agricultural policy as such, in your opinion should be preserved? You probably also think that the British should adapt more to Community preferences?

— Yes. I am quite clear about that. In my view they have decided to join something that existed before them and without them and did very nicely, in spite of the fact that a certain amount of correction and improvement is called for. They knew it before they joined. They applied to join and now I think it's up to them to adapt to the Community, not the Community to them. If they didn't like it, they only had to say so at the beginning or not join at all. But they joined. This doesn't mean that the Community can't take account of difficulties in the different member states. But the rules have to be obeyed. They have to tell us whether they still want to stay in. The big problem with the British is not knowing whether they still want to stay in the Community. If they want to stay, then they must play the Community game. ○

Interview by A.L.

VII. Group for the technical coordination and defence of independent groups and members

Emma Bonino

“Calling for unanimity doesn't solve the problems”

I — The European Parliament

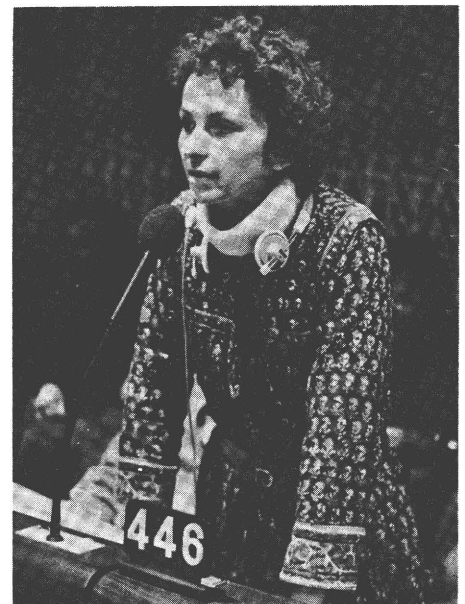
A “groupocratic” Parliament

► *You are a member of the radical party in Italy and of the Group for the Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members in the European Parliament. What is this all about?*

— The European Parliament is governed by large groups. It's a kind of “groupocratic” parliament, if you like. We, on the other hand, think the most important thing is the individual MP. When voters go to the polls, they vote for people not groups and we believe

that the MPs here tend to be crushed by groups which have become structures that absolutely overpower them, rather than providing help and developing the political potentialities of the individual members.

What we have tried to do is to group together the minorities, in spite of their holding different opinions. So we are with Danish MPs who are anti-EEC although we ourselves are absolutely pro-Community, federalist to a certain extent. The real problem is that democratic fights are battles where minorities have the right to be beaten—although they mustn't be stifled. They are at least entitled to make their proposals and to see them thrown out. So we joined with other members and our aim has always been to stand up for the rights of MPs as individuals.



Emma Bonino

► *This is a good illustration of how Harold Laski, the British Labour politician, defined democracy: government by the majority with respect for the rights of the minority.*

— That's right. But the problem is what minority rights are. Not to be let into parliament. The voters did that. The rights of the minority and the individual MP are to be able to propose their own ideas and be beaten by the majority.

► Possibly.

— Possibly, of course. But it is the individuals' right and maybe even his duty to do it.

"This is no longer the society Marx was talking about. This is 1980"

► So, in the Italian parliament and here in the European assembly you are particularly interested in defending minority interests, as you have just said, and in dealing with certain social problems.

— We in the radical party have tried to sort out the general problem of human rights, of the inalienable rights of the individual to freedom and information, something that is extremely important in a society of mass media. But we also tried to deal with marginals. The left wing has always been a working class affair. But the problem is that this is no longer the society of 1860 that Marx was talking about. This is 1980, which means that there are stacks of new problems—for women, for example.

► You came to the European Parliament a year ago, and, I believe you have been an active and even combative member. What is your overall assessment of what the Parliament has done over the past year?

— I shouldn't say I was disappointed, as I didn't have many illusions when I came. But the Parliament is in danger, I think, of not fulfilling the hopes the voters had when they elected the MPs. The Parliament still has a chance of becoming a bit more than a meeting-place or somewhere to do business. But I have to say that it has been pretty much a continuation of the old assembly over the past year. I don't have the impression that the MPs really realize they were elected to do something new. Obviously, the only common policy is the common agricultural policy. But over the past year, we haven't even tried to forge a common political will on such things as human rights, for example, or to evolve a common energy policy. We have pressed on with the only common policy we had, the agricultural policy, which is going through a crisis, as everybody knows. The European Parliament has no new powers, of course, but without that it can still have moral powers, fairly considerable prestige. We have never even tried.

► In spite of elections by universal suffrage?

— Yes. In spite of that.

"We are unanimous, all right—but about nothing"

► You are a member of the committee on rules of procedure and petitions. This means you have had to deal with the rules that were drafted for 200 members with a view to adapting them to the 410 present members. Do you think that many of the Parliament's problems have come from unsuitable rules? Or was it a lack of political will, a problem of substance?

— There can be no question of claiming that things don't work properly just because there are 410 members. There are 600 MPs in the Italian parliament and upwards of 400 in several of the others. That's not the problem. What we have here is a problem of substance and a problem of political will. What should a parliament be? It should be a place for political debates between people with radically different positions and calling for unanimity doesn't solve the problems. As I see it, everything should be clear. Someone has to win and accept the responsibility of winning and someone has to lose, but to try and win next time. It's a political fight and not a quest for unanimity at all costs.

► The Italian radicals, I think, were among those who took the initiative in the debate on world hunger that finished recently. What did you feel about the debate? How did it go and what do you think the effects are likely to be?

— I hope they will be positive. Although I can't actually see any. This takes me back to what I said just now. We voted a resolution that got the support of the whole chamber, from the communist group to the Italian fascists. It was a quest for unanimity.

And as to the 0.7% of GNP that is supposed to be going to development aid, no date has ever been fixed. The various governments were to be asked to work out a timetable for it. Germany's plans, bearing in mind the position it adopted during the recent debate in New York, are for the year 3125. So we are unanimous, all right—but about nothing. My feeling is that, unless the problem of the Third World, of world hunger and development, does become one of the general concerns of public opinion in all the countries of the Community, then we will never get the governments to move an inch.

► No policy will ever last in a democracy without the support of public opinion.

— Of course it won't.

► Are you against dual mandates—not European plus local jobs, but a combination of national and European jobs?

— It's virtually impossible to do both, particularly with all the travelling to Strasbourg, Luxembourg and Brussels. But as far as I am concerned, it's very important to know what is going on in the national parliament. There has to be some sort of give and take between that and the European Parliament.

► Have you any local responsibilities in Italy?

— No. I sit in the national parliament, but I have no responsibilities at either local or party level. The link with the national parliament is very important because the European Parliament is out on a limb and, if it has no contact with the national authorities...

► I have to say that all the MPs I have spoken to have said much the same thing. Some are more or less in favour and others are more or less against, but, whichever way they lean, they always stress two things. The work load, which is negative, and the link between the national parliaments and the European one, which is positive...

II — Energy and research

► You are on the committee on energy and research. Why this particular committee?

— I have worked on nuclear issues at home. No one country can solve these problems alone and my idea is to work towards a European energy policy involving internal compensation and a more global view of the situation. But I am anti-nuclear.

► I should like to hear what you have to say on this issue. Do you think the Community can or should do without nuclear power in the future?

— The most important thing is to abandon this geometric growth of consumption because there can be no answers if we carry on like this. There may be a technical solution in plutonium, but we are behind in the industrial promotion of breeder reactors. But what I mainly want to talk about here are the real economic problems, costs and consumption. But there is no proper European energy-saving programme and the first source of power to my mind is energy-saving. My impression is that neither the pro- nor the anti-nuclear people have given enough thought to this problem, which is the most impor-

tant one to my way of thinking. The other essential theme, as I see it, is the diversification of energy sources. We opted for oil, and only oil, years back and look at the result. Experience has shown that we can't opt for nuclear power and only nuclear power either.

► *The main reasons were financial ones. Oil was the cheapest form of energy.*

— Obviously, but no one ever thought to diversify the sources.

► *So can you clarify your position? Are you still anti-nuclear or are you simply against emphasizing nuclear power?*

— No. The nuclear cycle is such that a small amount of nuclear power is out of the question. The nuclear chain leads to the sort of position the ENI had in Italy—30 nuclear power stations to ensure economic viability.

► *So you think we can only develop nuclear power on a large scale, with a certain number of power stations of a certain size?*

— Economically speaking, it's the only answer. But it brings other problems in its wake, particularly safety... In Italy, we need eight nuclear power stations to provide 3% of our energy and this means almost 16 000 million lire. That's ridiculous. Because any proper energy-saving programme can save you that 3%.

► *Although everyone realizes we have to save energy of all kinds, can we maintain our present standards of living if we switch to nuclear power?*

— That depends on your values. If it means three television sets per family, two cars and several electrical gadgets, then standards cannot be maintained.

► *That is the real question—a question of values in society today. But don't you think that if we refuse to use nuclear power then we are refusing to develop the technology of our society as we have been doing so far?*

— I think both the pro- and anti-nuclear movements are worried about technology. Where are we going? Everyone has a terrible problem at the moment with employment. If everything is mechanized, there will be no work at all. It's an old problem.

► *A 19th century one, indeed.*

— Yes. It's been around for a long time. So to my mind, whether one is for nuclear power or against it, no one seems to have any answers. Not those

who push for technological progress at any price and not the others either.

► *Perhaps employment could be developed in new sectors of activity which were under-exploited or not exploited at all in the past.*

— Yes. Industrial development over the past 20 years, as I think everyone recognizes now, put far too much emphasis on automation and highly-mechanized industries like iron and steel and other sectors that are finding things difficult now.

III — Women's status

► *Although a society is reflected in the status of its women and the same laws apply to men and women alike in the countries of West Europe, there are still practical differences in the way the sexes are treated. Take job opportunities or career structures, for example. How do you think this state of affairs can be sorted out?*

— I think that, in Europe, there is no discrimination as far as the actual laws are concerned. In Italy, for example, legislation is very advanced. The problem is a cultural one, one of changing awareness and outlook. The change is certainly being encouraged at institutional level, but it is evident, in the main, at the level of public opinion. There is no law that says that a woman cannot have a particular career but there are practical conditions that make it impossible. Obviously a married woman will have much less time and mental energy to devote to a career if there are no nurseries and she has to stay at home a lot of the time. There is no law that says that a woman has to stay at home if she has children. But, if there are no nurseries, then she has to. So my impression is that the problem here is one of cultural conditioning preventing certain reforms from being made. In Italy, for example, there are very few nurseries or social services. There's no law against them, but the problem of social services is not thought to be an important one. That is why, in spite of the crisis, the feminist movement is very important because it makes people aware of what the problems are.

► *So your opinion, and the opinion of most people in fact, is that this is a social phenomenon that will develop slowly. It has already developed a lot, as there are many more women who go out to work now and this trend can be encouraged by various social measures—those you mentioned to do with nurseries, for example. But don't you think that at the moment, in this period of crisis, that there is one area*

where women are harder hit than men? I mean employment, of course.

— Because women are always the last to get jobs, because employers think they will stay at home when they have babies and whenever the children are sick. They are afraid of absenteeism. And female absenteeism cannot always be eliminated. If you have sick babies then either there is a grandmother to look after them somewhere or else the mother has to stay at home. So women are the last to get jobs and the first to be laid off. And they cost their employers more than men.

But let us not forget that women are never unemployed, because they have the housework to do. We in Italy say that a woman without a job is not unemployed, she is "casalinga" as we call it. Even the words betray a way of thinking. These women do all the unpaid work—but paid work is a bit of a male thing.

► *Don't you also think that there is a problem of information as far as these women are concerned, information about their rights? All too often women are discriminated against during their career or when it comes to choosing jobs and, in spite of the fact that they have right on their side they hesitate to take their cases to the relevant authorities. Perhaps they are afraid or perhaps they are short on information. What do you think?*

— Both have something to do with it. But it is a lack of information that prevents women from getting together and deciding to fight. It is very difficult to go to court all by yourself. I think that a collective realization of their rights would help women. One case may help thousands of women, once one feels she has the support of those thousands, she will press on and be brave about it.

► *Are you a feminist and do you think that things would be better if there were more women in the governments of our countries or, say, on the Commission of the European Communities, where there are none at all at the moment?*

— I don't really believe that you only need a uterus to get involved in women's problems. Lots of my colleagues are more masculine than feminine in their political behaviour. So I don't think that having women on the Commission would change much. It would all depend on who it was.

► *It's a question of personality, is it?*

— Yes. Personality is very important. I have known men whose experience and lives had made them much more feminist than women. ○

Interview by A.L.

VIII. No-attached members

Antoinette Spaak

“30 million people went to vote — for an idea”

I — The European Parliament

► *Mrs Spaak—you and eight other people are non-attached members of parliament. What does this mean? That you don't agree with any of the political groups?*

— It probably has something to do with Belgian politics which, as you know, are extremely complicated. In Belgium we don't belong to any of the traditional parties, so we have had a lot to contend with. At one stage we nearly joined with the major groups in the European Parliament but we ultimately decided to be non-attached, because it gives us more leeway to say what we think and to express personal opinions at national level and we wanted to keep the same sort of freedom at European level. It has its drawbacks, of course, mainly financial ones, but as we have always managed to get our ideas across without cash, we are bravely trying to do the same at European level.

► *I was going to say that you are at a financial disadvantage compared to the big groups, as you have just mentioned. Aren't you at a disadvantage as far as premises and secretarial services are concerned too?*

— Yes, but these are all material considerations, you know. What is much more important to my way of thinking is, first, that we have much greater freedom of speech, because we decide amongst ourselves who is going to talk. It works very well. And we also have freedom of expression. What I mean to say is that the other MEPs have a lot of complaints on this score. They are more likely to be told what to think and the information they get is very much more angled. So what it amounts to is that we have chosen the lesser of two evils.

► *But there is another question. The non-attached MEPs are a fairly composite group and there are people with rather different ways of thinking. Isn't*

that a problem when one of you has to speak for the others?

— We never speak on behalf of the other non-attached members because we are not a group. I noticed that you, quite rightly, have not referred to the non-attached group. We are not a group. We never meet together and our only contact is to say I am talking for five minutes and that leaves you six. Things like that. The non-attached members include the four Italian fascists on one side, plus Ian Paisley, and us on the other side, with Mrs Dekker and Mr de Goede, the Dutch democrats. So there is a clear division even among the non-attached members.

A politically disinterested gesture

► *You are the daughter of Paul-Henri Spaak, one of the best-known politicians in the history of Belgium and one of the founding fathers of the European Community. Your father would no doubt have welcomed the first direct elections to the European Parliament with open arms. Has this parliament fulfilled your own hopes during this first year?*

— There are two parts of your question that I should perhaps like to emphasize. First, I was one of the people who were enthusiastic about the results of the direct elections themselves. I know that journalists on radio and television often said what a poor turn-out there was but I thought the opposite. What I thought extraordinary was that 30 million people actually went and voted. People right across Europe went and voted for a parliament, which is not a political entity in that it cannot make or break a government. So it was a politically disinterested gesture they made. People may well be very motivated by the idea of making or breaking a government. But in this case, they went and voted, they put themselves out for the sake of an idea. I thought, I really did, of the founding fathers of



Antoinette Spaak

Europe and I knew they would have been very happy at the result.

So the European Parliament is important. It's a parliament with a structure and a procedure—which it hasn't got quite straight yet, as I see it. Its rules of procedure need to be improved. They are getting better, but I think there is a long way to go because there are 410 of us now and that's a lot. So we are entitled to a few teething troubles during the first year, seeing what works and what doesn't.

Now that the first year is over, I believe, we ought to be thinking about making ourselves more efficient and having more contact with the voters. We shouldn't allow ourselves to stay aloof from the electorate over the next four years. A group was formed recently, under the leadership of Mr Spinelli, of all those MEPs who were aware of the role the European Parliament should be playing at a time when the economic crisis demands European solutions. We hold meetings and I think the movement is one which will be important and have an influence on governments. After this first year, we should now, after a short period of reflexion, try something new.

“My national mandate is very important to my European mandate... and vice versa”

► *What do you think about dual*

mandates? I don't mean local responsibilities, obviously, but one person sitting in the national and the European parliaments at the same time?

— I think there are advantages and disadvantages. The big drawback is obviously that both jobs entail an enormous amount of work. In any parliament you have to have what I call legislative members, those who put forward motions, who really do parliamentary work, and you have other MPs who are more concerned with the political side of things. I am certainly one of the latter. I don't like tabling amendments or motions much. I think others do the job very well and I should do that sort of thing far less well than they do. But the political aspect of problems and how to approach them fascinates me. This is why I am so keen to keep my national mandate. One complements the other. My national mandate is very important to me as a European MP because it sheds a very special sort of light on things and my European mandate is very important to me as a national MP because it enables me to size up certain national decisions that it seems imperative to take.

► *Certainly dual mandates provide a link between the national and the European scenes and make, for the sort of effect you described. But the big problem that always crops up is the work load.*

— True. But in that case I think you have to make a choice. You have to try not to do it all, not to want to cover every single thing. We are given considerable material aid for our European work and if your helpers are efficient, as mine are, they can make a very good job of the daily grind and leave you to make the political move when the time comes.

► *You are chairman of the French-speaking Front in Belgium. Do you see potential solutions at European level for the Belgian linguistic problems that are rarely, if ever brought up, in the European Parliament? This is unlike what happens in other cases where we have the impression that national political quarrels spill over into the European Parliament, usually with regrettable consequences.*

— The most important thing to my mind, something that is fundamental to our national political scene, is regionalization. We want to develop the idea and we are trying to do so. For many reasons, I think that federalism, a federal type of organization, brings the people nearer to power and that there is a regionalist movement right across the world today. The European Parliament's regional policy is a very impor-

tant one and more and more interest is being shown in it. This is reflected in the budget, where more is being allocated to regional affairs. This means we have an excellent point of contact at European level which reflects well the war we are waging at home in Belgium. But as far as our linguistic problems are concerned, this being another aspect of our national action, it is clear that there are no repercussions at European level.

II — The environment, public health and consumer protection

► *You are a member of the committee on the environment, public health and consumer protection. There is no Community environmental policy as yet, but what are the areas, do you think, in which the Community could start working right away?*

— Our committee is one which, as far as I and other members are concerned, is trying to do too much. We are dealing with too many problems at once and perhaps we are not going as far as we ought in certain fields. Environmental policy is a very popular thing and very dear to the people of Europe, so perhaps we should be stressing this in committee because that is what people are interested in at the moment. We should stress this policy and bring out a certain number of problems over the next five or six years. There is the nuclear issue and nuclear waste and something that interests me particularly, because I had to do the report on it, the pollution of the oceans. The European Community has a job to do in environmental matters. It has to centralize things, as it always does, and coordinate action. There is still a lot to do. I can't think of any problems we don't discuss on the committee. We deal with food, hormones, colouring in food and so on, all very serious problems, of course, but they take up an incredible amount of time. One thing seems to me to be very important in parliament and that is to get across to the people of Europe the idea that we are in very close touch with their problems.

We should not be submitting to nuclear power... we should be mastering it

► *That's very true. I think the work this committee does makes the European Parliament a little more human in the eyes of the general public. It shows the members are in touch with everyday life. Now I should like to ask you about the development of nuclear power. What is your stand on this issue*

and what do you think about the potential dangers that some people claim it holds for health, the environment and safety in general?

— I think, briefly, of course, as I can't go into all the details, that we cannot avoid using nuclear energy. And for very simple reasons. We are going to need it over the next 20 years.

► *Or else we will have to accept stagnation or even a drop in our standard of living.*

— Stagnation, yes, with all the attendant effects on employment. So until alternative sources of energy have been developed—and I am very much in favour of the Community allocating large sums of money to it—whether we like it or not, this is a problem we are going to have to face up to. And we have to handle it as best we can. This means that, whenever there are motions insisting on the safety of individuals, or safe transport or the safe transport of radioactive waste, I am in favour.

But I am against motions that call for an end to nuclear programmes and breeder reactors. And also, in a desire for what I might call competition with America, I do not want Europe to become a satellite of the USA, which, in spite of all the moratoria that have been announced, is continuing very positively its research into breeder reactors. So I think we are unable to evade the issue in the coming 20 years. Rather than submitting to nuclear power, I think we should dominate it with maximum safety and maximum precautions.

► *In a more general way, do you think we could achieve some sort of Community legislation on the major risks of certain industrial activities?*

— I think we have to do so. It is absolutely vital.

► *Is the problem already being approached?*

— Yes, it is. And our committee, which has a very ecological bias, is very divided on the nuclear issue. In this battle, I have to be considered as pro-nuclear—but on the conditions have I have just mentioned.

► *Do you think the European consumer is properly informed and involved enough in the decisions that concern him and does he get enough protection in his day-to-day life?*

— You mean in general, not just the nuclear angle?

► *Yes, in general.*

— I think an enormous effort has been made in this field nonetheless. Recently I saw all the consumer information on veal, for example, which is an incredible problem. I really was disgusted at all the muck I've been eating for years. It's incredible. I also think the EEC Commission should be taking stringent decisions on this.

► *You are quite right to insist upon it. It is a problem that has been raised more especially in France, of course, but is it a European problem?*

— It is a general thing. You must realize the Belgians have the same problem. I can't imagine that little Belgian calves are going to be unaffected too, if you see what I mean.

► *And that is something that the man in the street is very much aware of.*

— Yes. It's extraordinary. I really think that information has improved vastly and that the consumers too are beginning to be very aware of this kind of problem. And rightly so.

III — Women's status

► *You can often judge a country's development by the status of its women. Equal rights for women are recognized throughout the Community, but having the same laws for both sexes doesn't prevent practical inequality, particularly as far as jobs are concerned, the choice of certain professions and the way careers develop. What do you think can be done about this?*

— First of all, I should like to say that, as far as I'm concerned, there is no such thing as women's problems. I genuinely believe that the problems we are talking about are problems of society, of the way society is organized. And finally, what are wrongly considered to be women's problems, things like abortion, are social problems, questions of relations between men and women. It's not particularly a women's problem. And all the other problems are social ones. Men and women alike have to be involved in this fundamental change in our society.

As far as my own country is concerned, for example, we are very advanced in some ways, with women and divorce, for example, and women's legal status. We have made great progress and achieved a lot. But as far as jobs are concerned, there is still inequality in practice although not in the law. All the laws are there, in fact, but they are badly applied. This is a particular problem in Belgium, although



"What I thought was extraordinary was that 30 million people actually went and voted, right across Europe... for the sake of an idea"

perhaps I'm being a bit hard on my country here... However, we are very backward when it comes to abortion. Ours is a catholic country and the catholic influence is very strong when it comes to taking decisions of this kind. Various surveys have just been run and they show that a very large percentage of Belgian women have abortions and are therefore punishable by law and could be sent to prison—which seems to me to be a hypocritical solution. The law is no longer applied. People get round it. That's always a bad thing, whatever the decision. I profoundly respect the moral and religious opinions of my fellow citizens, but I think that, if people are getting round laws instead of applying them, then those laws need altering.

► *Everyone is free to use the law once it is passed.*

— There has never been any question of forcing people to have abortions. But I think it is scandalous to be faced with certain things and to pretend they aren't happening. That really is a scandal. It's a cowardly and hypocritical thing to do.

► *So you would be in favour of Belgium having a law on abortion—on certain conditions?*

— My party, a pluralist party containing liberals, catholics and socialists, set up a committee which came up with a bill, which we have already tabled, which we have already discussed and which is roughly comparable to the Veil law in France. So it's fairly liberal but it doesn't provide abortion on demand. We think women need the help of doctors and sociologists. They need help and we think abortion should be avoided wherever possible. But the means used must be honest ones.

► *I was struck by something the chairman of the committee on women's rights at the European Parliament, Yvette Roudy, said. She said that, at the moment, women were a bit like nurses on the employment market. What she meant was that they were given jobs when the market needed them and in periods of crisis, like now, they were laid off far easier than men. So unemployment would seem to be a bigger problem for women than for men. What do you think?*

— I think that is absolutely right. The chairman was absolutely right in her diagnosis and, more generally, I have always felt that women were only used when they were needed. Take the resistance during the war. Women resisted as bravely and as actively as men. But they were forgotten far faster than the men were. You still hear about the great members of the resistance in the last war, but no one ever mentions a woman. Why? They were used when they were needed, they fitted into the system and they faded into oblivion—and an oblivion they accept with too much modesty, I think. But this isn't a woman's problem. It's a social problem, as I said at the beginning. But Mrs Roudy's phrase was very neat. We are the nurses of our society.

The unions are still very much a male preserve

► *Don't you think there is also a problem as far as informing women about their rights is concerned? When women were discriminated against, at work, for example, or for promotion, people found that they did not complain to the relevant authorities as easily as men. Is this due to timidity or ignorance or poor information?*

— Timidity obviously comes into it and so does ignorance. Modesty has something to do with it and so does the fact that women don't get much help from the unions. The unions are still very much a male preserve when they consider the employment and economic problems that working women pose. There is a male reflex here—and there is fear too. Men are afraid that women will flood the labour market and take jobs from them. You have to agree that women don't get much help from the unions.

► *I don't want to twist what you are saying or put words into your mouth, but doesn't that amount to saying that, when certain social problems occur they trigger off a kind of conservatism on the part of the unions?*

— You aren't putting words into my mouth. The unions are conservative in a number of ways, I think. But we must be careful. I believe that unions are vital and fundamental bodies. They have

done a fantastic amount of work when you look at how far the workers have come. I have a great deal of respect for everything the unions have achieved. But, it's true, I do sometimes find them conservative on certain issues.

► *There was a world conference in Copenhagen in June to discuss the status of women. It was run by the UN, as a continuation of the work done at the previous conference in Mexico, but politics took over fairly quickly and there weren't any very practical conclusions in the end. But don't you think the conference at least drew attention to certain aspects of women's situation that we tend to think less about in our countries? I mean women in the developing countries. They have a hard time and the laws there haven't developed as they have in Europe.*

— I think you are quite right. The most positive result of the Copenhagen meeting was probably that a certain

number of women from Africa and Palestine were able to say what they thought. I didn't go to Copenhagen personally, but, from all we hear—and this is the opinion of people right across the political spectrum—too much was made of political issues, Palestine, Israel, the Arab countries and so on. These issues drowned the other problems.

But I also think that we European women should think about the problems of Palestinian and Israeli women. And of the women in the developing countries. But we should be very careful about it, because I think that it would be wrong to apply our cultural standards, which are by no means always that good or enviable, to them. We should not try and provide ready-made answers. These women, I think, have cultural traditions, tribal traditions sometimes, that we have great difficulty in understanding and it would be wrong to turn up with ready-made western ideas. This was a common mistake in the decolonization era. ○

Interview by A.L.

European Parliament: women's rights

The European Parliament's ad hoc committee on women's rights, chaired by Yvette Roudy (Fr. Soc.), debated a number of problems concerning women at its "public hearing" in Milan on 20-21 October.

The EEC Council of Ministers and Commission have taken a variety of initiatives to implement a wide-ranging European policy to help women. The keystone of this policy is article 119 of the Treaty of Rome, which lays down the principle of equal pay for men and women doing equal work.

A Council directive of 10 February 1975 on equal pay was nonetheless being avoided, the committee observed, through the application of different fiscal regulations for men and women. These national regulations would have to be brought up to date with modern living and working conditions.

Further, a directive on equal social security was not being fully respected. The committee regretted that this directive did not cover pensions, and also that full social rights, were not

always extended to women working part-time.

The committee also called for the Community institutions to help women who put in a minimum number of daily working hours to obtain social security benefits, job training and promotion.

The women's rights committee pressed for the full participation of women agricultural employees in farm management, to achieve equality on the economic as well as the social level.

Married rights

Several experts pointed out the particular importance of women's married rights. Laws and practices based on joint ownership were considered more favourable to women than those based on separate ownership.

The situation of women working under black market conditions was also examined. Although it differs from country to country, the consequences are everywhere negative as regards security and social benefits.

Women's most important demand in the present situation is for full legal recognition of their work, which should be paid according to current national regulations until legislation in this sector is harmonized, the committee felt.

Action programme

In conclusion, the ad hoc women's rights committee called for a wide-ranging Community action programme:

— informing women of the three directives aimed at improving their work situation and providing closer supervision of the implementation of these directives;

— paying particular attention to girls' education and taking steps to reduce their school drop-out rate and increase the curriculum available to them;

— establishing a far-reaching policy of professional training and re-training for women;

— and making a particular effort to harmonize and improve the national social legislation now in force in the Community countries. ○

Women members of the European Parliament ⁽¹⁾

The first elections to the European Parliament by direct universal suffrage

Following its first election by direct universal suffrage, the European Parliament has taken the lead with regard to the representation of women.

With its 69 women members, or 16.8% of the total membership, it has overtaken all the national parliaments with the exception of Denmark (23.4%).

From 1952 to today

This is a remarkable achievement, particularly when seen in relation to the development of the European Community's parliamentary institution.

The ECSC Common Assembly (from 1952 to 1958) had only one woman member out of a total of 78 (1.3%): Mrs Klompe (Christian-Democrat, Netherlands).

The Parliament of the Six, between 1958 (creation of the EEC and Euratom) and 1972 (just before enlargement) had 4 or 5 women members out of a total of 142 (approximately 3%). Immediately before the first European elections, of a total of 198 members, the Parliament of the Nine had only 11 women or 5.5%.

It will be recalled that, of the present women MEPs, nine had already been members of the European Parliament either immediately before the direct elections or at some previous time (Mrs Caretoni Romagnoli, Mrs Cassanmagnago Cerretti, Mrs Elles, Mrs Ewing, Mrs Flesch, Mrs Kellet-Bowman, Mrs Krouwel-Vlam, Mrs Squarzialupi and Mrs Walz).

Women candidates and elected members

Originally, members were nominated by the national parliaments. Responsibility for the low representation of women at that time lies with the political groups of the individual parliaments. National parties took a different attitude

when the first appeal was made to the electorate in the first direct elections to the European Parliament.

In almost all countries, the women candidates for the European Parliament were relatively more numerous than the women sitting in the national parliaments.

The only countries which reduced the number of women candidates had percentages of elected women MEPs considerably higher than those of the women candidates (Denmark and Italy).

In general the electorate supported those women who had put themselves forward as candidates. In six of the nine countries the percentage of elected women Members was distinctly higher than the percentage of women candidates. It will also be noted that the one feminist list, the Parti Féministe Unifié of Belgium, did not win a single seat. Belgium is in the curious situation of having the highest percentage of women candidates and the lowest percentage of elected women members.

Strange coincidence

In the Community as a whole, there is a strange coincidence in the European elections between the percentage of women candidates, 16.8% (589 out of 3 488), and the percentage of elected women members, 16.8% (69 out of 410).

The countries with the largest female representation are France in absolute terms and Denmark in percentage terms⁽²⁾.

Elected women members and the political groups

Not all the parties have contributed to the same extent to the female membership of the European Parliament. The distribution of women MEPs amongst the political groups is in fact far from being proportional to the political weight of each group: one in three socialists compared with one in seven Christian democrats, in spite of the small difference in size between these, the two

largest groups in the European Parliament. (For more details on the make-up of the political groups in terms of national parties and their relative strengths in the European Parliament, see table on page 36.)

However, in general one can say that there is a certain balance in the distribution of the 69 women MEPs between the left (54-55%) and the centre-right (45-46%).

Turning to the proportion of women within each political group, almost all of them have a 20% female contingent. The exceptions to this are the Christian democratic (EPP) and Conservative (ED) groups in which women make up less than 10% of the membership.

Age and profession

The average age of the women MEPs is about 49 (male MEPs: 54). Two are over 70 and one is under 30. The average age tends to fall in the case of socialists, Germans and Irish.

The oldest and youngest members, male or female, of the European Parliament are Mrs Weiss and Mrs de Valera.

The majority are married (71.7%) and have children (52.9%).

One can identify from the brief biographies some of the professional profiles which are prevalent amongst women MEPs. Almost a third have, of course, been engaged in some form of political activity: six ex-ministers (Mrs Castle, Mrs Dienesch, Mrs Focke, Mrs Gredal, Mrs Nielsen and Mrs Veil), one ex-secretary of state (Mrs Scrivener), one former ambassador (Mrs Dienesch), two party chairmen (Mrs Buchan and Mrs Spaak), one party chairman (Mrs van den Heuvel), one ex-chairman of the Economic and Social Committee (Mrs Baduel Glorioso), one former chairman of a socialist youth movement (Mrs Wiczorek-Zeul) and party, local authority and trade union officials. Another third have come from journalism and secondary or university teaching. 15% were

(1) Supplement to *Women of Europe*, EEC directorate-general information, information for women's organizations and the press.

(2) Luxembourg, with its figure of 33.3%, should be considered as an abnormal case, since it has so few members. The replacement in the course of the legislative period of one male MP by a woman was sufficient to raise its percentage from 16.6% to 33.3%.

public or private employees and four have been managers, two lawyers and two social assistants.

It should be noted that there is only one manual worker and one 'housewife'.

A more thorough examination of the *curricula vitae* of the women MEPs, however, shows that a good number of them have spent a long period as housewives before starting or restarting their career or political activities. This period was, of course, taken up with bringing up their children.

Finally, 16 women MEPs are also members of their national parliaments.

Parliamentary activity

The expertise and interests of women MEPs in the Community field are reflected, sometimes in a rather indirect way, in their membership of the various parliamentary committees.

In the distribution of seats on the committees, the women MEPs have received more or less their due, i.e. 16.8%. However, their representation on the committees is not at all even.

Some committees have attracted keen interest from them while they are less well represented on others—although this is not always due to a lack of interest on their part.

The first category would include not only the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights (approx. 70% women members), but also 'Environment, Public Health and Consumer Protection', 'Social Affairs and Employment', 'External Economic Relations', 'Youth, Culture, Education, Information and Sport', and 'Rules of Procedure and Petitions'.

Committees on which women are less well represented include 'Economic and Monetary Affairs', 'Transport' and 'Budgetary Control'.

In general one can say that women MEPs are better represented in the committees which have a protective nature (youth, public health, employment, environment, consumer protection, etc.), and relatively rare in those with a predominantly technical bias.

There are, however, some exceptions. 'Energy and Research', in spite of its technical nature, has a strong women's contingent (17.6% of all committee members) and is the only committee chaired by a woman (Mrs Walz, Germany, EPP group).

Another noteworthy committee is 'External Economic Relations' (22.2% of all committee members) which has frequent international contacts.

Even the 'Rules of Procedure and Petitions', whose business is largely of a technical/legal nature, has a relatively large number of women (22.2% of all committee members).

This committee took on considerable importance after the first part-sessions of the European Parliament because of the procedural problems and the revision of the rules of procedure.

Interparliamentary delegations

In the distribution of seats on the *interparliamentary delegations*, women MEPs have slightly less than their due—15.6% of the total. The reason for this is that the Group for the Technical Coordination and Defence of Independent Groups and Members has filled only some of the seats allotted to it.

The proportion of women MEPs on the delegations is not an even one. There is a large group of women on the ACP-EEC Joint Committee, which looks after relations with States in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific (10 out of 58).

Curiously, women do not seem very interested in communist countries (2 out of 18 on EEC-Comecon; 1 out of 18 on EP-China; 1 out of 10 on EP-Yugoslavia). They seem more interested in Latin and Mediterranean countries (Portugal, Mashreq, Malta, Greece, Israel and Latin America).

Only 2, from France, are interested in Japan; only 2, one from Italy and one from Britain, are interested in Australia.

Women MEPs and the leadership of the European Parliament

The strengthening of female representation in the European Parliament has been immediately extended to the controlling bodies of the institution and its organs.

Of the 192 executive positions (bureaux of the EP, committees and interparliamentary delegations, quaestors, leadership of the political groups), 33 have been given to women, which amounts to 17.2%.

The European Parliament is at present presided by Mrs Veil (France, Liberal group). Of the twelve vice-presidents of the European Parliament, one is a woman, D. De March (France, Communist group). Of the five quaestors, one is a woman, C. Flesch (Luxembourg, Liberal group).

The Committee on Energy and Research is chaired by a woman, Mrs Walz (Germany, EPP group) and the Ad Hoc Committee on Women's Rights is chaired by Mrs Roudy (France, Socialist group).

Two delegations, EP-USA and EP-Spain, are led by Mrs Gredal (Denmark, Socialist group) and Mrs Ciwyd (UK, Socialist group) respectively. Finally, 10 committee vice-chairmanships and four delegation vice-chairmanships are held by women.

In view of the important role played by the political groups in appointing candidates to these offices, it may be interesting to note which groups have most encouraged the presence of women in the executive bodies of the European Parliament and its committees.

Immediately after the Socialist group with seven women come the Communist and Liberal groups with four women each, whilst the Christian democrat (EPP) and Conservative (ED) groups have only one woman each.

This order remains unchanged when one looks at the leadership of the political groups.

It will be noted that women are well represented in the leadership of the Gaullist (EPD) group.

Only the Belgian women MEPs have no high-ranking jobs.

Amongst the large countries, Italian women have by far the poorest representation, whilst the Danes take first position amongst the women MEPs of the smaller countries.

Conclusions

The following profile of a woman member of the European Parliament emerges from the foregoing: she is between 40 and 50 years of age, married with children; she has a university degree and has engaged in previous political activities or held a post in the public or private sector; she tends to hold socialist views, is interested in the Mediterranean and Latin countries and takes a keen interest in the protection of the various categories of citizens; she resolutely defends the rights of women and is able to appreciate the value of power. ○

Women MEPs categorized by country and political group

Political groups Member States	SOC (113)	EPP-CD (107)	ED (64)	COM (44)	LIB (40)	EPD (22)	TCDI (11)	N-A (9)	Total (410)
B (24)	Lizin	—	—	—	—	—	—	Spaak	2
DK (16)	Gredal Groes	—	—	Boserup	Nielsen T.	—	Hammerich	—	5
F (81)	Charzat Cresson Feuillet Gaspard Roudy Vayssade	Moreau	—	De March Hoffmann Le Roux Poirier	Martin Pruvot Scrivener Veil	Chouraqui Dienesch Weiss	—	—	18
IR (15)	Desmond	—	—	—	—	De Valera	—	—	2
I (81)	—	Cassanmagnago Gaiotti	—	Baduel G. Barbarella Carettoni R. Cinciari R. Squarcialupi	Agnelli	—	Bonino Castellina Macciocchi	—	11
L (6)	—	Lentz- Cornette	—	—	Flesch	—	—	—	2
N (25)	van den Heuvel Krouwel-Vlam Viehoff	Boot Maij-Weggen	—	—	—	—	—	Dekker	6
FRG (81)	Focke Herklotz Hoff Salisch-E. Seibel Weber Wieczorek-Zeul	Lenz Rabbethge Schleicher Walz	—	—	von Alemann	—	—	—	12
UK (81)	Buchan Castle Clwyd Quin	—	Brookes Elles Forster Hooper Kellelt-B. Roberts	—	—	Ewing	—	—	11
Total (410)	24	10	6	10	8	5	4	2	69

The figures in brackets indicate the total for each national representation and each political group.

True or false?

Questions about the European Community

According to a survey organized by the European Commission at the end of 1979, 58% of Europe thinks that the Community is a good thing, 12% think the opposite and 30% don't know or have no opinion either way. The proportion of dissatisfied people is 41% in the United Kingdom, 27% in Denmark, but only 12% in Ireland, 6% in France and 2% to 3% in other Community countries. Here we try to reply to some of the questions posed or the criticisms made frequently about the European Community. (1)

The Community is one enormous bureaucracy?

There are around 16 000 European civil servants. The European Commission employs 11 350, of whom 2 770 are involved in scientific research and investment matters. The remainder work either in the Community's Council of Ministers, the European Parliament, the European Court of Justice, the Court of Auditors or the Economic and Social Committee. The number of civil servants employed in member countries is almost one thousand times greater! For every 100 000 Europeans there are 4 200 national civil servants but only 6 'Eurocrats'.

Are there still too many of these European civil servants for the work they do? This question must be looked at closely:

— the Community's agricultural policy is handled by fewer than 700 European civil servants. In the Federal Republic of Germany, to cite just one example, the Ministry of Agriculture has over 20 000 employees. The figures are the same, proportionally, for other countries;

— trade agreements with non-Community countries are now negotiated by the European Commission and not by individual member states. More than 100 countries are officially represented to the Community. The whole of the Community's external relations is handled by only 520 senior officials, 220 of whom are located abroad;

— in the area of food aid to the Third World, 28 Commission officials manage

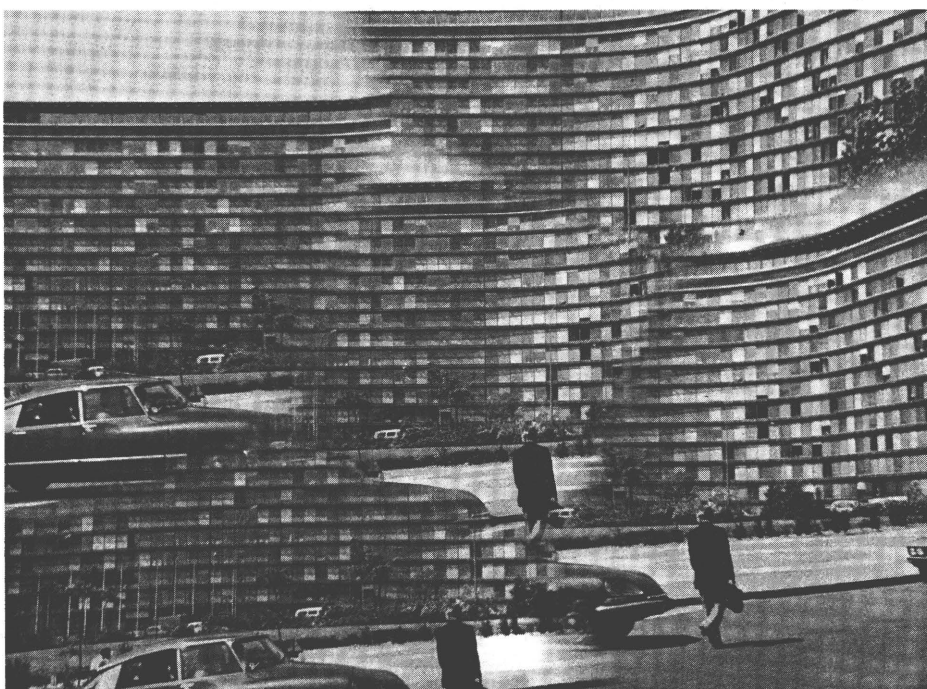


Photo-montage of the EEC Commission in Brussels—a bureaucratic Tower of Babel?

programmes involving money of the order of 500 million European units of account. (2) At the United Nations, a programme of similar scope is managed by a staff of over 300.

And for both political and linguistic reasons, the European Commission's work is not easy. The Commission serves all of Europe and cannot work in a vacuum. In 1979 alone, it submitted 616 proposals and 216 memoranda and various reports to the Community's Council of Ministers, which takes the final decisions. But before any decisions are taken, it must seek the opinion of the European Parliament and that of both sides of industry within the framework of the Economic and Social Committee, or of the Coal and Steel Consultative Committee. And even before that there will have been a proposed draft from the Commission drawn up through a series of consultations with national officials and experts as well as with representatives of interested parties, in particular, trade unions.

(1) From the directorate-general for information, EEC Commission.

(2) 1 EUA = about £ 0.59 or US \$ 1.4 (at exchange rates current on 1 October 1980).

The Community is an expensive Tower of Babel?

Consultation with a large number of persons requires translation of documents and the holding of meetings in the six Community languages. Some 8 000 meetings with simultaneous translation were held in 1978. Each meeting costs about 3 200 EUA.

The European Commission has a full-time staff of 1 200 interpreters and translators. Including the typists who assist them, this means that about one-third of the European civil servants are employed in linguistic work.

An expensive Tower of Babel? Maybe, but it is accepted that the Community addresses Europeans in their own languages. It is also to be expected that representatives from one member state could not give priority to some other country's language. And even if they could, which language would be selected? If more than one were chosen, where would we stop? Within the Community's administration, everyday work is facilitated by the fact that European officials must know a second language. Many know several.

Is the cost of all this so high that we could perhaps do better without it? In 1979, the Community budget stood at around 14 million EUA. This is, of course, a large sum, but:

— it represents about 2.5% of the sum of the nine national budgets, and one-fiftieth of 1 EUA for each European citizen;

— the operating expenses (personnel, buildings, translation, publications, etc.) only absorb about 6% of the European budget. Apart from development aid funds (around 3.4%), the remainder returns to member states in the form of aid for agriculture and scientific research, and for social or regional development, which otherwise would come from national funds for the most part;

— this money is spent in a way which tries to reconcile, in everyone's interest, the often divergent positions of member states. This requires a great deal of discussion and, doubtless, a great deal of paperwork. But as one of the 'fathers' of Europe, Jean Monnet, put it: 'discussion is better than shooting one another'. In Europe, constant negotiation between partners has become the substitute for the wars of the past.

The Community only benefits the bosses and technocrats?

Favouring big business rather than consumers is a criticism sometimes

levied at national governments and it has also been carried forward to the European level. The unofficial term 'Common Market' also tends to make people think of a trading association.

Progress in production and in intra-European trade is a Community achievement which has not only benefited the bosses. It has enabled jobs to be created and has brought about a general improvement in the standard of living. The extension of competition throughout Community countries has also increased the choice of goods available to consumers and helped combat rising prices.

In addition, the Community is in the process of implementing a specific consumer protection programme. This should:

— protect health by ensuring good food, safe packaging and clothing, clear labelling which warns of possible dangers in the product, etc.;

— safeguard economic interests by establishing fair contracts, particularly in the areas of personal loans and hire-purchase agreements. The information supplied by the producer must be exact. The consumer has the right of redress for damages incurred through the fault of the producer;

— make information available to consumers on, for example, the precise composition of foodstuffs, an area where the consumer should benefit from the support of public authorities

and, in particular, the Community. The European Commission aims, in addition, to promote consumer education as well as consumer organizations so that they can talk on equal terms with producers;

— promote representation of consumers to public bodies who deal with consumer questions. The European Commission has set up a consumers' consultative committee in which consumer associations and trade unions, family and cooperative organizations are represented. The committee gives its opinions on the Community's different policies and on all problems of interest to consumers.

Apart from this programme, Community action is largely favourable to consumers and to European citizens in the following ways:

— the Community's founding treaties give the European Commission the power to prohibit and to penalize agreements between enterprises, the abuse of economic power, as well as public aid which distorts the free play of market forces in the Common Market to the detriment of other companies, and ultimately consumers. The Commission has, for example, obtained the retraction of certain dangerous clauses contained in a proposed agreement between several large retail groups in the Community; it has imposed heavy fines on companies which, in sectors such as sugar, quinine and hi-fi equipment, had formed cartels to raise their prices;

— the European institutions are working to affirm the rights of European citizens throughout the Community territory and to simplify national formalities which are sometimes too complicated and frustrating for the individual. The right has been recognized for employees to look for work anywhere on Community territory, to benefit from their social security payments and to retire where they want. Another more modest innovation which can be mentioned is the raising of duty-free allowances on presents, spirits and other articles for people travelling between Community countries.

These examples show that the Community is concerned with the concrete interests of its citizens and is not slow to fight against certain bureaucratic tendencies. Technocracy is a threat to all of today's advanced societies. To ensure that people do not become simple pawns in the tangle of regulations and in the labyrinth of administration, representation and participation in the democratic process must be stepped up. This has been achieved in the following ways:

— for many years the European Commission has been actively involving all interested parties in its initiatives.



Anti-unemployment demonstration outside the EEC Commission in Brussels



The poorer regions of the Community have suffered from the decline of traditional industries

Before a proposal is submitted to the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Council of Ministers, it is discussed with all parties concerned: associations, interest groups, trade unions, etc.;

— since 1979, the European Parliament has been elected directly by all citizens. Europeans thereby have at their disposal representatives who can present their point of view to Community bodies and who also have the power to dismiss the European Commission. In total, the European parliamentarians put forward 2 200 questions to the Commission and to the Nine's ministers in 1979.

The Commission is not interested in problem regions?

In the Community's poorest regions (southern Italy, west of Ireland), the average income per inhabitant is only one-fifth of that in the richest regions, and the international economic crisis is tending to increase this disparity to the detriment of the weakest regions. The main handicaps faced by the problem regions are dependence on insufficiently modernized farming and the lack of industrial activity (particularly in the Mediterranean zones which will have to face sharper competition from Greek, Spanish and Portuguese farmers in the enlarged Community), the decline of certain traditional industrial activities (steel, for example), geographic distance from the Community centre (in

the case of French overseas 'départements' and Greenland).

The Community is fully aware of such problems. Large disparities between the regions, either from the social or the economic point of view, cannot be tolerated. Apart from the injustice, they also threaten the cohesion of the Community. Within the limits of its financial means, the Community has taken numerous measures to speed up the economic convergence of its different countries and regions:

— the European Regional Development Fund grants non-repayable aid to modernize infrastructure and create industrial jobs in the troubled regions. Such aid totalled 966 million EUA in 1979;

— more than two-thirds of the industrial and infrastructure loans from the European Investment Bank (2 600 million EUA in 1979) benefit the regions in difficulty;

— the same is true for four-fifths of vocational training aid provided by the European Social Fund (768 million EUA in 1979);

— the European Coal and Steel Community lent 957 million EUA in 1979 to help modernize or reconvert its industries and help the regions where they are located;

— farm modernization benefited from European aid to the tune of 134 million EUA in 1979, 54 million of which went to Mediterranean regions, for which a five-year, 1 000 million EUA reconversion plan was agreed;

— a new Community borrowing instru-

ment for the whole of industry will have 1 000 million EUA at its disposal. 55% of the first allocations (made in 1979) went to infrastructure projects in the least-developed regions;

— in the framework of the European Monetary System, which was set up in 1979, the two least prosperous countries, Ireland and Italy, could receive loans and grants totalling 6 million EUA over five years.

The European Commission wants to go further than this, however. A recent report shows that, in federal states, federal expenditure represents on average 20% of the gross domestic product and helps reduce regional disparities by 40%. Community expenditure currently represents 0.7% of the Nine's GDP. By tripling this, we could reduce current disparities by 10% and at the same time open up new markets for enterprises from the most prosperous regions. But it is up to Community countries and their citizens to say what sacrifices they are prepared to make now to obtain, in time, advantages from which all will benefit.

The Community wants to harmonize everything?

Community countries put into practice European directives harmonizing national legislation concerning problems as varied as car seat-belt specifications, car horn and engine noise levels, the use of colourants in foodstuffs, the wording of labels on these foods when they are sold pre-packed,



Does the Community want to harmonize everything?

the conditions required for a product to rightfully bear the label 'honey' or 'fruit juice'. Why is this necessary? Because the harmonization of legislation enables non-customs barriers to trade to be eliminated between the Nine. This opens up trade between the nine member states and, in turn, creates greater competition between manufacturers. The result of this competition leads to a wider choice of goods for the customer and helps keep down prices. Does this mean that the Community obliges us to consume everywhere between Edinburgh and Palermo the same types of beer, bread, etc. adapted to the taste of the average (and non-existent) consumer?

In the past, certain proposals from the European Commission have been subjected to such criticisms, but the drafts were withdrawn or modified. The Commission now only draws up proposals for harmonizing legislation if it is likely to eliminate technical barriers to trade and be justified by the economic interest of the sector concerned:

— the elimination of technical barriers does not always require the harmonization of legislation. The principle of mutual recognition of national standards permits the Commission and the European Court of Justice to safeguard the freedom of trade and ensure the diversity of products, while at the same time ensuring that health and safety standards are no less respected in one country than in another. Only when there is a risk to the user does the Commission propose to take national

concerns for health and safety to the Community level;

— each of the Commission's proposals is the result of awareness of the importance of intra-Community trade and of the barriers to such trade; each is also the result of preparatory work undertaken in collaboration with industry, consumers and experts from national administrations. The methods ultimately employed depend on the size of the problems encountered:

— in numerous cases, and particularly for industrial products, measuring instruments, etc., 'optional' harmonization enables producers who conform to Community standards to gain access to the whole of the European market, without preventing other models or products continuing to sell on the local markets, conforming to national rules or traditions only;

— when environmental protection or user-safety demands it, Community standards replace national norms. Such total harmonization applies, for example, to the use of certain dangerous substances in cosmetics. In such a case, setting European limits or defining European characteristics helps to increase consumer protection without hindering trade in such a wide range of products.

The common agricultural policy is too expensive for the taxpayer and the consumer?

Three-quarters of the Community budget is allocated to agriculture, which

only represents 5% of the European economy. That evidently appears somewhat paradoxical. The reason for this, however, is very simple: it is in the agricultural sector that European integration is the most advanced. It has thus been possible to dismantle national protectionist measures which would otherwise be harmful to industrial trade: it is clear that the Community's most agricultural countries would not have opened their frontiers to free industrial trade if they had not expected to gain from their agricultural exports. Today, new progress in the construction of Europe—in the social and regional areas, for example—is designed to help to 're-balance' the Community budget which carries the burden of certain surplus farm products. All in all, however, the cost to Europe of the common agricultural policy remains within reasonable limits. It should be remembered that:

— this policy finances, at the Community level, numerous actions which, otherwise would be charged to national budgets;

— the cost of the European agricultural policy only represents 2.8% of the total sum of European expenditure on food. The relative share of food expenditure in consumer budgets has itself declined by one quarter between 1963 and 1978 and today only represents, on average, less than 25% of total household expenditure;

— the rise in European food prices is not solely due to the rise in farm prices: in 1978, the consumer price of food and drink rose by 7.3% whilst farm production prices only rose 3.8%.

The cost of the common agricultural policy should be assessed in relation to its results. The European policy has enabled us to:

— guarantee food supplies for 260 million European consumers. On the world market, shortages and problems are not a rare thing. They affected corn in 1972-73 and in 1974, cattle-feeds in 1973, and sugar in 1974 and 1980;

— regularize price movements in favour of both farmers and consumers. Whilst in 1973 the price of corn rose by 70% on the world market, it only rose 4% in the Community. For sugar and veal, price rises of 62% and 63% respectively were recorded on the world market, whilst they were limited to 2.5% on the European market;

— support farmers' incomes whilst promoting modernization in farming. Productivity has thus increased each year on average by 7.8% between 1968 and 1973 and since then by 4.7%. In recent times, the changes in progress have been slowed down by the economic crisis, which has reduced the number of alternative jobs in industry.

Considerable differences in incomes have been observed in the agricultural sector. Through its structural policy, the European Commission aims at redirecting available resources to benefit the less prosperous farmers and regions.

The common agricultural policy creates surpluses which have to be destroyed?

Within the Common Market, around 75% of agricultural products benefit from guaranteed European prices. When the price obtained by the producer falls below this threshold, public organizations undertake intervention purchases to regulate market prices. Surpluses? Not always. A distinction must be made between:

— seasonal trading stocks needed to permit easy supply to the market corresponding to the effective consumption in a period of a few days or a few weeks;

— the real 'surpluses' for which buyers cannot be found in current market conditions. Together with technological progress, the price guarantees for unlimited quantities can constitute an incentive to raise production above the level which can be absorbed by the market. This is the case in the milk sector, where production increases each year by 2% whilst the population growth and therefore the number of consumers only increases by less than 1%. The Community places more and more importance on combating structural and permanent surpluses which arise in this way and unbalance and inflate its budget. Already in two important sectors, milk and sugar, it has made the producers financially co-responsible for surpluses.

But what does the Community do with the stocks that cannot be sold normally? It intervenes with all sorts of assistance and promotes the use of products in particular areas: low-priced distribution to schools, hospitals, homes and other social institutions; exports to international markets or as food aid to developing countries; processing into industrial products (e.g. food products, preserves, distillation); use as animal-feeds, replacing products imported at great expense. Only very limited quantities of certain fruits and vegetables, which in full season cannot always find buyers immediately, are deemed unsuitable for human consumption.

The Community is too protectionist (or not enough)?

The Community has a common external tariff: goods imported into

Europe therefore pay the same customs duties, whether they enter via the ports of Rotterdam, London, Marseilles or Genoa. It is the Community which negotiates, en bloc, trade agreements with other countries. Some reproach the Community for sometimes being protectionist. What is its position exactly?

— Calculated on the basis of the average national tariffs existing in 1957, and taking into account a rise in rates for the Federal Republic of Germany and the Benelux, offset by considerable reductions for France and Italy, the common customs tariff since this period has been lower than that of the United States: the 30% level has not been reached at all (whilst it affects 13% of US imports); 41% of European imports (as against 35% in the US) pay less than 10% customs duties; the European average duty is 11.7% (compared to 17.8% in the US). Also the Community and its trading partners have undertaken many reciprocal and balanced customs duty reductions in the framework of major international trade negotiations: Dillon Round (1960-61), Kennedy Round (1963-67), Tokyo Round (1973-79). Following the latter, the average Community tariff for industrial products will fall to between 9.8% and 7.5% by 1988:

— the consequences of this policy are evident in the figures. The expansion of trade between the Nine has not prevented external trade from increasing.

The Nine's imports from the rest of the world rose between 1958 and 1979 from 23 654 million to 218 228 million EUA. The global trade deficit of the Nine—who represent the foremost trading power in the world—rose to 24 000 million EUA in 1979. The Community has run up, in particular, sizeable deficits in trade with oil-producing countries, the USA and Japan;

— in the agricultural sector, 'Community preference' aims at basing Europe's food supply on home production. To this end, duties and levies make up the difference between world prices—which are often dumping prices—and European prices. Distortions in competition within the Common Market are thereby avoided, but access to the market is not completely blocked. The Community is one of the world's leading importers. It absorbs 35% of world agricultural exports. The Nine import, without customs duties or with reduced duties, numerous products from developing countries. In recent years, they imported five times more agricultural products from the USA than they exported in that direction. In total, the Community's agricultural trade deficit stood at 11 700 million EUA in 1978, whilst the USA recorded a positive balance of 3 900 million dollars.

The basic liberalism in the Community's trading policy is explained by two very simple reasons. International com-



Has the common agricultural policy been of any benefit to the European consumer?



EEC aid for the Third World: the EDF financed the transformation of marshland in Rwanda into this tea plantation

petition itself is an incentive to produce goods of the best quality in the most economic way. And even if the Community wished to avoid such competition, it could not: to maintain the standard of living of its citizens and to pay for energy imports, it must export. To ensure that other markets are open to its exports, it must in turn permit access for foreign products to its territory.

This does not imply, however, that the Community does nothing against certain abuses of international competition, for which some reproach it:

- in the course of international trade negotiations, the Community has adopted a firm attitude towards the US and Japan. The Tokyo Round mentioned above enabled the Community to improve its level of access to the market of its major industrial partners. Also, the Japanese government has recently begun to reduce its trade surplus; the European Commission is urging it also to put an end to certain difficulties which hinder European exports;

- the policies conducted by the European Commission in the field of energy and industry have the principal objectives of freeing the Community from its dependence on imported energy and of permitting its industries to compete on equal terms with its foreign competitors;

- in the case of textiles, the Community has negotiated with its principal suppliers—in particular the low-cost countries—export limitation agreements which can give Community industry time to reorganize. Similar agreements were concluded in the steel sector. At the end of 1979, the prices of the majority of steels imported into the Nine rose by around 25% compared to the end of 1977, and this helped save many jobs in Europe's steel industry.

The Community is not concerned about the Third World?

The Community is sometimes portrayed as a 'rich man's club' which ignores the problems of international development. This is not the case. The Nine constitute the premier source of public aid to the Third World (0.5% of the gross national product, compared to 0.02% for East bloc countries). This public aid is composed of financial as well as food aid of over a million tonnes of cereals annually.

But financial and food aid are not enough to assure the development of Third World countries. Markets must be opened for them, markets as stable as possible, to assist their agricultural and industrial progress.

- The Community has eliminated customs duties for almost all (95.5%) exports from the 60 African, Caribbean and Pacific countries which signed the Lomé Convention. It has also done the same for the industrial and often agricultural exports from southern Mediterranean countries, without demanding reciprocal measures for its own exports. On top of this, there is also technical and financial aid exceeding 1 200 million EUA per year;

- preferences—removal or reduction of duties—are accorded to all other developing countries (numbering over 150) for the export of certain quantities of the majority of their industrial and semi-finished and some 300 processed agricultural products, including jute and cocoa products which are vital for the economy of the Indian sub-continent. The maximum volume of this liberalized trade represents an annual value of some 9 000 million EUA;

- in addition, non-preferential agree-

ments to help develop commercial and industrial cooperation with numerous developing countries in Asia (India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand) and in Latin America (Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay and soon Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela). Financial and technical assistance—as yet modest (110 million EUA per year)—is accorded to these countries;

- the availability of stable resources in Third World countries is a fundamental factor in their development. Thus the Lomé Convention has permitted the development of an original mechanism to stabilize export earnings: the 'Stabex' offers the ACP countries a kind of insurance against a drop in the price of the basic goods they export. In cases of poor harvest, the closure of a mine or a fall in world market rates—annual fluctuations of around 30% occur frequently and sometimes are as much as 75%—the Community compensates the lost earnings with advances which are only repayable by the better-off countries. In the case of sugar, guaranteed export prices and volumes have been agreed with the ACP countries and India. An additional step towards a new international economic order has been made by the Nine who, speaking as one body, have come out in favour of the creation of an international fund which would help stabilize raw material market rates and benefit the whole of the Third World.

Community cooperation, developed initially with Africa through the historical links of certain European countries—a heritage of the colonial era—is progressively being extended to the whole of the Third World. The different forms of cooperation proposed by Europe with these countries avoid all neo-colonialist attitudes. The management of agreements is conducted at all levels on the basis of parity in the structure of dialogue. The Community knows that aid is all the more acceptable when it is politically neutral; it refuses, therefore, to favour any particular model of economic or political development and it places itself outside the conflict which can divide Third World countries.

But, it is said, does this cooperation not cost us too much in times of economic crisis? The answer must be 'no'. Development aid is not only a moral duty, it is also justifiable in terms of economic and political interest:

- in the Third World, 20% of the population suffers from hunger. The annual income per inhabitant is often below our weekly incomes, and maintaining such inequality threatens the stability of world peace;

- economically, Europe and the Third World are interdependent. We import

75% of the basic products which are indispensable for our industries, products which we purchase whilst selling to the Third World 36% of our extra-Community exports. It has been calculated that a 50% increase in the industrial growth of developing countries between 1972 and 2000, through our technical aid and capital, will raise their exports by around \$ 400 000 million, but it will also increase their imports by \$ 500 000 million. Which is to say that the development of the Third World will open up new markets, whose attraction considerably exceeds the adjustment problems, sometimes difficult, which are created for one or other of our industries.

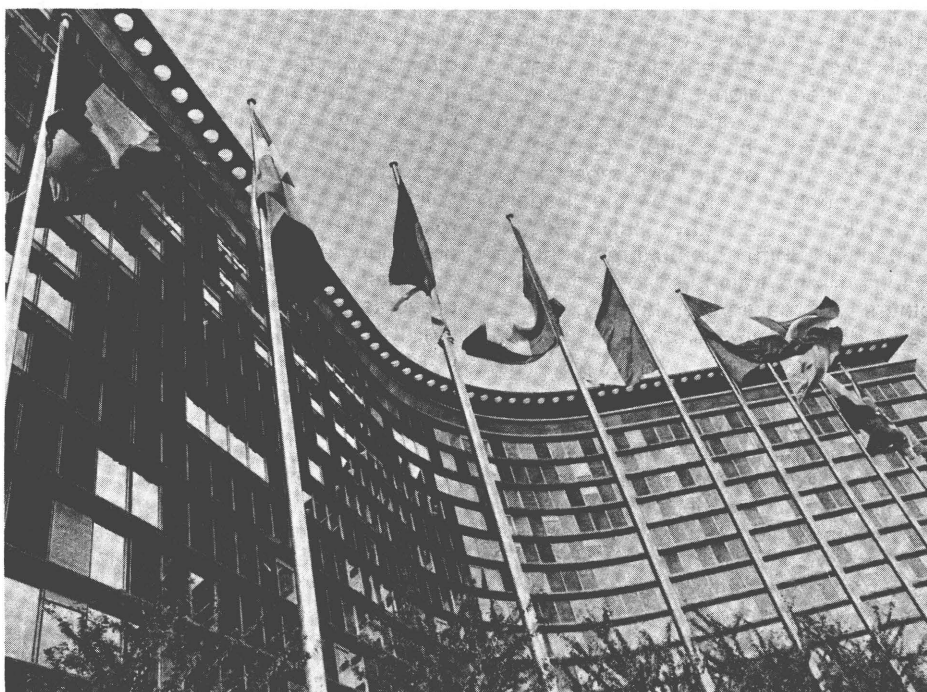
Other Europeans profit from the Community more than my country?

This controversial question is based on a comparison between Community income from different member countries and European expenditure affecting those countries. In terms of the transitional arrangements following membership, the situation has become particularly difficult for the British, who would be required to finance about 20% of the European budget in 1980 whilst their share of expenditure is less than 10%. The net deficit for the United Kingdom would have exceeded 1 700 million EUA in 1980, a good one-third higher than the input of the Federal Republic of Germany, whose wealth in terms of gross domestic product is twice that of the United Kingdom. Two points, however, must be remembered:

— benefits from belonging to the Community cannot be measured solely in budgetary terms. The common trade and farm policies serve the interest of all Europeans. They have helped liberalize and develop trade in goods,



The benefits of EEC membership: have some countries been left out in the cold?



The flags of the nine Community countries: does joint decision-making imply the surrender of sovereignty?

both industrial and agricultural, within a Community of 260 million consumers;

— the Community's budget is financed by its own resources: part is the VAT collected on a common basis which is proportional to consumption in each member country, and part is from agricultural duties and levies on products imported from non-Community countries. The proportion of these duties coming from the Community will diminish as trade with its Community partners increases.

An imbalance occurs since the largest part of European expenditure goes on agriculture (more than 70% of the budget, while only 5% of its expenditure goes to the United Kingdom) to the detriment of social, regional and other policies, which are often more favourable to the British but which only take a small share of the European budget. This situation is all the more problematic since the United Kingdom is one of the least prosperous Community countries. The European budget cannot be used to bridge the prosperity gaps between member countries; it should, in contrast, play a growing role in redistributing in favour of countries in difficulty. Whilst maintaining the Community's basic principles and finance structure, the budget must be reorientated to stimulate greater economic convergence.

Following difficult negotiations—one country's reduction is an increased cost to another—Community countries have decided to reduce the United Kingdom's payments in 1980 and 1981 by a sum corresponding to two-thirds of the exist-

ing gap between European income collected in the country and anticipated expenditure benefiting the UK.

This formula will also be used in 1982, if changes have not been introduced by then in the structure of the Community budget. The Community is committed to reorienting its action and the European Commission is examining ways of developing its policies in a way which preserves the financial solidarity of member countries but which prevents the emergence of situations which are unacceptable to one or other of the partners. The 1980 crisis at least showed that members place high priority on maintaining and developing solidarity which, in the last analysis, is in the interest of all.

The Community threatens national sovereignty?

In signing the European treaties, member states recognized that certain matters (e.g. foreign trade, farm policy) can be dealt with more effectively if there is common agreement. They have therefore conferred the power necessary for this on common institutions. A restriction on sovereignty? Yes, but:

— member states participate in the Community decision-making process. The European Council of Ministers is composed of national ministers who take decisions based on proposals from an independent body, the European Commission, after having heard the opinion of the European Parliament and the Community's Economic and Social Committee;

— in general, the Council of Ministers takes its decisions on a unanimous basis. When a majority vote is used, it is a qualified majority of 41 votes out of 58 (45 out of 63 after the accession of Greece). This procedure accords 10 votes to each of the four most populated countries (France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom), 2 to Luxembourg, 3 to Denmark and Ireland, 5 to each of the others. A coalition of large countries cannot impose its will on the less powerful partners.

The Community has a long-term objective. In signing the European treaties, member states wanted to 'pool' their resources setting up an economic Community 'to lay the foundation of an ever closer union among the peoples of Europe'. In the Copenhagen declaration on European identity (December 1973) the Nine affirmed 'their intention of transforming... the whole of their relations into one European union' whose

characteristics are not yet fixed but which would have a clearly political dimension: 'the changes in the world and the growing concentration of powers and responsibilities in the hands of a small number of great powers, implies that Europe must unite if it wishes its voice to be heard and to play its proper role in the world'. Rather than deprive our countries of prerogatives which, in any case, their relative weakness often prevents them from effectively exercising, it is a question of giving them the possibility to have an influence on world affairs by acting collectively.

This movement towards a European union cannot be accomplished without the agreement of all Europeans. All changes to the existing treaties require international negotiation and the agreement of all member countries, in conformity with their constitutional rules. Unanimity within the Council of Ministers this time is also required to give the Community new powers of action

needed to realize these objectives, but which were not catered for in the European treaties.

Has the Community really served any useful purpose?

The Community is based on a customs union which gradually came about between Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands between 1 January 1959 and 1 July 1968. These countries were joined by Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom in 1973. Greece will join the Community on 1 January 1981, and after a transitional period, Spain and Portugal should become integrated, in turn, during the decade.

The customs union signified the free movement of goods between the partners. Its advantages are evident:

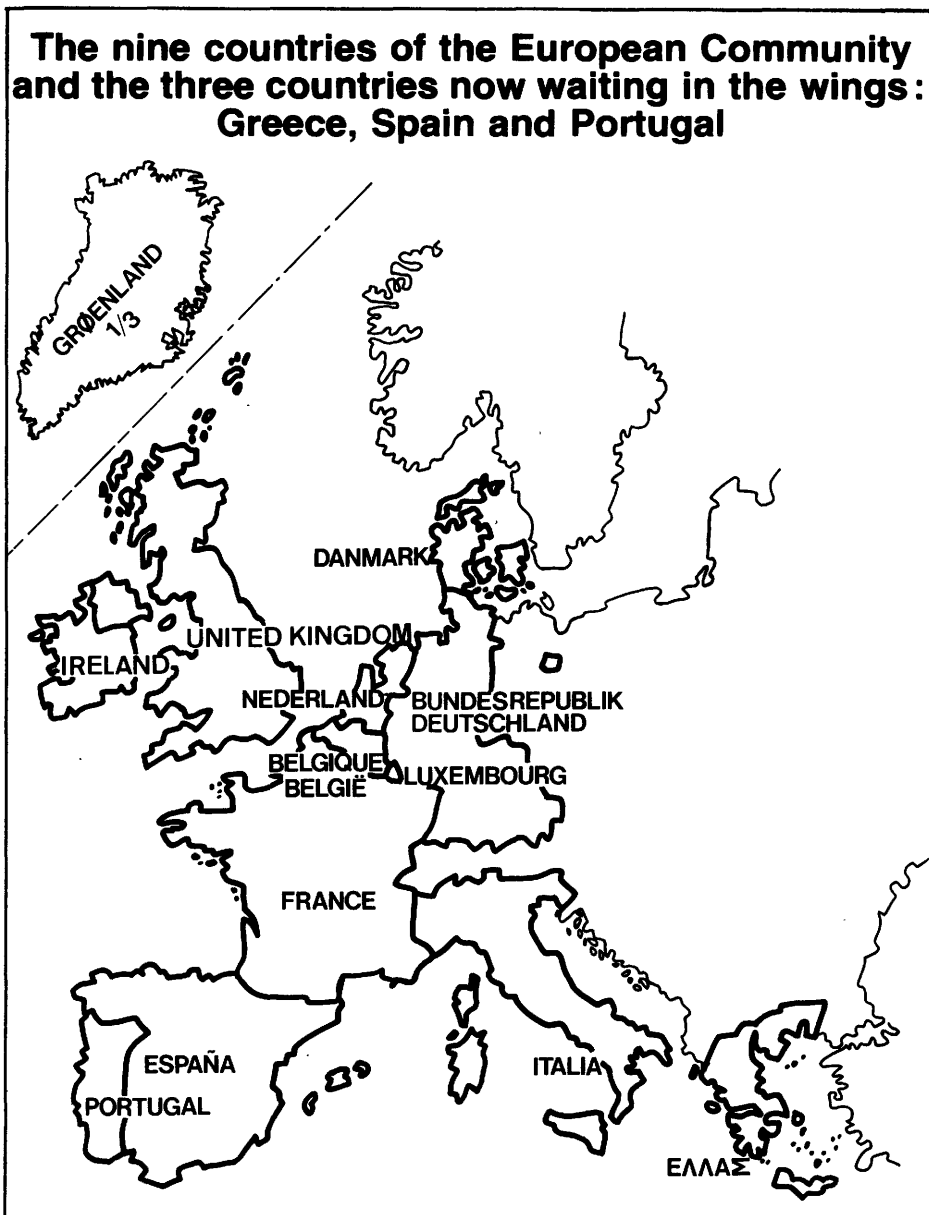
— trade between the Nine has made spectacular progress. Its value in million EUA increased sixteen-fold between 1958 and 1978 whilst, over the same period, world trade only increased by a factor of eleven. Today it is sufficient to cast a glance in shop windows to be convinced: the choice is more varied, the quality has improved; in short, our everyday life has become European;

— the creation of the Community has given a boost to economic growth which, for the six founding countries, was of the order of 90% between 1958 and 1972, compared, for example, to 42% in the United Kingdom which had not become a member;

— after the emergence of the international economic crisis in 1973, intra-Community trade continued to progress a little slower than trade with third countries. It represented 52% of the Nine's total trade in 1979. The Community countries have been able to resist the temptation to introduce permanent import restrictions. This refusal to go down the protectionist road and thereby destroy jobs is also due to the work of the Community.

No person or organization is perfect and one can certainly—according to one's point of view or political opinion—criticize various aspects of the Community's work. But here as elsewhere, we must mistrust the ideas and clichés to which we have tried to reply in this document.

In the future, the Community could serve the common interest of all Europeans as long as our countries become better aware of the great challenges of the 1980s: in an uncertain world, we will be stronger together than alone in fighting inflation, overcoming the energy crisis, modernizing industry and in reducing unemployment. ○



How to keep informed of the EIB's activities...

European Investment Bank: some questions and answers⁽¹⁾

Why do some countries appear to benefit more from European Investment Bank financing than others? How does the EIB cooperate with the Commission of the European Communities, which implements other Community sources of finance? Does the Bank lend at subsidised rates? When it appraises a project before deciding whether to make finance available, what are the criteria—is the possible impact on the environment taken into account?

These are fairly typical questions put to the Bank in its day-to-day contacts with industrial and financial circles, the media, public authorities, Members of Parliament, universities, etc.

There are a number of ways in which the Bank tries to meet the demand for information, the most important being its range of publications. These are available free of charge in all six official languages of the Community (Danish, Dutch, English, French, German and Italian, to which Greek will be added from the beginning of next year when Greece joins the Community) on simple request. For those seeking regular information, the Bank maintains a mailing list so that all new editions are sent automatically, again free of charge.

Apart from *EIB-Information*, current publications are:

The *Statute of the EIB*—the Statute is annexed to and forms an integral part of the Treaty of Rome which established the European Economic Community; this document is essential for a detailed understanding of the legal, financial and administrative framework in which the Bank carries out its work.

The *Annual Report*—far more than the accounts with detailed explanations of interest to financial analysts, the annual report for 1979, with colour illustrations, lists the projects financed by the Bank throughout the year, gives the global impact in terms of jobs created, oil import savings etc., details borrowing activities and also summarises the Bank's operations since 1958; a separate section looks at Community policies influencing the EIB's work and the economic background in the EEC and other countries in which the Bank

The EIB welcomes the growing interest, which reflects the considerable expansion of its work. In only the last three years loans came to more than 6 800 million u.a., half the total of the Bank's operations since 1958.

Moreover, it can be said that the fields in which the EIB operates (development of the Community's less prosperous regions, the reduction of dependence upon oil imports, industrial modernisation, cooperation with developing countries, etc.) are themselves seen more and more as of key importance to the Community's evolution and to the position which it holds in the world.

operates.

EIB-Key facts—a fold-out leaflet giving a concise, overall view of the Bank's activities, the aim being the maximum of information in the minimum of words.

EIB 1958-1978—an illustrated review of the Bank's evolution in its first 20 years with details of its lending and borrowing activities over this period.

There are also three technical brochures, intended mainly for those interested in the conditions and procedures for obtaining finance:

Loans and guarantees in the Member Countries of the European Community;

Financing under the second Lomé Convention; and

Financing outside the Community: Mediterranean countries.

In addition, the EIB operates a news release system, publishing at intervals throughout the year brief details of projects which it helps to finance. This is mainly for the media, but copies can be sent to organisations interested in receiving quick news of activities in specific countries or sectors.

The Bank welcomes requests from the media for information to check through information in articles being prepared on EIB activities or to prepare articles itself. *Texts in any of the EIB's publications may be reproduced* (an acknowledgement is always appreciated).

In addition to written information, the Bank participates, subject to staff and time limitations, in conferences, semi-

nars, etc. where it is able to communicate directly with interested groups (businessmen, government or local government officers, etc.) and accepts group visits.

Despite this multi-channel flow of information, and perhaps not surprising given the complexity of the Bank's operations, misunderstandings persist, often on important points. The remainder of this article takes up a few of these.

Are EIB loans made to member countries according to national quotas?

The EIB is a project-financing bank. It does not lend to countries as such but for public and private investment in all sectors of the economy which helps to promote:

— **regional development** (considered the priority task);

— **a common interest** to several member states or the Community as a whole;

— **modernisation or conversion** of enterprises.

Article 130 of the EEC treaty specifies these as the EIB's fields of action. Broadly speaking the Bank lends the most in those countries where the regional problems are greatest and according to the levels of investment in energy and other sectors of common interest.

A number of other factors may additionally have a bearing on the amounts

(1) *EIB Information*—no 22, July 1980.

lent in different countries, e.g. interest rates and availability of investment capital on domestic markets, government policies regarding money supply, public investment and exchange risk cover, etc. It is also worth noting that, without specifying any amounts or shares, a protocol to the treaty underlines 'particular problems relating to Italy' and stresses that Community finance sources have an important role to play in strengthening the economy, particularly in the Mezzogiorno. A similar protocol was annexed to the Treaty of Accession when Ireland joined the Community.

These two countries have accounted respectively for 36.5% and 7.4% of total EIB financing operations between 1973-79 (in relation to the size of its population, Ireland accounts for by far the highest concentration of EIB loans). The United Kingdom, with substantial regional problems, accounted for 28.9%.

Which areas qualify for 'regional development' financing?

Basically those which are eligible for financial aid under national regional aid schemes. There are, however, regions which are considered by the Community as having the highest priority: Ireland (the only member country whose entire national territory is considered as eligible for regional aid), the Mezzogiorno, Northern Ireland and Greenland. Two-thirds of total lending for regional development last year (1 150.4 million u.a. out of 1 722.8 million) was in these four regions. Another way of establishing priorities is to look at the levels of unemployment: almost four-fifths of finance provided for regional development last year went to areas with unemployment rates at least 25% above the Community average.

N.B. A common misunderstanding is that the EIB can lend only in regional development areas. Its other roles—financing investment of 'common interest' or industrial modernisation and conversion—leave it many possibilities for financing in other regions.

What does 'common interest' mean?

In the early years of the Bank's operations, most projects financed under this heading concerned cross-frontier transport links between member countries. Since the 1973-74 oil embargo, the major share of these operations has been taken by investment in various kinds of energy projects—hydro, coal-

fired, nuclear, geothermal power stations, oil and gasfield development, trans-European gaslines, etc.—which will help the Community cut its dependence upon oil imports (roughly 50% of the Nine's energy consumption in 1979).

Also under this heading, the EIB helps projects involving industrial, technical and financial cooperation between enterprises from different member countries so that, together, they reinforce their position on world markets (the European Airbus jetliner is a good example); development of European capacities in advanced technology fields of key importance (e.g. energy equipment) and for other kinds of investment which conform to specific Community policies, for instance environmental protection.

Can finance demands be made direct to the Bank? Who can apply?

In practice demands are made direct, although it is also possible for applications to be submitted through the member state in whose territory the project will be carried out or through the Commission. Under strict rules of banking secrecy the Bank informs the member state concerned, because it cannot finance any project to which the member state is opposed, and also the Commission (see question on cooperation with the Commission).

Outside the Community, potential investment projects are usually identified in direct discussions between the EIB and the authorities of the various countries during which their targets and priorities are examined. Of course this does not preclude direct approaches, but the country must not oppose a project being accepted for EIB financing.

Applications for finance can be made by public and private enterprises of varied legal status, local, regional or national public authorities with appropriate borrowing powers and by states themselves.

Does the Bank finance only large-scale investment?

No, in fact it gives special emphasis to helping small and medium-scale ventures; this is because of their importance in spurring on regional development, above all by diversifying activities and creating employment, usually at an investment cost per job much lower than in large industrial units.

The way the Bank helps these ven-

tures is to open lines of credit—'global loans'—to regional or national financing bodies. They use the funds to make sub-loans for relatively modest amounts (down to 25 000 u.a.) for a series of smaller investments chosen in agreement with the EIB.

Through these global loans the EIB can help to finance a vitally important layer of industry which it would not be a practical economic proposition to deal with directly. Close to 750 million u.a. was provided in global loans between 1968 and end-1979; last year alone, funds were drawn down to help finance some 415 ventures—90% of the credits by number and more than two-thirds by amount went to independent firms employing less than 500 people.

Further information on global loans—including a recent extension of this lending procedure to help finance small and medium-scale infrastructure works—will be found in *EIB-Information* no. 21 (May 1980) and no. 17 (June 1979).

Will the bank lend to non-Community firms investing in the Community?

Provided the investment project conforms with one or more of the tasks given to the Bank—regional development, the serving of a common interest, modernisation or conversion—and is shown to be viable, there is no reason to exclude firms in non-member countries or owned by interests outside the Community.

For the Bank it is the nature of the investment and the benefits which will stem from it which count, rather than the nationality of the promoter.

A number of American and Swiss companies or their subsidiaries have, for example, obtained loans for investment in member countries.

How does the EIB cooperate with the Commission, in particular concerning other sources of Community finance?

The Bank is an autonomous body but cooperation with the Commission, which is responsible for implementing other Community sources of finance, is of fundamental importance. This cooperation operates at a number of levels, the Bank's wish being always to ensure that its actions are not simply consistent with Community aims but are positively in support of them.

One of the members of the Bank's board of directors is nominated by the Commission (the place is filled by the Commission's director-general for economic and financial affairs) and he is in a position to explain to fellow directors the Commission's point of view on any subject under discussion. His alternate is the director-general for regional policy.

Moreover, as already mentioned, the Bank informs the Commission on each loan demand and asks for an opinion. If that opinion is negative, the loan can only be approved by a unanimous vote by the board of directors, the Commission nominee abstaining.

Less formally, there are virtually daily contacts between the Bank's staff and their opposite numbers in the different directorates-general of the Commission. Those members of the Commission who are particularly interested in the Bank's activities meet regularly with the EIB's management committee to review current and prospective developments of common concern.

There are certain fields in which EIB-Commission cooperation is on a particularly close operational basis:

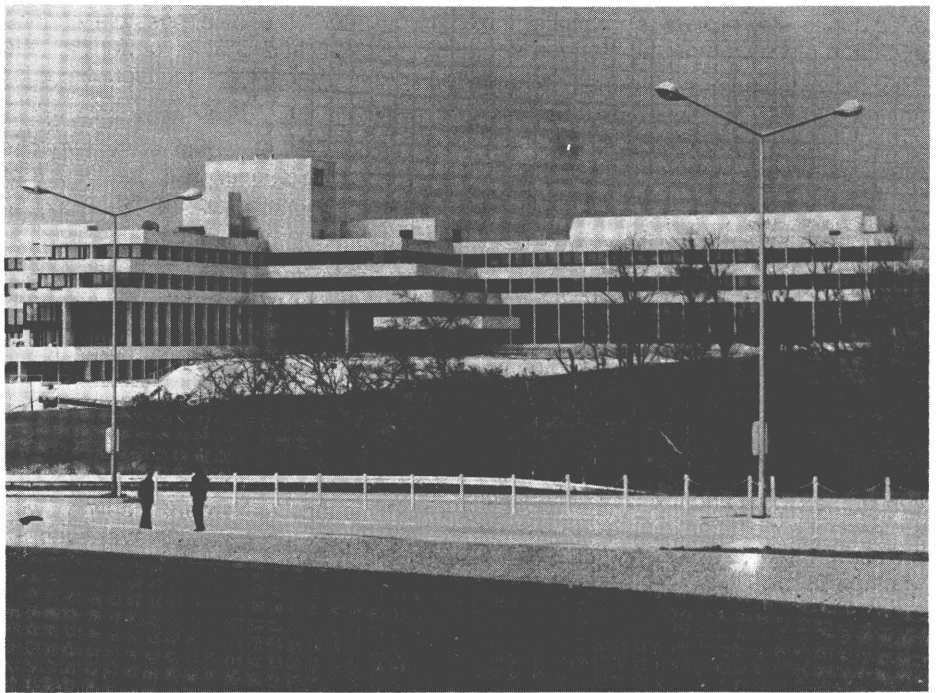
— New Community Instrument for borrowing and lending (Ortoli facility): the Commission borrows funds in the name of the EEC, which are used by the Bank for lending operations in favour of investment projects declared eligible by the Commission as conforming to certain priorities laid down in guidelines from the Council of Ministers.

— Euratom: funds are borrowed by the Commission in the name of the European Atomic Energy Community for the purpose of financing investment in nuclear plant; the EIB assures the project appraisals and loan management.

— European Monetary System interest subsidies: 3% interest subsidies can be applied to selected loans made by the EIB, both from its own resources and from those of the Ortoli Facility, for projects in less prosperous member countries fully participating in the EMS (Ireland and Italy have been designated as such); in each case projects are chosen in agreement with the government of the country concerned and subject to a decision from the Commission on the eligibility for a subsidy within guidelines set by the Council of Ministers.

— Development aid: there are very close links on the use by the Bank of various Community budgetary funds for carrying out 'soft' financing operations in developing countries.

— Coordination of borrowing operations on the capital markets by the EIB and the European Communities.



The new EIB head office in Luxembourg

Does the Bank lend at subsidised rates?

The Bank itself cannot offer any subsidies from its own funds. Its interest rates follow closely movements on the capital markets, where it procures its resources; as the Bank is a very well known, high credit-standing borrower (AAA rating), it can raise funds on the finest conditions, and this is basically the advantage which is reflected in the rates which the Bank offers to its own borrowers, bearing in mind that it adds only a very small margin to cover its operating costs, which are tightly controlled. The rate for a given loan will vary according to the currencies or currency in which it is paid out and the duration chosen.

However, there are possibilities for interest subsidies to be paid—subject to national and Community regulations—by member states themselves or public agencies. Subsidies may also be paid from the Community budget under the European Monetary System arrangements referred to earlier or from the European Regional Development Fund (this is essentially for making grants, but it is also possible to use the resources to grant 3% subsidies on certain loans).

Outside the Community, most loans made by the Bank from its own resources are granted with 2 or 3% subsidies, paid from Community budgetary funds, to reinforce the character of development aid.

Where the Bank uses budgetary funds, under mandate from the Community, for lending on special conditions

(minimal interest rate, extra long duration loans or risk capital operations) the subsidy element can be substantial; for example, some loans made in Mediterranean countries are for 40 years at an interest rate of 1%.

Does the EIB make its own project appraisals? If so, does it look at the impact on the environment?

Every investment project which the EIB helps to finance, inside and outside the Community, is subjected to a full appraisal of its viability, conducted by the Bank's own specialist staff of economists, financial analysts, lawyers and engineers. This appraisal covers the economic, financial, technical, legal, commercial and managerial sides of a project. The possible impact on the environment is one aspect of the appraisal and one which has been given increasing importance in recent years. The Bank takes into consideration not only physical effects such as gaseous emissions, liquid effluents, solid wastes etc. but also noise levels, effect on the landscape and the working environment.

Although the EIB is not a regulatory agency and has no powers to enforce any particular environmental code, it fixes as a minimum condition for lending the satisfactory fulfilment of all laws and regulations in force (regional, national and, where such exist, Community directives or regulations laid down in international conventions). Beyond formal compliance with existing regulations, the EIB also takes into

account in its project appraisals the evolution of environmental standards.

In less developed countries, where environmental directives may be missing or incomplete, the EIB normally requires that adequate criteria based on the typical standards of the corresponding technologies in European countries be adopted.

The Bank is involved with environmental questions in an even more direct way, i.e. it has helped to finance, under the regional development heading, a large number of sewerage projects to deal with industrial effluents. It has also supported certain specific, environmental protection projects concerning pollution of the Rhine and the Bay of Naples, atmospheric pollution by steelworks, oil pollution in the English Channel and the Mediterranean. It is common for loans made by the Bank to include finance for the installation of equipment designed to safeguard the environment.

Is the EIB non-profit-making?

Under the terms of the Treaty of Rome, the Bank operates on a 'non-profit-making basis', but it is also non-loss-making. The statute lays down that the Bank must cover its own operating costs and that it must generate sufficient income to progressively build up reserves equivalent to 10% of its subscribed capital. The board of directors has discretion in deciding on additional reserves.

These statutory and supplementary reserves—which at present stand at 712 million u.a.—are constituted mainly through the fact that the part of the Bank's capital paid in by the member states does not bear any interest for them, but gives a return to the Bank in being used for lending operations. Further income comes from reinvesting the reserves so built-up.

The surplus is significant in two ways: first, by being ploughed back into the Bank's reserves, it maintains in real terms the value of the capital paid in to the Bank, which must manage these funds in the interests of its "shareholders", the member states. Secondly, an appropriate level of reserves is essential to the Bank's high credit-standing on the financial markets, enabling it to perform its basic function of raising funds on the best possible conditions to finance its operations.

Is lending in developing countries "tied" to purchases from certain suppliers?

The Bank's principal concern is that whatever investment project it finances

should have the best possible chance of success and that it generates the maximum benefit for the country concerned.

It follows that equipment, services etc. must be chosen with the needs of the project always uppermost.

Broadly speaking, the Bank requires appropriate forms of competitive bidding (national or international invitations to tender or consultation) where amounts involved are fairly substantial.

In the case of international tendering, bidding must be open at least to undertakings in EEC member countries plus the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries when dealing with loans under the Lomé Conventions, or in the country directly concerned when dealing with loans under one of the cooperation agreements with Mediterranean region countries. The Bank is also prepared to provide financing to cover bids from firms based in countries where it borrows funds required for its activities (e.g. the United States, Switzerland, Japan, Austria) and in countries which, in the Bank's opinion, offer particular benefits for the project from the technical or geographical viewpoint. The Bank ensures that tender notices are published in the Official Journal of the European Communities.

The Bank reserves the right to monitor and approve tendering procedures, preparation of documents, vetting of bids, etc.

Once a loan contract is signed, are there any controls on how EIB funds are spent?

Loans made by the EIB are always for specific projects and borrowers are committed to using the funds for investments detailed in the loan contract for each project. The contract includes appropriate provisions for monitoring the implementation of the project and this work is carried out by two specialist departments, one for operations in the Community, one for outside.

The borrower must be able to account at every stage for expenditure (the procedure may be adopted, and frequently is, whereby the Bank actually pays out the loan against bills for equipment, services, etc.).

The Bank continues to maintain general surveillance on a project and contacts with the promoter while loan repayments are being made. After completion and start-up of operation, the practice is to carry out a final, internal examination comparing the results with

The EIB's total financing operations came to 3 071.1 million u.a. in 1979, against 2 188.3 million in 1978 and 1 571.5 million in 1977.

Investment in the Community accounted for 2 558.2 million u.a., of which — 2 281.2 million u.a. from the EIB's own resources, i.e. essentially proceeds of the Bank's borrowings on capital markets; and — 277 million u.a. from the resources of the New Community Instrument for borrowing and lending—'Ortoli facility' (see below).

Financing outside the Community, in countries which have signed association or cooperation agreements with the EEC, totalled 512.9 million u.a. last year, of which 420.9 million from the Bank's own resources and 92 million from budgetary funds which the Bank manages on the Community's behalf.

At 31 December 1979, the Bank's balance sheet total stood at 12 215 million u.a. as against 9 645 million u.a. at end-1978. The EIB's own funds, comprising paid-in capital, reserves and provisions, amounted at the same date to 1 342 million u.a. compared with 1 162 million u.a. at end-1978. The funded debt totalled 8 547 million u.a. (6 715 million u.a. at end-1978); the amount of loans and guarantees outstanding was 10 326 million u.a. (8 353 million u.a. at end-1978).

The New Community Instrument for borrowing and lending

The Commission of the European Communities has been authorised by the Council of the European Communities to borrow up to 1 billion units of account in the name of the EEC for the purpose of promoting investment in the Community. The Commission decides the eligibility of projects for a loan within guidelines laid down by the Council of the European Communities. The EIB receives the loan applications, examines them in accordance with its customary criteria, decides on the loans to be granted and the terms, and then manages the loans in the name, for the account and at the risk of the Community. The first 500 million tranche has been reserved by the Council for infrastructure and energy projects. ○

The office of Chairman of the Board of Governors—held by each board member in rotation, according to the alphabetical order of the names of the member states—is now filled by Mr Michael O’Kennedy, Governor for Ireland, until the end of the next annual meeting.

Board of Governors

Chairman	Michael O’Kennedy (Ireland)
Belgium	Paul Hatry, Minister of Finance
Denmark	Svend Jakobsen, Minister of Finance
Germany	Hans Matthöfer, Minister of Finance
France	René Monory, Minister for Economic Affairs
Ireland	Michael O’Kennedy, Minister for Finance
Italy	Filippo Maria Pandolfi, Minister of the Treasury
Luxembourg	Pierre Werner, Prime Minister, Minister of State
Netherlands	A. P. J. M. M. van der Stee, Minister of Finance
United Kingdom	Sir Geoffrey Howe, Chancellor of the Exchequer

The governors renewed the appointment for the years 1980, 1981 and 1982 of Mr Corneille Brück, director of the inspectorate-general of finance (Luxembourg), as member of the Bank’s audit committee which he had chaired previously. Mr Patrick L. Mc Donnell, secretary and director of audit, Office of the Comptroller and Auditor-General (Ireland), takes over the chairmanship of the committee for the next period up to the annual meeting in 1981. The other member of the audit committee is Mr Jørgen Bredsdorff, rigsrevisor, Audit Department (Denmark). ○

the main objectives identified during the appraisal.

Does the EIB cooperate with other development agencies, such as the World Bank?

The EIB was designed as a complementary source of finance—to work in conjunction with other resources for investment, not to replace them—and so it only finances part of any given project (up to 50% of fixed asset costs). The funds it provides must always be integrated in a sound, overall financing plan which may be composed of loans from other sources, grant aid from national or Community sources, suppliers’ credits, the promoter’s own funds, etc.

Outside the Community it has become almost standard practice for the EIB to co-finance projects with other aid agencies, e.g. the Community’s European Development Fund; bilateral aid agencies from member states, such

as the Commonwealth Development Corporation (United Kingdom), the Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (France) and the Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau, Deutsche Entwicklungsgesellschaft (Germany); the World Bank and its affiliates; various bilateral or multilateral financial institutions in the Arab oil-producing countries, and development agencies in other countries, such as the United States and Canada.

One good example of this international cooperation, but there are many others, is the financing of development of lignite deposits and construction of a thermal power station in Turkey, a project most important in helping to meet the country’s energy requirements and cut its considerable dependence upon oil imports: apart from the EIB and finance provided by the Turkish government itself, aid is been made available by the German, French and Italian governments, the World Bank, the Saudi Development Fund and commercial credits come from German, American and Japanese suppliers.

Who staffs the EIB?

All personnel employed by the EIB—who, incidentally, do not have the civil servant status as in other Community institutions: they are Bank employees—are nationals of Community member

countries, from a wide range of backgrounds including the commercial banking sector, central banks and public credit institutions, national and international aid agencies, industry and government. At end-1979 there were 437 people. It is interesting to note that since end-1972, the amount of operations carried out has risen almost six-fold, from roughly 525 million u.a. in 1972 to 3 070 million in 1979, the number of individual operations rising from 39 in 1972 to 180 last year. In the same period the number of staff has less than doubled.

Why is the EIB in Luxembourg?

The European investment Bank began operations in 1958 in Brussels. It moved to Luxembourg in 1968 following the decision taken in 1965 by representatives of member states concerning the provisional location of Community institutions. As part of this decision Luxembourg became the site for most of the Community’s credit and investment activities. The position rests there: the EIB’s seat in Luxembourg is still, legally-speaking, “provisional”, although no change is foreseen and indeed the Bank has moved since August to its own, new headquarters next to the Court of Justice, the European Parliament and Commission buildings.

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These are only some, and indeed among the simpler, questions which crop up frequently.

The Bank’s operations are technically complex and the tendency is for them to become more so as new responsibilities are given to the EIB, such as the lending operations from Ortolí facility resources, interest subsidies under the European Monetary System arrangements, use of risk capital in the Lomé Convention countries, etc.

But whatever the complexity, the Bank’s basic aims are simple and unchanging—to contribute towards economic and social progress within the Community and to strengthen Europe’s assistance to developing countries.

The Bank’s work, which obviously demands a certain degree of confidentiality, is not the kind which lends itself to overt publicity of a commercial nature, or advertizing.

But this said, the EIB has a conviction that as a public institution it has a duty to inform, not only those who have a direct, professional need for information, but also private individuals or organisations with an interest in the Community and its development. ○

CHANGE OF ADDRESS

As of 25 August 1980, the EIB’s head office address in Luxembourg changed to

100, Blvd. Konrad Adenauer
—PO Box 2005
1020 Luxembourg.

New telephone no. 43 79-1
New telecopier no. 43 77 04
Telex no. remains 3530 bankeu lu.

A glance at Community life⁽¹⁾

TECHNOLOGY



Go-it-alone policy means Nine take a back seat

One area of California is so popular with high-technology electronics and microchip companies that it has been nicknamed 'Silicon Valley' after the indispensable ingredient of these astonishing new products.

Although the modern world has perhaps grown weary and suspicious of the endless series of technological 'revolutions' in recent years, there is hardly any denying that the pioneers of Silicon Valley and their followers all over the world have indeed set in motion some fundamental changes affecting everyday life.

The miniaturization of electronic components through the development of mass-produced wafer-thin silicon chips for so-called integrated circuits has become as important as electricity, computers, transistors and other past technological discoveries.

Just because modern inventiveness moves so quickly nowadays, bringing amazing new processes with blazing rapidity, should not mean that these innovations are less worthy than those of the past.

The fact remains that the new micro-electronics industries can produce silicon chips containing 100 000 transistors on a surface about the size of a small insect's wing. A few chips assembled on a printed circuit board can perform as many operations as a room-sized computer 20 years ago, which was no mean achiever itself.

The first dramatic impacts of this new technology have been felt in the office and factory, where smaller and even cleverer systems take over the role of other machines, and even of workers. But this wave has created upheavals in the consumer product field as well, with new gadgetry that ranges from labour-saving appliances to toys.

There is no equivalent of California's Silicon Valley in Europe. Europe's two biggest makers of integrated circuits are Philips of the Netherlands and Siemens of Germany, but they are no higher than 10th and 17th respectively in the world ranking of such producers, behind the larger American and Japanese competitors.

As a result, much of Europe's market for such devices is supplied by American manufacturers. These have been turned out not only in Silicon Valley but also in new factories which these American firms have built in Europe.

In addition, Japan's largest computer company has also just announced plans to build a large new factory outside Dublin to mass-produce integrated circuits, and another Japanese firm which already has a plant in Ireland is considering setting up another in Scotland.

The consequence of this competitive edge by American and Japanese firms is that the European Community clients for these products purchase 65% of their integrated circuits outside the Community and are even more dependent on imports of the most advanced digital circuits.

This, according to a recently-released report by the European Commission in Brussels, amounted to a trade deficit bill of £162 million in 1979.

It also means that European industry is thought to be about two to four years behind in the production of these items

and is lagging considerably behind in the lucrative world market estimated to be worth about £35 000 million in the 1980-84 period.

The Commission's report states that not only will European firms lose out in the competition for these direct markets, but that the whole ability of virtually all other industries 'from machine tools to cars, from toys to telecommunications' will be affected by the application of this new low-cost technology.

It's not because Europe has not been trying to stay in this technological contest. As a matter of fact, individual Community member governments—in Germany, France, the United Kingdom and Italy—spent an estimated £216 million from 1974 to 1979, while Japan and perhaps the United States may have actually spent less in public funds in their support programmes.

The reason these other countries have obtained more for their money, according to the Commission study, is that these European plans are fragmented and designed to improve the position of separate national manufacturers, sometimes through licensing or joint ventures with American firms.

In an attempt to overcome this disadvantageous situation, the Commission has for the past four years been consulting government and industry experts to come up with a strategy to allow European industry to benefit from this new revolution.

This strategy has to be aimed at creating jobs in the Community to manufacture such products or else risk losing jobs by importing the labour-saving devices from outside.

It won't mean spending vast new sums of money to sustain the build-up of the Community industry, although it is estimated that it will cost some £60 million during the four-year period from 1981 to 1984.

But what is called for is a plan to break old habits of member states working against each other rather than cooperating.

First, the Commission plan calls for the creation of a databank to help point to all possible ways of cross-frontier

(1) From *Euroforum*.

Community cooperation. Specific research should also be done by universities and other institutions in the promising new field of designing by computer rather than manually.

The most urgent part of the plan, however, is the need to create a unified European market for the machines and equipment used to supply the new technology.

The funds to be dispensed under this programme should be carefully considered so as to stimulate the output of commercially useful products or techniques.

Therefore, close cooperation should take place with the eventual end-users in several Community countries, since a definite Community-wide demand should be assured before a commitment is made.

In a related plan, the Commission is also recommending to the Council of Ministers that instead of continuing to reserve virtually all the national markets in the Community countries for telecommunications equipment for domestic suppliers, at least 10% of public purchases for such equipment be opened up to competition from manufacturers in other Community countries.

This particular telecommunications market has been rising rapidly, to the point where world purchases of traditional equipment alone in 1977 were estimated at about £4.4 million. What is important again in this specific sector is for European companies to expand their share of their own Community

market instead of remaining confined to their own countries.

This would enable them in turn to be more competitive on the international market beyond the Community for the new, low-cost, efficient technology to support new services ranging from electronic mail to videotext and datacommunications by satellite or other devices.

What the Commission says is needed in these exciting new fields is nothing less than a 'new leap forward' just to keep abreast of the new technology and its world competitors.

Can machines help overcome the language barrier?

Many of us have some knowledge of a foreign language. Some people even know two or three. But very few have even a smattering of six. So, with Danish, Dutch, English, French, German and Italian all being official languages of the Community, it's not surprising that one third of all the people employed by the European Commission and one half of the European Parliament's staff are working full-time to overcome the language barrier.

They're interpreters, translators, revisers, experts in terminology, specialist legal revisers—and the corresponding management staff. Official texts have to be translated, dictated, typed, revised, typed again, printed and then dis-

tributed—all in six languages. In this way, in theory at least, everyone should be able to express themselves in their own language and yet be sure of being understood.

But all this takes time. It limits the scope for taking urgent action, and can cause considerable delays in the passage of Community business. It also takes a sizeable chunk out of the budget—40% of all administrative expenditure.

With the prospect of Greece joining the Community in January and Spain and Portugal likely to bring the number of member states to 12, the Community's translation problems become nightmarish: interpreting to and from nine languages at a meeting will need at least 30 people—twice as many as at present.

The recent report of the 'Three Wise Men', three independent experts consulted by the Commission, estimated that total translation staff will have to be increased by half in order to cope with nine languages.

With problems like these in mind, the Commission launched an action plan at the end of 1976 to facilitate the transfer of information between European languages. One of the most promising possibilities seemed to lie in introducing computer technology into multilingual activities and moving towards automating the translation procedure as far as possible.

The Commission now has a terminology data bank, Eurodicautom, for instance, and machine-readable dictionaries for computer-aided or human translations.

When the Euronet network was set up earlier this year with the aim of bringing data banks from all over the Community within easy and inexpensive reach of individual subscribers, the Commission began experimenting with a machine translation system, Systran, to see to what extent technical and scientific translations could be handled by machine.

First, an experimental version in the English-French language pair was tested in 1976, and a second test, on specialized agricultural texts, in 1978. After revision, it was found that the intelligibility of the machine-translated texts was exactly the same—98%—as for the same texts translated 'by hand'.

However, the old joke about the machine which was asked to translate the famous saying 'the spirit is willing but the flesh is weak' and came up with the nonsensical 'the alcohol is a volun-



teer, but the meat is flabby' still holds some truth. Revisers found it difficult to follow the logic of mistranslations made by the machine, and this meant that the cost in time needed for revision was much higher for machine translations.

Perhaps the most encouraging aspect of Systran was the scope revealed for improvement: between the first evaluation and the second, the average intelligibility of machine translations rose from 45% to 78%.

Though Systran will continue to be available through Euronet in the scientific, technical and transfer of know-how areas where it is most useful, it is too limited for the Community's wider needs.

Experience with Systran has encouraged the Commission to proceed with a much more ambitious research project—Eurotra. A group of experts brought together by the Commission in Luxembourg in 1978 decided unanimously on the need to create and operate at Community level a truly European machine translation system.

The technical specifications have now been drafted and CETIL, an international working party set up to advise the Commission, now feels that Eurotra could work.

A proposed five-year research and development programme and a second action programme are both at present being considered by the Council of Ministers.

If it is developed successfully, Eurotra will translate a given text simultaneously into all Community languages—though human post-editing will still be necessary in many cases.

The problems of multilingualism are also a subject of serious concern to the European Parliament, where all debates and documents have to be interpreted or translated into the present official Community languages.

A report has just been adopted by the Parliament recommending that a special committee should be set up to study the problems arising from the multilingualism of the Community.

Among other things, it will examine the legal framework within which 'official' and 'working' languages can be used, and monitor methods of limited translation—for example, the translation of certain less important or urgent documents into certain languages only.

They'll also be considering Community policy towards minority languages,

and the possible use of an intellectually-constructed language like Esperanto. One particularly important area of activity will be to monitor the progress of the Community's research into machine translation.

THE ECONOMY

Industrial production continues to give cause for concern

The downturn in industrial activity in the European Community appears to have gathered momentum in recent months as a result of a sharp fall in production in the second quarter of this year.

On the basis of provisional returns from eight of nine member states (the exception is Ireland), the unadjusted index of industrial production is estimated by Eurostat, the Community's Statistical Office publication, to have reached the level of 121.7 (1975=100) in June, which is a fall of 0.1 per cent on the corresponding month of the previous year.

This compares with year on year increases of 3.9 per cent in December 1979, 3.6 per cent in February last, and 2.3 per cent in April.

According to Eurostat, the view that industrial gloom is deepening is further supported by examining the quarterly movement of the unadjusted index, which shows growth falling from 5.2 per cent in the third quarter of last year, to 4.1 per cent in the fourth quarter to 3.9

per cent in the first quarter of 1980 to a mere 1 per cent in the second quarter.

All member states with the exception of Italy (up 2.1 per cent) experienced a fall in short-term growth between May and June of this year, ranging from a drop of 0.3 per cent in Germany to 4.3 per cent in Denmark.

Not surprisingly, businessmen continue to be more and more pessimistic. In July, the indicator which measures the business climate fell by 5.5 per cent.

The indicator, which is measured by production expectations and stocks of finished products, showed that the majority of chief executives who expect industrial production to fall in the months ahead rose by 6 per cent in July, an increase similar to June.

At the same time, those considering their stocks of unsold goods to be above normal increased by 5 per cent.

Order books are also showing more blank pages. The number of top businessmen who consider their order books to be emptier than usual increased by 7 per cent and those whose export expectations had deteriorated rose by 6 per cent.

Inflation continues to afflict all Community countries. Based on returns from eight member states (again Ireland is the exception) the consumer price index for the Community rose by 1 per cent between June and July.

Price rises varied from 0.2 per cent in Germany to 1.8 per cent in Denmark. Over a 12-month period, prices rose by 13.7 per cent for the Community as a whole, ranging from 5.5 per cent in Germany to 21.7 per cent in Italy.

In spite of a continuing high level of unemployment—around 5.9 per cent—civilian employment actually increased by 0.8 per cent last year, according to the latest Eurostat figures. Between 1974 and 1979, the working population increased by 3.1 per cent, even though the total population increased by only 1 per cent.

However, male employment remained static over this period, while the number of women in work increased by 5 per cent.

In the same period, employment in the services sector grew consistently, while jobs in agriculture and industry became fewer. For 1979, 54 per cent of all jobs were to be found in the services sector, 39 per cent in industry and 8 per cent in agriculture.



Commission seeks more oil technology research finance

The European Commission has asked the Council of Ministers to allocate some £16.8 million during 1980-82 to support a further 34 technology projects in the oil sector.

This support is designed to encourage technological developments directly related to the finding, exploiting, storage and transport of hydrocarbons and which could improve the security of the Community's energy supply.

This is the sixth year of a scheme first launched in 1974. Rate of support varies between 30 and 40 per cent of the total cost of the project.

Between 1974 and 1979 some £110 million has been distributed in support of 168 projects.

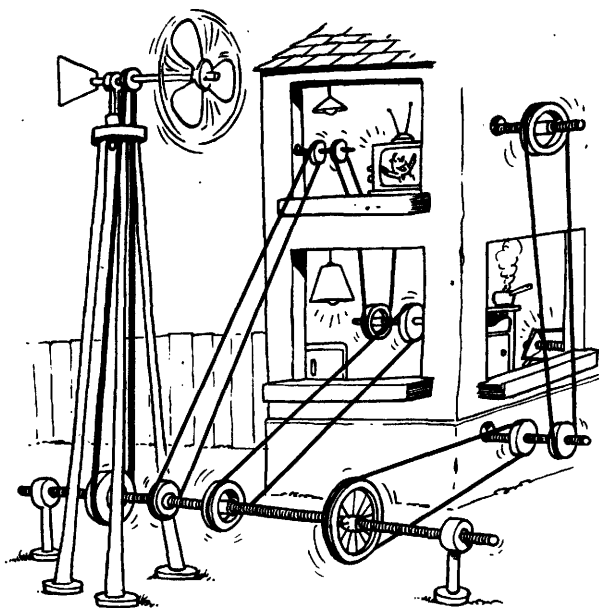
The new list of selections, which the Council is asked to endorse, includes five enhanced recovery projects which, if successful, could considerably increase Community reserves, as well as a number of projects on production in marginal fields, improvement in seismic data and interpretation, and advances in underwater construction and maintenance.

Lighting the way towards new energy sources

In a bid to help the nine member states to cut down on their use of energy, the European Commission is to spend around £16 million on a new series of projects demonstrating energy-saving techniques.

The aim of the projects is to demonstrate the feasibility of a wide variety of imaginative concepts, ranging from energy conservation in a Venetian hotel complex by the combined production of heat and electricity to using heat from the main sewer in the university city of Oxford to run a heat pump in one of the colleges.

Among the other ideas are a pump to heat Iona cathedral in Scotland which uses sea water; a system of recovering waste heat from a sulphuric acid plant



and using it to heat 15 000 homes in Rouen; the recovery of gaseous hydrocarbons which are at present lost to the atmosphere when road petrol tankers are being filled; the installation of solar-powered air conditioning, heating and sanitary requirements at a service station in Italy; and supplying heat on an industrial estate in Modena which will be obtained by burning some of the city's domestic waste.

The Commission will pay up to 40 per cent of the total costs of the 60 projects which were selected from more than 300 submitted.

A first series of grants made two years ago amounted to £12.6 million.

Europeans beginning to reduce dependence on imported oil

Calls for energy conservation which the European Commission and other authorities have been making to the public since the oil crisis plunged us into recession seem to be finding an echo at last.

Figures just released show that, up to mid-August, the Community's imports of crude oil and oil products this year were 12.5 per cent lower than in the same period last year.

In bulk terms, it is estimated that for the first nine months of this year imports amounted to 313 million tonnes, 44 million tonnes less than in the same period of 1979.

The figures gave particular satisfaction to energy commissioner Guido Brunner, who has been in the vanguard of the campaign to conserve energy and especially to reduce the Community's dependence on imported oil.

He described the results as 'a striking success for the Community as whole, proving not only the readiness on the part of the ordinary citizen to save oil, but also the success of Community efforts to coordinate the member state's energy saving measures.'

Mr Brunner said that, on the basis of the current figures, the Community will easily undershoot the target of no more than 472 million tonnes of oil imports this year, but he stressed that this was not an excuse for everyone to relax.

He warned that an even greater effort would be needed if the Community is to fulfil its declared intention to reduce its oil dependence from 54 per cent to 40 per cent of its energy requirements by 1990.

But he added hopefully: 'Europe is beginning to grasp the fact that the era when we could waste energy is gone.'

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Books about Europe

Louise WEISS — **Combats pour les femmes (Women's fights)** — Editions Albin Michel, 22 rue Huyghens, 75014 Paris — 270 pages — 1980

Here is a re-issue of volume 3 of *Memoirs of a European*, by Louise Weiss, the doyenne of the European Parliament.

This volume, complete in itself, tells the story of the author's energetic campaign between 1934 and World War II for political and civic equality for French women. As the nationwide army of suffragettes rightly pointed out, they were minors when it came to their rights but full citizens when it came to paying for any mistakes they made.

Heroic-comic scenes flow from the pen of Mme Weiss. No one escapes. We see recalcitrant senators losing on their home ground to "new women". We see sly, frightened MPs and we see aging feminists outraged by the spectacular tricks of the young, rash propagandists and bridling at the use of the audio-visual methods in their infancy.

There are enthusiastic crowds, faint-hearted ministers and war widows who have remarried in conflict with those who have not. And drama pervades this pandemonium. After World War I, which was selective in its victims (killing the young men), two million French women found themselves unable to do what they had been brought up to expect—found a family. The suffering of these other war victims, the women who stayed at home, has never been sufficiently emphasized.

In the background, behind these campaigns that every modern woman should know about (they did, after all, change her status), the convulsive movements of a dying regime are traced. The 1919-1939 armistice comes to an end. The Third Republic collapses after the first shot of World War II is fired and the nation is not really aware of what is now at stake in international politics.

Perhaps one of the most moving chapters is where Louise Weiss, who was also chairman of a committee for refugees, saves the lives of a thousand Jews on the Saint-Louis, the liner that sailed the Atlantic in search of a haven.

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Jean-Claude CLAVEL & Pierre COLLET — **L'Europe au fil des jours — les jeunes années de la construction européenne 1948-1978 (Europe day by day — the early years of European unification)** — Documentation française, 124, rue Henri-Barbusse, 93308 Aubervilliers Cedex — 400 pages — FF 38 — 1979

Decisions taken daily in Brussels over more than 20 years have formed the hard core of Europe, the European Economic Community. They create obligations for individuals and nations alike, duties that cannot be ignored or overlooked, and they bring progress, often unnoticed because it has become part of our daily life, in many a field.

It is this determined story that the authors, with their 25 years of experience, have set out to describe, explaining all the crises that have shaken Europe; and they discuss the main cases on which Community law is based.

The eight chapters contain a day-by-day account of the history of European unity, of the institutions, economy, industry, agriculture and social affairs of the European Communities and their relations with the rest of the world.

The work is based on a mass of official documents as well as some less well-known archives.

The index and the system of notes in the margin make it an easy-to-use work of reference in which the reader will find details of the main hopes, undertakings and achievements aimed at making the European Community thrive and progress. In a period of gloom, it is a salutary idea to take stock of all that has been achieved on the way to European unification.

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Les groupements d'intérêt européens (European interest groups) — Editions Delta, 92-94 Square Plasky, 1040 Brussels — 320 pages — Bfrs 990—1980

The treaties setting up the European Community provide for various interest groups to be involved in the Community decision-making process

and their influence, which is growing constantly, extends to all areas of Community life.

This work, which has been produced by the study and research division of the secretariat of the EEC's Economic and Social Committee, covers the 22 European central organizations (COPA, UNICE and so on).

It describes their structures, aims, degrees of integration and political priorities, shows how they go about influencing the legislative and executive powers in the Community and discusses their relations with the Economic and Social Committee.

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Les Comités consultatifs communautaires (The Community advisory committees) — Editions Delta, 92-94 Square Plasky, 1040 Brussels — 200 pages — Bfrs 495 — 1980

This publication, another in the series by the study and research of the EEC Economic and Social Committee, deals with the way socio-professional circles are consulted and involved in the Community decision-making process.

The first part contains a brief run-down of the 46 advisory bodies in the Community that are made up, fully or partly, of representatives of the various categories of economic and social life.

The second part is a series of annexes giving detailed technical information about each body (its legal basis, its members and how they are appointed, operation and activities, budgets, services, etc.).

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Basil de FERRANTI — **In Europe. One man's view of how Europe really works** — Eurosketch — Strange Printers Ltd, 1 Commercial Road, Eastbourne, East Sussex BN21 3XD — 55 pages — 1979

As chairman of the Economic and Social Committee of the European Community for two years (1976-78), no one certainly is better qualified to write about the Committee's activities

than Basil de Ferranti. But in subtitled this booklet, "One man's view of how Europe really works", he wrongly gives the impression that it is about the EEC as an institution.

In Europe, however, it must be admitted, is a profound and accurate account of the functions of the Economic and Social Committee. It contains a pictorial illustration of the relationship between the various institutions of the Common Market and traces de Ferranti's rise from the depths of Manchester politics to the fore of European affairs.

The Committee has no powers. It is a pressure group as well as an advisory body and, in de Ferranti's view, an effective one. The Council of Ministers, we are told, has adopted a number of the Committee's proposals in the field of nuclear energy and social affairs, and on the economic front, helped to reinforce "the Commission's attempts to influence the member states towards greater convergence of their economic policies".

In view of recent disputes over lamb and fishing rights, one is tempted to question how successful the Committee really has been in practice.

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The financial instruments of the European Community — Editions Delta, 92-94 Square Plasky, 1040 Bruxelles — 318 pages — 425 BF — 1979

This document presents a critical assessment of the Community's activities in recent years. It begins with a description of the operations of the European investment Bank (EIB), the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), the European Social Fund (ESF), the guidance section of the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF) and the ECSC Fund and then summarises the features and weak points of each of the financial instruments examined.

Finally, suggestions are made as to how the different instruments could be better coordinated in areas where Community policies already exist.

The document was drawn up by the division for studies and research of the secretariat-general of the Economic and Social Committee of the European Communities.

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European Communities Who's Who — Editions Delta, 92-94 Square Plasky, 1040 Bruxelles — 500 pages — 1950 BF — 2nd edition 1980-81

Alone of its kind as a work of reference, the *European Communities and other European organizations Who's Who* includes biographical details of those who are building today's Europe and preparing tomorrow's: politicians, senior officials of the main European organizations, accredited diplomats, leading personalities in the private and public bodies which are helping to build Europe (European movements, professional associations set up at Community level, etc.).

The *who's who* is a useful complement to the European Communities Yearbook.

Is available in both English and French.

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Solar radiation atlas — CEC — W. Grösschen-Verlag, Postfach 170, Südwall 15, 4600 Dortmund 1, Germany — 1980

The Commission has just published a solar radiation atlas for Europe which commissioner Guido Brunner describes in a foreword as being of fundamental importance for the development of solar technologies of all kinds.

The atlas, which is being brought out in all six Community languages, contains 17 full-colour maps showing the extent of solar radiation throughout the Community at various times of the year.

Mr Brunner says that the scientists and engineers will have a new source of data in the atlas. The information is presented in a readily understandable and practical form, and the Commissioner says: "I hope the atlas will find a wide response and will thus contribute to the further development of solar energy in Europe."

The atlas was drawn up by the European Commission in cooperation with the national weather bureaux. Maps derived from data gathered at 56 measuring stations over 10 years provide information on average values, as well as maximum and minimum incidence of solar energy month by month and over the year.

It proves that solar power could make an essential contribution to the

Community's energy supply even in the more northerly parts of the Community. In the year 2000 it should cover 7% of the Community's energy needs, saving 130 million tonnes of oil.

The atlas has been produced as part of the Community's solar Energy Research and Development (R&D) Programme for which a budget of 46 million European units of account has been provided for 1979-83, double the amount of the previous four years.

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Women and the European Community — 110 pages — Commission of the European Communities — Catalogue number: CB-24-78-281-EN-C — Price: £ 4 or \$8

This publication is for the information of those interested in the situation of women in the European Community and in particular for women in politics, trade unions, education and journalism who require reference material on action taken by Community institutions and on the comparative situation of women in the various member states.

The document starts by recalling the objectives and the functioning of the Community, and describes measures taken, especially in the fields of equal pay and treatment. It continues in the form of commented graphs which demonstrate the difference between countries as regards demography, employment, working conditions, unemployment and training. Lastly, a set of reference texts and documents is provided in the form of appendices.

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Wall map of the European Community, its Member States, and their regions and administrative subdivisions — 57 × 76.5 cm or 110 × 148.5 cm, colour

This wall map, in the six Community languages (Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Italian) shows the European Community and its member states; their regions; administrative subdivisions such as *département*, *regierungsbezirke*, *amt*, countries; national, regional, provincial, departments capitals; the 13 countries that surround the Community (simplified details) and the most important rivers.

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Traditional fishing (here on a lake in Madagascar), whether at sea or inland, is an excellent means of guaranteeing supplies of fresh fish in many parts of the Third World...

Fishing in

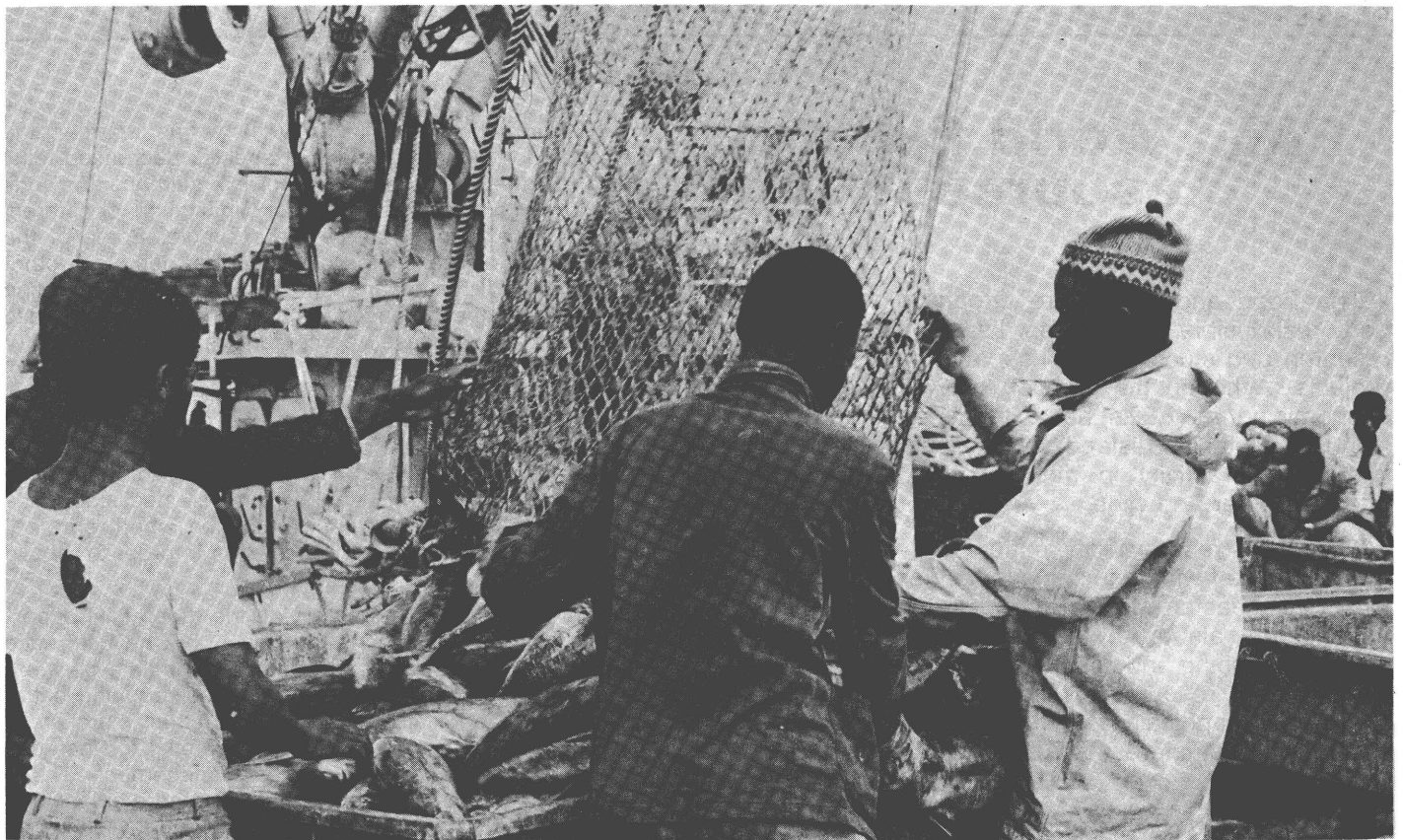
Fish has only come high on the list of world food resources since the Third World's food crisis became so acute. In the industrialized countries, catches in some areas are on the decrease. As well as being particularly rich in protein, fish is a food that can be developed without disadvantage to any of man's other agricultural activities—unlike beef, for example—and fish can be raised in any lake or watercourse once any pollution problems have been overcome. Fish was in plentiful supply for a long time. Third World fishermen only used simple craft methods, practising subsistence fishing, in their immensely well-stocked territorial waters, while consumption in the industrialized countries, which fished on a large scale, was not very high and tended to be restricted to one or two types of fish (sardine, cod, pilchard, tuna and so on).

The extension and expansion of the fishing industries have led to an increasing demand for fish and the industrialized countries have developed fishing boats with potential catching

and processing capacities such that they have to go further afield, to all the oceans of the world. And so the pelagic resources of many countries are being depleted.

This led the UN to call an international conference to look at ways of preserving and rationally exploiting marine resources. This conference, on the law of the sea, finished work in Geneva (Switzerland) last August when it adopted regulations which should theoretically enable coastal states to have greater control over resources in their waters, i.e. in the 200-mile exclusive economic zones (EEZs) off their shores. And fishing activity in industrialized countries, which have extensive means and use international waters, will now have to take account of medium and long-term human needs in this field. In 1977, the FAO began a number of major studies on marine resources in the various regions of the world with a view to highlighting the risks of irrational exploitation of fish in the different oceans.

Fish can be an excellent means of combatting



... Whereas modern industrial fishing, despite its greater productivity, is often prevented from actually feeding people by the problems of preserving and distributing the catch

the ACP states

hunger in the coastal states in the ACP countries and the Third World in general. These countries' maritime and inland fishing potential is considerable but their technical capacity, in both men and machines, is small. The first thing they must do is seek a way of overcoming their technological handicaps and coping with their shortage of qualified fishery workers. They must also be careful to protect their resources and prevent the seas and oceans from being overfished, which is often unnecessary since these countries have small populations compared to their fish resources. The organization of fishery development is the main concern of coastal states in the Third World and the FAO had planned to spend \$35 million in 1980 to lay the foundations of a profitable fisheries industry for them.

Our dossier this time is on the problems of developing, protecting and preserving fish resources in the ACP group and the Third World in general, with Mauritania, Cameroon and Papua New Guinea serving as case studies.

An article from the Overseas Scientific and Technical Research Office (ORSTOM) in Paris outlines the biological factors affecting the life and reproduction of fish.

For some years now, the Community has represented all the member states in fisheries affairs with third countries and relations with third countries are explained in detail, to show just what the aims of the fisheries agreements is. And, in more than 20 years of cooperation with the ACP countries, the EDF has financed various fish and fish-farming projects which are also described here.

Lastly, if the countries of the Third World, and the ACP states in particular, have neither the technological means nor the skilled labour they need, might not the answer be found in joint ventures with European and ACP partners? The dossier also discusses this approach which, if the joint ventures are established on an equitable basis, could both provide the ACP countries with the knowhow they need and help to meet the European demand for fish. ○ LUCIEN PAGNI

FAO: World fishery resources

The Food and Agriculture Organization is the UN body responsible for fisheries. Its activities range from research and studies to conservation and exploitation projects. Although the creation of 200 mile exclusive economic zones (EEZs) has extended the control of the world's coastal and island states, fishing is still a very international activity in many waters. Fishing fleets often travel far and wide.

The FAO's responsibility is therefore world-wide, and it is concerned with the fishing industries not only of the industrial coastal states and the traditional fishing nations, but also with the developing world with its emergent fishing industries. The following survey of world fishery resources is edited from a recent FAO study. Geographically, we have concentrated on the oceans of most interest to ACP countries.

Trends in catches

The total world catch in 1977 fell slightly from the record level of 1976. Preliminary figures for 1978 suggest a return to about the 1976 level (see table 1). This is consistent with the pattern that has existed since 1969 of a global production fluctuating about a trend line showing a very slow upward increase (perhaps 1-2% per year). It contrasts with the trend before of a steadier and much greater increase of around 7% per year. The reasons for this change are well known—that there are now few unexploited stocks of abundant species which can readily be caught and marketed by convenient methods, and which provided the opportunities for rapid expansion in the 1950s and 1960s.



Fishermen bringing their nets ashore in Tema harbour, Accra

In 1966 the degree of utilization (catches as a percentage of potential) for different groups of species decreased fairly steadily from the heavily exploited herring, salmon and cods to the unexploited krill. The pattern of exploitation for different groups in more recent years is less simple. Some of the lightly to moderately exploited groups (other demersal, other pelagic, tuna and crustaceans) show an increase in utilization corresponding to the increased effort that has been applied to these groups. An increased percentage is also apparent for salmon, though this has arisen from better management rather than increased fishing. For the herring and anchovy, and to a lesser extent flounders and cod, the apparent degree of utilization has decreased; this is because the stocks concerned have been overexploited, and some have collapsed. Increasing the catches from these stocks depends entirely on better management, requiring short-term but possibly severe restriction on the catches in order to rebuild the stocks.

It is therefore possible to subdivide the theoretical opportunities for increased catches—as given by the difference between current catches and estimated potential—between those involving increased fishing and those requiring better management. In addition to herrings and cods, there are a number of other stocks for which the potential for increase comes wholly or partly from better management. These include some other pelagic stocks that have more or less collapsed, e.g., Namibian pilchard, as well as many demersal stocks.

It should be stressed that the theoretical opportunities for increased catches are most unlikely to be fully realized, for a number of reasons. First, many of the estimates are based on assessment of stocks of individual species. Where several species inhabit the same area, the interactions between species causes the greatest sustained yield of all species taken together to be less, and sometimes appreciably less, than the sum of the maximum sustainable yields of the individual species as estimated by considering each one in isolation. Secondly, it would be extremely difficult to manage many stocks, especially the highly variable ones, sufficiently accurately as to achieve the maximum catch. In fact it may be necessary to harvest many shoaling pelagic stocks (herring, anchovy) at a level appreciably below the level giving the theoretical maximum in order to maintain a buffer against possible unexpected adverse conditions. Thirdly, several of the stocks from which greater catches could be taken by fishing are scattered, of low value or otherwise not economically attractive. For example, there are significant underutilized stocks of horse mackerel in the Mediterranean. Though the existence of these stocks is well known, there is no immediate prospect of increased catches.

The actual increases in catches of "conventional" species that might be achieved in practice will therefore be less than the 50 million tons (40% by better management and 60% by increased fishing). Nevertheless a considerable opportunity for increase does exist, possibly up to 80 million tons, the additional 30 million tons coming perhaps equally from management and increased effort.

Effects of extended jurisdiction

By 1977 the new regime of the sea had become fairly generally recognized, and many countries had extended their jurisdiction over fisheries, usually to 200 miles. While the legal aspects of the new regime are reasonably clear, the implications for actual operations, and for the total world catch, are less certain. When wide limits for fishery jurisdic-

tion were first claimed, there was a tendency for foreign vessels to be excluded from the new zones, even where locally-based vessels were not immediately available to replace them. This could result in some drops in local catches (e.g., the catch of Patagonian hake dropped from 600 000 tons in 1967, mainly by the USSR, to 70 000 tons, all locally caught, in 1969). Coastal countries are now better aware that, since the resource is renewable and provided overexploitation is avoided, little advantage is gained in prohibiting foreign fishing in the period before local capacity has developed and there can be benefits from licence fees, etc.

Consideration of how coastal states can best benefit from resources currently exploited by foreign vessels, the collection and analysis of the necessary data, and the determination and implementation of the appropriate policies has been furthest advanced by the larger developed countries (notably the USA and Canada) off whose shores large long-range fleets used to operate and indeed still do. In comparison some of the developing countries have progressed less, and it will be one of the main objectives of FAO's programme of assistance to developing coastal states for the management and development of fisheries in exclusive economic zones

Table 1
Annual world fish landings
(million tons)

	1948-1952	1953-1957	1958-1962	1963-1967	1968-1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Total: all species	21.9	29.0	39.8	53.9	67.1	67.6	71.3	71.0	74.7	73.5
Inland waters	2.5	3.8	5.8	7.3	8.9	10.3	10.3	10.7	10.6	10.8
Anchoveta,	0.0	0.1	3.7	9.0	10.0	1.7	4.0	3.3	4.3	0.8
Marine: less anchoveta	19.4	25.1	30.3	37.6	48.2	55.6	57.0	57.0	59.8	61.9

Table 2
Present catches and potential for increases for major groups of species

Stock	Potential ('000 t)	Total world catch (1)				Potential increase from natural stocks			Aqua- culture
		'000 t		% of potential		Total	Manage- ment (1)	Increased effort	
		1966	1977	1966	1977				
Salmon	56650	453	480	70	74	170	170	—	(+)
Flounder & Cods	6 700	4 692	3 786	70	57	2 914	2 500	400	(+)
Herring & Anchovy, etc.	15 600	13 709	1 801	88	12	13 799	13 800	—	—
Shrimps & Lobsters	1 6707	830	1 542	50	92	128	25	100	(+)
Tuna	2 260	1 031	1 592	46	70	668	100	550	(+)
Other demersal	37 100	9 628	17 097	26	46	20 003	4 000(1)	16 000	—
Other pelagic	40 200	13 045	28 655	32	71	11 545	3 000	8 500	(+)
Cephalopods	(50 000?)	833	1 165	2	2	(50 000)	—	(50 000)	—
Other molluscs	Not defined	2 115	3 011	—	—	—	—	Probably large	(++)
Krill	(50 000?)	—	123	—	0.2	(50 000)	—	(50 000)	—
Mesopelagic fish	(50 000?)	—	—	—	—	(50 000)	—	(50 000)	—
All "conventional"	104 810	43 388	53 361	41	51	50 120	19 970	30 150	—
Total marine (2)		48 121	62 178						

(1) Figures of catches exclude discards at sea.

Potential increase by utilization of these discards included under "management".

(2) Includes species groups (seaweeds, crabs, etc.) not considered in this table.

(+) Denotes aquaculture possibilities limited to fattening with specially provided food.

(++) Or + denotes opportunities to increase production from aquaculture using natural food sources.

(EEZ) to assist those countries chiefly concerned in the wide range of activities involved, from determining broad national policies to the detailed assessment of individual stocks.

Judging by the experience of those areas (e.g., off North America) where the process of the exercise of jurisdiction by the coastal state has proceeded furthest, the net effect on catches will often be some slight decrease, particularly in the short term, from peak catches in recent years. There are two reasons for this. First, recent rate of exploitation has often been above the optimum level; on nearly any criterion of what is "optimum". There is therefore the need for a short-term reduction in catch while the stock is rebuilt to the more desirable level. Secondly, the coastal state, taking account of the many social and economic considerations involved, may often opt for a level of exploitation rather below that which would theoretically give the greatest gross catch, in order to have, for example, higher catch rates, a more stable stock, or an insurance against unfavourable environmental conditions.

Assessments

Following the establishment of EEZs, there is a greatly increased demand for detailed, precise and up-to-date assessments on which to base management measures such as catch quotas, etc. These are often not available.

There are several reasons for this. One is the continued absence of adequate statistics from certain fisheries, notably some major long-range fleets fishing off West Africa. Another is the shortage of scientists with the correct mixture of biological and ecological experience and mathematical competence; to some extent this problem is being reduced through regional or subregional working parties in which the expertise in a number of countries can be pooled. These groups have been a feature of resource assessment in the North Atlantic for many years, but are becoming more active in other regions, especially those served by FAO regional bodies. Again, FAO is planning, under its EEZ programme, to give attention to these problems.

Inland fisheries

The situation in the inland fisheries has changed very little in the last few years. The growth rate in the total recorded inland catch over the last five years has been slightly over 1% per year and similar in all regions. Owing to the varying reliability and coverage from country to country, the data are relatively insensitive to short-term growth or decline. The primary reason for the nearly static production in inland waters is that most of the natural fish resources are nearly fully utilized, at levels that can be improved upon only with difficulty. The important underexploited stocks are to be found in areas remote from human population centres, such as in the large swamps of Africa, the Amazon Basin, and similar regions. Development of these resources is generally not feasible unless transport and processing costs can be kept very low or the fish can command high prices. Nevertheless, with improved transport networks, effective preservation and construction of permanent living space within these regions, substantial increases in production can be achieved.

While such improvements are occurring, the damage to fish stocks resulting from use of natural waters for the disposal of wastes, and excessive use of pesticides which find their way into lakes and rivers, continues, with resulting reduction in fish yield. Similarly, the loss of highly productive flood plains in many tropical river systems due to hydroelectric and flood control schemes also contributes to reduced yields.

The more rapid growth in production from aquaculture does not show in the overall inland statistics as its contribution to

the total is quite small in most cases. In Asia, where the aquaculture production is a large fraction of the total production, the statistics are not up-to-date. It is generally thought, however, that the rate of growth of aquaculture is currently of the order of 5-6% per year. If this rate of growth is to be maintained, major governmental support will be needed in such areas as financing, supply of services such as extension and research, and in appropriate legal provisions supporting the industry.

Western Central Atlantic

This region's biological potential is large, and at present relatively few stocks are fully exploited, namely menhaden, sardinella in Venezuela, the larger species of tuna, demersal fish around some of the islands and shrimp. (Reaching the potential shrimp catch shown in Table 2 will require better regulation of the fisheries, not increased fishing effort.) The major opportunities for increased catches are:

1. clupeoid fishes other than menhaden in the northern Gulf of Mexico;
2. croakers in the northern Gulf of Mexico and off the Guianas;
3. porgies and grunts on Campeche Bank off southern Mexico;
4. squids throughout the region.

In addition to these opportunities for capture fisheries, there is a large potential for oyster and mussel culture in several of the continental countries. But for the time being none of these biological opportunities seems to be economically attractive. Several hundred thousand tons of croakers, for example, are actually caught each year by shrimp trawlers but discarded at sea. It seems unlikely, therefore, that the total catch from the region will increase very much unless new demand develops for the more abundant species.

Eastern Central Atlantic

Serious deficiencies in fisheries statistics, which have been stressed on various occasions, still make it difficult to draw precise conclusions on the present state of many stocks and fisheries. This lack of information has serious consequences on the assessment of the resources in certain sectors (e.g., between Senegal and Sierra Leone). But the major drawback is caused by the lack of appropriate details on the species composition and the geographical location of catches by some of the most active countries fishing in the region. As a consequence the production of many of the major stocks, and of the grounds within individual EEZs, is still known only very approximately. These limitations are more serious for the northern part of the area, which, because of its large resources, has always attracted most of the long-distance fishing effort.

In the northern part, hake and sea breams which, with cephalopods, represent the most valuable resources in the area, have been overexploited for many years.

In the same sector, pilchard catches have considerably increased in the last years. From 400 000 tons on average in the early 1970s, they almost reached 1 million tons in 1976. This increase is essentially due to the development, mainly by long-distance fleets, of a new fishery in waters south of the grounds where the Moroccan boats used to operate.

The state of sardinella, horse mackerel and mackerel stocks, distributed from northern Mauritania to Guinea, is not so well known. There are indications that mackerel might be overexploited and horse mackerel fully fished whereas the sardinella stocks might be able to support higher catches.

The demersal potential of the Gulf of Guinea—from southern Mauritania to the Congo river mouth—is believed to be



FAO

EDF funds have been provided for "operation pêche" at Mopti on the Bani river in Mali. Here a local woman takes home one of the results of the project

between 240 000 and 300 000 tons. In the whole sector, the most valuable stocks in the inshore (0-50 m) waters appear to be close to full exploitation. The offshore demersal stocks (50-200 m) remain underutilized, but, under the present conditions, much increase in their rate of exploitation is unlikely, for their low abundance and the resulting low catch rate makes their exploitation uneconomic.

In 1977 catches of round sardinella off Ghana and the Ivory Coast came back to earlier levels. Although its present state has not yet been analysed, the stock seems to have recovered from the extremely severe depletion observed from 1972 to 1975. The potential and present state of the sardinella stocks distributed from southern Gabon to southern Angola remain to be assessed. Substantial catches—150 000 tons in total, mainly by non-coastal fleets—were reported for 1977.

South-east Atlantic

After a few years of consecutive decline, the total production of the region has started to increase again.

Measures have become necessary to rebuild the stocks to a more desirable level. These measures—increased mesh size and catch limitations—have resulted in a temporary reduction in current yields. For the Namibian pilchard stock the drop in catches was drastic, with all the features of the collapses so often observed in coastal pelagic stocks. The sustainable yield from the present small stock is only a very small fraction of what it was in the early 1960s, before excessive exploitation began.

The ICSEAF(*) adopted a quota of 415 900 tons for the hake in the northern area. Although appreciably lower than the 1978 quota (480 000 tons), it is not expected to produce a substantial improvement in the stock size. For the southern sector, South Africa has indicated that it will set the quota

(*) International Commission for the South-East Atlantic Fisheries.

between 125 000 and 150 000 tons (130 000 tons in 1978) after the full statistics for 1978 have become available and that it is possible to revise the assessment made during the meeting with incomplete statistics.

The Namibian-based fisheries for mixed pelagic species have also been given considerable attention because the present state of the pilchard stock in that sector raises serious concern.

The state of the mixed-species pelagic fishery in the Cape sector raises less concern.

Catches of horse mackerel in the northern part of the region have continued to increase. They exceeded 500 000 tons in 1977. The stock is probably close to full exploitation but not overfished as yet thanks to the above-average strength of the year-classes presently in the fishery.

Mackerel stocks are intensively exploited throughout the region but their exact present state remains to be determined.

The exploitation of sardinellas along the coast of Angola was resumed in 1977, mainly by non-coastal countries. Present catches are probably similar (about 100 000 tons in 1977) to those made before the country became independent.

Western Indian Ocean

Although the fishery resources of the Western Indian Ocean remain among the least known of those in any part of the world, there have been recently some improvements in the understanding of the resources. In particular mention should be made of the surveys carried out, as part of a multi-ship, multinational survey in the Gulf, between Iran and the Arabian Peninsula, as well as surveys in the Arabian Sea and of East Africa. Information from the latter, as well as other material, was reviewed at workshops in Karachi (concerning

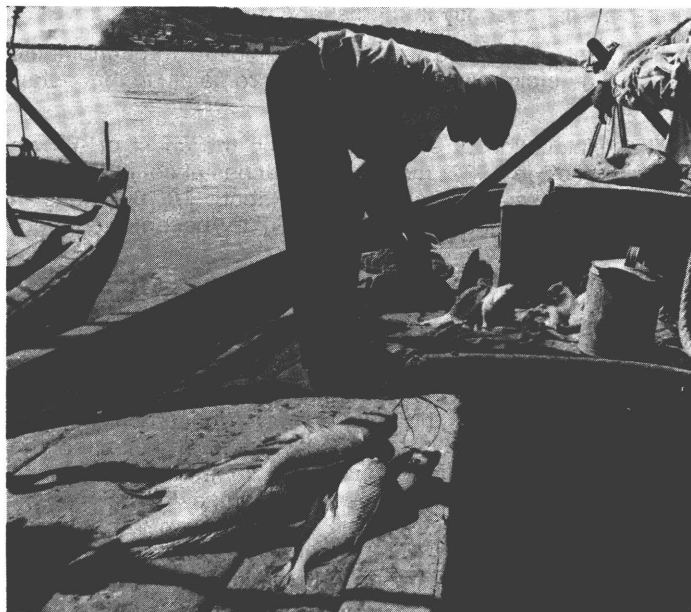
the northern Arabian Sea) and in the Seychelles (concerning waters south of the Equator).

Western Central Pacific

Total catch from the area in 1977 increased by about 7% from that in 1976 and approached about 5.8 million tons, the greatest catch ever reported from this area. An increase in the catch in 1977 was reported by most of the major fishing countries, including the four biggest fishing countries—Thai-



Repairs being carried out on a fishing boat in Antigua (above), and (below) sorting out some of the catch in one of the islands inlet harbours



land, Philippines, Indonesia and Malaysia. Catches by the Pacific island countries do not show consistent changes in recent years; some of them increased but the others decreased.

Fishing by vessels based outside the region is confined almost entirely to tuna.

Demersal fishes in coastal waters in the area (shallower than 50 m) have generally been intensively exploited, while further offshore waters still remain at an underexploited level.

Shrimp stocks around the Philippines and most of the western region of the area generally appear to have been approaching full exploitation.

Small schooling pelagic fish such as Indian mackerels, round scads, sardines and anchovies are harvested throughout the western part of the region.

The catch of small pelagic fish in the Arafura Sea has been limited to an artisanal level. They play an important role in the pole-and-line skipjack fishery as bait fish. The same role is observed in waters around Papua New Guinea and the Pacific Island countries.

South-west Pacific

The fisheries in this region, and the conditions under which they operate, are changing substantially as a result of the general extension of national jurisdiction. Part of the tuna fishing grounds and virtually all the grounds for other species are coming under control of the coastal state. In the long run this can be expected to lead to a decline in the fishery by non-local vessels, and their replacement by locally-based fleets. In the short-run, however, extension of limits in other parts of the world has brought an influx of long-range vessels into the South-west Pacific and in particular to the deep water grounds south of New Zealand.

Extension of jurisdiction has also focused attention on the need for better evaluation of the resources, especially in order to set catch quotas for foreign fleets working inside the new EEZs. In general, estimates of potential catches for the resources in the region are poor. Preliminary results from some of the studies suggest that the potential of the deep water demersal resources around New Zealand (including the Campbell Plateau) might be between 0.5 and 1.0 million tons.

Tunas

Tunas have a world-wide distribution in the warm and temperate oceans; they supply a global market, and are, to a large extent, exploited by fleets that range over all oceans. Also several of the major influences on tuna fishery, particularly the effects of the new regime of the sea, are common to all oceans.

Catches of skipjack in most areas show great year-to-year variations, while in most areas it is believed to be as yet not fully exploited. The Indian Ocean in particular seems to offer opportunities for greatly increased catches.

For the larger species it is generally agreed that the classes of tuna (mostly the biggest sizes) caught by the longline gears in all oceans have been fully exploited for some time.

At present probably two-thirds of the total tuna catches are taken within 200 miles, the proportion being higher for the surface than for the longline fisheries. In some areas, e.g., the western Pacific, the interlocking pattern of 200-mile zones round neighbouring islands and island groups mean that there is little area to operate beyond 200 miles. In these areas, and to a lesser extent in other areas, successful tuna fishing will depend on agreements with the coastal states, either individually or in groups. ○

The third UN Conference on the Law of the Sea and its impact on Third World countries

by Bernardo ZULETA(*)

The third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea has just finished its ninth session, with results that have been described by the press as a major achievement that may have historical significance.

The mandate of the Conference is to draft a convention on the law of the sea which will secure the widest possible acceptance, bearing in mind that the problems of ocean space are closely interrelated and need to be considered as a whole. This is by any standards a monumental task because it involves at the present stage 165 sovereign states in the negotiation of a complex set of issues, including both the national jurisdiction of coastal states over that part of the sea which is adjacent to their coasts and the sea-bed area beyond that national jurisdiction which was solemnly described by the General Assembly of the United Nations as being the "common heritage of mankind".

After more than six years of continuous negotiations, conducted mainly in informal groups, and using as a procedural tool an informal negotiating text whose successive revisions reflect the compromise formulations that bring the parties closer to consensus, it has been possible for the Conference to entrust the president of the Conference and the chairmen of the three main committees, associated with the chairman of the drafting committee and the rapporteur-general, with the preparation of a third revision of a document originally referred to as "informal composite negotiating text". This new document, which contains 303 articles and seven annexes, is, in the best judgement of those responsible for its preparation, one that offers a substantially improved prospect of a consensus and it has been given the name of "Draft Convention on the Law of the Sea (informal text)".

Although the future convention is intended to regulate practically every aspect of the utilization, exploration, exploitation and preservation of the sea and its resources and, therefore, contains innovations in nearly every aspect of international law, there are two novel legal concepts that are already producing a revolution in political thinking as a consequence of the problems posed by the new technology, that threatens the oceans as a source of life, and also of the emergence as sovereign states of many countries that until recently were under colonial rule or other forms of foreign domination.

(*) Under-secretary-general, special representative of the secretary-general to the third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea.

The opinions expressed in this article are made in a personal capacity and do not necessarily reflect the official views of the Secretariat of the United Nations.)



Bernardo Zuleta

The first such innovation takes the form of an international sea-bed authority through which states shall organize and control activities on the sea-bed and ocean floor and subsoil thereof beyond the limits of national jurisdiction. The authority would be governed by an assembly and a council composed of 36 members, whose decisions would be taken under a three-tiered system.

Decisions that could affect the vital interests of states, such as regulations of a general character regarding the conduct of activities in the area, would be taken by consensus, an expression which is defined as the absence of any formal objection. For this purpose, the president of the council, before putting a proposal to the council for adoption, would have to ascertain whether such objection exists, in which case a conciliation committee, consisting of up to nine members, would seek to promote a consensus and examine the grounds on which a proposal is being opposed. Decisions that basically affect the functioning of the authority would be taken by a 3/4 majority, and other decisions of an administrative character would be taken by a 2/3 majority.

The sea-bed authority would have an operative arm, the enterprise, which for a period of fifteen years following the commencement of the earliest commercial production would exploit the resources of the area simultaneously with states, parties or entities sponsored by them, provided such operators would undertake to transfer the relevant technology to the enterprise under certain terms and conditions in such a way that the two systems can work along parallel lines.

This approach, which entails a new model of international cooperation in the form of commercial and industrial activities conducted on behalf and for the benefit of the international community, would have been unthinkable fifteen years ago. It must be borne in mind that the international sea-bed authority and the enterprise would have to develop operational and financial methods that could be compatible with the different economic and political systems. To illustrate this point, it would be sufficient to mention as an example that accounting methods will have to be developed that will be acceptable to operators from countries with centrally-planned economies and also to private enterprises sponsored by states with free-market economies.

None of those difficulties have prevented the participants in the Conference from finding formulations for the charter of that unique inter-governmental entity that command wide-spread acceptance. It should come as no surprise that the media have described this last stage of the work of the Conference as a "milestone in international relation, comparable only to the signing of the UN Charter in San Francisco". It is fair to assume that unless unexpected circumstances intervene, that historical change in the pattern of international cooperation will take the form of a convention during 1981.

The second novel legal institution is the "exclusive economic zone" that extends beyond a territorial sea of 12 miles up to a total distance of 200 nautical miles from the baselines from which the territorial sea is measured, a *sui generis* area of jurisdiction which is neither a territorial sea nor the high seas in the classical sense, and within which the coastal state has sovereign rights for the purpose of exploring and exploiting, conserving and managing



Traditional fishing (here in Uganda) has to be preserved and developed parallel to industrial fisheries

the natural resources of the sea-bed and subsoil and the superjacent waters and with regard to other economy-oriented activities, such as the production of energy from the water, currents and winds, while preserving for the international community the traditional freedoms of navigation and overflight and other freedoms usually associated with the *jus communicationis*. In addition to those sovereign rights, the coastal state has jurisdiction with regard to the establishment and use of artificial island installations and structures, the conduct of marine scientific research under detailed conditions specified by the convention and the protection and preservation of the marine environment in a manner consistent with generally accepted international rules, regulations and standards.

The exclusive economic zone

The concept of the exclusive economic zone is a compromise solution in which a coastal state has not simply rights but also duties, such as the obligation to ensure that the maintenance of the living resources is not endangered by over-exploitation, to promote the objective of optimum utilization and to give access to other states, taking into account all relevant factors including, inter alia, the requirements of neighbouring developing states in the sub-region or region and the need to minimize economic dislocation in states whose nationals have habitually fished in the zone or which have made substantial efforts in research and identification of stocks.

It is interesting to note that most coastal states have already adopted legislation that either reproduces the provisions that have been reflected in the successive versions of the informal negotiating texts or gives the coastal state jurisdictional functions that are compatible with the emerging consensus. As Monsieur Guy de Lacharrière has explained in an article published by the *Revue Générale de Droit International Public*: "... Par ailleurs, en dehors de la Conférence, les conduites des Etats manifestaient de plus en plus fréquemment que les gouvernements considéraient désormais comme licites des zones de 200 milles, dans lesquelles ils exerçaient un faisceau de compétences centré sur leurs droits aux ressources de ces zones".

But the adoption of legislation is not enough. Not many developing coastal states have the infrastructure that is required to face the new challenges posed by the extended jurisdiction.

A summary reading of the text will demonstrate that the



Fisheries research and development in Peru. Modern methods of fish-farming have shown results as spectacular as those in rice and wheat

establishment of an exclusive economic zone in itself implies, inter alia, the development of capabilities with regard to basic marine scientific research, physical and geological research, exploration and exploitation of mineral resources, biological investigation, the establishment of sound policies for the conservation of living resources including the determination of optimum yields, prevention of over-fishing, management of species throughout their migratory range, management of interrelated stocks, negotiation of international arrangements and the machinery for the licensing of fishermen, the enforcement mechanisms and the surveillance of an extended area which cannot be done by the traditional naval methods.

Some developing countries which have had a longer experience in fisheries management, such as Peru, India, the Republic of Korea, Thailand, Indonesia, the Philippines, Chile, have substantially increased their share of the world catch. The most recent statistics published by FAO indicate that half of the countries in the "top ten" fishing nations in 1977 came from the Third World but other developing countries and, in particular, those which achieved independence during the last twenty years, may need substantial international cooperation in order to make of their exclusive economic zones real tools for their development. Fisheries are expected to have a dramatic impact on employment, on filling the nutritional needs of large segments of an otherwise undernourished population, on the balance of payments of potential exporters of processed fish and, in general, on a more rational administration of the marine environment since it is clear that the coastal state has the greatest interest in the protection of the ecological balance in order to preserve the living resources within its jurisdiction.

It would, therefore, appear that the signing of the convention will have to mark the beginning of a new era of close coordination of international efforts to give advice and assistance to developing countries in the field of marine scientific research, fisheries management and other related activities, including the training of personnel in the different disciplines and the organization of administrative structures adequate to meet the new challenges. This will require a careful review by all the components of the UN family of their programmes related to ocean affairs and political decisions by governments, both in the industrialized world and among the developing nations of Africa, Asia and Latin America, if we want to make sure that this arduous effort will not be viewed by future generations as yet another sophisticated piece of legal draftsmanship with no significance in the real world.

○ B.Z.

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

The ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly meets in Luxembourg

From 22 to 26 September the chamber of the European Parliament building in Luxembourg was taken over by the Joint Committee and the sixth annual meeting of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly. The Assembly, composed of 120 ACP representatives and 120 members of the European Parliament, was set up by the Lomé Convention to allow contact and debate on aspects of the Convention. It complements the work of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers, and the Commission and ACP ambassadors in Brussels, by providing a forum for discussion between a wide cross-section of European parliamentarians and their counterparts in ACP countries. (*)

The work of the Assembly is prepared by its Joint Committee, containing half its members and meeting twice a year. The Luxembourg Assembly was preceded by such a meeting to finalize the resolution on a report by Katharina Focke (Soc. Ger.) which dominated the week's proceedings. Mrs Focke's report was on "the annual report of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers and on an analysis of the results obtained under the first Lomé Convention in the light of the entry into force of the second Lomé Convention". This report was eventually adopted after a night sitting of the Joint Committee and a long debate spanning

three days in the Consultative Assembly. Two other reports, on migrant workers and students and the Assembly's rules of procedure, and four resolutions, on fishing, cocoa, Zimbabwe and southern Africa, were also adopted.

Star turn by Mrs Focke

The most hardworking member of the Assembly was undoubtedly Mrs Focke since the lion's share of the time was devoted to her report. It contains both an assessment of Lomé I and an analysis of Lomé II, thereby going beyond the more limited scope of the ACP-EEC



Solomon Tandeng Muna, president of Cameroon's national assembly and co-president of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, giving his opening speech in Luxembourg. On his right Simone Veil, also co-president of the Assembly and on his left Colette Flesch, mayor of Luxembourg city

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Council of Minister's report. It was widely commended by the Assembly for its balanced and critical approach. The results of Lomé I are compared with its stated objectives—promoting trade, industrialization, agricultural development, regional cooperation and providing special aid for the least-favoured ACP states. "If the Convention sometimes seems to have fallen short of expectations," she says, "the causes should not be sought exclusively in the inadequacy of the provisions of Lomé I, but equally, if not mainly, in the way in which they were implemented".

"If the Convention sometimes seems to have fallen short of expectations the causes should not be sought exclusively in the inadequacy of the provisions of Lomé I, but equally, if not mainly, in the way in which they were implemented".

Main themes of the report

Trade: disappointing results

The report shows how overall ACP-EEC trade figures can be misleading. The sharp change between 1978 and 1979 (a Community balance of + 800 m EUA turning into a deficit of - 3 019 m EUA) was mainly due to changes in trade with Nigeria. Over 60% of EEC imports from the ACP during 1976-78 came from just five countries (Nigeria 28.9%), and 32 ACP countries provided less than 1% of total ACP exports to the Community. In terms of products, food and energy account for 70% of ACP exports to the EEC.

(*) A number of ACP countries are represented by their Brussels ambassadors.



Katharina Focke

'Only 1.8% of total Community textile imports from ACP countries'

The structure of ACP-EEC trade retains most of the features of colonial times, says Mrs Focke. "It reveals an acute imbalance both among the products exported and among the ACP exporting countries, no appreciable improvement taking place since the Convention entered into force." She argues that if the ACP are to take advantage of the liberal trade policy, then trade promotion, investment, ACP savings and the ability of ACP producers to supply at competitive prices, have to be considered. The trade aspect has to be taken into account in all types of cooperation policy.

"The ACP states are perfectly right to point out that their exports of textiles to the Community represent only 1.8% of total Community textile imports"

Lomé II improves on the Lomé I provisions, but Mrs Focke believes the Community should try to adopt "an agricultural trade policy compatible with its development aid policy, to eliminate gradually the administrative and tariff barriers which have a detrimental effect on the developing countries' agricultural exports", and "guarantee access to the Community market on a priority basis for agricultural and processed products originating in the poorest associated and non-associated developing countries." The Focke report welcomes the statement of intent in Lomé II not to use the safeguard clause to hamper structural development. Textiles is used as

one example of where restructuring of Europe's economy is needed. "The ACP states are perfectly right to point out that their exports of textiles to the Community represent only 1.8% of total Community textile imports." When emphasising the importance of trade promotion, the report welcomes the wider definition of trade cooperation in Lomé II covering various stages of production and involving more than just ACP exports to the Community market.

On the particular point of sugar quotas, the report recalls the rejection by the Parliament and Council of the Commission's proposals on revised sugar quotas for 1980-85 (proposals supported by the Joint Committee, Arusha, February 1979). "Your rapporteur is convinced that by acting in this way the Community has merely avoided the problem, which must be tackled afresh, starting with new proposals from the Commission", Mrs Focke concludes. The resolution attached to the report passed by the Assembly calls on the Community to participate in the International Sugar Agreement (ISA) and seek ways of increasing ACP quotas and encouraging EEC beet farmers to produce other crops.

Positive results of Stabex

The Focke report notes the generally satisfactory working of Stabex and the number of improvements under Lomé II. A final breakdown has yet to be made, but 31 ACP countries and 24 products benefitted under Lomé I. The Focke report and resolution call for a study to be made on the impact of Stabex transfers on the ACP economies and for an examination of the case for extending the list of products

covered, especially to raw tobacco and sisal products.

On Sysmin the report warns of the need for well-prepared implementation. "The introduction of Sysmin represents one of the important innovations of Lomé II in that the legitimate interests of ACP states which produce minerals are at last taken into account. The aim of supporting and developing the ACPs' mineral wealth can only be achieved if immediate steps are taken towards the implementation of Sysmin, particularly by the Commission of the European Communities and the ACP-EEC Council."

Industrialization: Lomé I "fell short of expectations"

Mrs Focke recalled the Commission's view "that probably no other agreement has defined in such detail ways in which the developed and developing countries can cooperate in the field of industry". But she points to the conclusion in the

"The introduction of Sysmin represents one of the important innovations of Lomé II in that the legitimate interests of ACP states which produce minerals are at last taken into account."

ACP-EEC Council's report that "although there have been worthwhile achievements, both the Community and the ACP states agree that to date industrial cooperation has fallen short of expectations and indeed, is not yet functioning properly". The reasons were varied-poor follow-up on studies, inadequate funds "and the existence of different instruments such as the Committee on Industrial Cooperation, the CID, the EDF and the EIB which means that no one body has an overall view of the situation and its development. It also follows quite naturally that measures are not properly coordinated". The Council's report suggest widening the role of the Committee on Industrial Cooperation to overcome "structural problems" of the new policy. Mrs. Focke found it difficult to assess the results of the CID's activities and regretted that the ACP-EEC Council's report did "no more than to reproduce the CID's activity report without comment".

Lomé II, the report notes, expands the scope of industrial cooperation, especially in the energy and mining sector, stressing "the paramount importance of the energy sector for the immediate future of the ACP countries".

Lomé II will also provide an increase in aid for industrialization and Mrs Focke notes "the stress laid on the value of co-financing and the mobilization of private capital... Under Lomé I co-financing has already developed satisfactorily, at least quantitatively.

Thus about forty projects benefitted from co-financing, representing a total investment of 3000 m EUA". Mrs Focke is sceptical, however, about the impact of Lomé II's section on private investment, but overall she believes that the flow of capital to the ACP countries will be encouraged. She emphasises "the role as a catalyst which the EIB can and must play in this area". Finally the report speaks of the role of medium and small-sized enterprises, consultations on the EEC's industrial structures, and a reinvigorated CID.

Regional cooperation: scope too limited

The major part of Lomé I spending under this heading went to transport and telecommunications (46.6%). The Focke report believes the type of spending can be broadened. "The planning of production within an ACP region, the definition of the conditions necessary for the establishment of a regional market, and the promotion of trade within this framework are essential requirements of a genuine regional cooperation policy."

Least favoured nations

The idea of special provisions for the least developed, landlocked and island countries continues in Lomé II, with approximately 2/3 of programmable aid going to them under the 5th EDF, but the Focke report calls for special attention to the Sahel states because of the decline in the situation there since the Arusha Joint Committee meeting.

The NGOs

Some 250 NGOs now have relations with the Community and funds allocated have risen from 2.5 m EUA in 1976 to 15 m EUA in 1980. "Cooperation with NGOs is increasing the part played by the population affected by a project in ACP countries and is focussing greater attention on areas such as rural development and training, which are a major concern of the Conventions of Lomé and of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly".

Training

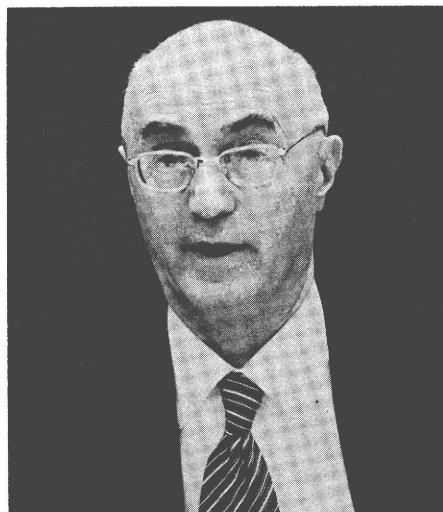
The Focke report notes that perhaps not enough attention has been given to the training aspect in projects in the past, and welcomes the increased awareness of this in the Lomé II negotiations.

Agriculture

"Under Lomé I emphasis has been placed on integrated rural development projects, the main objectives of which are to achieve balanced rural development with a view, in the medium term, to a lasting improvement in the living and working conditions and income of the population of a given region. Such



Ambassador Kanu of Sierra Leone



Giovanni Bersani, co-chairman of the Joint Committee

projects involve the implementation of whole series of measures simultaneously." Mrs Focke warns against the adverse affect if the projects are not prepared and implemented with the reaction of the rural population in mind, and stresses the importance of price incentives for farmers and the quality of EEC delegates and technical staff. The report expresses concern about population growth rates outstripping food production in all but 9 ACP states. Lomé II "confirms the growing importance of the agricultural sector for the ACP countries". Almost 40% of programmable EDF resources will go to rural development, and an ACP-EEC technical centre will be set up for the sector. The resolution attached to the report also spoke of agricultural restructuring in Europe and programmes of food aid in disasters.

Financial and technical cooperation

This section of the report repeats some of the well known remarks about the procedures under Lomé I. It welcomes the transfer of the cost of delegations to the EEC budget, as previously requested by the Assembly, and

the 200 m EUA set aside outside the Convention for EIB activities in mining and energy. On overall financing the report says: "It is to be regretted that the Community was unable to go further, particularly in view of the crisis in the position of the developing countries."

On delays in implementation Mrs Focke notes that these were no longer under Lomé I than for other bodies involved in development. She is concerned that quality be maintained in any improvement of procedures.

For Lomé II the programming stage is already well advanced, but Mrs Focke wants more detailed information provided to the next Joint Committee. She makes a series of suggestions, based on experience under Lomé I, to improve the implementation of projects. Mrs Focke also calls for more complementarity between national policies and the activities of the EDF and EIB, and welcomes the establishment of a joint committee on procedures. She also notes the "chronic shortage of staff to carry out the Commission's tasks".

Debate on the Focke report

Consideration of the Focke report rather excluded all other matters in Luxembourg, because of the large number of members of the Assembly who wished to speak on it.

It dominated the work of the Joint Committee, chaired by Gerard Kango Ouedraogo, the president of the Upper Volta national assembly and Giovanni Bersani (EPP-Italy). The number of resolutions required a night sitting. It then went before the Consultative Assembly, presided by Salomon Tandeng Muna, president of Cameroon's national assembly, and the president of the European Parliament, Simone Veil.

Opening of the plenary session

Although work of the Joint Committee took two and a half days, the full Assembly opened as scheduled on the afternoon of 24 September with Simone Veil in the chair. After welcoming the representatives, she paid tribute to the late President of Botswana, Sir Seretse Khama, and the whole Assembly observed one minute's silence. Mrs Veil went on to stress the role of the Consultative Assembly in creating greater contact between the two sides of the Convention. This was important as Lomé I gave way to Lomé II in a deteriorating international economic climate. The European Parliament, she said, would need to inform public opinion in Europe about the need for a new international order.

Léon Bollendorff, president of the Luxembourg Chamber of Deputies, then welcomed the participants at the plenary sitting to Luxembourg.

Luxembourg, he said, had for a long time recognized its obligation both within the framework of the EEC and at bilateral level. The Grand Duchy's 1981 budget for development was 30.6%

higher than the 1980 budget. This increase was an expression of Luxembourg's determination to achieve the target of 0.7% of GNP set by the United Nations.

Colette Flesch, mayor of Luxembourg, also welcomed the members of the Assembly. She stressed the priority of the problem of world hunger which had been the subject of a debate during the last part-session of the European Parliament in September.

Solomon Tandeng Muna, co-president of the Consultative Assembly, expressed his gratitude to the Assembly for his re-election and welcomed the representatives present, in particular St Vincent and Grenadines which had become the fifty-ninth member of the Convention. Zimbabwe would soon be joining also and he hoped that membership of the Convention would "help to heal the wounds of the war of freedom".

Mr T.Z. Onyonka, chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers, pointed out that although more members ratified the Convention each month, two-thirds of the participating ACP countries had to sign before it could come into force. He appealed to those concerned to deposit the instruments of ratification as quickly as possible.

More members were now joining the Convention, in particular Zimbabwe. The ACP group and the ACP-EEC Council warmly welcomed this new country. He felt, however, that enlargement, either of the ACP group or the EEC, should not prejudice acquired rights. Present advantages should be maintained. Disadvantages should be avoided.

Paul Helminger, presiding the Council of the European communities and co-chairman of the ACP-EEC Council

of Ministers, drew attention to the wish of the Community to continue, despite all the difficulties, on the path traced out over the past 20 years in order to lay down an effective joint development policy.

Drawing attention to the unsatisfactory structure of trade between the ACP states and the Community, involving concentration on a limited number of countries and products, Mr Helminger said that the ACP-EEC Council had instructed the ACP-EEC Committee of Ambassadors to seek ways of improving this situation.

The general debate

Katharina Focke (Soc. Ger.) introduced her report on the annual report of the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers and the analysis of the results of the first Lomé Convention. She felt that despite the gloomy international economic prospects there were rays of hope. The Brandt Commission, for example, had made courageous and constructive proposals for action in the food and energy sectors. The recent OAU meeting in Lagos had established a short and medium-term action plan which could lead to the setting up of an African economic community.

Taking stock of Lomé I she said that whatever criticisms might be made of the Convention it was still the most progressive North-South agreement in force in the world.

Mrs Focke concluded by saying that Lomé II was a convention with enormous potential, but that it would have to be supplemented by unsparing endeavours to promote the North-South dialogue and further commitments to help the ACP countries with their energy, food and balance of payments problems.

The debate was then open, and continued with one brief interruption for one and a half days. Some 30 contributions from the floor were made covering almost every aspect of the Focke report.

Mr Ramazani (Zaire) congratulated Mrs Focke on her report. Looking ahead to the implementation of Lomé II, he expressed support for action at three levels—national, regional and inter-regional—which would help to speed up the process of economic and social integration.

On the subject of food security under Lomé II, he felt that it was necessary to revise the concept of aid and distinguish between emergency aid and ordinary aid. Such aid needed to be programmed in conjunction with the restructuring and revival of ACP agriculture. He stressed that industrial cooperation under Lomé I had not been as successful as had been hoped and advocated, under Lomé II, the promotion of small and medium-sized undertaking and closer coordination between the Commission, the EIB, the CID and the NGOs.

Mr Cheysson, development commissioner of the European Communities, broadened the scope of the debate by reviewing the present prospects, which were gloomy in many regards. He began by recalling the European Parliament's recent impressive debate and resolution on world hunger.

The resolution gave pride of place to the question of production in the developing countries and stressed that the resources deployed should promote rural development in the broadest sense. Outside aid must be geared to this purpose, and great attention must be paid not only to technological but also to social and economic assistance. Food aid must be planned in advance and adapted to real needs. All the reasons for the establishment of a new international order have been clearly set out, and all the principles on which it should be founded have been sharply delineated, he said. They include a recognition of the sovereign identity of each country, stability in relationships between countries, careful advance planning, the independence of peoples—in short, all problems of the North-South dialogue. These problems are related to another major issue: the security of oil supplies, which calls for a dialogue with the oil-producing countries.

At world level the only forum where this can be done is the United Nations. It must be possible to come to an agreement on an agenda which will consider as matters of urgency food, energy and balance of payment problems, as well as the more fundamental issue of the structural changes that can lead to a new international economic order. However, the non-participation of the East European countries, the refusal of the United States to include the monetary system in the discussion, and above all, the disagreement on the political significance of the overall



The Assembly observes a minute of silence in memory of the late President of Botswana, Sir Seretse Khama



Gérard Jaquet

North-South issue caused misgivings, Mr Cheysson said.

If there was no progress in the North-South dialogue, the imbalance would soon be such as to destroy our aspirations towards special relations.

Mr Clement (EPD-France) had tabled amendments on several points and submitted them to the Joint Committee. In general, he felt that any analysis of Lomé I should not be put in such terms as to run the risk of creating difficulties for the new Convention, which embodied very many positive features, and putting obstacles in the way of its ratification. Mr Clement went on to point out one omission in the report. The Overseas Departments, though part of Europe, were still economically developing countries. Greater attention should be paid to these departments, particularly in view of the role they could play as a geographical and psychological link between Europe and the ACP countries, he said.

Mr Normanton (ED-UK) said that commissioner Cheysson's speech had been of crucial importance: Mr Cheysson had spoken of the "logical and rational approach of the European Parliament", and he himself felt that the week's session of the Assembly had been particularly remarkable in that it had concentrated on the real issues facing individuals—the fundamental purpose of all politics. Mr Normanton went on to refer to the desperate shortage of energy in most ACP countries, with an accompanying drain on their financial resources.

Satcam Boolell (Mauritius) concentrated on two issues: trade and sugar. The objective of increased trade in manufactured goods had not been met under the first Convention. His country was particularly interested in the textile industry, where low-cost labour was a

great advantage; however, the EEC obviously feared this competition and the rules of origin contained in Lomé I were already illiberal and restrictive. Lomé II still included a safeguard clause but the onus was now placed on the Community to establish the need to enforce that clause, and provision was made for consultations with the ACP. There was still a risk that this consultation procedure might be used as a disguised obstacle to imports.

Turning to sugar, Mr Boolell said he was disturbed by recent developments. Millions of people in the ACP countries were dependent on cane sugar production while the EEC beet producers could easily change to other crops—a structural change which was virtually impossible for many ACP countries for climatic and other reasons.

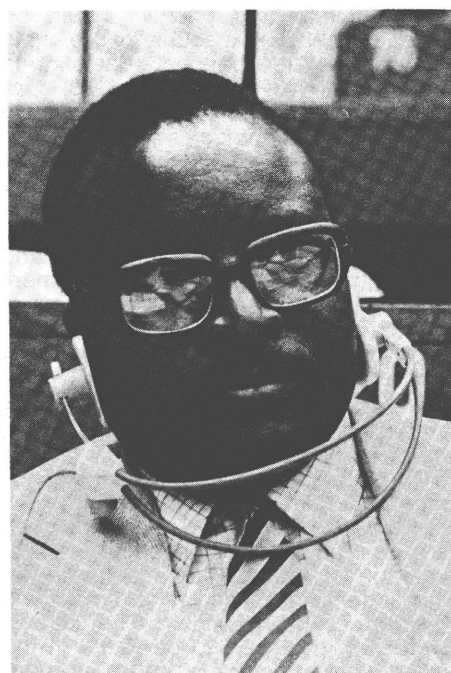
Mr Kapoma (Madagascar) proposed that the rich countries should agree to a reform of the international monetary system, abolish protectionist measures, grant financial aid to facilitate the industrialization of the poor countries, and wipe out or reduce the debts of the countries most affected by the crisis.

EDF increase: 60 %, 25 % or 2 \$ per capita?

Mrs Tullia Caretoni Romagnoli (Comm.It.) said that the Italian members of the Communist group gave their wholehearted support to the report drawn up by Mrs Focke. The report had to be commended for stressing the need for a radical reform of common agricultural policy, in addition to which it spelled out the need to resist firmly protectionist trends within the Community.

Seydina Oumar Sy (Senegal) wished to dispel an ambiguity on one point: it was not strictly speaking correct to refer to a 60% increase in the volume of the EDF—the increase in the programmable share was only 25% and the overall effort amounted to only \$ 2 or so per capita in the ACP, he said. The effort made by the Europeans was welcome but, in the North-South context, it was no more than a drop in the ocean, and the poor countries would continue to become poorer because of their growing debt levels. Mr Sy said that he wanted to speak frankly and criticized the Commission for trimming its sails to the wind: it spoke one language in Lomé, another in international forums while the individual countries sometimes spoke a language of their own. He cited the restrictive policy pursued by France and Belgium towards African students. "Help us to deal with you on an equal footing or you will merely perpetuate a system which history condemns", Mr Sy said. Parliament must bring its growing influence to bear on the Council in matters relating to the ACP. In conclusion, he warned against self-satisfaction which inhibited genuine effort. Mr Sy's speech received long applause.

Paul Verges (Comm. Fr.) welcomed the Focke report, but said that in his



T.Z. Onyonka,

Kenya's planning and economic development minister, and chairman of the ACP Council

view, Lomé I and Lomé II had not fundamentally changed the relations between those concerned. He felt that the North-South dialogue implicitly called into question the traditional division of labour and endorsed the views expressed by Mr Sy on the double language used by Europeans. He noted a rapid deterioration in the situation in the developing countries which he blamed on the crisis in the capitalist countries. He felt that for the immediate future the main priority was the problem of the debts of the developing countries.

Ambassador Insannally (Guyana) deplored the EP's rejection of the sugar proposals which had "disillusioned" the ACP states. He stressed the need for the Community's commitment in respect of ACP sugar to be reaffirmed. He was pleased that the Commission was to produce new proposals and hoped that they would be supported by EEC governments.

Robert Cohen (Soc. Neth.) said that while Africa might be Europe's most important partner within the ranks of the ACP, the Caribbean and Pacific states should not be neglected. Nevertheless, it was in Africa, and particularly in the Sahel countries, that the great scourge of famine was seen at its worst.

Mody Sangare (Mali) regretted the failure of the negotiations to bring about a resumption of the North-South dialogue. The EEC played a leading role in this field, and the Lomé Convention could be a vital element in any future progress. Mr Sangare appealed to the EEC to give the Sahel countries the emergency aid which alone could save many lives.

Winifred Ewing (EPD-UK) then spoke on the subject of fishery resources. She

thought that high priority should be given to fishing as a source of protein to provide food for the local population in the coastal ACP states. In 1970, consumption had been equal to production in the ACP countries; since then production had remained stable despite technical improvements in fishing methods while consumption had risen by 40%. The people in her constituency wished to help the ACP countries, and the Highlands and Islands Development Board—a UK government agency—had suggested setting up a training college for the fishing sector in her part of Scotland.

Peter Afolabi (Nigeria) spoke on the subject of industrial cooperation, which he said had had little impact on the ACP states because the relevant instruments had been handicapped by a lack of finance. The last five years had seen a growing trade imbalance to the disadvantage of the ACP and a decline in investment in mining and small and medium-scale industries. The causes were not, however, to be found in the investment structure of the ACP countries but in the lack of political goodwill by their European partners. He expressed the hope that the lessons of Lomé I would be learnt and that the new provisions would be fully implemented.

Mr Wolde Michael (Ethiopia), after congratulating Mrs Focke on her report, proceeded to describe the general world situation, which was characterized by inflation, unemployment and an ever-deepening recession which affected the developing countries particularly severely. After the five years of implementation of the first Lomé Convention, the basic issues remained outstanding: access to markets for ACP products and financial and technical cooperation had fallen far short of expectations.

Giovanni Bersani (EPP-Italy) focused attention on the problem of financing the development of industries and, in particular, the agri-foodstuffs industry.

A development bank would have to be created on the basis of the principle of cooperation; this bank should be structurally simple and no intervention should be required from national budgets.

Timetable problems

The long debate on the Focke report left little time for other matters. The Jaquet report on changes in the rules of procedure of the Consultative Assembly was debated and adopted during a break on the Focke report, but this still left a report and resolution on migrant workers and students by Mr Michel, and four other resolutions. At the suggestion of the chair these were introduced by their respective proposers and then voted on without debate. All five resolutions were adopted.

Migrant workers

The Michel resolution on migrant workers, students and their families laid

particular emphasis on the need to guarantee the rights of such groups in EEC member states, and on greater harmonization between the legislation of the member states. Work needed to be done to educate both the local population and the migrant himself on the new situation. Nor was it just a question of granting the migrant worker the same social, wage and employment conditions as nationals; attention had to be paid to the original social situation of the migrant and his difficulty in taking advantage of his rights in Europe.

Resolutions

Four resolutions were passed by the Assembly without debate. That on southern Africa condemned apartheid and South Africa's activities in Namibia, and called for the release of political prisoners.

The resolution, put forward by the Communists, also attacked the role of multinationals in South Africa, and "various forms of economic and military support given to the apartheid regime in flagrant violation of United Nations resolutions". Finally it praised the courage of the ACP front-line states, regretted the absence of a special action programme for them, and condemned aggression against, in particular, Angola, Mozambique and Zambia.

The resolution on Zimbabwe, proposed by Guyana, urged the Community to provide substantial aid to Zimbabwe and to ensure provision for its sugar and beef exports to the Community.

The resolution on cocoa was proposed by seven ACP states and urged the EEC, as the world's major consumer, to play a positive role so that negotiations could get underway on a new international cocoa agreement. An agreement could be reached on prices which would protect consumer interests.

Finally a resolution on fishing, tabled by Sierra Leone on behalf of the Joint Committee, was adopted by the Assembly. It calls for an intensification of ACP-EEC cooperation in maximizing the benefits of fishery resources, urges a joint study of the problems of selling fish from ACP waters within the EEC, and calls for a report from the Joint Committee on ACP-EEC cooperation in fisheries.

Future work

Because of the changes voted in its rules of procedure, the Joint Committee has set up three ad hoc working groups. The first is to study hunger and underdevelopment, based on the EP resolution and Group of 77 documents. The second will look at energy problems and the third financing.

These themes will come up at the next meeting of the Joint Committee in the last week of February 1981, probably in Sierra Leone. Also on the agenda will be cultural cooperation (report by ambassador Raymond Chasle of Mauritius), a preliminary

examination of the annual report, this time by a Caribbean representative, and the preparation of another meeting between EEC economic and social organizations and ACP representatives.

○ IAN PIPER

5th EDF programming

Commission work with ACP leaders on producing the 5th EDF indicative programmes continues and programming missions have just been out to a number of countries. Development director Klaus Meyer led the mission to Cameroon and deputies Jean Durieux and Maurice Foley led those to Togo and Benin and to Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde, the Central African Republic and Congo.

Guinea-Bissau — The local delegation was led by Dr Vasco Cabral, state commissioner for economic coordination and planning. Priority in the indicative programme goes to agriculture, fisheries, forests and natural resources, which get 46% of total credit. Then come economic infrastructure (17%), social infrastructure (17%), training and studies (11%) and micro-projects (4%). This leaves a reserve fund of 5%. Guinea-Bissau also intends applying for EIB financing for fisheries and forestry projects.

Cape Verde — José Brito, secretary of state for cooperation and planning, led his country's delegation. The indicative programme is divided as follows: social infrastructure (38%), agricultural and craft development (17.5%), transport and communications infrastructure (21%) and studies and technical assistance (17.5%), leaving a 5% reserve. The government may also be applying for EIB aid to develop saltings, a cement works and an industrial zone.

Togo — The local team was led by the minister for planning and administrative reform, Mr K.M. Dogo. Emphasis in Togo is placed on the development of agriculture and livestock (35%), followed by infrastructure (37%), accompanying projects (4%), microprojects (5%), education and training (7%), trade promotion (3%) and studies and technical assistance (3%). This leaves a 6% reserve. Togo also intends asking the EIB to finance studies and projects in the mining and industrial sectors.

Benin — Abou-Bakar Baba-Moussa, minister for planning, statistics and economic analysis, led the local delegation. Benin's priorities are rural development (32%), followed by transport infrastructure (30%), social infrastructure (15%), training and technical assistance (8%), mining and energy (7%) and studies (4%), leaving a 4% reserve for allocation later on. The government may also be submitting mining, agro-industrial and tourist projects to the EIB.

Central African Republic — Jean-Pierre Le Boudier, state minister for cooperation, planning and general statistics, led the local team. The indicative programme is divided as follows: transport infrastructure (39%), rural development (39%), training (11%), energy, mining and industry (4%), microprojects (2%) and a reserve fund of 5%. The government is also planning to apply for EIB financing for industrial and agro-industrial projects, telecommunications schemes, etc.

Cameroon — The Cameroonian team was led by Pierre-Désiré Engo, deputy minister for planning and the economy. A second delegation led by Mahmoudou Haman Dicko, the ambassador to the EEC, met Commission representatives again two months later. The indicative programme decided after these two rounds of talks is as follows: transport infrastructure gets 35%, rural development 45%, training 5%, health 5%, technical cooperation 4%, trade promotion 1% and microprojects 2%. There is a reserve fund of 3% set aside for miscellaneous purposes.

Cameroon may also be asking the EIB to help with the financing of agro-industrial, mining and energy projects, with the development of transport infrastructure, etc.

Congo — Captain Benoît Moundele-Ngolo, minister of public works and construction, also responsible for the environment, led the local team.

The emphasis here is on rural development and opening up isolated areas of Congo, to which 56% of the programme aid is devoted. Health and social schemes come next, with 30%, followed by microprojects (4%), training (4%), and studies, trade promotion and a reserve of (6%).

The government may also be applying for EIB aid with renovating a sugar factory, schemes for small and medium-sized firms and agro-industrial and mining concerns and to run feasibility studies. ○

4th EDF financing

Following a favourable opinion delivered by the EDF Committee, the Commission of the European Communities has taken the financing decisions summarized below.

The total value of commitments now amounts to 2 619 188 000 EUA.

Somalia

Baardheere dam design study
Grant: 4 000 000 EUA

The Community grant will enable consultants to be placed at the disposal of the Somali government for the preparation of the Baardheere dam project,

the estimated cost of which is 430 million EUA. The services financed will include pre-design tests, final design, tender documents and assistance for tender procedures.

Congo/Gabon/Central African Republic

Realignment of the Congo-Ocean railway (CFCO) — supplementary financing

Grant: 4 000 000 EUA — regional programme

Loan on special terms: 2 860 000 EUA — Congo indicative programme

This project involves supplementary financing for the CFCO railway, the cost of which has been re-assessed as a result of various contingencies (adverse geotechnical conditions and higher than anticipated price escalation). The purpose of the CFCO project is to modernize approximately 100 km of the existing railway line between Tchitondi and Loubomo. Besides the Community, the other contributors co-financing the project are: Congo, France, Canada, the World Bank, the ADB, the ABEDIA, the Kuwaiti Fund, the Saudi Fund, the Iraqi Fund and the OPEC Fund

Senegal

Construction of the Ecole Nationale des Infirmiers et Infirmières d'Etat (ENIIE) at Dakar

Grant: 1 350 000 EUA

This project is concerned with the financing of the first phase of the ENIIE at Dakar. The school will be able to admit 300 students, of whom 240 will be resident. It aims to train a greater number of male and female nurses in order to cope with the country's growing needs and at the same time provide teaching that is better directed towards the country's health requirements.

The first phase covers the construction and fitting-out of the classrooms, office and general services block.

Mauritania

Foum Gleita dam (development of the Gorgol Noir valley)

Grant: 9 385 000 EUA

The EDF grant will be used to finance the construction and development of a dam reservoir with a capacity of 500 million m³ at Foum Gleita, which is in the centre of the valley of the Gorgol Noir, a tributary of the Senegal river; in addition, the finance will cover the development of 3 600 ha, diversion works and irrigation channels and all infrastructure necessary for exploitation of the area involved.

The Community contribution will provide for the construction of the dam and the technical assistance connected with the construction works.

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the technical assistance connected with the construction works.

The dam will make it possible to increase the production of foodstuffs and ensure food supplies.

Sudan

Juba Airport

Loan on special terms: 6 000 000 EUA

Grant: 10 300 000 EUA

The purpose of the project is to construct a new runway, a small terminal hall and to provide the airport with suitable navigation aid and safety equipment.

Air transport between the Juba region and the rest of the country has an absolute priority since it offers the only means to ensure fast and regular links over long distances.

Solomon Islands

Forestry programme

Grant: 625 000 EUA

The Community grant will be used to establish, between 1980 and 1982, 1 800 ha of forestry plantation (mainly mahogany) on Alu and Santa Cruz, two islands of the Solomon archipelago, and also to provide the necessary plant and equipment.

Uganda

Rehabilitation of poultry industry

Grant: 500 000 EUA

The purpose of this project is to rehabilitate the poultry industry in Uganda which, in recent times, has suffered badly. Hence, the grant will be used for the purchase of 100 000 parent stock, 240 000 chicks of different ages and 50 000 eggs.

Kiribati

Airstrips on Kuria and Aranuka

Grant: 224 000 EUA

The project provides for the construction of two simple airfields on the islands of Kuria and Aranuka, both situated at the centre of the Gilbert Islands group in the Republic of Kiribati. The project will enable Kuria and Aranuka to be linked to the internal air services network which already exists for the 14 other islands of the Gilbert group.

Nigeria

Cooperation between the Universities of Durham (UK) and Jos (Nigeria)

Grant: 375 000 EUA

The purpose of the project is to establish cooperation between the universities of Durham (UK) and Jos (Nigeria) in research and training in areas of direct relevance to the social and economic development of the Jos region.

Cape Verde

Multiannual training programme
Grant: 40 000 EUA

The purpose of the project is to finance, under the Lomé Convention, a multiannual training programme for the period 1978-80. The programme provides for a number of scholarships and training grants for training in the health and engineering sectors in Europe.

Chad

Emergency scholarship programme for Chadian students

Grant:

Fourth EDF: 620 000 EUA

Second and third EDF: 800 000 EUA

Because of the situation in Chad it is impossible either to resume the payment of national scholarships to Chadian students abroad or to reopen training establishments in N'Djamena. The Community grant will be used, in coordination with French and Swiss aid, to meet the costs incurred as from 1 October 1980 by the students and trainees studying abroad and to grant 200 new scholarship awards.

Other aid decisions

Emergency aid to the Caribbean

The Commission has taken a series of decisions on emergency aid for the Caribbean countries hit by Hurricane Allen.

These decisions concern:

Dominica: 300 000 EUA

(amount already granted: 300 000 EUA)

St. Vincent: 200 000 EUA

(amount already granted: 300 000 EUA)

St. Lucia: 700 000 EUA

(amount already granted: 300 000 EUA)

The Commission has also decided to grant emergency food aid to Grenada, in the form of 200 t of milk powder (160 000 EUA).

Other aid already approved

Barbados: 50 000 EUA

Jamaica: 300 000 EUA. Food aid: 1 500 t of cereals; 200 t of milk powder; 200 t of butteroil (= 770 000 EUA)

Haiti: 400 000 EUA. Food aid: 1 400 t of cereals; 500 t of milk powder (= 700 000 EUA)

Martinique and Guadeloupe: 700 000 EUA.

The Commission decided in mid-October to grant additional emergency aid to Grenada of 150 000 EUA as a contribution to repairing the damage caused by Typhoon Allen.

Exceptional aid for Kenya

On 1 October the Commission decided to grant exceptional aid totalling

1 200 000 EUA to Kenya to cope with the consequences of the drought which has severely hit the province of Turkana.

The Kenyan government has drawn up an assistance programme aimed at saving the local population from famine, restocking the herds and combating desertification.

There has been close coordination between the Community and its member states aimed at making further contributions to this programme, both in its initial emergency aid phase and in the second rehabilitation stage.

The present contribution is for the emergency stage of the programme and will be used to purchase and transport provisions, equipment, vehicles and livestock.

Emergency food aid for Uganda

The Commission also decided to grant emergency food aid of 2 553 tonnes of maize to Uganda. This is a contribution to a WFP (World Food Programme) scheme, which includes the supply of 8 110 tonnes of maize to feed 265 000 people, including 79 500 children, over a period of three months.

The aim of this WFP scheme, which was approved in 1979 and has recently been extended, is to help war victims.

This operation will cost 500 000 EUA, or approximately US \$700 000. ○

EIB

Loan for small and medium-scale undertakings in Malawi

The European Investment Bank has granted a loan for the equivalent of

5 million units of account (5.7 m kwacha), under the first Lomé Convention, to help finance small and medium-scale industrial and tourism ventures in Malawi.

The funds have been advanced in the form of a global loan to the Investment and Development Bank of Malawi (Indebank) for 12 years at 8%, allowing for an interest subsidy financed from the European Development Fund.

Indebank is a development bank founded in 1972 on the initiative of the Malawi government; its shareholders include the Agricultural Development and Marketing Corporation—a local public undertaking—and four development finance institutions: Commonwealth Development Corporation (United Kingdom), Deutsche Entwicklungsgesellschaft, Nederlandse Financierings-Maatschappij voor Ontwikkelingslanden N.V. and International Finance Corporation.

The EIB granted its first global loan to Indebank in 1977 for 3 million units of account: the proceeds were drawn down in support of 7 small and medium scale ventures creating more than 1 800 jobs and relating to the production of cement, fishing nets, metal fastenings, tobacco and rubber processing, bread-making and the hotel business.

Loan for cobalt production facilities in Zambia

Under the terms of the first Lomé Convention the EIB has also lent the equivalent of 8 million units of account (8.4 m kwacha) for improvements to cobalt production facilities in a plant at Chambeshi, Zambia.

The loan is to Roan Consolidated Mines Ltd. (RCM), a public company in which the state is majority shareholder,

EEC Commission delegations

Transfer of delegates

A number of Commission delegates have new postings:

Delegate	Leaving...	For...	On
Mr J. Leroy	—	Guinea Conakry	1 July 1980
Mr M. Courtier	Tunisia	Rwanda	20 October 1980
Mr G. Dünkelsbühler	Rwanda	Upper Volta	10 November 1980
Miss von Brochowski	Upper Volta	Niger	end October
Mr J.P. Martin	Niger	Congo	13 November 1980
Mrs F. Heinrich	Congo	Tunisia	end October(*)
Mr G. Bonacci	—	Mali	15 November 1980
Mr B. Haffner	Ghana	Tanzania	end September
Mr J. Westhoff	Jamaica	Ghana	early November
Mr C. Collins	Sierra Leone	Gambia	mid-January 1981(*)
Mr E. Koopmans	Gambia	Sierra Leone	mid-January 1981
Mr B. Pontoppidan	Tanzania	Nigeria	early October

(*) Subject to the agreement of the governments concerned.

for a term of 10 years at an interest rate of 8%, after deduction of an interest subsidy financed from the resources of the Community's European Development Fund. RCM accounts for about 70% of the country's cobalt output and 40% of copper production.

The Bank's loan goes towards investment worth about 17 million EUA in a vacuum refining facility to produce a higher grade of industrial cobalt, with better market prospects, and improved filtering equipment to reduce metal losses in the production process.

The sales of the purer cobalt should lead to additional foreign currency earnings estimated to be worth about 6 million EUA per year and an appreciable rise in government revenues. ○

ACP COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

ACP bureaux are now composed as follows:

Chairman:

T.Z. Onyonka,
Kenya's minister of planning and economic development

Members:

Minister from Benin
Minister from the Congo
Minister from Botswana
Minister from Western Samoa
Minister representing the Caribbean

Bureau of the Committee of Ambassadors

Chairman

Satya Nandan
Fiji's ambassador

Members:

Ambassador of Mauritania
Ambassador of Cameroon
Ambassador of Malawi
Ambassador of the Sudan
Ambassador of Grenada. ○

NIGERIA

Senate foreign relations Committee members visit ACP House

Members of the Nigerian Senate foreign relations committee, touring Europe reviewing Nigeria's external relations, paid a call on the new ACP secretary-general, Thomas Okelo-Odongo, at ACP House in Brussels in September.

The team was headed by Senator Dr Femi Ayantuga, and included Senator Ameh Ebute and L.U.C. Ogbogu, sec-

retary, Senate foreign relations committee. The team was accompanied by Chief Peter Afolabi, Nigeria's ambassador to the EEC, and his first secretary, Jonikul Obodozie.

The visit by the team was among the first official duties of the new secretary-general of the ACP Secretariat, who, accompanied by his deputy, Edwin W. Carrington, and his personnel officer, G. Haile Mariam, warmly welcomed the delegation to ACP House. He referred to the important role which Nigeria has been playing in ACP matters, especially in the area of ACP-EEC industrial cooperation, and expressed his pleasure that Nigeria, the largest and most populous ACP state, should have afforded him his first opportunity to establish official contact in his new position with representatives of ACP states.

The secretary-general, in stressing the importance of such visits from representatives and officials from ACP capitals, referred to the need for early ratification of the Lomé II Convention by all parties, for effective support for the ACP Secretariat by all ACP states, so as to enable that institution to effectively discharge its critical responsibilities, and for effective implementation of the recently adopted Montego Bay plan for intra-ACP cooperation.

The leader of the visiting team thanked Mr Okelo-Odongo for his welcome and conveyed the congratulations of Nigeria on his assumption of the office of secretary-general of the ACP Secretariat. He assured the secretary-general of the continuing support of Nigeria in the work of the ACP and to this end pledged to take such steps as lay within their power.

The team also visited the director of the ACP-EEC Centre for Industrial Development. ○

EMERGENCY AID TO NEPAL

The Commission has decided to grant Nepal 150 000 EUA in emergency aid. This aid is directed to the populations of the areas affected by an earthquake at the end of July and is in response to an appeal addressed to the Community by UNDRO (United Nations Disaster and Relief Office). It takes the form of the supply of tents and blankets. ○

GATT

Former ACP secretary-general becomes principal GATT adviser

Tieoulé Konaté, Mali's ex-finance minister, has been appointed principal adviser to the director-general of GATT, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

This appointment is intended to increase the participation of developing countries in the activities of this international organization.

Mr Konaté was secretary-general of the ACP group in Brussels from 1976 until August 1980. ○

GENERAL INFORMATION

Dispute over procedures at special UN session on North-South dialogue

The special UN session to prepare for the opening of global economic negotiations next year ended on 15 September. No agreement was reached.

The session began on 25 August and was scheduled to end on 5 September, but it went on for an extra two weeks as it was hoped up to the last minute that a compromise solution could be reached. But it was ultimately not possible to word a fully satisfactory compromise on procedures for the negotiations, to which the EEC made an active contribution. Two EEC countries, Germany and the United Kingdom, and the United States had reservations about the text.

The ordinary UN session, which began on 6 September, now has to deal with this dossier. In his closing speech, secretary-general Kurt Waldheim said he hoped the results would not discourage the governments "nor mask the

fact that peace and prosperity increasingly depend on proper cooperation between all countries in order to solve the crucial question of economic development". There was "no other choice but to take up the unresolved dossiers as soon as possible".

The chairman of the UN General Assembly, Salim Ahmed Salim of Tanzania, said the results of the session were disappointing. The failure to reach agreement would do nothing to improve the present climate of international mistrust and had certainly done nothing to advance the cause of international stability.

Yet the countries of the Third World had had great hopes of this "dialogue" on the North-South dialogue. Many of their heads of state and their ministers (a good many countries of the North were also represented by ministers) had undertaken the journey to New York. The Group of 77 (now 120

developing countries) had given Mr B. Mishra, the Indian representative, *carte blanche* to negotiate on their behalf.

It was on the role of the conference and its central organ in the negotiations that agreement could not be reached. The Third World countries hoped that the conference, at which they would be in a majority, could reform the specialized UN institutions (the IMF, the World Bank and so on) to their advantage. The USA, on the other hand, wanted to keep these institutions as they were and maintain the leading American role in them. For many years, the developing countries have been calling for a reform of the IMF. As Algerian foreign minister Ben Yahia said: "there can really be no global negotiations unless this major, dominant element is included. Unless the international monetary system is really reformed, any sectoral action will be void of content while the system continues to function so that only a small group of countries benefit".

These hard-line positions will remain in spite of various attempts at compromise, on the part of the EEC in particular. Gaston Thorn, Luxembourg's foreign minister and current chairman of the EEC Council of Ministers, confirmed that the Community was anxious for a compromise. As he saw it, responsibility for economic growth and development aid had to be shared fairly between all the countries in the international community and by the oil-producers in particular. By the same token, the industrialized socialist countries, which were largely involved in worldwide economic interdependence, should not consider themselves exempt from the need to contribute to development cooperation. Yet the main subjects that should be on the agenda of the global negotiations (raw materials, energy, trade, aid, currency and finance) could not be avoided

for long and some people hoped that, once the American presidential elections were over, it would be possible to reach a solution that was acceptable to the USA, Federal Germany and the UK. They pointed out that the normal annual session would go on until the end of the year and that plenty of initiatives could be taken by then.

And why not by Rudiger von Wechmar, the new president of the Assembly and head of Germany's mission, who had taken over from Salim Ahmed Salim? It was the first time that Federal Germany, a member of the UN for only seven years, had provided a president for the General Assembly.

The special session noted "with satisfaction" that there was general agreement among the member countries on the international strategy for the third UN development decade (1981-1990). As Mr Kenneth Dadzie, UN director-general for development and international economic cooperation, saw it when he made his major speech to the special session, the question of the new international development strategy was no less important than the global negotiations.

But in spite of the consensus, the special session did not adopt the strategy, although it did adopt two draft resolutions on solving the critical situation in the least developed countries at the recommendation of its *ad hoc* committees. ○ A.T.

WORLD HUNGER

Follow-up to Euro-Parliament debate

Following the European Parliament's debate and its adoption of a resolution,

the Commission, which approves the resolution's main conclusions, is urging the ministers to express their opinion at their meeting on development on 18 November on the guidelines recommended and take decisions on the proposals made, some of which have already been put forward by the Commission, for instance in the field of food aid.

To this effect the Commission:

— Recalls the Community's part in establishing the food section of the international development strategy for the third development decade.

It intends to make detailed proposals in this field as soon as an agreement is reached enabling the global negotiations to begin.

— Undertakes to step up its commitment in the rural development sector to the extent that its partners are willing to let it do so (within the framework of existing cooperation agreements).

— Recalls its latest proposals to the Council aimed at making food aid policy more effective (particularly as regards multi-annual commitments, diversification of products and aid management) and its requests in this connection for budget resources and staff.

— Announces fresh proposals on increasing cereal aid after the 1980-81 marketing year.

— Confirms that a study is to be started on the effects of the CAP on international trade in foodstuffs and on the consequences which Community agricultural exports have on world markets and developing countries.

These studies will be followed by specific proposals which should enable the CAP to make a vital Community contribution to world food strategy.

— Stresses that it is important for the Community to play a constructive role in negotiating agreements for individual commodities (e.g. cocoa) and hopes that, in addition to the proposed agreement on grains, there should be provisions to enable developing countries to benefit effectively from the new machinery for stabilizing the market in grains. ○

JAPAN

DAC considers overseas aid

In 1979, Japan's official development aid (ODA) to the Third World amounted to 2 640 million dollars. This is an increase of 19% in terms of dollars, and 14% in terms of yen.

These points emerge from the review by the OECD's Development Assistance Committee of Japan's development assistance efforts and policies. Japan's ODA rose from 0.23% of the GNP in 1978 to 0.26% in 1979 (the OECD/DAC average is 0.35%). The



"There can really be no global negotiations unless this major, dominant element (the IMF) is included" (Ben Yahia, Algeria). Above: K. Dadzie, UN director-general for development and economic cooperation, with Raymond Chasle. Thérèse Gastaut is in the background

Committee noted that the Japanese authorities had reaffirmed their determination to bring their ODA in line with the DAC average, as an intermediate step towards the target of 0.7% of the GNP. It strongly urged the Japanese authorities to establish a quantified medium-term plan which would facilitate continued progress towards these objectives.

The financial terms of Japan's ODA softened in 1979, reflecting a continued increase in the share of grants in total ODA, but the grant element of total commitments remained below the level called for by the DAC terms recommendation.

The Japanese delegation reported that it was the policy of Japan to improve progressively the terms of its aid. The proportion of united aid in relation to total ODA was expected to continue to increase.

The bulk of Japanese bilateral aid continued to go to developing countries in Asia. The proportion of aid to countries with a per capita income of less than 400 US dollars (in 1976) rose from 55% in 1978 to 65% in 1979. Several delegations expressed the hope that Japan would substantially increase its aid to low income countries outside Asia. ○

MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

EEC industry commissioner in Tunisia

Viscount Davignon made an official trip to Tunis on 28-30 August 1980, a follow-up to the visits of Mr Gundelach (July 1979) and Mr Cheysson (February 1980). The main aim this time was to look at outstanding problems relative to textiles and industrial cooperation.

But as there were extensive talks with President Bourguiba and the ministers for the economy, planning and finance, foreign affairs and agriculture, the whole sphere of EEC-Tunisia relations was in fact discussed.

Trends in Community imports of Tunisian textiles were discussed in detail with regard to management in 1980 and prospects for 1981. It was agreed that experts should meet to discuss the problems that had occurred and seek solutions.

It was also agreed that there should be an exchange of information on the various sectors of the economy and on any repercussions on trade. These talks were scheduled for the coming weeks at a time when the Tunisian authorities are drafting their next five-year (1982-1986) plan.

As far as agriculture was concerned, Tunisia was particularly worried about the effects of enlargement and it was agreed that the problem would be given very serious consideration.

The talks were marked by both parties' desire to find mutually satisfactory

answers to the problems and by the political will to have greater and more extensive cooperation.

Algerian earthquake

The EEC Commission has allocated EUA 880 000 of emergency food aid (cereals and milk products) to victims of the recent earthquake at El Asnam in Algeria.

EEC-Israel cooperation committee

The second cooperation committee met in Brussels on 22 September 1980 to prepare for the EEC-Israel cooperation council to be held in Luxembourg on 7 October.

Egypt, Jordan and Lebanon

Negotiations with Jordan, Lebanon and Egypt for a protocol to adapt the cooperation agreements with a view to Greece's accession have ended with the Community and its three partners initialling the texts.

Cheysson in Egypt

EEC development commissioner Cheysson made an information visit to Egypt on 27-28 October.

Mr Cheysson's programme included meetings with President Sadat, vice-premier Abdel-Meguid, foreign minister Boutros-Ghali, agriculture minister Dawud, tourism minister Gamal el Nazer and the president of the People's Assembly..○

EEC ECONOMY

Annual economic report 1980-81

The Commission adopted on 15 October its annual economic report for 1980-81: the text is proposed for adoption by the Council, after consultation of the European Parliament and Economic and Social Committee.

The report first summarizes the impact of the second oil shock on the European and world economy. The Community's oil import bill has risen from 2.4% of GDP in 1978 to about 4% in 1980(1). The growth of world trade, estimated to have been 6½% in 1979, is likely to have dropped to 2½% in

(1) The increase in the Community's oil import bill due to the rise in prices from the end of 1978 to the end of 1980, assessed in static terms by assuming no change in oil import volume, exchange rates, or GDP in nominal terms, amounted to \$70 billion or 3.4% of GDP: the actual increase indicated, of 1.6% of GDP over the two years, is less because of offsetting effects under each of these three headings—lower import volumes, higher exchange rates against the dollar, higher GDP.

1980 and is forecast to be some 2% in 1981.

The report then presents the Commission's new economic forecasts for 1980 and 1981, which are based on present or anticipated policies. GDP volume growth is expected to slow down to 1.3% in 1980 and 0.6% in 1981: these annual average data assume stagnant or declining output in the second to fourth quarters of 1980, with positive growth resuming early in 1981. Unemployment is rising significantly, and is likely to reach 6.8% of the labour force in 1981.

Consumer price rises are expected to slow down to 9.7% in 1981, after 12% in 1980.

Budget deficits have been practically stable since 1979 as a share of GDP, but are expected to rise a little from 3.5% in 1980 to 3.9% in 1981, thus giving some cyclical support to economic activity. Money supply growth is expected to continue its deceleration from 10.6% in 1980 to 9% in 1981, thus favouring a parallel deceleration of inflation.

The Community's current account balance of payments deficit in 1980 is at the record level of 1.5% of GDP; the deficit should begin to decline in 1981, to about 1.2% of GDP. ○

Prize for EDF

Project wins Aga Khan award

The 1980 Aga Khan Prize for Architecture was awarded to an EDF project at a ceremony in Lahore on 22-23 October.

The Mopti health centre (Mali), financed by an EDF grant of 1m EUA, was among the final 15 projects selected by the jury out of 180 entrants, of which 30 were shortlisted.

Architecture is the first field to be chosen by the Aga Khan Foundation since it was established three years ago to encourage outstanding work in the arts and sciences. It aims to promote interest in and knowledge of the different forms of Islamic culture today, through awarding prizes, arranging meetings and spreading information.

The jury's summing-up stressed that the architecture prize was being awarded «at a time when a traditional heritage is being rediscovered and new experiments are allying modern technology to cultural continuity between rich and poor countries».

An EEC Commission representative attended the prize-giving, which will be covered in a future issue of the *Courier*.

Journalism prize

This year's Prix des journalistes européens has been awarded by the Association des Journalistes Européens to Gaston Williot of the Belgian *La Dernière Heure* and Jean Lecerf of the French *Figaro* newspapers. ○

BOTSWANA

President Masire re-affirms Botswana's interest in cooperation with the EEC

President Quett Masire of Botswana paid a four-day official visit to Brussels late in October. The visit, his first since succeeding to the presidency in July this year, is seen as evidence of the importance Botswana attaches to cooperation with the EEC, whether on the level of the Lomé Convention or regarding the role the European Community could play in the establishment of the projected South African Economic Development Commission, for which Dr Masire is responsible for coordinating the activities. These activities result from the decisions taken at the Lusaka summit conference, in April this year, of the heads of government of Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

President Masire was received by King Baudouin of Belgium. He met the President of the EEC Commission, Roy Jenkins, and commissioner Claude Cheysson. He also had talks with representatives of Luxembourg, currently chairing the EEC Council of Ministers, and was received at the ACP Secretariat by the Committee of Ambassadors.

In his address to the committee, the President commended the hard work that went into the negotiation of Lomé II.

The resilience of the negotiators, he said, had paid off because the new convention, in many respects, was an improvement on Lomé I.



President Masire with Maurice Foley, deputy director-general of development, at his press conference in the EEC Commission



President Masire is welcomed to ACP House by the chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, Fiji's ambassador Satya Nandan, and ACP secretary-general Thomas Okelo-Odongo (right)

The main task now was implementation, for which the ambassadors were in the "front line". Dr Masire urged the committee to ensure that Lomé II lives up to expectation and that the tortuous disbursement procedures which marked Lomé I are not repeated under the new convention. "The Community", he said, "should not pledge to assist us and at the same time lay down a maze of procedures which impede our cooperation with them". He congratulated the ACP states on their efforts to increase intra-ACP cooperation, citing as examples the Nairobi conference on development and promotion of ACP trade in November 1979 and the Montego Bay meeting on intra-ACP cooperation in July this year.

President Masire, however, said that of much more immediate concern to him was the Southern African Development Coordination Conference, scheduled for Maputo (Mozambique) at the end of November, to which many potential donors had been invited. He intimated that the follow-up action, begun since the Lusaka summit conference, was progressing well.

At a press conference later at the Commission, Dr Masire reiterated the objective of the Maputo conference: improvement of economic cooperation among the nine southern African states to end their present heavy economic dependence on South Africa. He revealed that the European Community had already given the states 350 000 EUA for studies. Apart from the EEC, a number of international aid agencies are expected to attend the Maputo conference; they include the World Bank, the Arab funds and the Scandinavian aid agencies.

President Masire also spoke to the

European Parliament's development cooperation committee, led by their vice-chairman Giovanni Bersani, and emphasized Botswana's considerable natural resources: iron, nickel, cobalt, zinc, gold and diamonds among the minerals, coffee, tea, cotton, tobacco, sugar, meat and maize among the farm products. Solar energy could also be exploited. More investment is needed to make the most of these and Botswana is looking to the Community for aid, particularly for infrastructure and transport. Dr Masire suggested the creation, on an inter-governmental basis, of a body which would define the investment priorities.

On the political front, President Masire called for the economic liberation of southern Africa and the dismantling of the apartheid system. "Confrontation is excluded by the complex nature of our relations, but we do want to reduce our dependence on South Africa", he stressed.

President Masire compared the current moves of the countries represented at the Lusaka conference with Europe's attempts at unification after the war. One of the main aims of the conference, he said, was to reduce the nine participating countries' dependence on South Africa in order to provoke changes in South Africa too. The countries are to hold a summit conference in Maputo in November, by which time, the EP development cooperation committee hoped, the Community should have some specific proposals on how to strengthen its cooperation with them.

Calling finally for more trade with Europe and fuller exploitation of Botswana's raw materials, President Masire said: "Europe can show the way to the rest of the world". ○

FRANCOPHONE COUNTRIES

XIth conference of ministers for youth and sport

The XIth conference of ministers of youth and sport in francophone and partially French-speaking countries (CONFEJES) was held in Liège, Belgium on 16 and 17 October. All 24 of the member countries(1) except Chad sent representatives, as did organizations such as the Supreme Council for Sports in Africa and the Paris-based Agence de Coopération Culturelle et Technique. Morocco attended, as an observer, for the first time.

The aim of this conference was to seek solutions, within the framework of a linguistic community, to the main socio-economic and sports problems facing the member countries—and the problems are numerous in developing countries. The many difficulties facing the young people of the Third World today include unemployment, vocational training, education, the rift between town and country life, the role and responsibility of young people in present development models which will give rise to the society of tomorrow, and many more. In the sports sector, the problem is how to extend the practice of sport to young people in general, and how to raise the level of sporting achievement in the member countries and make them competitive at international level. All these questions are among the main concerns of the leaders of youth and sport.

In his opening speech, Michel Hansenne, the Belgian minister for the French-speaking community and current chairman of CONFEJES, stressed "the need for the member countries to come together to make a better job of finding an effective solution to the many crucial problems facing the youth of our countries and the development of sport in general, with a view to laying the foundations of a better world which encourages liberty, justice, peace and genuine international cooperation, free from all machiavelian calculations".

The way of achieving this, Mr Hansenne said, is for the countries involved to work for greater solidarity and international understanding in the education and training they offer young people.

Jean-Pierre Soisson, the French minister for youth and sport, confined his short speech to action in the field of sport. He thought that "any resolutions CONFEJES might adopt could well lead

to a stronger and better-balanced world sporting organization tomorrow" and concluded by expressing his conviction that "the organization of international sport is currently the object of big manoeuvres in which we should be involved". It would be "absurd", he said, to ignore the troubles of the year 1980. They called for thought and that thought, with the cooperation of non-governmental organizations, should lead to consolidation of the international sporting movement and periodic sports events.

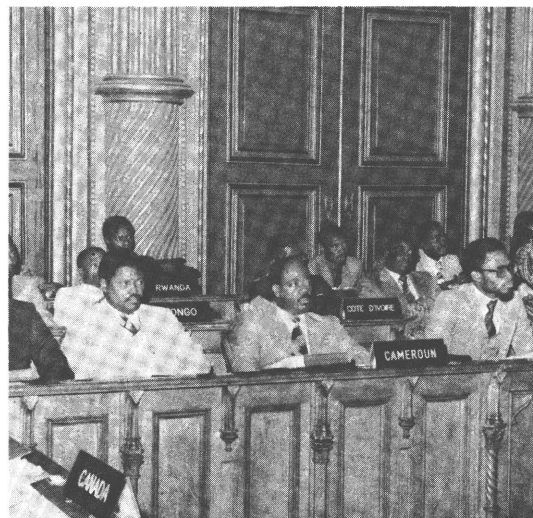
Three other speeches covered practical problems in Niger, Mali and Cameroon.

Niger's minister of youth, sports and culture, Mr Djermakoye, described the Samarias experiment in his country. The Samarias, development bodies which combined young men and women in each village and dealt with cultural,

purpose, with the best sportsmen from each region, and it offered members a wide range of sporting activity.

The Cameroonian minister for youth and sport, Mr André Ngongang Ouandji, confirmed Cameroon's interest in youth sports meetings. He said that in northern Cameroon they had run a meeting for young people from many countries and had found that the contact and friendships that sprang up on this occasion were a genuine factor of solidarity and peace. He added that meetings that brought together young people from the CONFEJES countries could only foster greater understanding.

A series of resolutions was adopted at the end of the discussions on cultural and sporting relations. A large number of training and course grants for sportsmen and medical staff in the sporting field would be awarded to the various member countries.



The conference in progress
André Ngongang Ouandji (centre), Cameroon's minister for youth and sport—a great interest in youth sports meetings



Michel Hansenne (Belgium), the new chairman of the CONFEJES, right: Mr Dankoro Soulé (Benin), retiring chairman

sports and development activity, were organized and operated democratically in that the authorities had nothing to do with the choice of members or the conditions of membership. As Mr Djermakoye saw it, Samarias were an interesting experiment based on the country's traditions and a fine example of the integration of a traditional system into a modern development model. Some 2000 classrooms had been built for schoolchildren by the organization in 1975. The minister asked for financial help from CONFEJES to organize a seminar on the Samarias which young people from the member countries could attend.

The speaker for Mali mainly dealt with reform of the sports system with a view to getting the masses to practice sport for both pleasure and competition. A national club had been set up for this

The ministers also adopted a resolution on introducing a CFAF 500 000 (FF 10 000) prize to go to the best unconventional education project from people in education (academics, researchers, teachers, etc.) in the member countries of CONFEJES.

Lastly, the ministers again stated their support of the Cotonou resolution, which saw France and Canada refuse, in 1979, to admit South African sports teams. The ministers reiterated their appeal to the countries of Europe to continue with this line of action, in accordance with the CIO and CONFEJES decisions on South Africa, in order to step up the fight against racialism. Mr Soisson reassured the ministers about France's anti-apartheid commitment.

The next CONFEJES meeting will be in Port-au-Prince (Haïti) in 1981.
○ L.P.

(1) Belgium, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Djibouti, France, Gabon, Guinea, Haiti, Ivory Coast, Mauritius, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Togo, Upper Volta & Zaire.

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT:

Debate on world hunger calls for more means, more action and more political will

More means, more action and more political will. These were what MEPs called for when the European Parliament devoted one day of its 16-19 September session to a debate on world hunger. Discussions centred on the Ferrero report and various other documents, in particular, one by Mrs Focke (Germany) on "an efficient food aid policy that takes account of the needs of the countries and peoples which are hungry—emergency aid".

Presenting his report, Mr Ferrero said his main idea was to make proposals that were as operational, precise, practical and realisable as possible. One thing he felt, was of particular concern: that the Third World produced less food today than it did 10 years ago, which meant that the developing countries were importing more and increasing their dependence at both industrial and agricultural level. But hunger, he said, was only the most explosive aspect of a much deeper phenomenon—a phenomenon that must be tackled.

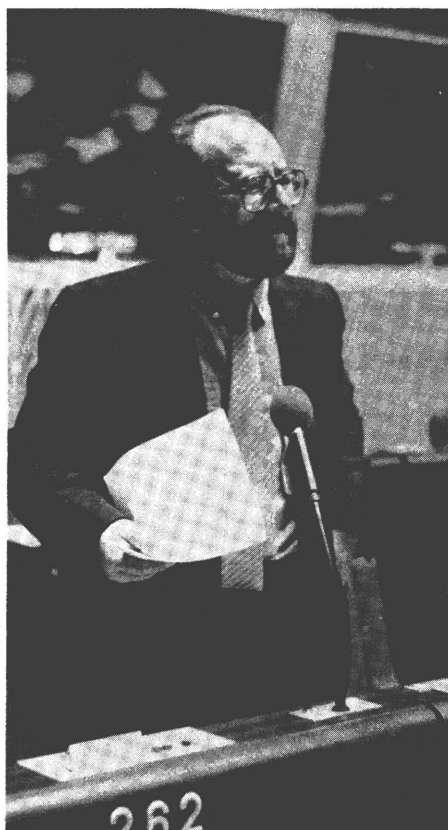
Speakers from many parties in the European Parliament then took the floor to express the particular ideas they felt would help improve the food situation in the Third World. Mr Nielsen (Denmark), for example, emphasized that there were considerable possibilities, particularly as far as technological, geological and technical knowhow were concerned. He went on to say that, although results had not been spectacular so far, it could be because the Europeans did not have a pioneer spirit in this aspect of international relations. Mrs Wiczonek-Zeul (Germany) took up this idea and blamed the industrialized countries for importing so little from the Third World. She called for the industrialized countries to give greater market access to exports from the Third World, and for the European Community to do more to stabilize world food markets and to exercise some sort of control over European firms operating in this area.

Cheysson calls for action

EEC development commissioner Claude Cheysson hoped this debate would signal the transformation of emotion into thought and action. He went over the problems of technical assistance, research, financing, food aid and access to markets which, he said, were interdependent, just as the various milieux were interdependent. Our far-

mers and theirs, the producers and the traders are all interdependent, he said. Mr Cheysson painted a very pessimistic picture of the food situation in the Third World, pointing out, for example, that the developing countries, dependence as far as grain was concerned was 40 million t in 1978, a figure which would rise to 90 million t by the year 2000; milk demand would rise from 8 to 33 million t and there would be a shortfall of meat, which used to be in surplus. So the target had to be self-sufficiency in food—at least overall self-sufficiency in each region. But what should be produced? Grain, obviously, but, given the serious protein deficiency in the developing countries (barely 50% of the ration in the industrialized world), we need more things like soya, and we have to encourage the production of animal protein, fish in particular. We must achieve a balance in the developing countries between food crops and cash crops or export products, the commissioner went on, pointing out that some of the criticism aimed at the latter was unreasonable.

Throughout his speech, Mr Cheysson insisted on the need to act in the light of



Mr Ferrero, the author of the report

the conditions in the countries and societies for which aid schemes were intended. This is why the means of non-governmental organizations, whose activities in the developing countries were "so valuable", had to be stepped up. Food aid from the EEC was an important part of the aid supplied in the world today, but, Mr Cheysson said, there had to be more of it.

Supplies of certain products had to be increased (more easily for butteroil than for milk powder) and new products had to be included. Aid had to be supplied on the basis of multiannual commitments and be of regular quality (it is a source of humiliation for the Community, the commissioner said, that the quality of the rice it has sent to the Third World has recently been subject to question eight times).

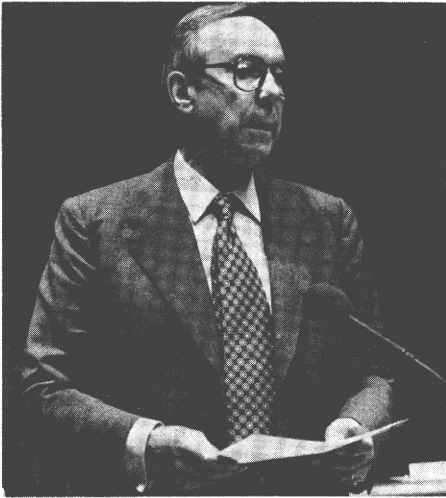
And lastly, in the very important field of international trade, Mr Cheysson denounced a certain amount of incoherence in Community policy—on cocoa, for example. But he defined the extent of European protectionism vis-à-vis Third World products—the EEC imports \$17 000 million of products from the developing countries and it absorbs 35% of their agricultural exports (the figure for the USA is only 18%).

Too much military spending

The various speakers were very much in favour of the Ferrero report. Willy Brandt, whose report on a new international economic order last year suggested one or two possible solutions to the problems of under-development, also stressed the increasing outlay on arms at a time when hunger was rife in the world.

Speaking for the socialist group, he emphasized the extent and the moral weight of the campaign against hunger in the world today, within the more general framework of the continuation of the North-South dialogue. Food aid had to be stepped up but, in the EEC's case, it should not be a way of getting rid of surplus production or of bypassing the need to overhaul the common agricultural policy. Mr Brandt expressed his dismay that, in 1980, when one fifth of the people in the world did not have enough to eat, an average of \$1 500 million daily went on armaments. He said that the North-South dialogue would be the main topic at the Western economic summit in Ottawa in July 1981. Before then, he said, there would be a consultative meeting of leaders from north and south aimed at exerting a positive influence on the UN negotiation. Surveys that Mexico and Austria had already carried out on this subject, in his view did not have negative results.

Speaking for the EPP group, Mr Vergeer said there was a technical answer to hunger in the world today; now there had to be a show of political will. Thousands of children died of hunger every day in the Third World, while the arms race escalated. What should be done was to increase official development aid instead and improve the man-



Michel Debré

Calling for a "European foundation" which would involve Third World farmers in the search for solutions to the food problem



Willy Brandt

"The world is spending a daily average of \$ 1 500 m on arms, while one fifth of the world population do not have enough to eat"



Katharina Focke

Europe needs "political will and imagination" to solve the problem of world hunger

agement of development projects by establishing a dialogue based on total equality.

Sir Fred Warner, speaking for the European democrats, said that the house had to really awaken to the fact that vast resources had to be poured into the anti-hunger campaign in the long term. Public opinion tended only to take an interest in particular cases, such as Cambodia or Uganda. Sir Fred proposed amendments that would give the report more force, one of them on the role the public and private sectors in the EEC should play in the anti-hunger campaign.

Mr Pajetta spoke for the Italian communists, expressing the hope that the debate would not turn into a list of anguished and unrealisable wishes. He stressed what the EEC could do both in the Community and at international level. He regretted the failure of the special UN session, which he felt was

mainly due to the hard line taken by the Americans who, with the Germans and the British, wanted to prevent the oil producers from being where the decisions were taken.

Mr Poniatowski, chairman of the European Parliament's development and cooperation committee, reminded members that the developing countries' food production had not increased as fast as their populations. So making a valid economic forecast was "impossible" when countries were forced to get into debt to ensure survival. Mr Poniatowski thought that, faced with this situation, there were three things to do—develop food crops, develop trade in food within the developing world and increase food production in the industrialized countries (particularly of those products which the Third World lacks).

Mr Debré, who spoke for the progressive democrats, suggested that a European foundation be set up, combining all non-government and non-official

organizations, to get the people closest involved, i.e. the farmers, to take part in efforts in this field.

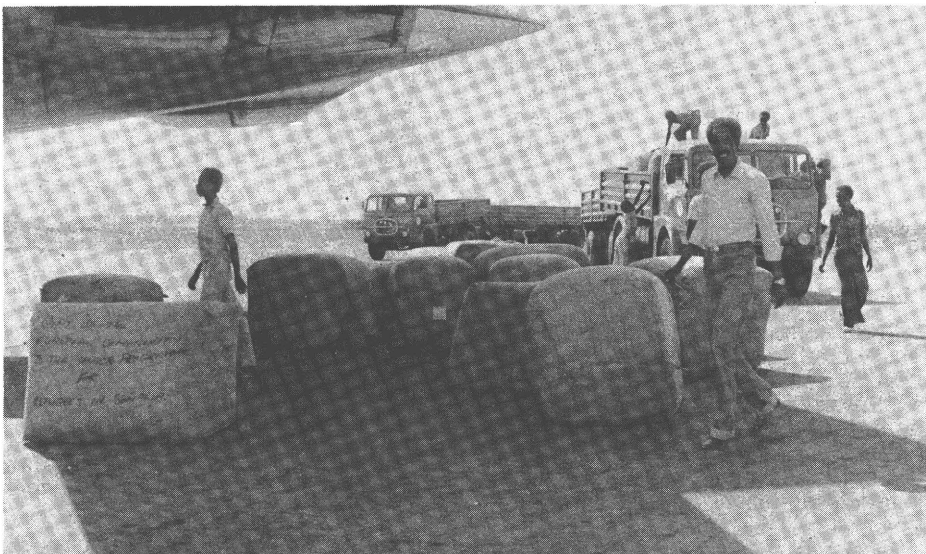
Mr Pannella (independent, Italy) thought the resolution being proposed fell far short of what was required, bearing in mind the drama of the situation which the Third World currently had to face.

Mrs Focke said Europe could achieve the aims of the Ferrero report. What was needed, she said, was a little political will, imagination when it came to financing and very prompt action.

Adoption of the Ferrero report

The Parliament approved the report more or less as it stood. The text is very long, consisting of 57 points, and involves a number of proposals on the anti-hunger campaign in the world today within the framework of new developing, developed country relations, the agricultural and rural development of the developing countries, Community food aid and international trade in food products. One amendment, which the rapporteur himself suggested, was voted, whereby the Council and the Commission were invited to do their utmost to ensure that the food aid agreement be renewed before it expired in July 1981 and that the quantities involved be stepped up in an appropriate manner.

Before this, Mr Cheysson also talked about the outcome of the UN session on starting up the North-South dialogue again. Mr Cheysson's main observation here, as far as the Nine were concerned, was that any disagreement had more to do with tactics than with substance or design, as the two countries with reservations (Germany and the UK) had shown. The UN General Assembly could thus use the text which had failed to win unanimity in the special assembly but on which all countries except the USA were, essentially, in agreement. ○ L.P.



EEC food aid to Somalia. Hunger in the world is not inevitable; it is necessary above all to seek the causes and to have the political will to solve them

Fighting racism

Exhibition on women victims of apartheid at the European Parliament



From left to right: Thérèse Gastaut (UN representative in Brussels), Simone Veil (President of the European Parliament) and Yvette Roudy (MEP and chairman of the 'ad hoc' committee on women's rights) looking at the photo exhibition in Strasbourg on women victims of apartheid

Where is world peace most threatened in Africa today? And by whom? If these two questions had been asked in Europe, it would have been surprising to see just how many would not say that it is in South Africa, by the South African government, with its system of apartheid, its institutionalized racialism, the political, economic and social system that 4 million whites use to oppress 20 million blacks. But should we be so surprised at this ignorance? Information about the stark reality of South Africa does not always get to Europe or the rest of the world and millions of dollars are poured into cover-ups and buying off European and American journals to get them to espouse and give credit to the Pretoria government's racist policy in the eyes of international public opinion (viz. the case of Connie Mulder, the ex-South African information minister).

But undeniably, due to the slow but gradual action of the anti-racist movements, in the UN and now the European Parliament, public opinion in Europe is beginning to be aware of the threat of apartheid not just to the blacks but to the whites too, in whose name the system has been institutionalized in South Africa; for any racist policy is a boomerang, the effects of which are as destructive as the cause.

Apartheid affects the whole of the black population of South Africa, obviously. It makes no distinction between women and children, who, as was

apparent at Soweto and Sharpsville before it, are shot down at point blank range by South African policemen and soldiers.

Faced with this drama, that hits the women of South Africa twice—because they are black and because they are women—the European Parliament's ad hoc committee on women's rights, chaired by Yvette Roudy (PS France), put on an exhibition of photographs in Strasbourg in September with the help of the UN. The subject was the suffering of black women in South Africa and their strengthening, increasingly structured resistance, which is spurred by the repression that is inflicted upon them every day and by the desire for justice, the driving force of the anti-apartheid campaign.

The following text extracts and photos are from the exhibition in the European Parliament building in Strasbourg.

"The horrors of apartheid weigh heavily on the whole of the black population of South Africa, but it is the millions of black women who are the most oppressed—black women in a country of racial discrimination, workers in a system that is built on cheap labour and women in a society led and dominated by men.

"They have a straight choice. To go as migrant workers and live alone in the towns, far away from their children and

deprived of the right to housing (they are banned from taking out tenancies), or forced to live apart from their husbands in the reserves, the national homelands called Bantustans. In this case, women have all the work to do. Not only do they have to replenish the labour force, but they must keep it alive and look after children, old people, the sick and the handicapped, not just without compensation, but without any protection or economic or social security.

"Yet in some places, resistance has reached an impressive level and men and women have joined together to fight apartheid. United they must win the right to live and to fulfil themselves in a fairer and more humane society.

"Practising apartheid is institutionalizing racialism. The women's rights committee felt it had to point this out and show its solidarity by organizing, with the UN's help, an exhibition of photographs on this intolerable situation."

L.P.

Some aspects of the elaborate system of apartheid (1)

1. Foreigners in their own country: migrant workers

"This in fact is the whole basis of our policy in the white economy, a system of migrant workers."

— Mr G.F. van L. Froneman, deputy minister for justice, mining and planning; the Assembly, 6 February 1968.

"Let there be no illusions, for if our policy towards the black population is taken right to its logical conclusion, there will be no black citizens in South Africa."

— Dr Connie Mulder, minister for plural relations and development, 7 February 1978.

This enables the South African government to treat most of its nationals as foreigners with no rights in "white" South Africa: 87% of the territory is governed for and by the whites, a mere 17% of the population, and there are 20 million Africans on 13% of the territory.

2. Family life

"We give them a choice. They have to send their children to the homelands themselves... The law says they are in the area illegally and so they have to go. It's as simple as that."

— Mr Coen Kotze, department of Bantu affairs, Alexandra City, Johannesburg.

Family life is shattered by apartheid and particularly by the system of migrant workers. Dr Trudi Thomas, a South African sociologist, describes what happens when men leave their families in Bantustans and go and work in the towns:

(1) This report is based on Hilda Bernstein's account in *For their Triumphs and for their Tears* (IDAF London, 1978), pp. 45-49.



Mrs Lizin (Belgium), Mrs Vayssade and Mrs Fuillet (France) and Thérèse Gastaut (left) visiting the exhibition

"Broken marriages, desertion and infidelity are tragically common, for obvious reasons... Relations between Africans, as in all other cultures, depend on loyalty and affection. These links, in turn, depend on mutual support and comfort, on experience and shared responsibility and on living together. All this has to be sacrificed when husbands leave for long periods..."

3. Forced transfers

"But the Bantus in our white zones, who are not economically active, should be sent back to their homelands... About 900 000 Bantus have in fact been transferred in recent years, since 1959,

under the Nationalist Party regime. This is no mean success. On the contrary, it is a great achievement."

— *Dr P.J. Koornhof, deputy minister for administration and Bantu development, Assembly, 1969.*

Africans are not just sent from white zones to the Bantustans. There are also procedures whereby tribes are split. And they are also moved about within the homelands.

The residence laws also put women at a disadvantage:

— The continuous residence qualification is more difficult for women to obtain as they tend to go home to the country to have their babies.

— Women are also refused the right to

rent accommodation in towns and so they are homeless once widowed, divorced, separated or simply abandoned, and may be expelled or transferred to a Bantustan.

— By the very nature of the work they do, women can easily be classed as unemployed Bantus, in accordance with section 29 of the law on urban areas, with forced transfers as a result.

4. Social services

"In South Africa, sickness is not a matter of chance. It hits certain well-defined classes and races hardest. This is not because medical techniques have not been properly spread. It is the bad socio-political environment in which the black population is confined that is to blame. Food, housing, employment and other similar factors independent of medicine have a decisive influence on the sickness and death rates."

Social services like health care, pensions and social security payments could not counter the destructive effects of apartheid on the black population of South Africa, but a proper system of social security would at least protect the community from the worst horrors of sickness and deprivation.

African women, with their dual handicap of sex and race, the disadvantages they suffer on the job market, their lack of even elementary rights (even compared to black men), their vulnerability in respect of their own problems and the overwhelming responsibility of their children, are in particular need of social services.

5. Women against apartheid since 1913

"Now you have attacked women, you have uncovered a rock. You have



Rural dwellings for blacks in South Africa. Life is more painful in a racist system

RICK KOLLEKTIF



1

UN CONTACT



2



3

PETER MACUBANE

① "Labour" bureau for Bantu women: divide blacks, separate men from women and children in order to govern and dominate them better ② Encourage poverty and promiscuity among Africans in order to weaken them ③ Apartheid: a murderous mythology ④ 13% of the territory (the poorest areas) for 87% (20 million) of the population



5



4

STAN WINER

⑤ Armed repression and dogs are used against women and children squatters in Cape Town ⑥ "A height never attained in perversion" (Valery Giscard d'Estaing, President of France) ⑦ Men, women and children come under tear-gas in Soweto

UPI-PICT



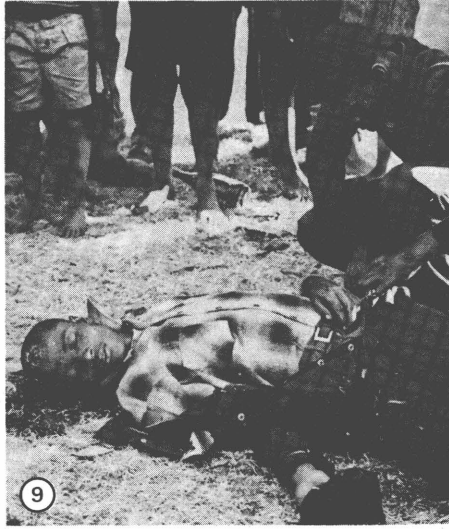
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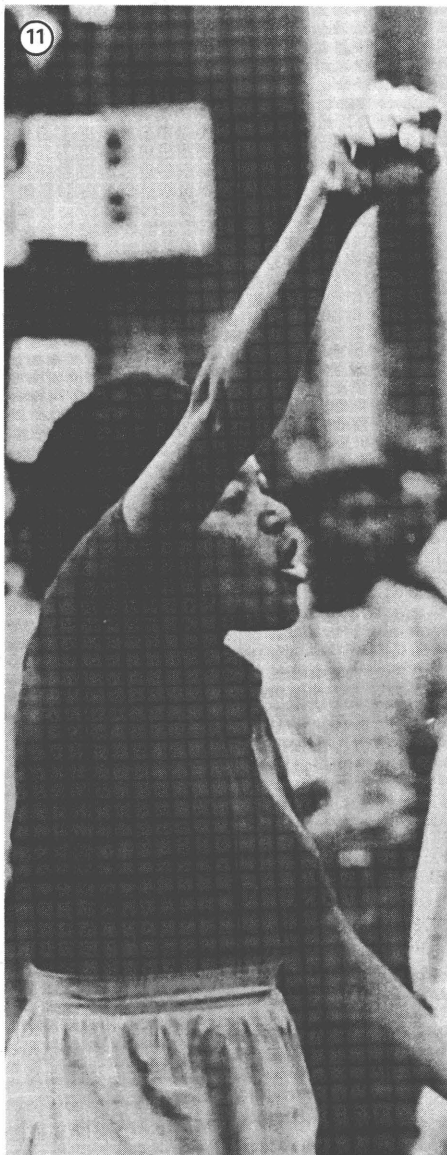


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10

8 Black nurses for white children; very soon these children will be made to forget that they had been brought up with tenderness by African women 9 10 Black children killed in cold blood in Soweto. How can an ideology which thrives on human blood claim to defend "Western civilization, the free world and Christianity?"; 11 12 13 More and more determined in the fight against apartheid, the women and children of South Africa are showing that there can never be peace in that country and in the world if Africans do not regain their dignity and honour as human beings



11



12

PETER MAGUBANE



13



*"In South Africa, illness does not strike haphazardly, but in a specific class or race."
In this country, death is not due to poverty, but to the black colour of one's skin*

moved a block of stone. You will be crushed."
— *Song in the campaign against passes, 1956.*

Women have always joined men in the fight against apartheid. But, increasingly, in the campaigns and activities of both sexes in the battle for national liberation, women are also fighting for causes that concern them.

In 1913, in the Orange Free State, African women from the towns had to apply for fresh entry permits every month. They sent petitions and organized delegations against these passes, but with no success, and this

led them to a mass demonstration in Bloemfontein and Winburg. The trial of strength ended in a victory for the women and the passes were abolished.

In 1955, the minister for native affairs announced that, in January the following year, African women would have to have passes. Until then, only men had needed them.

The first big demonstration against passes for women was in October 1955 when 2 000 women, most of them African, marched on Pretoria.

The anti-pass movement grew. There were demonstrations and protest marches all over the country. On 9



To negotiate with the upholders of apartheid is purely and simply to accept racism... So if the Africans do not want racism, they must fight it

August 1956, 20 000 women from every region went to protest in Pretoria. That day is now known as Women's Day in South Africa.

The leaders of the women's movement handed a petition in at the Prime Minister's office, but the Prime Minister, in accordance with government policy of the day (which was to ignore any African request), was not available to receive the delegation.

Passes continued to be issued and protests continued to be made, some of them in the remotest of areas, in Zeerust in the Transvaal, for example, where only 76 of the 4 000 women in one village accepted their passes. Police repression was terrible. There were killings and beatings and houses were razed to the ground.

Since then, the racist South African government has stepped up its military tactics—the only way it can go on holding out. But the anti-apartheid movement, as the pictures show, has lost none of its strength. ○

COREPER

1000th meeting

COREPER, the committee of the EEC countries' permanent representatives to the Community, clocked up its 1000th meeting on 30 September since its creation in 1958.

Nicolas Hommel, secretary-general of the Council since July 1973, participated for the last time in the proceedings of the Committee of Permanent Representatives before retiring on 8 October.

The first meeting of the permanent representatives committee, which was held on 26 January 1958—a Sunday morning—with Baron Snoy et d'Oppuers, permanent representative of Belgium, in the chair, took place on the day after the first meeting of the EEC and Euratom Council following the entry into force of the Rome treaties at the beginning of 1958. The committee took over from the interim committee which was entrusted by the foreign ministers at their conference in Rome on 25 March 1957 with a number of preparatory tasks pending the entry into force of the treaties.

In the early days of the committee there was frequent questioning by the institutions and the members of the committee itself as to its status, role and powers since the Treaties of Rome had simply stated (art. 151 EEC and art. 121 Euratom) that the rules of procedure of the Council could make provision for the creation of a permanent representatives committee, the duties and powers of which were to be examined by the Council. On 25 January 1958 the ministers simply assigned certain tasks to their permanent representatives including the preparation of the Council's rules of procedure, but did not give specific guidelines for carrying out this brief.

The subsequent development of the permanent representatives committee therefore came about on an empirical basis. The first text referring to its existence was art. 16 of the provisional rules of procedure of the Council of 18 March 1958. This provisional situation lasted more than 20 years until the final version of the rules of procedure of the Council, adopted on 24 July 1979, took over the text of the old art. 16.

In the meantime, however, the so-called "merger" treaty establishing a single Council and a single Commission of the European Communities of 8 April 1965 laid down the role of the Committee of Permanent Representatives in a formal—though somewhat brief—text. Article 4 of this treaty states that: "A committee consisting of the permanent representatives of the member states shall be responsible for preparing the work of the Council and for carrying out the tasks assigned to it by the Council".

In contrast to the brevity and simplicity of that text, the role and functioning of COREPER, as they have developed



Jean Dondelinger, permanent representative of Luxembourg, with (left) Nicolas Hommel, outgoing secretary-general of the EEC Council of Ministers

over more than 20 years, are highly complex.

To carry out its task of preparing all the meetings of the EEC Council, COREPER established an infrastructure of working parties and committees—currently numbering more than 50—which carry out preparatory work under its supervision and on its initiatives. Article 16(2) of the rules of procedure of the Council states that COREPER may set up working parties and instruct them to carry out certain preparatory work or studies. This article also states that the chairmanship of COREPER and the working parties and committees established under its aegis shall rotate in the same way as the Council presidency.

As at Council meetings, the Commission participates in principle in all the meetings of the Committee and of the working parties and committees established by it. The general secretariat of the Council assists the committee and its subsidiary bodies in carrying out all their tasks.

In the face of an ever-increasing workload the committee was obliged to divide itself into two parts: the first meetings of the deputy permanent representatives took place on an irregular basis as from 1960. The practice of sitting as part 1—deputies—and part 2—ambassadors—became established as from February 1962, when work began on the accelerated implementation of certain objectives of the EEC treaty.

Since then, COREPER has been meeting every week—except at Christmas and Easter and during August—usually on Wednesday (part 1) and Thursday (part 2).

The importance of the role played by

the permanent representatives committee in the Council's decision-making process has been highlighted again recently, particularly in the report by the "three wise men" and in the work carried out subsequently by the foreign affairs ministers. Indeed, in their report of 15 September to the European Council, the ministers emphasized that COREPER should be given greater decision-making powers and should be allowed to relieve the Council of a number of dossiers by being given wide-ranging and flexible instructions by their governments.

The aim would be to reserve the main questions of principle for ministers while COREPER, acting on guidelines from the Council, should prepare texts for Council approval. With the same aim, the Committee of Permanent Representatives should be given powers more effectively to coordinate the activities of the various specialized working parties and committees.

The result is that COREPER is truly the central body for preparing and coordinating the decisions of the Council. It has been described as a pivot between the technical and the political, as a mediator between national and Community interests and as the hub of the Community's decision-making process.

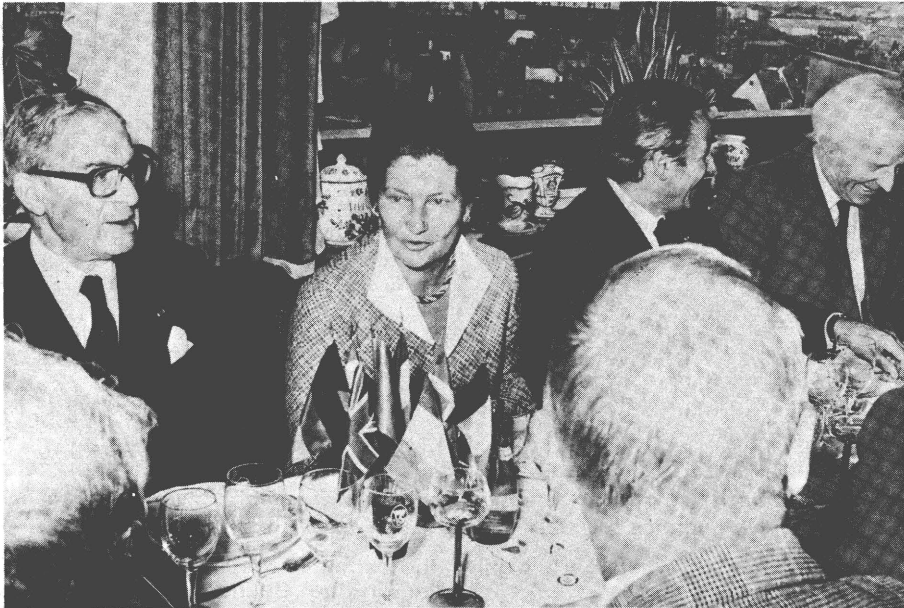
COREPER is currently made up of the following ambassadors:

Belgium: Paul Noterdaeme
Denmark: Gunnar Riberholdt
Germany: Gisbert Poensgen
France: Luc de La Barre de Nanteuil
Ireland: Brendan Dillon
Italy: Renato Ruggiero
Luxembourg: Jean Dondelinger (current president)
Netherlands: M.H.J.Ch. Rutten
United Kingdom: Sir Michael Butler. ○

Jean Rey leaves the European Parliament

As agreed during the campaign leading up to the direct election of the European Parliament by universal suffrage, Jean Rey left the house after a year as an MP to allow Luc Beyer to take his place in the Liberal and Democratic Group.

Jean Rey is a former president of the EEC Commission, a former Belgian minister and a statesman who left his mark on the political life of his country. In all the posts he has held, his lively intellect, eloquence, extensive culture and pleasant manner have won him affection and esteem.



Jean Rey (left) with Simone Veil and Gaston Thorn at a dinner in his honour

DENMARK

High levels of aid

The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the OECD has reviewed the development assistance policy of Denmark. Its report found that this country is one of the four DAC countries which have achieved the target of 0.7% laid down by the UN, reaching 0.75% of the GNP in both 1978 and 1979 (\$ 388 million in 1978 and \$ 448 million in 1979).

The total net contribution from official and private resources amounted to \$ 750 million or 1.25% of the GNP in 1979. However, the recent deterioration in Denmark's economic and financial situation has led it to temporarily postpone the planned expansion of its programme. The rate will be maintained at 0.7% in 1981-1984 instead of being increased to about 0.8% as planned previously. ○

SOLAR ENERGY

Cannes conference examines solar electricity generation

More than 600 experts from around the world attended the European Com-

munity's Photovoltaic Solar Energy Conference held in Cannes, France, on 27-31 October.

The conference, organized by the Commission on the initiative of Guido Brunner, in cooperation with the Commissariat à l'Energie Solaire, Paris, and the Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers, New York, had reports submitted from nearly 30 countries.

The enthusiastic response to the holding of the conference is felt to reflect the growing interest in the possibilities of exploiting this kind of alternative energy.

The photovoltaic process is a method of directly converting sunlight into electricity. Photovoltaic cells work in diffuse as well as in direct sunlight and even in the rain and can therefore be useful also in the more northerly parts of the Community.

Photovoltaic solar power has already found a place in the energy market, but it has the potential for much more. The Cannes conference was designed to provide an ideal opportunity for the international photovoltaic community to assess progress and look ahead.

For the first time, the conference included an exhibition of photovoltaic material, which was open to the public.

Photovoltaics form part of the Commission's programme of research into the uses of solar energy for which the Community has allocated a total of 46

mEUA over four years. The first dozen solar electricity generating projects benefitting from these funds are expected to be selected shortly. ○

Correction

On page XVII of *Courier* No 62 (July-August 1980) in an item on sea pollution we mention the "UNDP's programme for regional seas". It should have read "UNEP's" programme. Our apologies to both organizations.

WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Women commissioners for Brussels?

The European Parliament's women's rights committee, chaired by French socialist Yvette Roudy, intends to ask the president of the Parliament, Simone Veil, to press the Community governments to get women nominated for the new EEC Commission.

The ad hoc committee was meeting in Milan in the third week of October and held public hearings on women and social security, women in the 'black' labour market and the exploitation of women in family businesses, particularly in the farm sector. A number of experts were present. ○

MISCELLANEOUS PRIZES

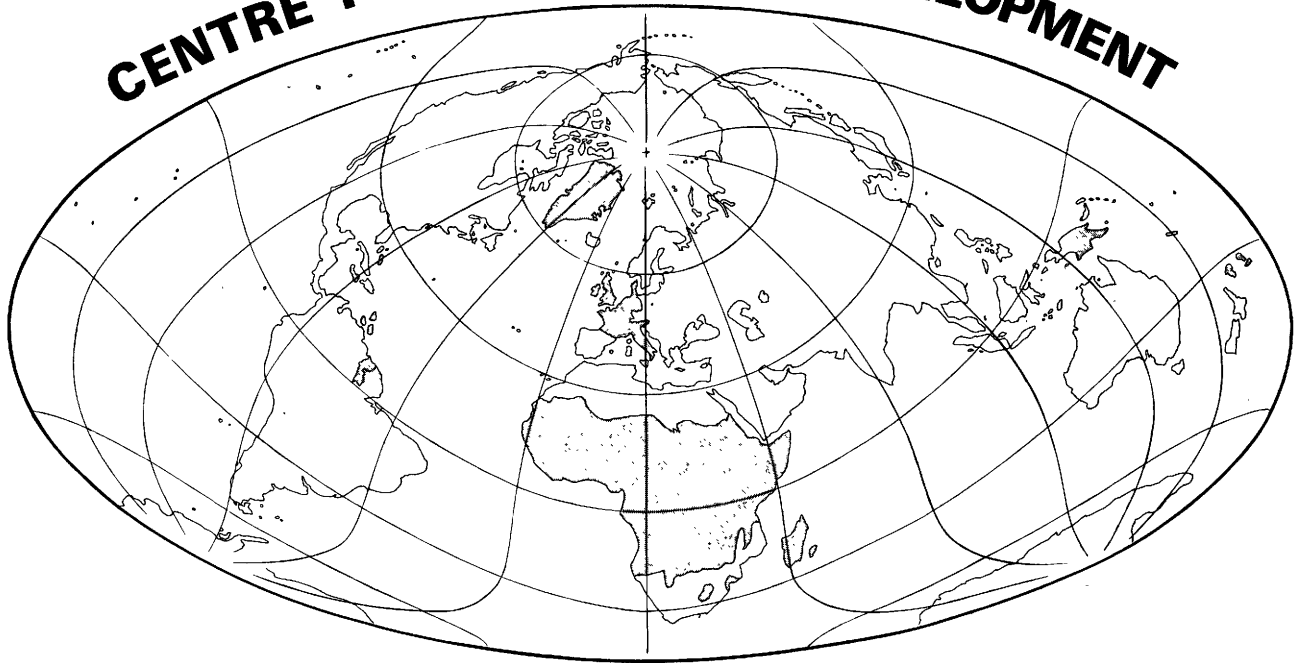
Pierre Harmel awarded Robert Schuman Prize

The "Robert Schuman" gold medal has been awarded by the Freiherr von Stein foundation of Hamburg to former Belgian premier Pierre Harmel "for his exceptional contribution to the cause of European unity".

Europalia Prize for Literature

Belgian authors Suzanne Lilar and Ward Ruyslinck have won the "Europalia" literature prize. European Parliament president Simone Veil, presenting the award, stressed that Europe is "a community of values and culture". The Europalia festival is an excellent forum for the exchange of ideas among Europeans, she said, and it contributes to the "weaving of closer ties of solidarity". ○

CENTRE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT



BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

Participation in 4th investors forum at Dakar 1-5 December 1980

The Centre for Industrial Development (CID) has been invited to participate in the 4th Investors Forum which will be held in Dakar, Senegal from 1 to 5 December 1980.

The forum is being sponsored by ECOWAS in agreement with the government of Senegal through SOFIDAX (Société de la Foire Internationale de Dakar) and in collaboration with the EDF (European Development Fund) and UNIDO.

It will be recalled that the 4th Forum like its predecessors is a promotional operation aimed at establishing contacts between EEC industrialists and promoters of projects both public and private in the ECOWAS states.

The CID participated in the preparatory work for the forum as a member of the coordination committee, and has been requested by the sponsors to undertake the follow-up of individual contacts which may be made in the course of the forum.

The CID will not finance projects itself but it will be able to help in identification of partners, possibly contribute to feasibility studies for already defined projects once the partners have actually been identified, assist in training problems, project rehabilitation and render technological advice to facilitate implementation if necessary.

CID regional seminar—Lomé, Togo—9-11 December 1980

The Centre for Industrial Development (CID) is holding a 3-day seminar in Lomé, Togo on 9-11 December 1980 for the benefit of member countries of the ECOWAS region.

The purpose of the seminar is to make the ECOWAS states more fully aware of the existence and functions of the CID with particular reference to its new emphasis under the second Lomé Convention and to the various aids and facilities of a specialist or technical nature which it can provide.

Three high level participants will be invited from each ECOWAS country through official channels, to be drawn from the different sectors of government, development banking, industrial training, technological institutions, and private industry, but not all from any one sector.

Other participants will consist of representatives of the Commission of the European Communities, the European Investment Bank, the ACP Secretariat and the ACP-EEC committee on industrial cooperation, the ECOWAS Secretariat and of other regional organizations in the West African area. The estimated total of participants and observers will be about 70.

While the seminar is not open to the public, standard documentation will be available on request from the CID.

EEC industrial partners wanted

Printing and publishing house

Ref.80/18b

Sudan: The Sudan Government and the Sudan Development Corporation (SDC) plan to establish a Printing and Publishing Company which would primarily print and publish government publications, magazines, educational books and advertising material. An EEC partner is required who would be prepared:

- (a) to assist carrying out a feasibility study;
- (b) if results of study are positive, to participate with 10% in the share capital of a new joint-venture company, and to assume management responsibility.

Printing and paper converting

Ref. 80/19d

Nigeria: The CID has been asked by a Nigerian entrepreneur to identify an EEC technical/commercial partner to set up a printing plant and a paper converting plant in Nigeria to cater for the domestic market.

The printing project would involve a total investment of over US \$750 000 for general printing by letterpress and offset, including the printing of books and magazines.

The paper converting plant at a total investment of 2 million US \$ would have the same promotor as the printing project, and would specialise in the production of wire stitched exercise books, extending to writing pads, envelopes, box files and other stationery. The demand for exercise books is estimated to boom following the implementation of the Universal Primary Education program.

A feasibility study is available, and the promoters are looking for a financial, technical and management partner.

Soluble coffee plant

Ref. 80/20b

Papua New Guinea: A private PNG firm is looking for an EEC joint-venture and marketing partner to set up a soluble coffee plant which would process premium quality of Highlands (Arabica) coffee, mostly for export to Europe. In 1978, PNG had about 47 000 hectares of coffee plantations and exported 46 000 tons of coffee principally to West Germany, Australia, the USA and the U. K. As a first step, a feasibility study would have to be carried out. The PNG sponsors are willing to contribute to the financing of the study, together with the EEC partner and eventually the CID.

Infusions/solutions

Ref. 80/21b

Nigeria: An EEC joint-venture partner is required to establish a plant near Lagos for the production of infusions/solutions. Capacity of 4 million units (in two shifts) is expected to be reached in year 4 of production. The plant would be the second of its type in Nigeria and aim at a 40% market share. Investment will be about US \$4 million. The project has private Nigerian sponsors and the new company is already incorporated.

A full-scale feasibility study was carried out by European consultants, with financial support from the CID, and indicates the technical and commercial viability of the project. Although the new enterprise will be highly profitable, negotiations with some interested foreign partners were not concluded positively due to difficulties in meeting total foreign exchange financing requirements. Interested EEC firms should therefore be in a position to arrange for suppliers' credits or other forms of medium to long-term finance.

Sugar mills

Ref. 80/22b

Zaire: The Government of Zaire invites EEC sugar producers to participate in two new joint-ventures for the production of cane sugar. The two already existing sugar mills near Kinshasa and the border with Burundi presently produce about 55 000 tons of sugar (target 1984: 90 000), against an estimated demand of about 170 000 tons per year which cannot be met.

The proposed new sugar mills will have a capacity of 50 000 tons p.a. each. Investment for each project would be US \$21 to 24 million.

Extensive preliminary studies and pilot plantation of sugar cane have been undertaken since 1978 with the assistance of the Belgian Government, and several EEC sugar producers have already shown interest. However, with regard to the size of the two projects and the corresponding financing requirements, a combined effort of firms and development finance institutions from several EEC countries appears to be necessary.

The CID will be pleased to provide more detailed information to interested parties.

Fishing projects

Ref. 80/23d

Pacific: The CID has recently received several requests from the Pacific States, from Papua New Guinea and Fiji in particular, to identify technological and/or commercial partners for the development of the fishing industry.

Inquiries are invited from interested EEC firms which may be interested in the development of any of the following fields:

- tuna canning
- coastal fish freezing plant
- shellfish development
- fishing-boat building and repairing

Please note that the CID is looking for a response from firms prepared to invest and develop such projects and not from individual consultants or turn-key constructors.

Hotel development

Ref. 80/24d

The CID would like to hear from specialist EEC firms interested in the general field of development of hotels, motels and recreation projects, in the ACP countries.

Interested parties should send documentation to the CID and specify their geographical area of interest. CID receives inquiries on hotel development from time to time and while there is no geographical preference, interest in Zambia and Nigeria is particularly solicited at this time.

In the particular case of Zambia preliminary inquiries have been received to identify potential developers for several hotel/motel projects as it is thought that tourism should now develop following the end of the war in Zimbabwe. No feasibility studies are yet available, but first contact with EEC hotel interests is solicited.

In the case of Nigeria, a full feasibility study is available for the erection of a US \$12.6 million international standard hotel in a leading Nigerian city. 300 bedrooms in chalet form are planned. The promoters are looking for a technical and management partner.

Steel office furniture

Ref. 80/25b

Nigeria: in Bendel State, a private firm is planning to set up a factory for the manufacture of steel office furniture, together with a European furniture manufacturer who would be willing:

(a) to subscribe — alone or together with an EEC financial partner — up to 40% of the share capital of the joint new enterprise to be created;

(b) to make his productive knowhow available and to assume responsibility for the setting-up of the factory, technical production management, and training of Nigerians.

The new enterprise would be started on the smallest viable technical and commercial scale, and be expanded according to the development of market and sales. The Nigerian sponsors are already in the office equipment business as agents for NCR.

Wooden-framed furniture

Ref. 80/26b

Nigeria: EEC furniture manufacturers are invited to consider participation in a joint-venture, together with an established Nigerian firm in Lagos, for the manufacture of wooden-framed furniture for domestic and commercial use. Estimated capital cost, including a saw-mill, is US \$8.1 million, output in 1985 is anticipated to reach US \$ 18.6 million.

Interested EEC firms should be willing to carry out, together with the Nigerian sponsor, a feasibility study.

Liquid detergents and plastic bottles

Ref. 80/27b

Somalia: A leading manufacturer of soap and sanitary articles plans to diversify production and to produce 5 000 tons of liquid detergents and about 500 tons of plastic bottles per year. According to a preliminary feasibility study, the project is technically and commercially viable.

Interested EEC firms should be willing to participate with equity in a joint venture and to make production knowhow and technical management services available.

Welding electrodes

Ref. 80/28b

Nigeria: A Nigerian firm, together with a Belgian financial partner, are looking for a technical partner with knowhow for the manufacture of welding electrodes at the relatively small scale of 2 500 tons per year. The technical partner should also participate with 20% in the share capital of the joint venture company to be established. A pre-feasibility study is available.

Steel rolling, wire drawing and nail making

Ref. 80/29b

Nigeria: A private firm, in Onitsha, which is about to start making wire nails, is looking for an EEC joint venture partner for setting up additional facilities for wire drawing, and round bar and steel rolling. The company has already built the necessary factory premises. A feasibility study is available. The foreign partner is expected to supply plant and machinery, to assist with management, to arrange for suppliers' credits and to participate as a minority shareholder in the Nigerian company.

Adapted technologies for ACP countries

The second volume of the "Inventory of Adapted Technologies for ACP Countries" will soon be published by the CID. It will describe 20 small and medium-sized industrial projects, most of which have already been successfully implemented either in industrialized or in developing countries. The selection of projects was subject to the same criteria which were applied when preparing the first volume of the inventory:

- low investment cost,
- relatively simple technology,
- valorization of the raw materials and other resources of the ACP countries,
- production of goods to meet basic requirements, or to replace imports,
- positive impact on industrial development in the respective countries.

Each of the 20 projects is presented in the form of an "industrial profile" which provides enough information on technical aspects, investment, production cost and profitability to allow interested parties in the ACP countries, in particular industrial promotion bodies and investors, to assess the possibilities for successful implementation in the respective countries.

The measure used in the economic evaluation of each project is the net present value which is obtained by discounting the net cash flow. Calculations are based on the likely average cost of production factor (labour, energy, transport, etc.) and can easily be modified to take account of actual production cost in a given country.

If the results of such a first assessment are positive, a detailed feasibility study has to be undertaken before implementation of the project can take place. The CID will assist ACP sponsors and potential investors to prepare project proposals, to negotiate the acquisition of licences, to identify EEC joint venture partners, and to establish contact with sources of finance.

A list of the 20 industrial profiles is given below:

Agro-food

1. Small-scale rice mill
2. Synthetic soft drinks

Building materials

3. Brick manufacture
4. Sanitaryware

Mechanics & metallurgy

5. Foundry for pipes and pipe fittings
6. Metal coating
7. Automobile silencers

Alternative energy application

8. Solar-powered irrigation water (thermodyn.)
9. Solar-powered irrigation water (Photo elec.)
10. Solar rice dryer
11. Solar water-heaters
12. Solar cookers

Paper & board

13. Paper manufacture
14. Paper envelopes
15. Small-scale paperboard
16. Paperboard boxes
17. Corrugated board sheets
18. Corrugated board boxes

Miscellaneous

19. Shoe manufacturing
20. Chalk crayons

Positions vacant in ACP countries

Details on the CID Seminar

Liberia

Quarrying: A Liberian firm is looking for a technical manager for its new marble and stone quarry. Remuneration would be on a fixed monthly basis, plus a percentage of profits and/or turnover. A participation in the share capital of the quarrying venture would be welcomed, but it is not a condition.

Interested candidates should write directly to:
The President,
Providence Concrete Works, INC.
P.O. Box 549
Monrovia
Liberia
with copy to CID.

Nigeria

Consultants: A well-established Nigerian consultancy firm has a number of vacancies for consultants in the fields of industrial promotion and studies, agricultural and rural development, management and man-power development.

Candidates must have at least 10 years of post-graduate experience. Working language will be English, knowledge of French will be an advantage. Minimum salary will be equivalent to US \$16 000 p.a., plus housing and other fringe benefits. Duty station will be Lagos.

Applicants should write directly to:
The Chief Executive
George Odi and Associates Ltd
P.O. Box 9698
Lagos
Nigeria

The CID Seminar which will be held in Lomé on December 9, 10 and 11, 1980 (see page XXII) is aimed at bringing to the awareness of the ECOWAS countries the role of the CID in particular as defined by the second Lomé Convention.

This seminar will convene three participants from each country drawn from ministries of industry or planning, development corporations, banks or private industry and technical ministries, agencies or institutions.

Other participants, as already mentioned, will be representatives of the Commission of the European Communities, the European Investment Bank, the Council of Ministers, the ACP Secretariat, the ACP-EEC Committee on Industrial Cooperation, CID local antennas and regional organizations of the ECOWAS area and the European Patent Office.

The seminar will be chaired by Chief Peter Afolabi, co-chairman of the ACP-EEC committee on industrial cooperation.

The agenda will include dialogue group sessions during which the following two topics will be debated:

- CID promotion in the establishment of new industrial enterprises in West African countries with EEC industry involvement;
- potential CID assistance in adaptation of technology and assistance to existing industries. ○

Industrialists and planning authorities learn about the opportunities offered by EEC-ACP business cooperation at seminars organized in the ACP countries by the CID (as here in Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago)

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.



Fisheries development in the ACP countries

by J. STONEMAN(*) and J. DISNEY(**)

In 1977 the *Courier* carried a major dossier on fisheries in the ACP countries. In that dossier the Conference on the Law of the Sea, and its implications for the ACP countries, was noted. The continued development of the various law of the sea principles and legal decisions has subsequently been the single largest factor in fisheries development throughout the world.

This applies to the ACP countries as well as the major industrial fishing nations. Almost without exception the international community now recognizes the 200-mile exclusive economic zone (EEZ) concept, and that the coastal states have special particular rights and obligations within this zone. It is important to recognize the extent of the world's seas which are now covered by EEZs; although the 200-mile zone would only cover 30% of the oceans it includes some 90% of the resources presently under commercial exploitation. A relatively large share of this total accrues to certain ACP countries. For instance, Fiji has a theoretical EEZ of 330 900 square miles, the Seychelles 393 500 square miles and Papua New Guinea 690 000 square miles compared to some 247 000 square miles for the UK—now, of course, part of the European Community fisheries zone.

It may be worth noting the basic reason for the international acceptance of 200-mile zones, a principle which was resisted so bitterly for so long by many countries. It has been realized for many years that world fisheries follow a pattern of over-exploitation and decline, almost invariably, when the principle of free access to resources is applied. Management of a fishery cannot be effectively undertaken and enforced in this situation. With few exceptions, international management of common resources has failed significantly to achieve rational utilization and the maintenance of stocks at their optimum levels. Only the management of resources under national control has generally permitted stocks to be maintained, or to recover, to provide an optimum sustainable yield. Striking examples of the benefits to be gained by national control of EEZs are now becoming apparent. One has only to look at the recent improvements in cod stocks in the Icelandic EEZ to see what can be achieved.

The role of ACP countries

The major challenge to fishery development in the ACP countries is connected with the rational management of EEZs. The need for such rational control and exploitation of stocks is today more evident than ever before—namely to produce food. Twenty years ago the world's population was roughly 3 000 million. Today the figure is 4 300 million and by the end of the century there could be 6 000 million people in the world. The best estimates we have suggest that by the year 2000 some 97 million tonnes of fish annually will be needed to feed our increased population. Taking into account the requirement for fish meal, which could perhaps be 20 million tonnes a year by the year 2000, the total requirement at



TPI—LONDON

Trawl fishing in Malawi brings not only bigger catches than traditional fishing but also the risk of exhausting the resources if they are not allowed to regenerate

(*) Fisheries adviser, UK Overseas Development Administration.

(**) Head, fish group, Tropical Products Institute, London.

the end of the century will be in the region of 117 million tonnes. Present world catches are approximately 73 million tonnes per year, so it is clear that an increase in production of at least 44 million tonnes a year will be necessary.

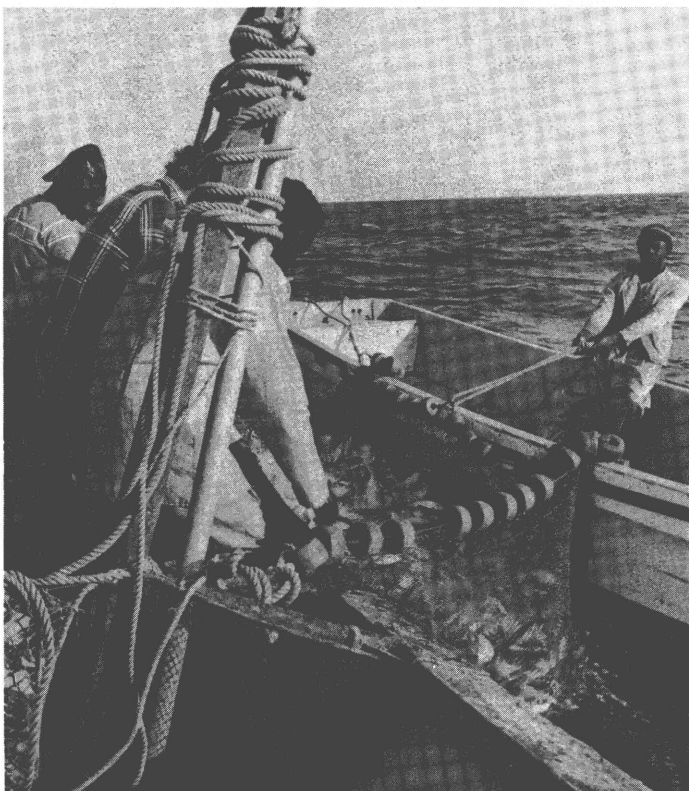
Assuming effective management of the world's fisheries, both marine and freshwater, latest estimates suggest that increased catches of conventional fish stocks could be 50 million tonnes per year, i.e. sufficient to meet the expected increase in demand. Of this increase no less than 30 million tonnes would come from developing countries. When one considers that developing countries presently land only 30 million tonnes (out of 73) it is obvious that the potential for expansion lies principally in the Third World. The ACP countries form an important part of the Third World and thus their role in expanding fish production is very important, not only to satisfy their own food requirements but also to produce fish for export.

As indicated above, the ability to meet the increased demand for fish assumes the effective management of fish resources. Unfortunately, few countries are in a position to adequately control the complex catching, processing and marketing operations. The problems associated with the rational management of fisheries development in ACP countries are considered below.

Developmental problems

For most ACP countries the task of management is too large and too costly to tackle alone. Very often the basic data upon which the management policy should be based is not available. There is a need to mount extensive and costly research and assessment studies in order to plan the management and conservation policies that are needed. This, of course, requires skilled and effective personnel and national institutions to undertake the task. Then legal, economic and

Traditional fishing in Senegal which, with technical aid from various sources plus training and stock management, has made considerable progress



FAO



J. Stoneman



J. Disney

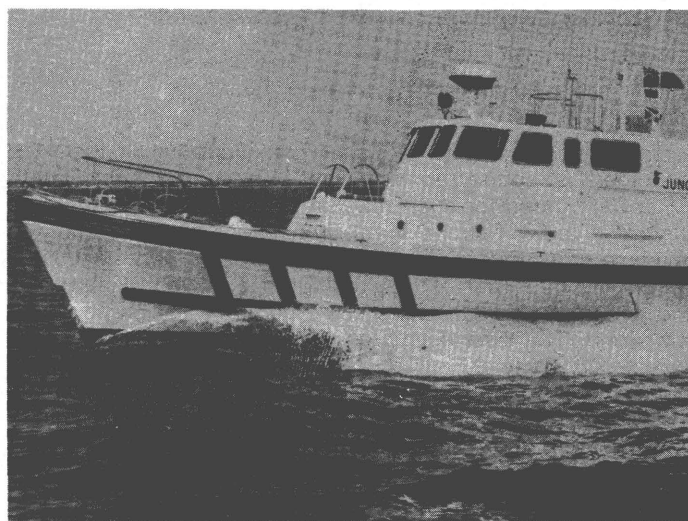
"The international community now recognizes the 200-mile exclusive economic zone concept"

social questions must be dealt with and management regulations codified and embodied in legislation.

In accepting that only ownership of the stocks and national control will result in adequate conservation of stocks for sustained exploitation, it is implicit that adequate fisheries surveillance and protection must be available to prevent illegal exploitation. The cost of such fishery protection measures can be very high, and beyond the capacity of many ACP countries. There is therefore great interest in regional co-operation in these fields which extends, indeed, to the planning of cost effective methods of surveillance utilizing the most recent developments.

The very task of exploiting to the optimum the newly acquired fish resources in EEZs is of course beyond the unaided capacity of many of the ACP coastal states. Often fisheries now inside the 200-mile zone have previously been carried out by the high seas fleets of the experienced fishing nations. Within the ACP states themselves, the infrastructure in the shape of ports, processing and handling installations, fishing fleets, trained manpower, availability of capital and the like do not exist in anything like sufficient quantities. Many countries, of course, are actively building up their capacity in these areas, but this is inevitably a long-term process, largely because of the time required to produce trained personnel. We therefore see many examples of joint-venture agreements between the ACP countries and partners from overseas.

Fisheries protection vessel in the waters of the Seychelles where the size and wealth of the fish resources attract more and more foreign trawlers



TPI-LONDON



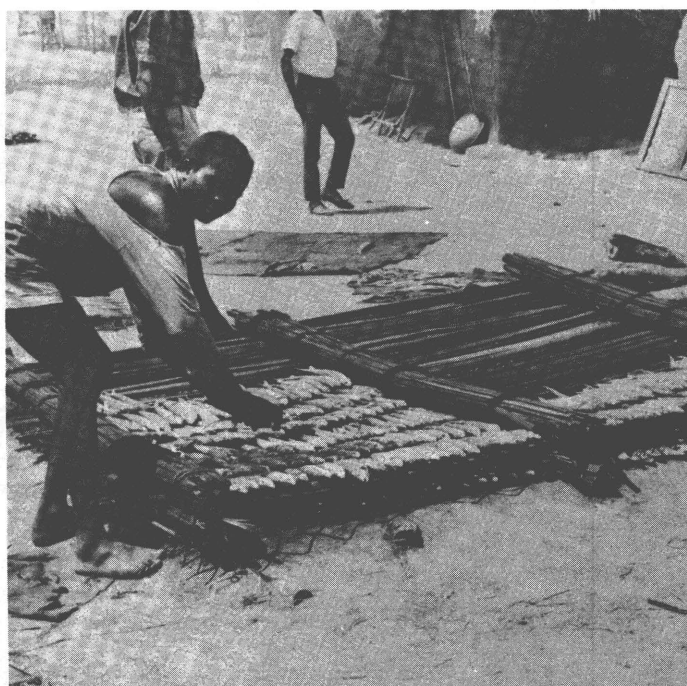
Smoking fish in Malawi—better fish processing methods are essential...

Here, of course, there is the requirement for the state concerned to provide the human and material resources to negotiate, operate and monitor the performance of such joint-venture agreements and undertakings.

There are many examples of the activities discussed above now underway in the ACP countries. To name but a few, Cape Verde, Fiji, Jamaica, Kenya, Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Seychelles, Sudan and Tuvalu are conducting resource assessment programmes and exploratory fishing ventures. On the other hand, Senegal, Guyana, Ghana, Solomon Islands and Mauritius are amongst the many countries with well-advanced joint-venture programmes, while the Solomons and the Seychelles are two that have paid considerable attention to surveillance and protection systems.

The Seychelles, with an estimated EEZ area of 393 400 square miles and a population of only 60 000 people, presents an example of most of the developments noted above and is very typical of the picture to be seen in many of the ACP coastal states. With clearly limited resources, human, material and financial, Seychelles has relied considerably on overseas assistance for programmes of fisheries survey and stock assessment. These continue, but already very substantial resources of both pelagic and demersal fish have been identified. It is believed that annual sustainable catches of 30 000 tonnes per year of each of these basic stocks may be realizable. The pelagic fishery has developed the most rapidly, with assistance from the fellow EEC states of France and the UK with the provision of a tuna catching fleet, cold storage installation and ancillary facilities on the island of Mahe. A demersal fishery exploitation programme is also well on the way to implementation with overseas assistance for vessel construction and handling facilities, aimed, like the tuna venture, at the export market and likely to be developed to some extent as a joint-venture operation.

With advice from international bodies and bilateral assistance from the UK and France, Seychelles has invested in a fairly substantial fisheries protection surveillance capacity with vessels and aircraft, operational support and control



...similar problems exist in Uganda

centralized in Port Victoria. Seychelles is already accruing substantial licence revenue from high seas fleets and the surveillance and protection system is being actively studied by a number of neighbouring countries in the region and, indeed, elsewhere in the world. The Seychelles surveillance system is one of the most effective and well-advanced programmes in the ACP states.

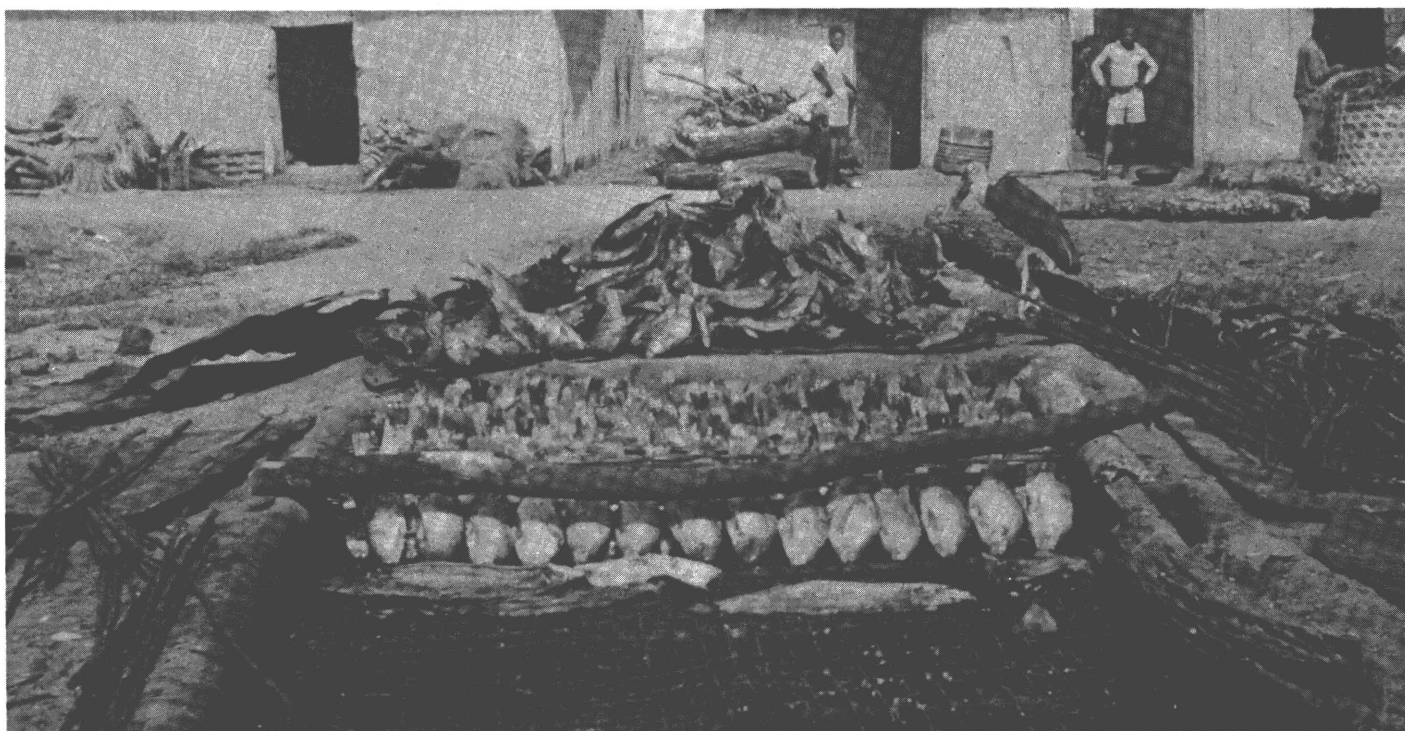
The rate of fisheries development is restricted by a lack of resources, whether they be manpower, technical or financial. Some of the needs have been briefly considered above in general terms. A further factor being awarded increasing attention is the socio-economic implications of fisheries development. To improve the exploitation of their fish resources ACP countries will acquire more capital-intensive and highly-structured industries. This will involve the introduction of new technology; but it must not be forgotten that the bulk of the fish catch will still be landed by small-scale subsistence fisheries in many cases (the so-called artisanal sector). Development of the artisanal sector has considerable benefits in socio-economic terms but is often difficult, slow and expensive in terms of trained manpower.

Improved utilization

The implications of the EEZ concept for fisheries development in the ACP countries have been considered as the most important development in recent years. A second major area of interest which has emerged since 1977 is the reduction of post harvest losses. In most ACP countries a significant proportion of the fish catch never reaches the consumer, due to spoilage, damage or insect attack. Estimates suggest that in the tropics as a whole some 5 to 6 million tonnes of cured fish is lost through spoilage and insect attack. In some situations losses of dried, salted and smoked fish can be as high as 40% and although the relative importance of cured fish is declining it is still a major commodity in many ACP countries.

A further 4 to 5 million tonnes of fish are caught but not landed. This is principally the shrimp by-catch, which is caught incidentally with the shrimp but is usually discarded by the fishermen since it is of very low value compared to the main catch.

In addition to the 10 million tonnes mentioned above, the wastage of fresh fish, often due to inadequate supplies of ice,



At an "industrial" plant for smoking fish in East Africa: the modernization of traditional processing methods has proved a great success

must be added. One should also note that the use of fish to produce fishmeal is inefficient in terms of human nutrition. These aspects, when considered with the under-utilized fish such as the small pelagics and the potential for non-conventional species such as krill and meso-pelagics, give some indication of the potential for increasing the supply of fish by improved utilization. Undoubtedly the scope for improved utilization is enormous.

The reasons for these post harvest losses are complex. Contributing factors are economic, since the purchasing power of the consumer will often not permit the financial incentive required to improve handling and processing methods; social, in that the traditional industry is fragmented and poorly organized; and technological, in that the equipment and methods required to improve fish utilization are not available, are unknown or do not provide the necessary incentive. Whatever their causes, these losses represent a severe constraint to the optimum utilization of fish in most ACP countries.

To tackle these problems low-cost methods of fish preservation are required. This provides a tremendous challenge to fish technologists. Although some advances are being made there is an increasing need for the application of intermediate or appropriate technology. In many ACP countries it is inappropriate to apply the processing technology which has been developed for the industrialized nations.

Inland fisheries and fish culture

A third area which has been the subject of growing interest since 1977, particularly in ACP countries, is fish culture. Approximately 4 million tonnes of fish per year are produced by aquaculture but this can be expanded to 15 million tonnes by the turn of the century. There is a continuing development of, and indeed investment in, fish culture programmes throughout both the developed and developing world. The ACP countries are in the forefront of this new interest and after nearly 25 years of experimentation and limited development there is now a fresh sense of urgency and a more optimistic belief in the feasibility of larger fish culture production. This optimism is based on two main trends. First, the

realization that recent research work has provided effective technological systems for many of the major species cultured to provide genuine economic viability. Second, a better understanding of the key role of husbandry in fish farm economics and the consequent attention that is being paid to the training and deployment of extension services and advisory services to fish farmers in Africa. One can point to the series of FAO-sponsored regional fish culture institutes, and the investment of multilateral aid donors in fish culture in Africa with a large proportion of training and extension service support. Major fish farm programmes under this new impetus are in hand in such countries as Kenya, Central African Republic, Malawi, Nigeria and the Ivory Coast.

Many of the African ACP countries also have a very substantial interest in fresh water inland fisheries. The general pattern in most inland countries in Africa is that while there is possibly the potential for an increase in production in certain lake and river systems, such as in Zambia or Zaire, very often optimum yields are already achieved and the requirement is for rational conservation and sustained management. Despite the undoubted improvements in production of certain systems, particularly the man-made lakes such as Lake Kariba, Cabora Bassa, Kainji and Volta, there is still surprisingly little interest in the enhancement of natural production from existing water bodies, through the judicious and carefully planned introduction of exotic species or other management techniques. The truly remarkable increase in production from Lake Tanganyika sardine, for instance, shows what is possible. However, such introductions of exotic species must be thoroughly researched in advance.

In such a short paper it is not possible to consider all aspects of fisheries development. An attempt has been made to consider three main areas, namely the impact of the EEZ, the need to reduce waste and the prospects for fish culture. Many more topics could be singled out for detailed consideration but this is not possible. One final subject should be mentioned, however; this is the need to increase the effort in all aspects of fisheries training because, in the final analysis, the rate of development will be entirely dependent upon the availability of qualified manpower. ○ J.S. and J.D.

Fisheries — Community relations with third countries

Fishing has become a major sector of Community activity since the Council's resolutions of 3 November 1976 recognized the Community's exclusive competence in the matter, in accordance with article 38 of the Treaty of Rome.

No third countries now doubt the Community's exclusive competence in the fisheries sector and the EEC's position has been largely confirmed by the conclusion of agreements with the USA, Canada, Sweden, the Faeroes, Senegal and Guinea Bissau (1). Agreements have also been negotiated with Spain and Finland and the Council has invited the Commission to negotiate with Cape Verde, Tunisia, Mauritania, the Seychelles and Mauritius.

The fact that the Community exercises its exclusive competence in international fisheries organizations should also be emphasized. It has thus negotiated and become a contracting party to the North-west Atlantic Fisheries Convention and a similar process is under way for the north-east, east-central and south-east Atlantic, for ICCAT (the Atlantic tuna agreement) and for the new convention on the conservation of living resources in the Antarctic.

The Commission is responsible for running the negotiations with third countries (with the assistance of representatives of the member states) and the Council has to adopt the result of these negotiations formally once the European Parliament has been consulted. The national parliaments do not come into it but the governments are involved as they have to cooperate via their representatives on the Council.

A distinction should be made between the exploratory talks the Commission holds with third countries on its own initiative and the formal negotiations which only start once the Council has given an agreement in principle — expressed in negotiating directives to the Commission, but which the Commission itself recommends to the Council.

The main lines of Community policy

The line the Community takes at negotiations as far as the policy on fish resources is concerned, is dictated by the ideas emerging from the third UN Conference on the Law of the Sea, whereby the coastal states are entitled to establish fishing zones of up to 200 nautical miles and to introduce a set of regulations to ensure the rational exploitation and conservation of their marine resources. It also asks to have access to any surplus stocks, i.e. to any fish which the coastal state's fishermen are not in a position to catch.

Work on the law of the sea is not yet complete, so all the agreements the Community has negotiated so far contain revision clauses so they can be brought into line with the future international convention, which it is hoped will be ready for signing next year.

The Community does not question the coastal states' right to decide how to use their marine resources and it feels there is every justification for compensation for fishing rights. This compensation should be obtained, as a matter of priority, via



Fish drying on the beach at M'bour, a fishing village about 80 kms south of Dakar

reciprocal fishing rights; but when this is out of the question because there is obviously no point in the partners fishing in the Community zone and when the country is a developing one, the compensation is financial instead. Where negotiations are held with an ACP or other country linked to the Community by a cooperation agreement, this financial compensation is distinct from development aid. It should be in proportion to the benefits to be derived from the agreement, bearing in mind the economic costs of the operations in question and their frequently low profit margin.

For the same reasons, the conclusion of a fisheries agreement in no way affects the volume or the aims of financial and technical aid granted as part of cooperation agreements (particularly the ACP-EEC conventions). Financial compensation is in two parts — one paid via a licence-fee by the owner of the fishing boats, and one by the Community itself.

Furthermore, the Community strategy, as far as the ACP countries are concerned, was based on the very general provisions in a declaration annexed to the first ACP-EEC convention. This text was drafted before the Community's overall competence in fisheries affairs was recognized (2) and since then, therefore, it has lost part of its meaning. The new convention that was signed on 31 October 1979 contains a far more substantial joint declaration (3) which should constitute the basis for relations between parties when fisheries agreements are negotiated and a pointer for international cooperation in the sector.

The Community's attitude to the other developing countries is the same, as the above declaration does not reflect a special situation in respect of the countries associated in this convention. It is also based on specific cooperation agreements concluded with certain countries (particularly the Mediterranean ones).

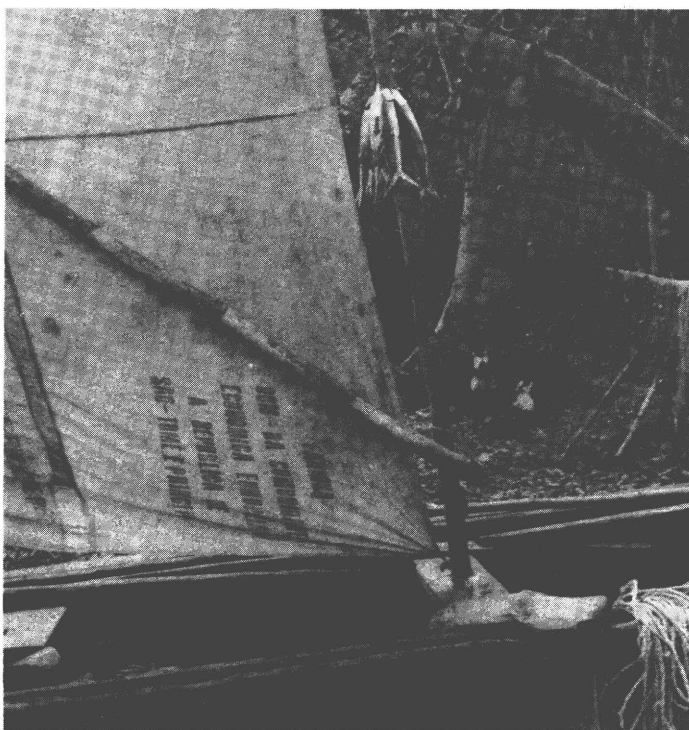
The principal obligations

Each coastal state has sovereignty or jurisdiction over its particular zone, according to the generally accepted rules and principles of the international law of the sea. Regulations

(1) Official Journal, No L 226, 29 August 1980.

(2) The declaration assumed a competitive situation among the member states as a result of their individual negotiations with the ACP states.

(3) See page 72.



This small-scale fisherman needs a sail rather than an out-board motor, and has used the old sacks which contained EEC food aid for the purpose. Useful aid is sometimes about little things

concern the use of certain kinds of fishing vessels and equipment, mesh sizes, fishing seasons and areas (to protect young fish and breeding) and the various species of fish, cephalopoda, molluscs and crustaceans. All vessels authorized to fish under fishing agreements have to adhere to them.

Volume of fishing rights granted. This, obviously, will depend on what resources are available and there are two ways of working it out:

— by determining the total admissible catch (TAC) and dividing it by the number of fishermen. This is certainly the best system, but it is also the most difficult to supervise and manage as it requires constant monitoring of all the ships in the zone, proper equipment and a large number of qualified staff; — or by determining the number of vessels that can be authorized to fish (taking account of tonnage, type of fishing and period of activity). With scientific data on stocks in the zone in question and an approximate idea of the quantities that can be caught by vessels using a given method, resources can be managed fairly efficiently merely by monitoring the number of vessels in the area (although checks will have to be made to ensure that the general fishing regulations are being respected). This is how the partners proceed in the agreements the Community has so far signed with developing countries.

The licence system. There is a dual aim here. To have a way, that is fairly simple administratively, of obtaining proof that fees have been paid and that vessels are entitled to fish in accordance with the provisions of the agreement. The EEC itself uses this system to provide access to Community waters, although it does not have a system of fees, licences being issued free of charge. The licence specifies the holder (the ship-owner, his vessel and a technical description) and the type of fishing authorized.

The fees, the amount that the ship-owner has to pay to the authorities, are calculated in the light of the kind of fishing authorized, the size of the vessel or the size of the catch and the duration of the licence. They may be laid down in general

legislation or in the fishery agreements. The Community tries to ensure the sort of balance between fees and global compensation that takes the fishermen's financial capacity into account, bearing in mind the advantages they get from the agreement and any other financial commitments they may have.

Landing catches. The Community has accepted the fact that part of the catches have to be landed in the coastal states so they can have some direct benefit from the exploitation of their resources. The fish in this case may serve to feed the local population or be used for processing.

These landings may sometimes make for problematic relations between shipowner and local authority, trade and industry. The particular difficulty here is prices, as the obligation to land part of the catch may not always take account of how far the local market can absorb it.

So a balance must be sought between the interests of the coastal state and the financial outlay, which will vary with the port, that the shipowner incurs when making compulsory landings.

Joint ventures. In some developing countries, the creation of joint ventures, with people from both the Community and the coastal state, and involving the provision of fishing boats or the building of processing plants, etc., is an important aspect of negotiations. Although the coastal states are anxious to share in the economy resulting from the exploitation of resources in their zone, a perfectly legitimate desire, the creation and operation of such ventures has, for a number of reasons, often been beset with problems, with unfortunate results for both parties. Let us now look at some factors which seem vital to the proper functioning of joint ventures.

A joint venture is an economic undertaking that should be of benefit to all those involved — even if the benefit is only derived from the overall activity (i.e. fishing plus processing plus sales/exports). Since the Community institutions themselves cannot take part in trade schemes, the partners have to be private operators. They only take part if they can expect commercial profits and they usually have the experience and the trade relations to ensure success. So it is in the interest of the parties to capitalize on these possibilities, by ensuring them freedom of action, as they have a very personal interest in not doing bad business. Many a joint venture where freedom of management was restricted, usually through a legitimate desire to keep control of the company, has come up against administrative problems that interfere with efficiency.

Furthermore, when some or all of the catches are unloaded in the coastal state for processing or export, arbitrary fixing of sales prices which have nothing to do with the international market price should not remove all the economic interest of the operation.

It should also be remembered that it is important to have easy, regular supplies of materials, the possibility of transferring currencies, a qualified labour force and a choice of experienced managerial staff. Joint ventures enable the developing countries to take a proper part in the exploitation of their resources and to create or modernize their fisheries sectors by capitalizing on the technical and economic know-how of their partners and on the trade relations that are essential for proper operation.

Employment for seamen. Certain coastal states also ask to be involved in economic activity in the fishing sector by getting their own nationals jobs on board vessels authorized to fish in their waters, thereby obtaining them both work and experience.

Ship-owners have to employ seamen in this way, but the Community cannot be responsible for this as part of the agreement. An exchange of letters between delegations was annexed to the Senegal agreement, for example, whereby

that country made the issue of a licence contingent on the hiring of a certain number of Senegalese seamen. The Community confined itself to publishing this requirement to bring it to the notice of the shipowners. But the content of the letter was still subject to negotiation for, here again, it would not have been reasonable to agree to demands which might render the licences devoid of interest to ship-owners.

The tuna fleet. Tuna fishers are in a special situation as this is a migratory species which has to be followed through the seas off many countries. Fishing cannot therefore be restricted to one country's economic zone. Fishermen do not even know exactly when and where the catches will be made(4), so there are a number of special problems in their case:

— The volume of fishing rights is highly uncertain, as tuna banks change both from one season to another and from one year to the next.

— There can be no question of the ship-owner paying each coastal state fees based on the size of the vessel, as the big Atlantic tuna ships fish in the territorial economic zones of 20 countries. Fees in this case should be worked out according to what is caught in each zone and statistics are precise enough to make this possible.

— If tuna fishers had to land part of their catches in each coastal state, they would be distributing a large part of their catch and spending a lot of their time doing so.

— The same goes for joint ventures. There could be companies with a number of coastal states, thereby ensuring cooperation at regional level, but none have so far been formed.

— It is naturally out of the question to hire seamen from all the coastal states involved, but the number of seamen could perhaps be calculated for the whole fleet so that the requirement for each country would be met by a different vessel.

It should be added that the problem will attain its full proportions if more coastal states ask to share in the profits of the fleet's fishing activities. Such a development, however, might make the fleet move away into other areas, particularly the high seas, as has already occurred in recent years.

Fishing agreements negotiated by the Community — general and particular provisions

Fishing agreements have no specific form or content, but there seems to be a kind of framework agreement, usually valid for several years and containing a tacit renewal clause. It is called a framework agreement because it establishes the framework in which the parties intend to deal with all their fisheries problems. It contains general regulations on the principles of access to the fishing zone and on compensation, licences and fees and it also deals with the creation of joint ventures, scientific collaboration in the region, cooperation through international organizations, regular communication on catches and landings and consultations, the regulation of disputes and annual meetings (of the joint committee)(5).

The substance of the agreement comes from the annexes, protocols and exchanges of letters, but there may also be a specific agreement on the detailed conditions, normally to be determined annually (the main aspects are given above). Rules governing the issue of licence and declarations of catches may also be included, as may additional obligations (like the Commission's obligation to supply training grants).

Developing countries with which the Community intends negotiating fishing agreements and beneficiaries of these agreements in the Community

We should start by emphasizing that, of the 4.9 million t of fish caught by the combined fleets of the member states (the

(4) Extent, to a certain extent, for small, less mobile vessels which can fish in more restricted areas, where more isolated tuna are more stationary, for a good part of the year (e.g. Senegal/Cape Verde and the Sao Tomé/Annobon-Equatorial Guinea area).

(5) Useful information on the various fishing agreements is set out in the ACDI/FAO/CECAF TF INT 180 documents (1977), which can be obtained from the FAO in Rome or the CECAF project, BP 154, Dakar, Senegal.

Part of the catch at Essaovira in Morocco



Lomé II

Joint declaration on sea fishing

1. The Community and the ACP States recognize the importance of the development of fishery resources in waters within the jurisdiction of coastal ACP States as a contribution to the overall development process of these States. Such activities will take place under the policies for conservation and use of those resources as determined by each ACP State concerned.

2. Conscious of the need for continued cooperation in the field of fisheries, the ACP States declare their willingness to negotiate with the Community bilateral fishery agreements likely to guarantee mutually satisfactory conditions for fishing activities of vessels flying the flag of one of the Member States of the Community in the sea waters within the jurisdiction of the ACP States. ACP States that conclude such agreements will not discriminate between Member States or against the Community, without prejudice to special arrangements amongst neighbouring states within a sub-region, including any reciprocal fishing arrangements.

3. The Community will act in the same spirit in cases in which ACP States, which are located in the same subregion as territories to which the Treaty of Rome applies, wish to carry out fishing activities in the corresponding fishing zone.

4. The mutually satisfactory conditions referred to in paragraph 2 bear in particular on the nature and scale of the compensation to be received by the ACP States concerned under bilateral agreements. Such compensation may serve to encourage the development of the fishing industry of the ACP States concerned and shall be additional to any allocation relating to projects in the same sphere under the financial and technical cooperation provisions of this Convention.

5. The Contracting Parties shall cooperate directly, or on a regional basis, or through appropriate international organizations with a view to ensuring conservation and to promoting the objective of optimum use of fishery resources, including highly migratory species. ○

rarity of certain resources in the North Sea and the North Atlantic and the over-equipping of certain fleets in the Community might have suggested there was a considerable demand for such opportunities. But there are various obstacles due to:

— the unsuitability of equipment for fishing in distant or tropical waters;

— a lack of knowhow and experience about fishing zones and fish stocks with which they are unfamiliar;

— the spectacular rises in the price of the fuel required to get to the fish, to freeze catches and to transport them to the consumer markets. The result of all this is to make people doubtful about the profitability of fishing and ship-owners who have not always fished in warm and distant waters will tend to begin with small test operations;

— an EEC Council decision authorizing the opening of negotiations and agreement, where necessary, to commit Community finances as official compensation. However, the amounts currently required in return for fishing rights are soaring due to an international snowball effect. In some cases, the total (official and private) compensation can go higher than the profit margin on the fisheries activities. Although this may seem acceptable, on a temporary basis at least, in order to maintain the traditional fishing sector, it is only as an alternative to the laying-off of the boats concerned, with all the economic and social consequences which that would bring. This seems far less justifiable where the launching of new activities is concerned.

In two cases it would be possible to conclude fisheries agreements involving the Community in no major financial obligations—one where the dues paid by the shipowner covered the compensation (although they would need to fit in with the necessity of profitability of the private firm, and the other, the creation of joint ventures with obligatory landing of most or all of the catch in the coastal state (which means that the conditions of proper operation have been met). In this case, fisheries agreements, including reciprocal agreements, are no more than legal cover provided by the authorities of the contracting parties for the activity of the fishermen. Fishermen would benefit as far as a safe future for their activity was concerned and the coastal state would ensure broad cooperation in joint ventures with private firms as well as getting the guaranteed outcome that an agreement between authorities provides.

Cooperation under international fisheries conventions

Both paragraph 5 of the joint declaration on sea fishing (annexed to the new ACP-EEC Convention) and the agreements negotiated by the Community mention cooperation within the framework of international conventions between the partners. It is in everybody's interest to increase our knowledge of resources in the areas being exploited and to ensure protection for such resources so that fishing can continue under the best conditions. Obviously the acquisition of this knowhow and the definition of any conservation measures involve the sort of research that almost always goes beyond the fishing zone of any given country and they can only be successful at regional level.

The Community feels that the developing countries, which have only recently shown an interest in industrial fishing, have every interest in respecting the conventions that concern them, even if their nationals are not yet very involved in fishing, so as to protect their legitimate interests as regards the resources in their fishing zones (and even adjacent waters) and capitalize on the knowledge obtained and to be obtained in the scientific committees that meet as part of these conventions. ○ GUNTER WEISS (*)

(*) EEC Commission directorate-general for fisheries.

USSR and Japan have catches of about 10 million t), 4.3 million comes from the Community fishing zone and adjacent waters in the North Atlantic, the North Sea and the Baltic(6). The present Community's theoretical interest in catches from developing countries' economic zones has been estimated at no more than 50 000 t p.a. of demersal species and about 40 000 t p.a. of tuna.

When negotiating fishing agreements, the Community's prime task is to maintain or restore the traditional activity of Community fishermen, so it is therefore concerned with the coastal states in whose waters fishermen from the member states used to fish.

Any agreement the Community concludes is valid for the whole of the Community, obviously, as the territorial application clause shows, but, in practice, the rights negotiated go as a matter of priority to the Community fishermen who traditionally fished in the zone in question.

The negotiation of fishing rights attached to new activities obviously assumes that the partner countries with fish resources are willing to concede them. But it also involves a combination of various factors on the Community side:

— a willingness on the part of EEC ship-owners to go and fish in zones a long way from their usual home ports. The

(6) These figures are for 1977. The Mediterranean catch was around 400 000 t.

MAURITANIA

Capitalizing on fish resources

by Dietrich COLLOFONG(*)

Mauritania has much greater fisheries potential than its poor economic performance suggests and is now implementing a new fisheries policy with EEC support.

Under-utilized potential

Something like 800 km of coastline separates the port of Nouadhibou and the banks of the Senegal and it borders one of the richest fishing grounds in the world. Mauritanian waters are in an area where changing ocean currents bring about seasonal fluctuations in temperature, which makes for ideal reproduction conditions. A recent FAO study put fishing reserves at 4 million tonnes and annual catches at 750 000 tonnes, which means that fish could go a long way to making up the chronic protein shortage of the people of Mauritania and, to a large extent, of the neighbouring countries.

But most Mauritians are largely unaware of this source of food. There are historical reasons for this. Most of the people live inland and have kept to their old eating habits. The only traditional fishermen are the people along the Senegal river (mainly Al-Poulars and Wolofs) and on the coast (Imraguen), the latter benefiting from a very wide continental shelf between Cap Blanc and Cap Timéris in the Banc d'Arguin area.

And secondly, fishing has never really been integrated into the national economy and the only fishing port, at Nouadhibou, is much less open than the rest of the coast. Almost all the fish handled is sent to the world's big industrial fish markets in Japan, West Europe, East Europe and Nigeria.

Poor results

In 1977, the fishing industries, which could have provided jobs for 1 700 people at least, only worked to 30% of capacity because of the poor level of catches (40 000 tonnes) landed at Nouadhibou. Exports the same year were 29 042 t. In 1978, the new military leaders estimated that, while the income from fish caught off the Mauritanian coast was almost UM 50 000 million (1), Mauritania only received 1 400 million in the form of royalties and other dues.

In 1979, catches of pelagic species represented an estimated 750 000 tonnes (value fob Nouadhibou \$ 300 per t) and demersal species 250 000 t (value fob Nouadhibou \$ 2 000-2 500 per t). There were lobsters and tuna fish as well. Fish exports the same year only represented 12% of total exports (UM 632 million as opposed to 6 074 million for iron ore (2)).

The fish industries are working below capacity because not enough fish is landed. The Nouadhibou plants (not including dried/salt fish) could produce 237 800 tonnes, including 180 000 tonnes of fish meal, 55 000 tonnes of deep frozen

and 2 800 tonnes of preserved fish, the latter product having been more or less abandoned since 1976.

Landings at Nouadhibou, which rose from around 30 000 tonnes in 1969 to 55 000 t in 1970, went beyond 80 000 t, a record figure, in 1973. The figure for 1974 was 70 000 t but it dropped to 31 000 t in 1976 before going back up to 62 760 t in 1977. It dropped again in 1978, this time to 61 210 t and lower still, to 53 633 t, in 1979.

Mauritania's main customer is Japan, which took nearly two-thirds of the total value of the fish in 1978 (62.2%). Next were Spain (20.3% in 1978) and Italy (11.7%). Between them, these countries represent 94.2% of all sales. France's share has dropped considerably (18.8% in 1970).

Sales of shellfish represent more than half of the total value.

Taking a theoretical assessment (1980) of an annual UM 58 million, or seven times the annual budget, the Mauritanian government estimates that fisheries could be accounting for a third of the country's exports by the end of the decade.

The new fisheries policy

Between September 1978 and October 1979, the ruling military committee and the government came up with a new fisheries policy aimed at switching from the licence system (3) to the development of joint ventures (4), which would integrate fish into the national economy, and at setting up a genuine small fishing sector equipped with national vessels.

This policy takes into consideration the poor technological level of the country and is aimed at mastering the relevant technology and benefiting from international cooperation through joint ventures with partners who have sound control of the international fish markets and the required level of technological ability.

This policy of offering encouragement to joint ventures is intended to ensure supplies for existing and projected on-shore industries. It should enable reception infrastructure to be provided for vessels, sheltered areas to be created for individual fishermen, marketing circuits to be organized and nationals to obtain the knowhow they must have if they are to manage this sector. Vocational training (the maritime vocational training centre in Nouadhibou) should also be developed.

This new policy signifies a break with the policy as far as royalties were concerned—these only brought the country UM 1 400 million in 1978, the best year, and they opened the way for systematic pillaging of Mauritanian waters by foreign vessels.

It is a fundamental break with very clear aims. Only vessels flying the national flag can fish in national waters, to supply installations on the national territory. Licences are only a way of exploiting national waters and they are acceptable when

(*) EEC Commission delegate in Mauritania.

(1) UM 1 = slightly more than 60 EUA.

(2) All figures supplied by the Banque Centrale de Mauritanie.

(3) Mauritania has or has had fisheries agreements with the USSR, Japan, Romania, South Korea, Spain, Morocco, Libya, Greece, Egypt, Poland, France, Iraq, the Netherlands and Portugal.

(4) At the moment there are 10 joint ventures (various levels of operation) involving the USSR, Romania, Norway, Libya and Iraq. Seven more joint ventures are being negotiated.

Table 1
Exports of fish products

	1965	1970	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979
Exports (UM million)	119	405	568	503	734	692	749	921	1 178	887
Exports (t)	—	—	—	—	—	—	21 631	29 042	35 170	15 333

Table 2
Processing of fish products

	Landed at Nouadhibou (t)	Exports (t)						Preserved fish
		Total	Fresh frozen	Salt dried	Oil	Fish meal	Shell-fish	
1976	31 000	21 631	6 742	964	162	1 742	11 670	351
1977	62 760	29 042	5 940	1 250	560	6 400	14 863	29
1978	61 210	35 170	10 104	1 249	657	8 000	15 160	—
1979	53 633	15 333	3 660	400	101	3 750	7 422	—
1st quarter 80	7 726	3 659	849	—	—	2 810	—	—

Table 3
Exports by destination

(UM million)	Japan	Spain	Italy	Portugal	France	Others	Total
1970	85.9	17.4	39.6	...	76.4	186.0	405
1974	228.0	121.0	209.0	...	7.0	165.0	734
1975	411.2	52.6	79.0	...	2.0	147.0	692
1976	420.8	82.0	152.7	16.1	2.8	75.1	749
1977	561.2	169.1	50.1	34.7	29.5	76.4	921
1978	733.0	239.2	137.9	12.9	5.1	50.7	1 178

Table 4
Exports by species

	Quantity (t)							(UM million) Value
	Salt dried	Frozen	Meal & oil	Shell-fish	Preserved fish	Preserved roe	Total	
1965	4 322	2 143	—	42	—	8	6 515	119
1972	4 336	3 251	14 705	8 572	1 609	24	33 829	568
1974	1 713	15 616	8 528	...	2 103	...	28 015	734
1975	1 859	11 036	1 585	...	498	...	29 891	692
1976	964	6 742	1 904	11 665	351	5	21 631	749
1977	1 250	5 940	6 960	14 863	29	—	29 042	921
1978	1 249	10 104	8 657	15 160	—	—	35 170	1 178

they actually fit in with an overall scheme that ensures proper control of the fisheries sector by nationals. Fishing licences could be given to joint ventures in Mauritania where a certain amount of the capital is Mauritanian-owned.

Such companies could own the vessels, process and market the products and the fish would be landed with the help of the Nouadhibou port facilities. The authorities would keep tabs on export prices.

So Mauritania is dropping its policy of royalties but not the use of fishing permits, which can have a variety of advantages.

A temporary effect of the new fisheries policy early this year was to substantially reduce landings at Nouadhibou, so the processing plants were only operating part-time. The old-style IMAPEC company (Spain) had more or less ground to a halt and the Mauritanian-Japanese firm MAFCO was doing little better. SOFRIMA, which was set up with money from the 2nd and 3rd EDFs, was the only company ticking over normally.



Traditional fishing near Nouakchott

bou, which the state obtained from Japan, and there are plans for others from Norway. SOFRIMA has one or two ships with refrigeration facilities.

There is talk of starting up the Japanese-financed small fishing concern project again and there are also plans to create a fishing port, a sheltered area and storage facilities in the Nouakchott area. And lastly, the transformation of groups into cooperatives would be accompanied by the creation of an autonomous management structure to provide backing for the individual fisherman and properly channel the support provided by the state.

Period	Stock (t)	Production (t)	Permanent staff	Wages (UM million)
1977	4 261	25 013	959	137
1978	4 190	28 202	856	160

But for the Mauritanian government, the essential thing is not to fish, but to make onshore investments within the prescribed time and to ensure the means of supplying them. The finance law of 1980 thus introduced an export tax, called a fishing duty, to replace all other taxes in the fisheries sector and fish caught in Mauritanian waters is now exported and taxed on the basis of the costs laid down by the law (7-15% of value fob, according to species).

In 1980, for example, the government expects licences (i.e. fishing permits that bring in various returns in the form of fishing duties) to yield UM 1 400 million, with a guaranteed minimum of UM 1 200 million. The products of industrial fishing concerns are bound to be exported for some years to come and absolute priority is placed on building a national fleet for small fishing concerns.

Developing traditional fishing

The idea here is to integrate fishing into the national economy at the level of consumption as well as production.

In the industrial fishing sector, there are so far one or two improved vessels with a fair technological level at Nouadhi-

Tighter control and supervision of the fishing zone

Law N° 78-043 of 28 February 1980, establishing a code for the merchant navy and maritime fishing, lays down a 70 nautical mile stretch of territorial waters and an exclusive economic zone of 200 miles (i.e. 70 miles of territorial waters plus a further 130 miles of economic zone).

It is not easy to patrol a zone this size, with a coastline nearly 1 000 miles long. A 1962 law laid down a system of fines and the 1978 code (fisheries and merchant navy) increased these to two-thirds of the price of the vessel in question and provided for both vessels and their loads to be impounded. A draft decree, which the government approved on 15 August 1980, has just increased the penalties and now any non-authorized boat fishing in the Mauritanian zone will simply be confiscated by decision of the Mauritanian authorities.

But there must be adequate means of supervision and control if this kind of procedure is to work and sub-regional cooperation could well provide additional backing for national efforts.

Sub-regional cooperation

The third sub-regional ministerial conference (Cape Verde, Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Mauritania and Senegal) on the preservation, conservation and exploitation of fish resources met in Nouakchott on 11 June 1980. It confirmed the role of

COPACE, the central and east Atlantic fishing committee, and established seven priorities, namely to:

- promote small fishing concerns;
- encourage joint ventures;
- adopt joint policies in respect of foreign fishing operations;
- harmonize legislations on fishing;
- develop sub-regional cooperation with supervision and control;
- develop research capacity;
- encourage cooperation in the marketing sector.

Cooperation with the EEC

It is also worth noting that the EEC signed fishing agreements with Senegal and Guinea Bissau in 1979 and that the European Parliament has just pointed out that it would be in the Community's interest to sign sub-regional agreements with a number of the ACP countries. So obviously there are possibilities of viable cooperation between the EEC and the Mauritanian government.

Already the EEC Council of Ministers has invited the Commission to negotiate with Mauritania, Cape Verde, Tunisia, Seychelles and Mauritius.

Community policy as regards fish resources in these various negotiations is dictated by the principle that emerged from the 3rd UN Conference on the Law of the Sea. The Community recognizes the maritime country's right to establish a 200-mile zone and a set of regulations to ensure the conservation and rational exploitation of marine resources. Its only request is to have access to any spare resources the maritime country may have, i.e. access to whatever fish the national fleet is not in a position to catch.

The Community does not dispute the coastal state's right to determine how its resources are used and considers that it is reasonable to obtain compensation via fishing rights. When the country in question is a developing one, compensation is

a financial contribution in lieu of reciprocity. It is distinct from development aid, naturally, and should be in proportion to the potential provided by the agreement, bearing in mind both the economic cost of the operations in question and the profit margin. This financial compensation is in two parts—one paid by the owner of the fishing vessel through the licence and one by the Community itself.

The sole aim of licences is to have proof that the dues and fishing duties laid down in the agreement have been paid. It is not therefore an exclusive system and can, on the contrary, be completed by the creation of joint ventures involving people from the Community and the maritime country concerned, for example, through the provision of fishing vessels or the creation of processing plants. In this case, the partners will be private businessmen who are only interested in a profitable commercial enterprise, so it is essential that any restriction on freedom of management (usually arising from a legitimate desire to maintain control over the company) does not lead to administrative problems and inefficiency.

Furthermore, where catches are all or partly landed in the maritime country for processing or export, it is important that an arbitrary fixing at low levels of sale prices on landing should not reduce the economic interest of these companies.

So the Community is willing to initial the agreement that was negotiated with Mauritania on 1 December 1978 but on which no action has so far been taken. It is out of the question to ask the Community itself to be involved in setting up joint ventures, but, within the framework of this agreement, it will take action, within its means, in their favour, intervention on the Community's part being some sort of moral guarantee.

The Community could help to get the system off the ground by allocating precise sums of money to joint fisheries ventures which would thus have a certain financial stability from the start. This would also be to the advantage of both the future European partners and the Mauritanian fisheries industry. There would be an objective alliance of interests.

An agreement such as this could only help achieve the aims of the new Mauritanian fishing policy by encouraging Community firms to gradually enter into this sector of the economy.

The signing of such an agreement would certainly not interfere with the implementation of Community aid for fisheries (about UM 220 million, or 14% of the national allocation, has been earmarked in the 5th EDF programme). This aid could be used, by mutual agreement, for one or more of the following:

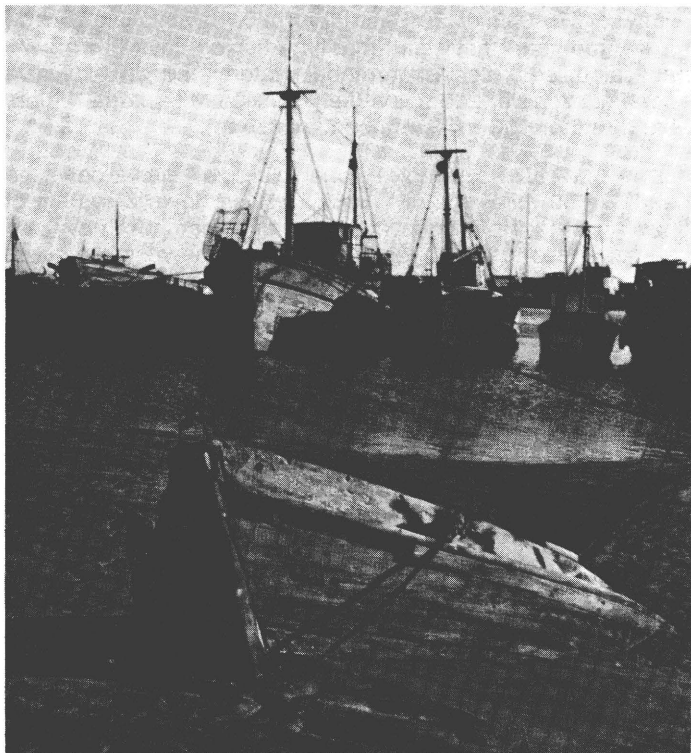
- supervision of territorial waters (purchase of vessels, technical assistance for the national navy);
- port facilities at Nouadhibou (ship repair yard and attendant facilities);
- a landing service, provided by the autonomous port of Nouadhibou for catches and for the processing plants (fish pumps, cranes, supplies of diesel fuel, water and ice);
- the development of small fishing concerns;
- studies.

The government has also just applied to the EEC Commission for 4th EDF financing for a UM 5 million study of Mauritanian fish marketing potential in Europe.

Lastly, the EEC may help finance regional projects (for example, through assistance schemes or CEAO vocational training for fishermen in Mauritania) under the 5th EDF.

So the two complementary aspects of Community cooperation—involvement in framework agreements and development aid for the fishing industry—are of great potential benefit to both partners. ○ DIETRICH COLLOFONG

The fish port at Nouadhibou



CAMEROON

The fishing and shrimping industry

by Jean-Loïc BAUDET(*)

Although Cameroon's fishing industry is well known for the prawns from which the country gets its name (the Portuguese explorers of the 15th and 16th centuries called the Wouri river the Rio dos Camaroès, the River of Prawns), this is by no means the whole story. See how important fish is to the diet of the people who live along the coast, particularly in Douala, and its role in the national economy is immediately clear. At a rough estimate, 15 000 artisanal fishermen live off this activity and the industrial fishing sector, with its six shipping companies, provides jobs for almost 500 people. The authorities' concern with the development of industrial fishing has led them to modernize the Douala port fishing fleet facilities around a harbour with a 560 metre quay. With the ice factory (150 tonnes per day) and a series of sheds (4 500 m² of them with refrigeration facilities), this port is able to handle 60-70 000 t of industrial fish production.

Artisanal fishing

From the point of view of the volume of catches, the small fishing concerns are by far the most active in the fisheries sector. The government fisheries directorate puts its catch at 35 000 t p.a.—20 000 t fish, more than half of it coastal pelagic species, and 15 000 t of shrimp, most of it sold (after drying and smoking over a wood fire) to Nigeria. A large percentage of the artisanal fishing is done by Nigerians who send their catches home to satisfy their country's considerable needs. Artisanal fishing is mostly concentrated in the Ndian area, near the border with Nigeria, where there are many small boats.

A Cameroon fisheries trawler at the quayside

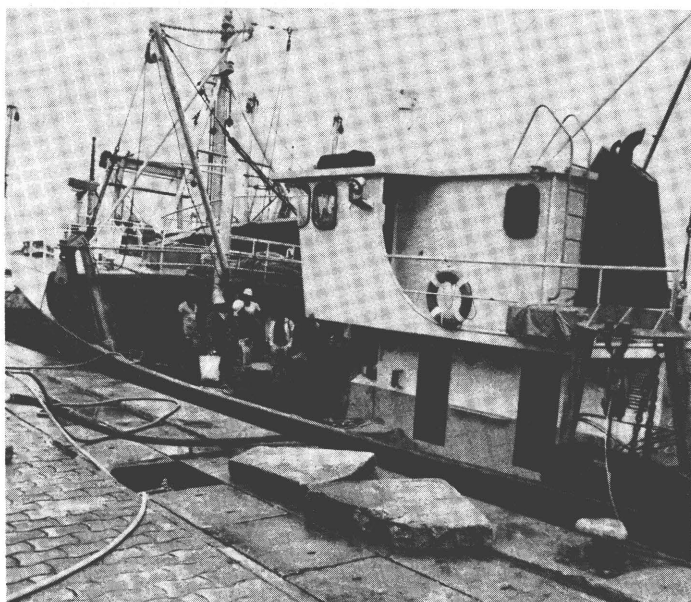


Photo GEORGE — Douala



The nets sometimes bring in a strange mixture of different species besides prawns

The output of these small fishing concerns is low, perhaps 2-3 t p.a. per boat and 10-20 t for boats equipped with engines. As only 10% of the boats have engines it is easy to see what the potential for development is. In order to make the most of this, the government, with Canadian aid, has started to modernize small fishing concerns by setting up a Cameroonian fishing development mission, called Midepecam.

Industrial fishing: the trawling and shrimping fleets

Industrial production expanded regularly between 1960 and 1970, with catches rising from 3 000 to 23 000 t. Production remained steady for three years and then dropped, stabilizing at around 20 000 t for a number of years now. The problems of the industrial sector, which is undergoing changes at the moment, are more easily understood if shrimping and trawling are taken separately.

The 17-strong trawling fleet is in the hands of five owners, three of whom own 15 of the vessels. All but a few are less than seven years old, which shows how much effort has gone into modernization. The fleet is declining (there were 27 vessels in 1972), but the average gross tonnage has gone up slightly and, as things are at the moment, this is an unfavourable trend, as the biggest trawlers are the most expensive and they are less productive and more sensitive to rising costs (diesel fuel, repairs and harbour dues). One of the shipping companies which has this kind of trawler is finding things difficult at the moment.

The need for government involvement

While the industrial fishing catch has levelled off at around 20 000 t the percentage of fish is tending to rise and the percentage of shrimp to drop, largely due to the activities of the shrimp fleet. However, although the trawler fleet has increased its efforts and stepped up its time at sea, there has been no improvement in production. Yields are dropping and the fish caught are getting smaller. Some people blame climatic change for this, some say it is due to foreign trawlers pillaging local resources and others put it down to the way the fishing companies are managed. It is difficult to see exactly where the blame lies, but one thing is clear—the situation is far too worrying, bearing in mind the growing

(*) Economic adviser to the EEC Commission delegation in Yaoundé.

demand for fish, for the authorities not to investigate the best ways of exploiting Cameroon's fish resources.

The shrimp fleet, unlike the trawler fleet, made remarkable strides between 1970 and 1975, increasing from 10 to 18 vessels and stabilizing thereafter. For a long time the catch was around 2 000 t but it dropped to around 900 t in 1978/79. What goes for fish goes for shrimp too—yields dropped from about 500 kg per day per boat in 1971 to 250 kg in 1978, and the proportion of small shrimp to large ones reversed over the same period to the detriment of the latter. But there is less cause for alarm in the shrimp industry because the shrimp fleet has increased its catches of fish while shrimp catches have declined. Shrimping is only profitable during the rainy season, hard cash is required pending payment of the shrimps sold in America and the market has to be kept supplied after the bankruptcy of one of the biggest ship-owners. For all these reasons, people in the shrimp industry have, with the encouragement of the authorities, begun to catch fish as well and this now accounts for one third of the industrial catch.

As things stand, Cameroon's fishing industry is confronted with contradictory demands. On the one hand, there are still immense demands to meet, in spite of more intense fishing in inland waters. Imports are on the increase and have gone beyond 13 000 t per annum. The levelling-off of the catches suggests that maximum exploitation has been reached. So the authorities want to keep the fleet down to 40 vessels to begin with.

To limit the fleet

It is essential to take stock of the fish resources in Cameroonian waters

... but an important part of the catch, especially prawns, is exported



Photo GEORGE — Douala



Photo GEORGE — Douala

The landed catch: the demand for fish is growing rapidly throughout Cameroon...

before deciding just how the sector should be developed. This means taking a fresh look at conditions in shrimp fishing, shrimps having been the seventh export product a few years back. There are new avenues to explore in deep-sea fishing, which disappeared when the only shipowner who was active in this sector went out of business. One of the problems is still to negotiate fishing agreements with other countries to enable Cameroonian fishermen to fish in their waters.

This brief outline shows that the fishing industry in Cameroon is undergoing a change. The industry and the authorities are joining forces to cope with the situation and ensure that the sector is able to meet the demands not only of the domestic but also of the world markets, where the country's shrimps are already popular. ○

J.-L.B.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Fishing activities and resources

by Michael MAUE(*)

Traditionally, PNG coastal villages merely fished for food, until the introduction of modern aids such as out-board motors and imported nets allowed larger surpluses.

In recent years, villages have been encouraged to preserve their surplus catch either by drying, smoking or by the use of small freezers that have been established in strategic locations and from which fish are distributed to local markets.

Fishery stations are planned for certain locations around the country. One has already been built at Daru, Western Province, and is now operating successfully. At Kimbe, in the West New Britain Province, another operation is underway using freezers on a barge which goes to various coastal villages. A new plant has been completed at Tufi, Northern Province, to support a number of small boats operating in the region. Other plants are planned for Missima and Samarai, in the Milne Bay Province and Manus in the Manus Province. A mission from the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) will complete studies to finance the entire coastal fisheries development programme. With refrigerated transport vessels, they will help village fishermen preserve the catches and get it to local and overseas markets in the best possible condition.

National fishermen are now making a contribution to the marine industry exports of Papua New Guinea which last year amounted to almost K. 25 million(1).

In 1979, roughly 240 tonnes of bar-ramundi fillets were exported to Australia. There are plans for feasibility studies for catching and processing yabbies and also upgrading catches of crayfish tails which totalled roughly 110 tonnes last year.

The existing facility at Daru is to be upgraded by an Australian firm, Supreme Fisheries, which would help to overcome deficiencies in capital and also provide managerial expertise.

(*) PNG Embassy secretary in Brussels.
(1) 1 EUA = K 0.96 (Kina).

Foreign operations in Papua New Guinea waters

A fleet of about 50 boats operated in Papua New Guinea waters during 1979. Exports in that year to December were 26 387 tonnes, valued at K. 14 337 000, mostly of tuna species. The boats are operated by Collin-Kyokuyo, a joint venture of Australian and Japanese interests based at Kavieng; New Britain Fishing Industries based in East New Britain and Starkist (an American firm) which operates in Manus and Rabaul.

Some 15-20 trawlers based at Port Moresby, Central Province, were prawning in the Gulf of Papua. Exports are handled by 12 of these, while others supply the local markets. The trawlers are owned by Collin-Kyokuyo, Marine Products Ltd., and Papuan Seafoods Ltd. Last year total exports of prawns amounted to 1 000 tonnes.

Papua New Guinea reefs abound with trochus, green snail shell and bech-de-mer and shark fins which were valued below K. 100 000.

An export levy of 5% is charged on the unprocessed fob value of fish. There is also a bait royalty (paid to local authorities) of 2.5%. The latter is paid by tuna fishing companies on the fob value of fish shipped from each operating area.

Inland fishing is negligible, although the New Zealand government is sponsoring the breeding of talopia in the Sepik region. There are other inland breeding projects in Goroka and Mendi.

The national fisheries college

With K. 1.65 million provided by the government of Japan, a National Fisheries College was opened early in 1977. Up to 100 residential students a year are trained there in commercial fisheries techniques.

Proposed 1981 activities

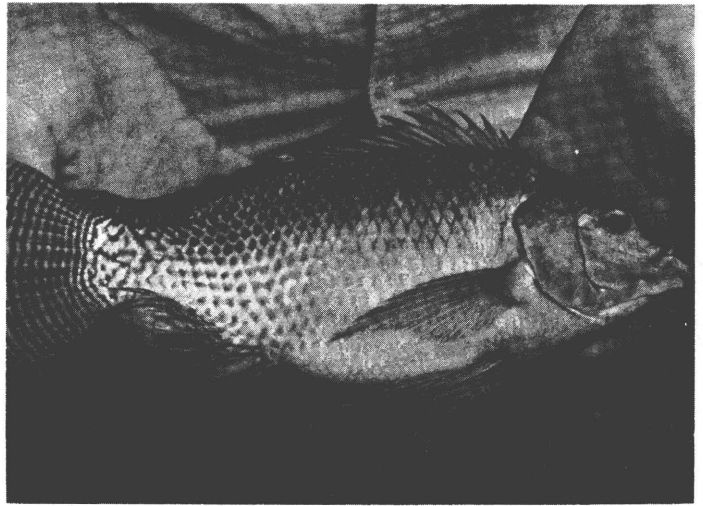
Under the three year plan, K. 3 million was earmarked for 1981. Activities would include research, surveillance, freezing facilities and other activities, which are by their nature long-term plan but scheduled for implementation in 1981.

The South Pacific Tuna Canning Company—a major government and private undertaking

In August 1980, a shareholders' agreement creating a major tuna fishing and processing industry based in New Ireland Province was signed between the government and Starkist, creating the South Pacific Tuna Canning Company. The company will eventually can and process for sale, worldwide, about 20 000 tonnes a year.

Engineering studies are yet to be completed to assess the cost of constructing a new wharf and site for the plant. This feasibility study is being undertaken by the International Finance Society, an affiliate of the World Bank, the Papua New Guinea government and Starkist.

Upon successful and satisfactory completion, other areas such as training and localization plans, a waste disposal agreement and a vessel survey standards agreement are to be finalized and approved before actual construction begins.



Most of Papua New Guinea's fishing projects are aimed at developing the EEZ, but fresh water tilapia (photo) are being bred in the Sepik region

South Pacific Forum Fisheries Agency

The agency was launched in 1977 generally aiming at coordinating the general fisheries policies of the Forum states, and indeed other countries in the Pacific.

It was a step taken realizing the vast rich resources in the Pacific and also in view of the dependency of the peoples of the Pacific on fish.

In a statement by the then deputy Prime Minister and minister for foreign affairs & trade, N. Ebia Olewale, on the occasion of the visit of ambassador Andrew Young (who was then US ambassador to the UN) relating to the South Pacific Fisheries (1979) the following paragraph appeared:

"The concept of the regional fisheries organization was first introduced by the Prime Minister of Fiji, Ratu Sir Kamisese Mara, at the 7th South Pacific Forum at Nauru. In August of the following year, the Forum met in Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea, and from this Forum meeting emerged the Port Moresby declaration on the Law of the Sea, and a Regional Fisheries Agency."

In particular the Port Moresby declaration stated that Forum members had decided:

"To establish a South Pacific regional fisheries agency open to all Forum countries and all countries in the South Pacific with coastal state interests in the region who support the sovereign rights of the coastal state to conserve and manage living resources, including highly migratory species, in its 200-mile economic zone".

The purpose of the declaration was therefore to establish a fisheries management organization to maximize the benefits from this resource for the peoples of the South Pacific and to assist them in taking a coordinated approach to distant water fishing nations.

The Forum Fisheries Agency is still in the process of finalizing and adopting a regional fisheries policy and also looking into the possibilities of setting up an appropriate working machinery which is expected to emerge in the next few years.

Fishing and integrated fishing industries

On the investment side, the government of Papua New Guinea has identified priority projects and has decided in

principle to offer access to particular resources or investment in a particular industry for development by a foreign enterprise.

The areas in fishing include:

Development of tuna fishing industry

In the long term a sustainable catch of a million tonnes per annum is considered to be feasible.

The development of the industry is to include the establishment of:

- fishing fleets of tuna, long liners and purse seiners;
- shore-based storage and processing terminals (processing should include gilling, gutting, heading and tailing, loining and/or canning, and the manufacture of fish meal);

The shore facilities to service the tuna industry are to be resource-oriented with the Bismarck Archipelago providing the most highly developed resource area. In particular, the government is interested in an integrated processing facility at Kavieng.

Development of the prawn and lobster fishing industry

The development of the industry is to include:

- development of locally owned processing facilities on a contract management basis;
- collection of catches from Papua New Guinean fishermen;
- contract marketing services for prawns, lobsters, crayfish, yabbies, crabs, reef fish and white fish.

Offshore fishing

This should include the development of onshore processing of suitable products for the domestic market.

Imports of canned mackerel, which make up about 90% of all canned fish, were about 25 000 tonnes last year, valued about K. 15 million.

In addition to the above identified priorities, the government would welcome exploration for unproven offshore marine resources. ○ M.M.

Sea fishing in the Gulf of Guinea

Regional study highlights problems

The idea of running a study on sea fishing in this part of the world came from the heads of state of Cameroon, Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea and Sao Tomé & Príncipe. In various talks with development commissioner Claude Cheysson they said they hoped Community aid would give them the technical, scientific and economic skills that would enable them to plan the development of their fisheries sectors better.

The Community gave a positive reply to their request as this sector is of such importance to the countries in the area, fish being a major part of the local diet and the fish trade providing so many jobs.

The production of sea fishing in the five countries involved here is worth almost CFAF 16 000 million, 50% of it in direct added value, and there are almost 27 000 fishermen, 8% of the working population.

The study, run by SCET International (Société Centrale pour l'Équipement du Territoire International — 2, rue Stephenson, Saint-Quentin en Yvelines, 78190 Montigny, France, Tel. 042 9927), inventories resources in the Gulf of Guinea on the basis of previous research, analyses market prospects and existing production and handling facilities, outlines the institutional and legal background and the various regulations, and looks at regional and national fisheries development prospects.

It shows that none of the five countries has much chance of increasing the catches, except of tuna and probably coastal species, resources of which have not been properly charted as yet.

Dependence on imports

The Gulf of Guinea is and will remain dependent on imports from countries outside the area and so plans should be made to step up imports and to make use of what stocks other countries have available. This deficit could be offset, more or less, by exports of shrimp and tuna.

As things stand, the five countries concerned import frozen fish, salt-dried fish and preserved fish, which is easy to

distribute. Difficult communications make the marketing of fish in the interior a problem and most fish is distributed near where it is unloaded and in the big towns to which there are transport routes.

The analysis concludes that an effort has to be made at regional level to rationalize and make the best of resources —not forgetting projects to handle, process, distribute and market the products. It will then be possible to develop both traditional and industrial sea fishing and all the attendant activities in the five countries. Alongside this, fishing in inland waters should also be encouraged as far as possible, as fish caught in this way goes to people living in the interior, whose protein intake can often be very low.

Meetings were held this year in Libreville (26-28 March) and Brussels (18-19 June) to present and discuss the provisional reports of the study of prospects for regional action on fishing in the Gulf of Guinea, and the five countries realized that their coastal stocks, the mainstay of their development potential, had to be assessed before anything could be done about the infrastructure. The fastest way of doing so is by echo-sounding and there are plans for using such methods in the various campaigns.

The aim of these maritime campaigns is to assess the stocks of coastal species, their geographical distribution and their stability over the year in the zone over which the states have economic control.

More research needed

The study revealed that theoretical and applied research in the fisheries sector was very restricted because of a shortage of structures throughout the countries on the Gulf of Guinea. The regional coastal stock assessment project could therefore be the starting point for more extensive cooperation with research, which is why the investigations in hand should be pursued on a regional basis via some sort of permanent joint structure. ○

Sabato DELLA MONICA
Directorate-general for development

Community help for fishing and fish-farming

1958-80

Since 1958, the Community has financed a number of schemes via the various EDFs to develop fishing and fish-farming. Table 1 outlines commitments by country and by scheme up to 30 June 1980 and Table 2 covers the various types of scheme. Community aid during the first three EDFs went mainly to the modern sea fishing sector to build fish wharfs and refrigeration facilities (8 projects worth 13 247 000 EUA).

The two operations involving individual fishermen were to develop activity in the inner Niger Delta (Mopti fisheries scheme) and they marked the beginning of a global approach to the problem of developing fishing in particular regions.

The project was not just centred on port infrastructure, and processing and refrigeration facilities, but on providing technical assistance to spread modern techniques, in particular as regards preserving fish in rural areas, raising the standard of living in fishermen's camps and improving equipment. A detailed description of all this appeared in *Courier* N° 41.

Projects of this kind came to the fore under the 4th EDF, accounting for 7 out of 15 fisheries schemes and more than half the resources committed.

Fish-farming is also gaining ground. During the 17 years of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd EDFs, nothing was done about it, but now a dozen schemes are under way, some of them financed from the Community's budget for non-associated developing countries and NGOs, two aspects of aid that are gaining in importance every year.

However, in spite of the fact that there are now considerably more projects in fishing and fish-farming, the amount of money committed is still minimal as compared to total EDF commitments (0.7% an average of the first three funds and 1.00% of the 4th).

The nature and volume of Community aid in this sector in the future will depend, as it has done in the past, on the initiative of the recipients — the ACP governments in particular.

However, to the extent that there is any choice in the matter, experience, the nature of the funds available (i.e. mostly grants) and the considerations outlined above suggest that the accent should be put on the three following sectors:

- the development of small fishing concerns;
- help with developing and managing fisheries in the exclusive economic zones (EEZs);
- the development of fish-farming.



Developing both industrial and traditional fishing allows a better exploitation of halieutic resources and helps ensure their wider distribution (above: industrial and traditional fishermen at Cotonou, Benin)

The development of small (sea and inland) fishing concerns — a matter of priority

One might well ask whether modern, industrialized fishing activity(1) should not be developed as much as possible in the maritime developing countries so as to bring about a rapid increase in the amount of cheap fish available.

Although in some countries this type of fishing can provide supplies at the lowest absolute cost, the value added to the national product remains small, as almost all the vessels and equipment for industrial activity have to be imported and foreign officers are also often required. More expensive port infrastructure and other facilities are also called for. So the investments required per tonne of fish caught in the industrial sector are generally a multiple of those needed to catch the same quantity of fish by traditional methods.

If such investments in the industrial sector are covered by international aid, there is a risk of capital from the developed world being substituted for labour in the developing world.

(1) The term 'industrialized fishing' here means any kind of fishing activity that is beyond the scope of local fishermen using traditional techniques.

Furthermore, small fishing concerns provide far more jobs than industrial companies and the fishermen do not have to live in urban centres. Instead they can be spread along the coast, which favours the balanced development of a country and makes supplies to neighbouring rural areas easier.

It is the development of small fishing concerns that will enable the developing countries to make the greatest capital out of their fish and their human and natural resources (wood for example).

So the best strategy for coastal developing countries to adopt would seem to involve expanding their small, traditional fishing activity and then moving over to small modern concerns such as are found in the industrialized countries. There is no point in them developing industrial fishing unless there are areas within their exclusive economic zones (EEZs) that cannot be exploited by small-time fishermen.

The main problems facing the small (sea and inland) fishing concerns are:

- technical (connected with boats, machinery, fishing techniques, keeping the fish fresh and processing it);
- economic (profitability);
- social (working conditions).

Table 1
EEC aid commitments in fisheries and fish-farming,
from 1958 to end June 1980

Country	Title of project	EDF financing	Amount in EUA
1. ACP and OCT countries (national projects)			
Barbados	— Fish handling facilities at Oistins Bay	EDF IV(1)	950 000
Benin	— Cotonou fishing port	EDF II	624 000
	— Cotonou fishing port superstructures	EDF III	540 000
	— Study for extension of Cotonou fishing port	EDF III	110 000
	— Development of fish-farming	EDF IV	714 000
Bonaire	— Fisheries technical assistance	EDF IV	110 000
Central African Republic	— Development of fish-farming	EDF IV	365 000
Ivory Coast	— Abidjan fishing port	EDF I	1 390 000
	— New fishing wharf, Abidjan	EDF II	2 515 000
	— Study for preserved fish products	EDF II	2 000
Congo	— Study for fishing wharf, Point Noire port	EDF II	88 000
Ethiopia	— Fisheries development	EDF IV	1 513 00
Gambia	— Development of artisanal fisheries	EDF IV	1 365 000
Guinea Bissau	— Study of development of traditional fishing	EDF IV	30 000
Guinea (Conakry)	— Equipment and technical assistance for the Secondary Polytechnic Maritime Institute	EDF IV	1 970 00
Equatorial Guinea	— Development of traditional fishing	EDF IV	800 000
Guyana	— Demerara fisheries development	EDF IV	1 070 000
Upper Volta	— Fish and fish-farming initial study	EDF IV	40 000
	— Kompienga Dam fishery resources study	EDF IV	65 000
Kiribati	— Bait fish production fish farm	EDF IV	170 000
Malawi	— Lakeshore fisheries development	EDF IV	1 300 000

EEC aid commitments in fisheries and fish-farming, 1958-June 1980

Country	Title of project	EDF financing	Amount in EUA
Mali	— Central Niger river fisheries development	EDF I	151 000
	— Hydrobiology laboratory, Mopti	EDF III	2 126 000
	— Operation fishing, Mopti Phase I	EDF IV	4 828 000
	— Operation fishing, Mopti Phase II	EDF IV	75 000
	— Study for Sélingué dam fisheries development	EDF IV	600 000
Solomon Islands	— Fisheries training school	EDF IV	509 000
Sudan	— Jonglei Canal region development studies, swamp ecology survey	EDF IV	570 000
Trinidad -Tobago	— Fisheries development, St Patrick	EDF IV	500 000
Zaire	— Fisheries development, Lake Tanganyika	EDF IV	
	Sub-total		33 418 000
2. ACP and OCT countries (regional projects)			
Caribbean	— Study: multinational fishing fleet	EDF IV	15 000
	— Assistance to Caribbean Development Bank. Part: development of fisheries	EDF IV	140 000
Gulf of Guinea: Cameroon, Congo, Gabon Equatorial Guinea Sao Tomé Principe	— Regional study on sea fishing in the Gulf	FED IV	200 000
Pacific: Fiji, Tonga, W. Samoa	— Marine Resources Institute	EDF IV	908 000
	Sub-total		1 263 000
	Sub-Total 1) + 2): EDF commitments)		34 681 000
3. Non-ACP developing countries			
Angola	— Development of fishing in the Moçamedes area	Budget 78(2) Budget 79	500 000 900 000
Burma	— Second fisheries development project	Budget 77	1 000 000
Honduras	— Artisanal fisheries development	Budget 77	1 000 000
Malta	— Technical assistance for the fishing fleet	Budget 79	142 000
Mozambique	— Fish-processing factory	Budget 78	3 000 000
Thailand	— Inland fisheries (and aquaculture)	Budget 77	900 000
Regional: ASEAN Countries	— Rural aquaculture study	Budget 79	300 000
	Sub-Total		7 742 000
4. Non-governmental organizations (NGO)			
Ecuador	— Assistance for fisheries cooperative	Budget 79	203 000
Indonesia	— Fish-farming at school	Budget 79	15 000
Senegal	— Trials of fishing boats ("dories")	Budget 79	43 000
	Sub-total		261 000
	Sub-total 3 + 4: EEC Commission budget		8 003 000
	TOTAL		42 684 000
(1) EDF = European Development Fund. (2) Budget = Commission of the European Communities			

Table 2
EEC-Third World financial and technical cooperation
in fisheries and fish-farming

	1958-1975 EDF I-III					1976 EDF IV					1980 EEC Commission budget(2)			
	Studies, technical assistance		Invest- ment projects		Total	Studies and technical assistance outside projects		Invest- ment projects		Total	Studies and projects non- ACP devel- oping countries		NGO projects	
	Num- ber	000 EUA	Num- ber	000 EUA	000 EUA	Num- ber	000 EUA	Num- ber	000 EUA	000 EUA	Num- ber	000 EUA	Num- ber	000 EUA
1. Overall sea-fishing: studies, technical assistance, etc.	1	150	—	—	150	2	215	2	2 878	3 093	—	—	—	—
2. Modern sea-fishing and industrial port facilities	3	200	8	13 247	13 247	1	140	3	2 620	2 760	3	4 142	—	—
3 Sea-fishing, traditional	—	—	—	—	—	2	140	3	2 735	2 875	3	2 400	2	246
4. Inland fishing, traditional	—	—	2	2 277	2 277	1	509	4	8 141	8 650	—	—	—	—
5. Fish-farming and dams	—	—	—	—	—	3	180	3	1 249	1 429	2	1 200	1	15
TOTAL	4	350	10	15 524	15 874	9	1 184	15	17 623	18 807	8	7 742	3	261

(1) Includes commitments for which clearance is confidently expected.
(2) Not including 1980 budget.

The Community can most easily help at the technical and social levels by financing studies and providing technical assistance, investments and training.

Direct intervention in marketing should be undertaken with care. The economic environment of the country in question is of capital importance, as is government intervention in price formation.

Lastly, we should emphasize the fact that, alongside sea fishing, the development of small fishing concerns on inland waters will remain a priority field as far as Community aid is concerned.

Help with developing and managing fishing in the exclusive economic zones (EEZs)

The agreement on the law of the sea, whereby coastal states can annex a 200 mile zone out from their shores (and around any islands) for national exploitation first and foremost is a promising prospect for many a developing country.

Almost all the living marine resources currently being exploited are in the EEZs and more particularly in those belonging to the developing countries. Only the best sort of management of EEZ resources will make for stable exploitation by industrial companies and individual fishermen — who must have a sufficiently wide coastal area reserved for them.

If the organization of this kind of management is a difficult problem for the industrial countries, it is an insoluble one for many developing countries without outside help. In particular it is difficult to:

- determine the size of stocks and how they would develop naturally;
- adapt fishing to existing stocks;
- check that regulations introduced for this purpose are actually being adhered to.

The Community can be of particular help with technical assistance, studies and training schemes in the first two fields and to a lesser extent with the monitoring of regulations.

It can, in particular, help regional cooperation which is vital for the proper management of fish resources in many EEZs. A number of ACP countries with only short coastlines are concerned here.

The regional study on sea fishing in the Gulf of Guinea, which is described elsewhere in this number, is a good example of Community intervention in the sector under discussion.

The development of fish-farming

The various analyses of world marine resources show that the sea will not provide enough fish in the future to meet the same proportion of world demand as today and, to an ever-increasing extent, fish-farming is seen as a way of making up the shortfall. However, there are a certain number of limiting factors:

- the availability of natural and artificial stretches of water;
- the availability of cheap fish food;
- knowhow.

Above all, the Community can help with the first and last of these, where fish food is available, particularly in those countries where a heavy demand for fish can no longer be satisfied by fishing.

The introduction of fish-farming in the artificial stretches of water created as part of agricultural or HEP projects can be of particular interest here. ○

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The role of the ODA and TPI in fisheries development

J. STONEMAN and J. DISNEY

The Overseas Development Administration (ODA) of the UK is part of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and is responsible for the direction and implementation of the British aid programme; the Tropical Products Institute (TPI) is one of the scientific units of the ODA. The fisheries activities of ODA form a fairly small proportion of its total work and budget. In 1980, for instance, out of a total aid budget of some £780m, only a little over £4m will be spent on fisheries development. Within TPI only 8% of a total budget of £3.7m is devoted to fisheries-related subjects.

Within the ODA system, TPI is concerned with the post-harvest aspects of plant and animal products and within the fisheries field is specifically limited to work on post-harvest matters—the handling, processing, transportation and marketing of fish.

However, TPI is permitted also to undertake consultancy and contract work for clients other than ODA. In these cases, it is possible that TPI will undertake work of broader scope than purely post-harvest work, in which case it will recruit for the purposes of the contract.

Historical

Although fairly small in relation to the total of UK overseas aid, the fisheries component has had an important connection with the developing world for many years. After the second world war, as the Third World countries became inde-

pendent, the UK recognized the need to continue to provide support to these newly independent countries. Having a large body of men with experience of working in developing countries, not least in the field of fisheries, the UK was well placed to assist in research and development programmes in the fisheries field. It was recognized in 1945 that a number of basic foundations to fisheries development must be set up in those developing countries which the UK was anxious to assist.

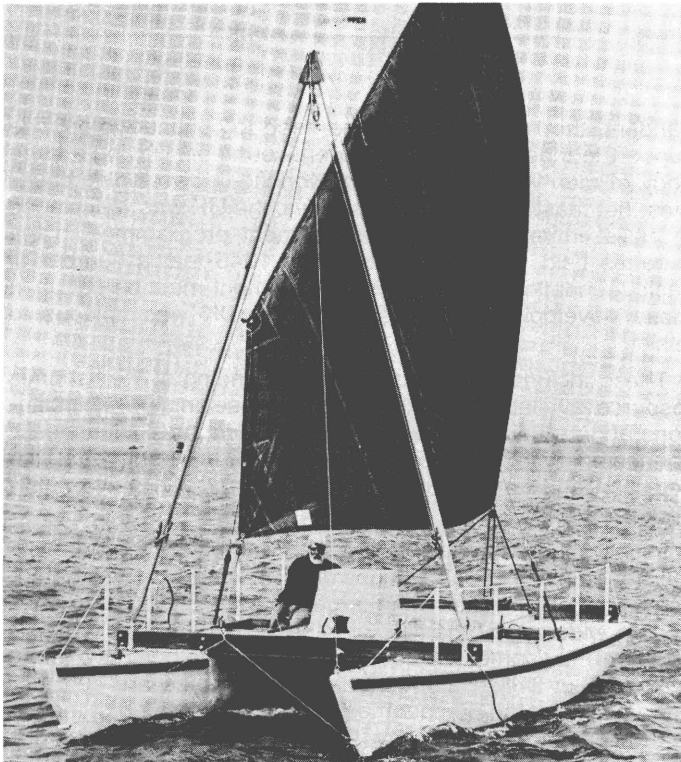
These included an accurate understanding of the fisheries resource available for exploitation, the setting up of institutions and organizations which could handle the various tasks connected with fisheries development, and not least the selection and training of indigenous manpower to eventually undertake this work.

Initially, the programme was very largely concerned with the countries of the Commonwealth. Even today, Commonwealth countries receive the largest proportion, but there has been a widening of the field of interest over the last 10 years and currently some 146 countries in the developing world are recipients of British aid; fisheries programmes are currently underway in some 60 countries. With the accession of the UK to the European Community, many Commonwealth countries are now members of the ACP group of states and an increasingly large proportion of fisheries assistance to these countries is being provided by the Community.

In the early years it was obvious that resource assessment was perhaps the major requirement. Not enough was known of the stocks of fish available to developing countries and it was clear that, without such knowledge, no rational management and conservation programmes could be set up. The need to maximize the use of these natural resources was also important in view of the rising populations and possible food shortages in the future. The UK was instrumental in setting up a number of fisheries research institutes to tackle basic stock assessment tasks. These included the West African Fisheries Research Institute in Ghana, the East African Fresh Water Fisheries Research Institute at Jinja on Lake Victoria, and the East Africa Marine Fisheries Research Organization in Zanzibar. These were regional laboratories with a regional task. At the same time national fishery research laboratories, institutions or departments were set up



An improved traditional fish drying process (left), and net repairs by a dugout canoe in Malawi



A fishing catamaran developed for beach landing

in such present-day ACP countries as Nigeria, Malawi, Zambia and Jamaica.

At the same time, government administrative bodies were set up to coordinate fisheries development. In those early years, senior posts were normally filled with expatriate staff from the UK, but programmes of recruitment and training were set in hand and the institutions noted above are now entirely staffed with indigenous personnel.

Present policy

The need for continued fishery stock assessment work is, of course, obvious, whether it be the refining of assessments of stocks already known or the continual work on unconventional resources or of previously little-known stocks of conventional type. However, for many years developing countries have been in possession of sufficient knowledge to enter exploitive phase of many fisheries and the UK programme has followed this closely. ODA now attempts to establish the following priorities, in close cooperation with the countries concerned and in accordance with their national priorities and needs.

1. Activities that directly increase the supply of fish.

— Improving the landing, handling, processing, distribution and marketing chain to avoid waste and to obtain the greatest possible benefit from the resources already being exploited.

— Improving, where desirable, the craft, gear and catching techniques that will enable the species already being exploited to be harvested in the easiest and most economical way and to catch more efficiently the species that are known to be under-exploited.

— Developing fish culture programmes, both freshwater and marine.

2. Further requirements to high production.

— Rational management of stocks that are heavily exploited.

— The more refined assessment of the complete potential of various stocks and areas.

— Training at all levels.

Following this general policy has led to a massive increase in ODA programmes concerned with the catching, handling, processing and distribution of fish, and a relative lessening of the resource assessment programme. The increasing emphasis on post-harvest matters, which has resulted in part from the realization of the need to avoid waste and maximize the value of the catch once landed, has enhanced the importance of the activities of TPI within the British programme.

Very briefly, the present UK programme can be summarised as follows:

1. Support for British personnel serving overseas as advisers and experts in a wide range of fisheries disciplines. These personnel may serve in administrative, educational, development or research posts.

2. Provision of capital aid funds for ships, boats, building, books and equipment for training, development and research.

3. Assistance towards the running costs of overseas research organizations and the operation of research in development projects.

4. Support for personnel undertaking training in the UK and elsewhere.

5. Support for personnel working in the UK on matters directly concerning overseas problems.

Current projects

In 1980, ODA had about 120 people employed on fisheries development work overseas and about 15 on UK-based projects. This does not include UK permanent civil servants. The following list of projects gives those operational at the end of 1979 and early 1980 and is not completely exhaustive. A brief description is given of each project, but it should be stressed that very often the UK input was in cooperation with, or in support of, national or other aid inputs.

Bahrain: Fishery research project, aimed at exploitation of demersal stocks.

Bangladesh: Inland fish culture project at Neemgachi. Setting up a hatchery for carp and tilapia to be followed by production and marketing.

Bahamas: Fish processing project, improving fresh fish distribution.

Bolivia: Freshwater fisheries programme working on high altitude rivers and lakes, low altitude tropical rivers in the Amazonian area and fish culture.

Botswana: Environmental monitoring, the effect of insecticide sprays on swamps and rivers.

Brazil: Mangrove oyster culture, freshwater fish culture and a marine pelagic trawl project.

Brunei: Provision of staff in support of national development programmes.

Burma: Provision of a fisheries research vessel and operating staff, supply of two refrigerated fish-carrying vessels and the supply of fish culture research equipment.

Ecuador: Cooperation with the National Fisheries Institute on stock assessment work and improved utilization.

Egypt: Fish farm study and design project in the Nile Delta.

Falkland Islands: Salmon ranching and small-scale fisheries development programme.

Fiji: Provision of staff to the fisheries administration.

Ghana: Demonstration and evaluation of surf landing beach fishing boats.

Honduras: General fisheries development programme amongst small scale fishermen on the coast and a survey of potential in La Mosquitia region.

Indonesia: Equipment in support of fisheries training and staff to assist with fisheries cooperative development. Provision of two experts in aquatic biology to a university.

Jamaica: Study on the biology and management of near shore pelagic fish in the Caribbean.

Kiribati: Provision of staff to fishery administration, support for fish culture programmes and fish marketing complex. Support for the evaluation of tuna and bait fish resources.

Lesotho: Support for government fisheries administration, for fish-farming and general fisheries development.

Malawi: General support for the fisheries administration in the way of personnel and equipment. Fish preservation and processing projects and project on predation of fish by corromants.

Malaysia: Provision of staff for fisheries training institute.

Mauritius: Fisheries development project preparation.

Mexico: Study of the coastal lagoons for shrimp production, utilization of shrimp by-catch, study of blue crab fisheries development, provision of training assistance.

Nepal: Study of fish food production from local resources for fish culture work.

Philippines: Fisheries scientists in support of SEAFDEC.

Seychelles: Provision of staff for fisheries development, research work on the preservation and processing of fish, provision of fisheries patrol vessel and aircraft, construction of cold storage for tuna fishing venture.

Solomon Islands: Fisheries development staff, aquaculture study, fish processing study.

Somalia: Provision of marine diesel engines and mechanics for mechanization programme. Feasibility studies on refrigeration requirements.

Sri Lanka: Assistance with fish technology studies and boat-building work.

Sudan: Support for artisanal fishery development programme on the Red Sea. Vessels, equipment, staff, training, etc. Commercial shrimp survey in the Red Sea and the provision of diesel engines on the Nile at Juba.

Tanzania: Assistance to the Tanganyika Fishing Company in the form of manpower, vessels, equipment, etc. Support for development programme in southern Tanzania.

Tonga: General fisheries development programme.

Thailand: Small-scale fish culture research programme.

Tuvalu: Support for a programme of fisheries development, fish processing, handling and marketing.

A number of projects are also being carried out in the UK. These include a programme of research on tropical zooplankton at Plymouth, a series of fisheries training courses based at Grimsby and Hull, a diploma course in marine pollution at the University of Liverpool, and a number of programmes on tropical fish culture at the University of Stirling. The TPI also carries out a research programme, in the UK and overseas, designed to improve the utilization of fish in the tropics; attention is particularly given to the prevention of waste.

The foregoing is a brief account of some of the bilateral aid programmes of the ODA. In addition, the ODA is closely involved in many multilateral programmes including those of the European Community as well as FAO, IBRD, UNDP and the regional banks. The UK is involved in the policies and programmes of these bodies, to the extent that it contributes to the funding of them, and recognizes the increasing importance of these multilateral bodies and the consequent need to consider their role in fisheries development overseas. The UK contribution to multilateral programmes in general currently exceeds the bilateral contribution made directly by the UK. It is, therefore, important for ODA to be aware of the multilateral programmes and to influence these in proportion to the UK's financial involvement in order to ensure that UK policy is considered.

The ODA supervises the foregoing programmes by utilizing the services of advisers based in London. The authors of this paper are two of these advisers, specializing in post- and pre-harvest matters respectively. They constantly travel to developing countries for the preparation, appraisal and monitoring of fisheries programmes. They maintain constant links with fisheries development programmes in the developing countries even when these are not financed wholly, or in part, by the UK, in order to properly coordinate UK proposals within the overall pattern. They are also constantly in touch with the officials of other bilateral aid programmes and with the multilateral programmes for the same reason. The UK recognizes that its total financial capacity to support fisheries development overseas is relatively limited compared to many larger multilateral donors, and therefore tries to give priority to programmes where the UK can provide special skills or equipment.

The UK is fortunate in still retaining the services of a considerable number of people with extensive experience in the developing world. In certain fields, such as post-harvest technology, some aspects of fish culture work, in fishing gear and fishing boat development design, small marine diesel engines, mathematical modelling for fishery research and stock assessment programmes, etc., the UK feels it has special skills and advantages which it hopes to deploy in support of its aid programmes. ○

J.S. and J.D.



TPI-LONDON

Improving the handling of catches for the benefits of the consumer is one of many TPI activities

Oceanographic biology

The increasingly intensive industrial exploitation of the world's marine resources poses the very serious problem of depletion of fish stocks. Fishing has to be rationally organized and stocks preserved and, if depletion is to be avoided and fish allowed to reproduce, a lot has to be known about their environment and the way they live and reproduce. One of the concerns of ocean biology is this aspect of fishing in the world today. ORSTOM,⁽¹⁾ the Paris-based overseas scientific and technical research centre, has run a number of studies on the exploitation and preservation of fish resources in the Atlantic and the Pacific and parts of its 1980 report are printed below. The first part deals with the marine environment, followed by a description of ocean biology and fish reproduction.

The Atlantic

A better understanding of the tropical areas of the Atlantic and its dynamic phenomena has been sought in a number of ways.

First, the exploitation of various sets of what we call 'historical' data, out of which modern methods can make considerable capital, has provided a seasonal hydrological atlas of the tropical area of the Atlantic and a description of annual variations and interannual anomalies in the Gulf of Guinea. An analysis of coastal chronological series revealed fluctuations in surface temperature that can be partly tied up with the forces that generate upwellings and a certain number of slow oscillations, which together seem to determine how the equatorial area of the eastern Atlantic responds to atmospheric conditions and to tide.

Current and temperature records, made by ORSTOM and the universities of North Carolina and Rhode Island during an oceanographic deep-water study of the equatorial Atlantic area, revealed the variability of deep-water currents in the equatorial zone and, in particular, made it possible to produce a detailed analysis of a 31-day period.

A series of campaigns run as part of the ETERLOM (study of the Lomonosov current) programme at the Centre de Pointe-Noire in the Congo, together with the study of out-fall from the Congo into the sea, showed what happened in the eastern part of the Gulf of Guinea.

The CIPREA programme: production and cycles of living matter

This programme (Circulation et Production à l'Equateur Atlantique) began to be actively implemented in 1978 after a long period of preparation. It is a typical example of an integrated research scheme. ORSTOM is involved and the programme also has the support of the Délégation Générale à la Recherche Scientifique (general delegation for scientific research) for assistance with research and the Centre National pour l'Exploitation des Océans (national centre for

the exploitation of the oceans) which supplied the necessary vessels and helped, with the backing of the Océanographie Physique du Muséum laboratory, with the design and production of deep-water anchoring. The University of West Brittany and the Medipro group of the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique are also concerned in the programme.

The aim of the CIPREA programme is to study equatorial divergence from the points of view of ocean dynamics and effect on organic productivity. Although intense upwelling often takes place in fairly well-defined topographical, hydrological and climatic conditions along certain coasts, it also occurs elsewhere, over very large areas where comparable phenomena (at least as far as the effect is concerned, i.e. the fertilization of surface water) are induced. This was found to happen along the equator.

The idea is therefore to determine, for the equatorial part of the eastern Atlantic:

- the attendant physical conditions, temperature patterns, horizontal (zonal and meridian) circulation, wave propagation, turbulence and variability;
- primary and secondary production of nutrients generated via the upflow and the first links (phytoplankton and zooplankton) in the food chain.

The data was collected during ocean cruises by ships which CNEXO made available to the programme and four such vessels worked on phase one in August and September 1978.

Biology and ecology of plankton, benthos and fish

Ivory Coast — Zooplankton on the Ivory Coast continental shelf was studied in detail and vertical and spatial distribution, circadian rhythm and ontogenetic variation were recorded. The populations and their seasonal annual variations were determined in relation to the environmental conditions, i.e. to upwelling, river flow, thermocline, the Guinea current and the Ivory Coast counter-current.

The benthos (Ivory Coast) programme is coming to an end. It will have provided an inventory of benthic species in the shifting depths of the continental shelf and defined and determined the populations of these invertebrates. The biomass in each of the major communities has been determined and seasonal variations recorded in the light of those of the hydroclimate. Trophic relations between benthic fauna and the main species of demersal fish have been studied. And lastly, large enough stocks of a big crab, *Geryon quinque-dans*, have been found to make exploitation a viable proposition. A special study of the distribution, biology and ecology of *Geryon* has therefore been carried out and the fisheries now have a series of basic data on possible yields, methods and periods and frequency of fishing.

The biology of *Balistes caprescus* (triggerfish) is a very interesting problem. Since 1971, catches of this variety by the Ivory Coast's sardine and shrimp fleet have increased threefold and the balance of the ecosystem has been upset. Why? Is it due to the fishing activity or has the environment changed? It would seem obvious that adult fish of this type occupy the same ecological niche as *Brachydeuterus auritus* and young ones that of *Sardinella aurita*. However, the important question from the theoretical point of view is under what conditions do ecological substitutions take place and,

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FAO—André G. COCHE

The FAO has undertaken biological studies of lake water in Zambia with the aim of increasing the country's fish production

economically speaking, what can be made of a new resource that has been neglected because people are not used to it? The answer is of importance to many countries on the coast of West Africa, as triggerfish are now found all along the continental shelf from Nigeria to Senegal.

The biology-ecology programme of demersal species on the West African continental shelf ended with a very synthetic approach to phenomena and the way they interact. This study reveals relations between the environment and the distribution of various species, describes seasonal variations in quantity and thus provides a greater understanding of the resource and how it can be exploited.

Joint studies of tuna (on assessing maturity and fecundity in adults and on the identification and cull of larvae) have made it possible to define precisely the periods and zones in which the albacore lays its eggs and to understand certain phenomena of adult migration in relation to the physiology of their reproduction. This in turn has led to understanding of a parameter which, although fundamental, is always very difficult to assess in fish biology—recruitment. The data are still fragmentary on patudo. A similar effort will be made for listao, this being a species which is fished more every year and

which will be the subject of an international programme scheduled to start in 1980.

Optimal exploitation of resources

This has long been the target along the west coast of Africa, where fishing is a very important activity. Better, more substantial results have been achieved here than in the Pacific and they confirm the very encouraging prospects described in the previous ORSTOM report (1974-1976).

A quantitative and qualitative assessment of marine resources. Two techniques are used here—teledetection and echo-sounding, which amount to full programmes in themselves.

Search for fishing zones by airborne and satellite tele-detection. There is at least a statistical relation between the density of tuna and the surface temperature of the ocean. If this connection can be recognized very rapidly over a fairly wide area, then fishing fleets can be directed to favourable spots. Detection may be done by equipping a plane with an infra-red radiometer to measure the temperature of the surface of the sea along the flight paths and by processing data obtained by satellite when there is not too much cloud cover. Favourable zones are identified in this way and the tuna boats directed to them. Experience with this method is gradually yielding provisional fishing models. The interest of it is very clear to professionals in the Interthon group, which took part with ORSTOM in an experiment in Abidjan in February 1978 when a fisheries aid bureau was set up to centralize and handle information before redistributing it to the fishermen. Teledetection (and, more particularly, infra-red pictures from the Meteostat satellite) were used in an original way on this occasion. Teledetection makes it possible to trace the movement of the nutrient-rich hydrological structures where fish congregate and it is therefore a very good means of describing and understanding the machinery which determines the seasonal movement of species.

Determining pelagic biomasses by echo-sounding. The idea here is to assess the abundance of pelagic species of fish by echo-sounding and vertical integration of echo intensity (which is proportional to density). If the method is used systematically in areas where fishing is common, it supports the information yielded by the catch statistics. In unknown areas, it can give a first idea of what resources are available. Our theoretical knowledge of the way fish respond to echo-sounding is still inadequate, so evaluation depends on experimental measurements. However, results that tally with observations made by other methods have been obtained in the Senegal/Mauritania area and off the Ivory Coast and Ghana. At the FAO's request, two echo-sounding expeditions have been run to investigate fish resources in Guinea; interesting results were obtained, particularly as regards the extension of the stock of triggerfish. ORSTOM has received various requests from many countries, not just about maritime questions but about lake fishing as well, where this sort of method is highly suitable providing there is sufficient depth (as shown by tests which both ORSTOM and INRA have run in France). Work is also going on with CNEXO to produce a digital integration system that will be far more efficient than what is currently available on the market.

Population dynamics and the rational management of stocks. Population dynamics and the rational management of stocks in the tropical regions of the Atlantic is a field in which ORSTOM has achieved a certain proficiency. There are three programmes (plus a special study) which deal with the subject:

Large pelagic species from the high seas (the tuna family). Dakar and Abidjan have a reliable system of statisti-

cal data collection and the research workers involved in it collaborate closely with ICCAT (the International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tuna). Basic data processing is carried out on the spot, but more complex manipulation is done at the ORSTOM unit at the oceanological centre in Brest (Brittany). The idea here is to use various mathematical (logistic, analytical and exploitation simulation) models to assess the effect of fishing on the present and future states of resources and thus to devise a way of rational management, i.e. to achieve sustained optimum exploitation without deterioration of replacement potential. Such rational management can only ever be brought about by international agreement (fishing being a multinational activity), something which ICCAT is constantly working for. Proposals on regulating the size of catches and introducing close and open seasons for fishing have been made by the organization. ORSTOM, one of whose members has been elected chairman of the ICCAT research and statistics committee, is working with both the scientists and the competent authorities in the host countries with a view to collecting, collating and processing statistics on national fleets.

Small pelagic species

Senegal. These constitute a major marine resource, particularly from Guinea Bissau up to northern Mauritania, which is fished on a very large scale, a million t plus of sardine, mackerel, etc. being caught in this zone every year. Senegal is following stock management closely, both because of the income to be derived from it and to prevent anarchic exploitation of resources. Fishing activity is by international fleets, sardine smacks from Dakar and by individual fishermen using craft methods that will be described later on.

Full data-processing chains have been set up and the availability of proper statistics on foreign vessels, the main bottleneck, has improved considerably since June 1978, when a working meeting was run in Dakar by the Senegalese oceanographic research centre, with COPACE backing. A full list of catches has been produced and general information on fishing activity communicated, particularly by Soviet and Polish scientists. This has enabled a first summary of the main fish stocks and production models for mackerel, etc., to be proposed, although less is known about sardines so far.

Demersal species (trawling). The varied catches which trawlers net are due to the nature of bottom or near-bottom dwelling species, to the behaviour of the fish that make up these populations and, generally, to the poor selectivity of fishing equipment. The ultimate aim is to produce a general model for maximum production (for all species) that is compatible with the protection of the stock. However, if this ideal type of management is to be achieved, we must have a clear idea of the main elements of what is a multivariable puzzle. This is what is happening in Dakar, where several species and groups of species (*Pseudopenaeus prayensis*, *Pagellus coupes*, *Cynoglossie canariensis*, *Galeoides decadeactylus* and *Penaeus duorarum*) are being studied. Once enough is known about each of the principal factors in the fishing sector, a general model for exploitation can be devised.

In the Ivory Coast, the demersal potential of the continental shelf is sufficiently clear for it to be reasonable to assert that catches can only increase beyond the present level if there are regulations to force trawlers to use large mesh sizes. The minimum recommended size, from Gabon to the Ivory Coast, is 60 mm. Interesting results have been achieved with shrimps (*Penaeus duorarum*), which spend part of their biological cycle in lagoons. Close seasons in lagoons and at sea would bring about a substantial improvement in the current situation. A close season at sea alone would yield identical catches for 25% less effort. And better still, simultaneous

close seasons in lagoons and maritime waters and 25% less effort would result in an increase of 10% in the weight of catches and 15% in their value, because more fish of the optimum size would be caught.

Congo. In the Congo, a study of the dynamics of the main species exploited and of the economics of the fisheries sector, which led to a practical proposal for development, has shown that, by regulating fishing time and mesh sizes, the quantities landed could be doubled in three or four years and the catch per unit of work put in could be maintained at its present level.

Craft fishing concerns in Senegal. Craft fishing concerns, which have always existed in Senegal, are becoming increasingly important now that more and more pirogues are being fitted with motors and more sophisticated nets are in general use. It is the main source of supply for the local markets, it provides employment all along the coast and major projects to develop it are under way. All this would suggest that the study of this kind of fishing should go beyond ethnological considerations and that a genuine effort be made to assess its development possibilities, to rationalize catches of the main types of fish that the individual fishermen tend to seek and to take account of its role in the management of the stocks which the industrial fishing concerns are exploiting. A sampling and data-collection method for line fishing, the most common method on the north coast (up as far as Cape Verde) and net fishing, as practised on the south coast, has been devised. Studies of dynamics have been run on the fishing of *Sepia officinales* (catches of which are increasing) and on shrimps in the Casamance estuary.

Pollution—a third aspect of applied oceanography. Waste water from the city causes problems that are made all the more serious by the constantly increasing population. The authorities are aware of the situation and have decided to cope with it by constructing a canal going out to sea in the Trou sans fond area. The ocean research centre in Abidjan has been invited to run a preliminary study (what we might call a study of impact) and an agreement has been signed in this regard with SETU, an urban development company. The problem was approached from three angles. First, detailed information on ocean currents and their temporal fluctuation in the area in which the sewage was discharged. The idea here was to specify where the pollutants would flow at given periods. Then the rate at which the sewage mixed with the seawater was measured to see how far the duct had to go and lastly, the extent to which the marine environment filtered out pathogenic bacteria was measured so that the degree of purification prior to emptying the waste water into the sea could be determined.

It is worth noting that this effort to control pollution of the sea and the work on the consequences of pollution for the ecology of the Ebrié lagoon (see below) make the Ivory Coast one of the front-runners in Africa as far as dealing with this problem is concerned.

The Pacific

Population dynamics and the rational management of stocks

The main things here are the exploitation and management of the bonito populations (also involved in the prospection mentioned above).

The rational management of stocks is based on a knowledge of a certain number of parameters, some of which are beginning to become clear:



In some parts of the Caribbean (photo: St Lucia) fish is the main source of protein

— recruitment and reproductive stock is being gradually defined by means of an analysis of young fish caught during the Hydrothon programme cruises (see above) and from other sources (South Pacific Commission);

— growth: a comprehensive critical study of the various methods used to establish the bonito growth curve has been successfully completed and a very reliable chart is now available;

— analysis of landing statistics: this leads to a vital parameter of population dynamics—catch per unit of work put in. Only statistics of a high standard will give a proper result. In Pateete, where bonito fishing is an important activity, special attention is paid to this. The statistics and the distribution chart supplied by Asian professionals, the main people involved in high sea fishing in this area, are also subject to careful analysis.

The study of the population dynamics of the major pelagic species in the Pacific is only just beginning and immense stocks are involved. The study will therefore be a long one and the proper exploitation of a resource which is of world-wide importance will depend upon it.

In addition to research proper, mention should also be made of the fact that ORSTOM, as part of a convention, is involved in working with the Numéa town authorities on running its aquarium, one of the tourist high spots of New

Caledonia. In return, ORSTOM oceanographers have access to the aquarium's experimental tanks.

Biology and ecology of plankton, benthos and fish

Analysis of the association of mesopelagic fish in the South Pacific. The aim here is to define the limits of the spatio-temporal distribution of about 200 species (mesopelagic and bathypelagic) caught by ORSTOM over the last 10 years and to study the functional synecology of the groups of these fish, the way they evolve in time, the transfer of energy, the influence of climatic and hydrological phenomena at the various stages of growth and vertical migration. This has already made it possible to fit out a special trawler to collect micronectonic organisms rapidly and precisely at specific depths. More than 500 species of fish have been identified.

The main idea here is to analyse stomach content and run research into the diet of pelagic species. The work is a further contribution to our detailed knowledge of the structure and operation of the tropical pelagic ecosystem.

Study of island currents. Certain things suggest that, in ocean regions where there is a clear wind pattern, the leeward sides of islands may well have different characteristics when it comes to richness of waters, either because of local upwelling-type phenomena or because fauna along the shore has enriched the fauna stock further out. Polynesia is a suitable place for checking out the hypothesis and an experiment is being run, under an agreement, with the joint biological control service of the French atomic energy commission (CEA).

Plankton ecology in ocean lagoons. Samples have been taken from two different types of lagoons on a systematic basis—the Takapoto lagoon (a Polynesian atoll) and, in the south-western area, the New Caledonia lagoon, which separates a barrier reef from a high island. The physical-chemical environment has also been studied, in conjunction with a study of circulation round the island. The south-western Caledonian lagoon, after 19 observation campaigns over a two-year period, seems much more dependent on meteorological conditions than on any annual cycles. This lagoon is very open to the sea and the role it plays as far as organic material is concerned will be studied in the coming years.

Fish biology in the New Caledonia lagoon. The biology and ecology of the main types of fish traditionally caught with hand lines in the New Caledonia lagoon is a virtually unexplored area. The development of production, estimated at 6 000 t p.a., could well diversify the local economy. Various characteristics that are most directly useful as far as our knowledge of this resource is concerned have been discussed. They are:

- sexuality and reproduction: sex ratios, sexual cycles, places and periods of reproduction, size at sexual maturity;
- age-related characteristics: growth, mortality, age of sexual maturity;
- global ecological characteristics: habitat at various stages of life, the limits of distribution;
- initial information about behaviour, method of grouping and, in certain cases, migration;
- condition: hepatic cycle.

This study should make it possible to estimate production in the lagoon and suggest how fishing can be developed or regulated. Activity in the sector has so far been completely



Inland fishing in the Philippines

The FAO believes this type of fishing should be developed in order to supplement sea fishing

uncontrolled, so there is a risk of depopulation attendant on any absence of rational management.

results in the Atlantic. An attempt is now being made to use it in the Pacific too.

Optimization and exploitation of resources

The particular effect on the French territories in the Pacific (because they are islands) of the extension of national waters to 200 miles has led ORSTOM to give a fresh boost to those of its research programmes that are devoted to increasing knowledge of and exploiting the marine resources around New Caledonia, Polynesia and the islands of Wallis and Futuna.

Quantitative and qualitative evaluation of marine resources. There are two groups of programmes here:

Search for areas favourable to bonito concentration. The international fishing industry is increasingly interested in the potential of bonito (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) as it is known to be high, although it has not been properly investigated in the Pacific.

Various approaches have been used to evaluate this resource. One involves population dynamics and will be dealt with later. Another is a systematic search for areas with the sort of hydrological structure that is presumed to be favourable to the concentration of bonito. This programme, called Hydrothon, involves tracing waters where, as experience has shown, temperature and salinity are such that the major pelagic species usually gather.

The prospection programme uses two techniques:

- (i) systematic ocean cruising by vessels supplied by CNEOX;
- (ii) radiometric aerial surveys financed by the French State Secretariat for the Overseas Countries and Territories and the Ministry of Transport. The idea here is to describe, virtually instantaneously, very large areas and to situate thermal fronts and to observe shoals visually. This rapid means of obtaining information on the existence of temperature structures that are favourable to concentration of tuna, and on how abundant such populations are, has produced useful

Conclusion and prospects for the future

There were many results in 1977, '78 and '79 to add to the fund of information already gattered over several decades. Consideration of these results suggests that we still need to obtain fundamental data on tropical waters, but that the need is less urgent now that a large amount of information has been gathered. The demands of economic development mean that ORSTOM work has, for the most part, to be along three fundamental lines.

First, physical oceanography. The climate and the way it varies has a profound effect on the economy, particularly in the agricultural sector—an elementary statement which is all too true in the tropics. An attempt has to be made to predict this apparently haphazard variation, as it does not seem likely that it can be controlled in the foreseeable future. An understanding of the reactional mechanisms in the ocean and the atmosphere is one of the keys to the problem and ORSTOM, with its experience and information network, is in a position to play a part in any programme on this topic.

Second, chemical oceanography. Marine chemistry has been used to analyse transfer phenomena in the food chain, but this would appear to be too laborious and obstacle-ridden a path to be an easy basis for a sound estimate and forecast of the resources which man can exploit. But a new path of action is now open in this sector and it may become a focus for the prevention and handling of marine pollution. There is a considerable call for this.

Third, oceanographic biology. Greater but reasonable exploitation of the live resources of the oceans is called for. Knowledge and rational exploitation of stocks, if requests ORSTOM has received are anything to go by, are a common concern of governments, particularly since the establishment of the new exclusive economic zones. ○

Fish-farming: A major German programme for the developing countries

As the cost of other high-protein foods rises, the demand for fish is increasing and stocks are declining.

Fish is one of the richest sources of protein, so it is important both to protect resources and to catch enough to meet world food demands. One way of avoiding depletion of the fish stocks in our seas is fish-farming, that is to say raising fish in rivers, ponds and artificial lakes.

The Federal German government has a major fish-farming programme under way and a seminar was run in Bavaria last year to look at the techniques involved. The meeting was run by the Ministry of Cooperation (BMZ)(1) and the German association for technical cooperation (GTZ)(1).

The following summary of the aims of fish-farming and what it involves is taken from "programmes and strategies of priority schemes for agricultural development", which the BMZ and the GTZ presented in 1979.

With the ever-increasing exploitation of the seas and the rapid expansion of the world population, fishing in inland waters is constantly gaining in importance.

Advanced techniques are used to exploit almost all the fish-rich areas of the globe and depletion of stocks is already a real threat in many places.

New methods of organizing production must be found if resources are to be protected and fish-farming carried out on a systematic basis to ensure a safe supply of this source of high-quality protein.

One way of doing this is to pursue the development of aquaculture, a particularly intensive form of inland fishing which has some obvious advantages:

— Most countries have swamps, lagoons, waste land or river deltas that are suitable for fish-farming, so there is no need to use good grazing or arable land.

— The climate in many developing countries is excellent for fish-farming.

— Fish-farming demands simpler techniques and less capital than sea fishing and there is no need to buy or maintain expensive fishing vessels and equipment.

— It is easy to develop and exploit inland waters and the degree of intensity of activity can easily be adapted to the technical development and economic situation of the country in question.

— Lastly, as well as being an important source of food (protein), inland fishing is an important sector of the economy in many countries.

Most fishermen are in low-income groups, but their economic status is not just a question of their production techniques. It also has to do with the consumption habits of the population, which in turn depend on the fish trade and processing industry, and care has to be taken to ensure that the development of large, modern fishing concerns does not put the economic and social status of individual fishermen at risk.

In hot countries, lakes and ponds can be exploited in the following ways:

— Natural stretches of water (lakes, lagoons and so on) can be used more extensively. Often all that has to be done is to bring in the right sort of fish, species that will reproduce in these waters so that constant restocking is not necessary.

— Artificial waters (reservoirs, rice fields, etc.) can also be used. Stretches of water behind dams tend to vary considerably in level; the banks, where many species spawn, are often high and dry for months and the fish cannot reproduce naturally. In cases such as this, constant restocking may be necessary to ensure a stable yield and this usually means special facilities for the production of young fish and therefore more capital investment and outlay on staff.

— Rice fields are not sufficiently under water to take fish for more than a few months of the year, which means that fast-growing species are called for. *Tilapia*, which can be raised in small ponds, is particularly suitable.

— Intensive fish-farming can be done in artificial lakes. This is the most difficult thing from the technical point of view and it also demands the biggest investments. Density must also be as high as possible. Relatively expensive apparatus is needed for artificial feeding and it is often difficult to find the right food. Fish farmers and well-trained technicians are required if this kind of intensive method is to be both successful and profitable.



Fish and shellfish are basic foods in many ACP countries, making controlled fishing and fish-farming methods a necessity in any world food strategy (above: FAO special fisheries development programme in Senegal)

(1) Karl-Marx-Strasse 4-6, 5300 Bonn 1 (West Germany).



Proper marketing techniques for fish, which is a perishable commodity, are essential to projects involving any of these methods.

The marketing of fish from fish farms can often be a serious problem. Either the density of the local population is too light, or there is a lack of infrastructure, or the population is not used to eating fish.

Sales may also be limited by low purchasing power. All this has to be borne in mind at the planning stage if the projects are to succeed.

Project organization

The bodies responsible for this kind of project are usually public or semi-public ones, groups of firms (cooperatives) or even organizations that have been specially created for this purpose (development agencies, for example). The institutions in charge of implementing inland fishing schemes in the partner country must have the relevant technical and administrative ability. While activity in the public sector should mainly concern legislation, supervision, land development, sales promotion and helping the cooperatives with training, the private organizations responsible for implementing projects should concentrate more on introducing the right production techniques and on the processing and marketing of products, both from the economic and the company management angles.

Otherwise, as with sea fishing, it is vital for there to be close links between production, trade, processing and consumption. A GTZ priority inland fishing programme must be designed in such a way that account is taken, from the word go, of the effects of one sector on the others.

In many countries, fishing in inland waters is a relatively new activity. How long projects last will depend on the degree of intensity of the fisheries sector and the level of development of the partner country. The promotion programme may cover the following:

- the creation of profitable fish farms (six to eight years)— numerous staff and large capital sums required;

Some countries, such as Grenada (above), have fisheries resources greater than their immediate needs, but which are under-exploited and require technical assistance for development. Others such as the Philippines (below) need greater aid to develop traditional fishing, an important source of food. The FAO gave US\$ 85 000 for the Philippines' fishing programme in 1976



- rational, controlled exploitation of natural waters (four to five years)—many staff and large capital sums required;
- training for lake fishermen and fish farmers (two to three years)—mainly needs staff;
- intensive fish-farming, aquaculture (six to eight years)—numerous staff and large capital sums required. ○

Joint ventures in the fisheries sector

by Mario GUTTIERES

Cooperation is, to an ever greater extent, the safest way of ensuring that the industrialized world gets its supplies of raw materials and other things (such as fish, stocks of which are declining) that are vital to its economy and of enabling the developing countries to get the technology they need to develop their basic products. In the fisheries sector, it can be difficult to establish cooperation agreements because of the nature of the problem and because of the national interests of the countries involved. How can satisfactory structures be set up that will allow countries that are often very different and geographically far apart to exploit together the fish resources that are the only real wealth some developing countries have?

At a conference in Rome recently, Mario Gutierrez, an Italian lawyer who heads the IJO (International Jurist Organization), showed how the problem could be approached from the joint venture angle. Extracts from his talk are given below:

The policy of the management, conservation and protection of resources, Mr Gutierrez said, emerged when it was realized that expanding world and Community production had dangerously depleted biological reserves and created problems for fishermen, particularly in the North Sea, where the situation was critical in 1977. So it was decided to look at measures to restrict fishing and deal with the problem of a resources management policy.

Meanwhile, he went on, the effects of the Conference on the Law of the Sea, in particular the extension of national jurisdiction by African countries, the United States and Canada, has resulted in a loss of free access for the Community countries. This situation determined the Community's extension to 200 miles of the area within the jurisdiction of the member countries on the Atlantic seaboard in January 1977 and a policy of conventions and agreements with third countries.

Agreements have already been signed with the USA, Sweden, Canada, the Faroes, Finland and Senegal; negotiations with Guinea Bissau, Spain and Norway are due to be wound up shortly and others are being conducted with Tunisia, Mauritania and a number of other countries. The Community has found it difficult to get agreements based on paying a lump sum for fishing rights with the developing countries, particularly those in which Italy is interested.

In principle, these countries would like to take part in the management of resources and develop their knowhow in the fisheries sector, with a view to setting up the sort of structures that are in keeping with the new role they have to play in augmenting the marine resources under their control following extension of their economic zones, and in changing their national policies to reflect the increasing needs of their populations. It would be wrong to overlook the part played by the FAO throughout the world and in the Mediterranean via the general fisheries board. This organization has run comprehensive studies and laid down guidelines for the develop-

ing countries to follow in the fisheries sector. The aim is to define a world-wide strategy for the management of resources, which each coastal state will have to apply directly or indirectly, sea fishing being a sector which should be strengthened as part of international cooperation on a new international economic order.

Joint ventures

The aim of international action is to get over stagnation, overcome the difficult problems of the negotiations, stimulate a fruitful dialogue and ensure that Italy gets bases on which it can envisage cooperation with third countries. We refer here to joint ventures and any other form of association or company combining businessmen from different countries, one of which is the country on the stretch of sea in which the fishing is to be done. We feel that this is the best way of establishing cooperation in the fisheries sector and it is considered to be such by recent international studies run by specialized bodies like the FAO and the multinationals centre at the UN in New York. The latter organization recommends this sort of cooperation, above all when it is between an industrialized country and a developing one.

The developing countries are aware of how important fishing is to the development of their economies—hence the increasing interest in institutional measures for resource management and the monitoring of fishing on the seas over which they have jurisdiction. Hence also their interest in bilateral agreements to facilitate the supply of infrastructure, fishing vessels, refrigeration facilities, etc. via technical cooperation. In principle, such agreements are achieved via the establishment of joint ventures.

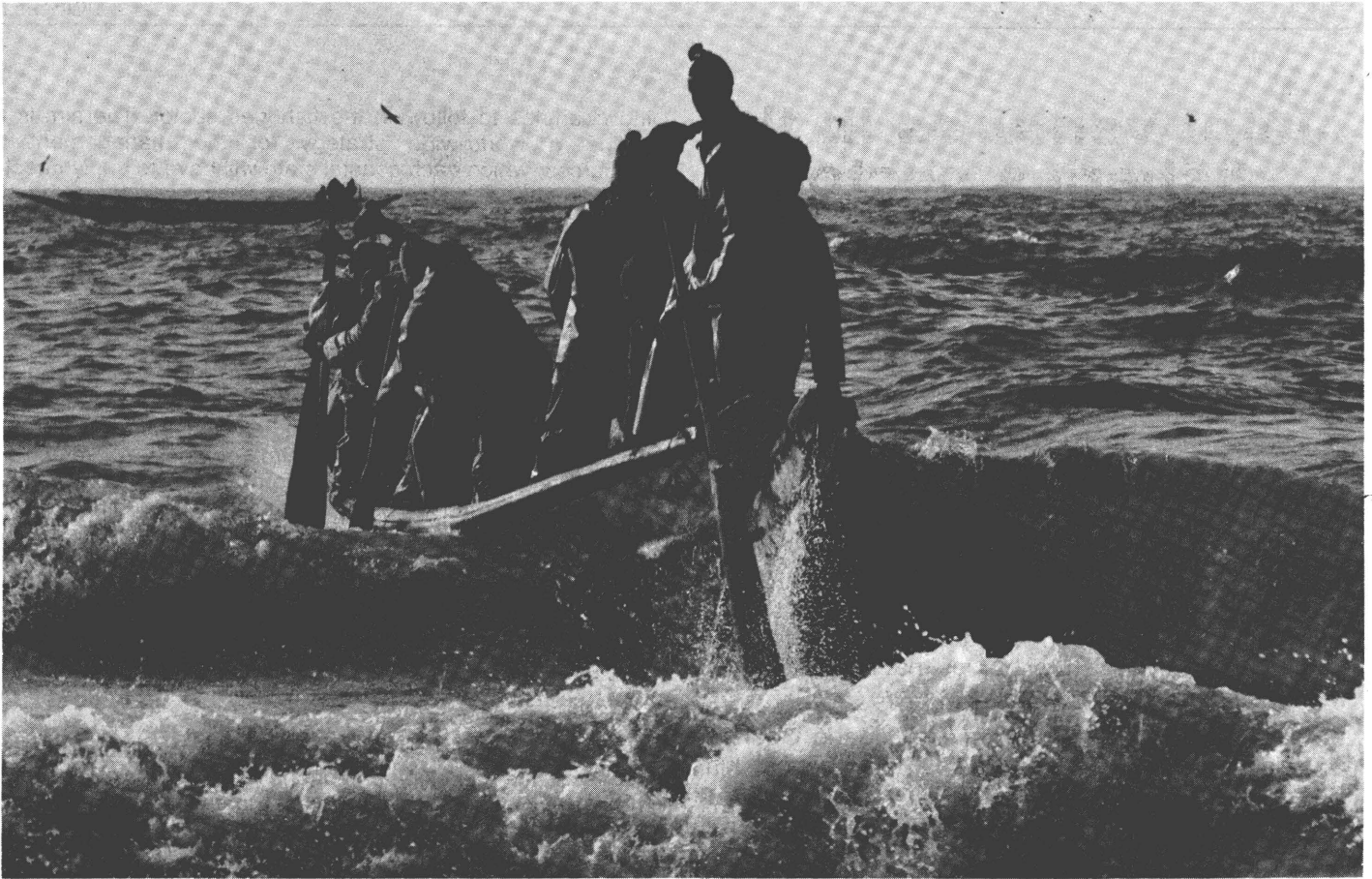
There are various types of bilateral agreement in the sector, the three commonest ones covering:

- fishing by foreign vessels in the exclusive economic zone of another coastal state, with the successive phasing in of local vessels to replace them;
- a guarantee of reciprocal fishing rights to the contracting parties in their respective economic or fishing zones;
- the establishment of the terms and conditions under which the fishing vessels of one country can operate in the waters of another (for example, the Italy-Tunisia agreement).

Furthermore, alongside the major agreements, there are often complementary conventions, other agreements between the state which owns the fishing vessels (i.e. the state whose flag they fly) and the maritime country, with a view to promoting financial, economic and technical cooperation.

And lastly, there are bilateral agreements aimed at making it easier to set up joint ventures combining public bodies or individuals or both in the country whose flag is being flown (usually a technologically advanced country) and in the maritime country in question. In principle, joint ventures have legal personalities represented by two or more associates, either of different nationalities or the same nationality or all foreigners. What concerns us here are mixed joint ventures, which may involve:

- a local and a foreign firm, organized on a pro rata basis, according to capital invested, 51% usually being reserved for the local firms;
- a foreign individual or firm buying shares in an existing local firm;
- a foreign firm setting up a new local body and inviting local public and private firms in the sector to be involved on the basis of agreements;



Artisanal fishing has existed off the coast of Africa for many centuries, but with the 200-mile EEZs many coastal states want to develop modern fishing fleets, often in joint ventures with the main fishing countries

— a foreign firm setting up a new local body with local private partners from outside the sector.

It should be remembered that a joint venture is covered by and subject to the laws of the country in which it operates, i.e. in the host country. Generally speaking, the relevant laws are those on commercial companies, although some legal systems deal with the problem specifically. And there are also laws on foreign capital investment and tax issues.

Thought must also be given to standards in the sector, to the laws and to the decrees and circulars of the various ministries involved—which includes looking at the institutional norms, the country's constitution and its legal and administrative structure. This study of the legal, technical and economic side of things is a fundamental, essential step before a joint venture can be set up, since it is vital to check that conditions are favourable before starting negotiations.

In the interests of precision, one should also mention that the term 'joint venture' is often wrongly used to describe a cooperation contract between foreign and local parties without the institution of an autonomous organization with a separate legal personality. We are thinking here of agreements on sales or on installations, plant, vessels, industrial property, know-how and so on.

Mr Guttieres ended by listing certain factors which could influence decisions to set up joint ventures in the fisheries sector in maritime countries. They were, he felt, essentially of an economic order. For an industrialized country, this would be the possibility of taking part in fishing activity in a third country via the establishment of a local firm. For a developing country, joint ventures would be a way of attracting foreign capital and technology in this sector. He also said that many of the problems joint fishery ventures had to face during

negotiations or operation had to do with the parties having no interest in common or, at least, having no understanding or mutual appreciation of the aims which they hoped to achieve by setting up the joint venture.

This lack of common interest or mutual understanding could give rise to a lack of confidence—which could often bring down this type of scheme. As to the aims, there are fundamental differences between the position of the host country (usually interested in development and in national social needs and therefore anxious for training for the labour force, the promotion of local sea fishing and related sectors, like supplying cheap products for the local market) and the position of the foreign fishing companies whose fundamental interests are represented by access to local fish resources and markets and getting the best returns for the capital they invest.

Mr Guttieres also pointed out that, in addition to the partners' lack of common interest, there were problems of infrastructure and management. The developing countries were short of specialized managers with experience in large-scale fishing operations and their call to take responsibility with their (majority) holdings would be a serious handicap to the proper functioning of a joint venture. Hence the importance of training highly qualified local staff who would enable the developing countries to take a full part in the functioning of joint ventures.

In conclusion, Mr Guttieres said that the innovations of the third UN Conference on the Law of the Sea, the promotion of a fisheries policy with the organization of rational resources management and greater Italian contributions to the EEC fisheries policy would be a good way of working towards agreements on joint ventures in this sector. ○

IBRD World Development Report 1980

World growth prospects have deteriorated

"Impaled on the trident of inflation and recession in the developed countries and much more expensive oil, world growth prospects have deteriorated in the past year," says the World Development Report, 1980, the third in the annual series issued by the World Bank.

While higher oil prices have improved the outlook for about one-fifth of the developing world's people—those living in oil-exporting countries—the report says that, for the remaining four-fifths living in oil-importing countries, the first half of the decade will involve "slower growth" at a rate of 1.8 to 2.4% per year. "For the developing countries as a whole, growth will be substantially below the forecast in the last year's report."

The report looks at prospects for the remainder of the century but focuses particularly on the crucial adjustment period of the first half of the 1980s. "Developing countries start the decade facing the two major challenges. First, they must strive to continue their social progress in a climate that is less helpful than it was a decade ago—or even a year ago. Second, they must tackle the plight of 800 million people living in poverty who have benefited too little from past progress."

The report's opening chapters present global and regional projections—distinguishing oil-importing and oil-exporting countries and discussing policy issues in energy, trade and capital flows. Later chapters take up human development. The two parts are closely linked. In the difficult conditions of the past six years, as in earlier years, most of the fastest growing developing countries without oil have had well-educated populations. Drawing on the World Bank extensive research and expanded involvement in human development, the report points out that the return on investment in education and training, for example, can often far exceed the return on physical investment.

Economic outlook

"There are several reasons why adjustment to current payments imba-

lances and higher energy costs may prove more difficult for many countries than it was in the 1974-78 adjustment period." These include prospects for continuing rises in oil prices, the fact that "the industrialized countries face more serious difficulties than in the mid-1970s," and less favourable prospects for expansion of aid and private capital flows. And, "the 1970s have shown that success in adjustment should be measured not just by the volume of recycling, or the share going to developing countries, or the reduction of developing country deficits to affordable levels. These are all important, but they must be viewed in the context of the growth that the developing countries achieve."

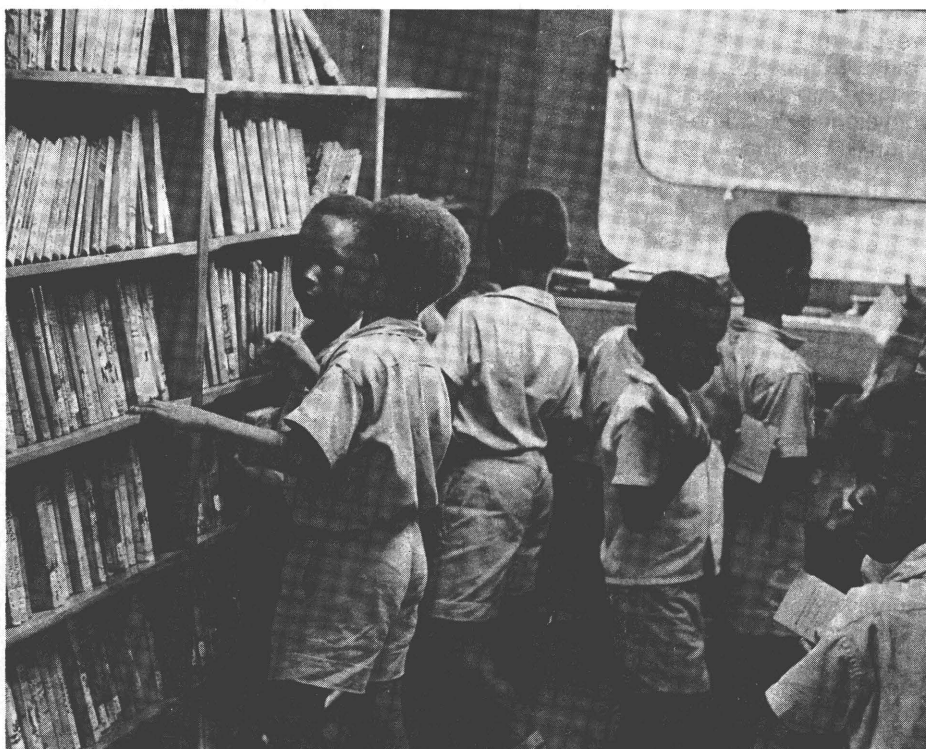
Growth prospects are particularly unfavorable for the low-income countries of Africa. The African countries "face a desperately hard adjustment period—coming on top of the economic stagnation of the 1970s. Even under comparatively optimistic assumptions ... their growth would be negligible in

1980-85" and "the extent of absolute poverty is likely to increase throughout the decade." "The plight of these poor Asian and African countries, particularly the latter, deserves special attention from the international community."

To reach higher growth rates and to lay the basis for accelerated growth in the last half of the decade requires "that developing countries adjust successfully—cutting their external deficits by raising exports rather than lowering imports, while increasing both investment and efficiency in resource use.

"What the industrialized countries and capital surplus oil exporters do is also vital." The report calls on industrialized countries to "help by avoiding excessive deflation and by ... a rapid resumption of sustained growth. They will assist developing countries by importing more from them; this requires trade liberalization as well as economic growth. The industrialized countries should reverse the tendency for their aid to fall as a share of GNP and should encourage prudent expansion in lending from their commercial capital markets to developing countries."

But the World Development Report says that with determined policy initiatives by rich and poor countries to support economic adjustment, world trade could recover and economic prospects



Economic growth is related to education



Many Third World farmers have never heard of the 'green revolution' (photo: lesson on fertilizers in Thailand)

improve in the second half of the decade.

Energy

On oil, the report states: "The real price of oil is likely to be at least 80% higher in 1980 than in 1978." "As a result, (major) oil-exporting nations will run current account surpluses of around \$110 billion this year and oil-importing developing countries deficits of more than \$60 billion."

The (major) oil exporters can contribute to efficient recycling and growth in developing countries "by expanding their holdings of real and financial foreign assets, avoiding disruptions in oil supplies or sharp price fluctuations, and by extending more direct financial support—concessional and non-concessional—... and by buying more from (the developing countries) and continuing to provide employment to their migrant workers."

Developing countries can better adapt to the rising cost of imported oil if the oil-exporting countries can avoid supply disruptions and sharp price changes. This will be more likely if the industrial countries improve their energy conservation and develop alternative resources. The report says that Japan and Western Europe have held their absolute volume of petroleum use con-

stant since 1973, and the United States since 1978, and have therefore reduced the ratio of energy use to GNP. This represents "considerable progress," but is still inadequate.

Trade

The developed countries should

maintain the relatively free trading opportunities that exist for most of the developing world's products, while beginning to lower barriers against other goods such as textiles and clothing. Trade liberalization will pay off in faster growth in productivity and lower inflation. The oil-exporting nations can also help by rapidly expanding their imports from developing countries.

Capital flows

More concessional assistance should be provided to the poorest countries if they are not to cut essential imports and retard their development. It is by no means certain that the industrial countries will maintain their flows of official development assistance at the present level only of 0.34% of GNP (less than half the UN target). Much also depends on the expansion of the national aid programmes of the main capital-surplus oil exporters. Commercial capital will be available to help the middle-income countries. But not all countries will be well placed to borrow much more from private commercial sources. In particular, there is not enough long-term programme (non-project) finance to support structural changes. Official flows of this sort should play a larger role.

As Bank President Robert McNamara warns in his foreword to the report, "There is a real risk that the domestic economic problems of richer countries will cause them to give inadequate attention to the immense problems of the developing world, and to the hardships that narrow or shortsighted



Oil drilling platform in the North Sea: energy is an increasing burden to developing countries



Slums in El Salvador: nothing can eliminate absolute poverty overnight

policies—in energy, trade and financial assistance—can inflict.” He stresses, “It is vital that successful adjustment should not unduly sacrifice either the current living standards of the poor or the measures needed not to reduce poverty in the future.”

Growth, poverty and human development

The second part of the report draws on the World Bank’s experience (in projects, sectors, and national economies—and in research) to assess the role of human development in assisting growth and reducing poverty.

The report’s research reveals, for example, that:

— Children of educated mothers are better fed, have lower mortality rates and receive better education themselves.

— Among countries studied in Asia, Latin America and Africa, farmers with four years’ primary schooling were on average 13% more productive than farmers without any education, primarily because the more educated farmers are more likely to take advantage of new seeds and other improved farming practices.

— Rates of return on primary education averaged 27% in a sample of low-income countries where a majority of adults were illiterate, and a still-high

22% in countries where the majority were literate. Both are above average rates of return to physical capital.

— The 12 developing countries with the highest growth in per capita incomes between 1960 and 1977 started the period with literacy rates notably higher than would have been expected at their income levels.

The report also shows that human development contributes to raising average incomes, as well as to other social goals, in another way: by reduc-

ing population growth. “Reducing fertility is not an end in itself; but lower population growth in most developing countries tends to result in greater investment per person in physical capital and human skills—and thus in faster growth. Better nutrition and health, by lowering infant mortality, are essential ingredients of fertility decline. So is education, especially of women, since it delays marriage, alters attitudes about family size and makes modern contraception more acceptable.” Relevant here are findings that confirm the importance of family planning programmes in slowing down population growth.



‘The worst aspects of absolute poverty include not only low income but also malnutrition’—this Swazi couple at least have a reasonable maize crop

The report also stresses what human development programmes can do to improve the lot of the roughly 800 million people living in absolute poverty, a condition that is shown to have many dimensions. "The worst aspects of absolute poverty include not only low income but also malnutrition, frequent child death, disease and ignorance. All can be helped by human development programmes. Less obviously, there is a complex interdependence between the different facets of human development—as there is between human development and increases in income."

A fundamental message of the report is that health, nutrition, education and fertility are related not only to each other, but also to incomes and GNP. As

one improves, so do others. Mr McNamara put it this way: "The vital message is that some steps we all have long known to be morally right—primary education, for example—make good economic sense as well."

The report concludes: "Nothing can make widespread absolute poverty melt away overnight. And human development at best can do only part of the job. Without the right policies on other fronts, and without active and enlightened support from the rest of the world, progress will be agonizingly slow. But other policies will not be sufficient. The most valuable resource any country has is its people, the means and the end of economic advance." ○

provided by such winds. Calculations showed that a 6-foot diameter wind plant would easily generate enough electricity for two-way radio and an hour or two of a small amount of lighting. Winter wind speeds were expected to be higher, but no concrete data are yet available. Extrapolations were made which showed that the plant would provide radio all year with a couple of hours lighting in summer and up to five hours of lighting in winter. Variations from year to year could be high, but it still seemed that radio power would always be available.

A windmill was considered for lighting a small block of government houses at Thaba Tseka, but it was found that a very large, expensive wind plant would be needed.

APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY

Wind-generated electric power for Thaba Tseka^(*)

by Alan WYATT

In the past there have been many conflicting reports on the use of wind power in Lesotho. Many felt that since wind power has failed to date to prove its merit in the Kingdom, it should receive less attention and other alternative sources of energy should be considered. On the other hand, a good number of people would say wind power might have failed in the past for a number of technical reasons, such as poor location of the site, poor installation, poor maintenance and lack of adequate testing and experimentation. The fact remains that wind power is working well 100 km away from Lesotho in the Republic of South Africa and there should not be any reason "a priori" that it should not work in the Kingdom. Hence a search for efficient use of wind power is underway, and recently we have received a report from the Thaba Tseka Integrated Rural Development Programme on one of their recent studies.

There are few places in the mountains of Lesotho where generated electricity is available for lighting and other electrical uses. Candles and paraffin lamps are commonly used by local people. Certain mountain institutions such as missions, hospitals and clinics use petrol or diesel-powered generators.

Such systems often break down due to lack of maintenance, and are often very expensive to operate due to difficulty in transporting fuels. This study focused on whether wind-generated power would be technically and economically feasible in the mountains, as an alternative to current limited options. Wind was initially perceived as probably too expensive for local villagers, but could be put to use to meet essential needs such as a two-way radio or lighting in clinics and other institutions.

First, a survey was carried out of existing wind data for Lesotho, to assess general wind conditions in the country. Lowland winds were found to be relatively low, with somewhat higher winds in winter and spring. Generally nights were calm, with winds rising in the late morning from the east, getting stronger and shifting to the west by mid-afternoon, then falling off by sunset. Some mountain data showed that well-exposed altitude locations had very high wind, but mountain valleys had winds similar to the lowlands. Four methods of wind data were taken at Thaba Tseka and a mountain valley spot (because of proximity to a potential road). Results showed winds similar in magnitude to the lowlands (circa 5 mph in summer months). The daily variation of speed and directions were found to be similar to the lowlands.

While the available data was scarce, estimates could be made on the energy

The economics of windmills were compared to presently available alternatives for clinics or other large users (such as government housing). For a clinic, a petrol generator, wind plant and solar battery charger were compared. The wind plant was cheaper, needed less maintenance and used a local "fuel". Despite the variability of wind, a wind plant could be an improvement on the problematic system of using petrol generators. A solar plant was found to be cheaper than the petrol generator but more expensive than the wind plant, and to require essentially no maintenance. The solar array's maintenance advantage will probably outweigh its higher cost in low wind locations. Where wind is higher (7-8 mph annual average or above) a wind plant or combined wind/solar electric system would probably be a better choice.

Comparing a larger wind plant to a diesel generator would show the wind plant as being more expensive until winds of 9 mph are reached. Even at lower speeds, though, the wind plant would involve less maintenance. A choice between a wind and a diesel plant will depend on availability of fuel and repair people versus availability of wind.

The installation of a small 6' wind plant at a doctor's house at Paray, Thaba Tseka, has already been carried out. A tower was built locally, from steel pipe, and the wind plant installed by local people with the assistance of Thaba Tseka project staff. Despite a few initial problems with the system, the plant has worked well. However, back-up power has been needed. An inverter system in the house was found to be consuming lots of energy and draining the battery quickly. This problem can be corrected, and proper measurements taken of plant performance. ○

(*) From the Appropriate Technology Unit, Basotho Enterprises Development Corporation, P.O. Box 1216, Maseru 1000, Lesotho

BOOKS

Annuaire des Etats ACP (Yearbook of the ACP States) 80-81 — Editions Delta, 92-94, rue Plasky, B. 1040 Brussels — 672 pages — Bfrs 4 500 — 1980

Delta Editions, of the European Association of Yearbook Publishers, have just published the first yearbook on the countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific which signed the two Conventions of Lomé.

Is there any need to introduce the wide and varied range of books about Europe that this publishing house has already produced? There has been a second edition of *Who's Who in the European Communities* and a fourth edition of their yearbook of EEC and other European organizations.

Now we have the *Yearbook of the ACP States*. It is an authoritative work of reference that anyone interested in detailed information about 58 ACP countries and ACP-EEC relations will want.

The yearbook is a bilingual one, with 672 pages of French and English text side by side, and took more than two years to produce. The large team of journalists and translators responsible for the considerable amount of work involved was led by Georges-Francis Seingry, the head of Delta Editions.

The book is in three parts. Part one deals with the ACP states and their organs in Brussels. There is a comprehensive analysis of each country, covering general data (history, geography, public health and education), political and administrative organization (the political system, executive and legislative powers, the legal system and the army), the unions, the press and some economic information (currency, banks, GNP, economic policy, development plans, resources, imports, suppliers, exports and customers).

Each section has a useful list of addresses of chambers of commerce, development organizations, diplomatic missions, the EEC Commission delegation and the local representations of international and regional organizations.

Part two deals with the EEC. It provides an outline of the way the Community institutions operate and what policies they have implemented, and explains which departments are involved in relations with the ACP states.

Part three is about ACP-EEC relations. A brief historical account of the

Yaoundé Conventions and the Arusha and Lagos Agreements is followed by a long analysis of the two Lomé Conventions (commercial cooperation, Stabex, sugar, financial and technical cooperation, the EDF, industrial cooperation, the CID and the various joint ACP-EEC institutions).

An index and a bibliography complete the information. Tiéoulé Konaté, the former secretary-general of the ACP group who wrote the preface to the yearbook, sums up the point of this work of reference.

The ACP group, he says, "will do its best to develop active solidarity amongst its members and with the EEC with a view to promoting a genuine contract of solidarity."

"It is to be hoped that this book will help publicize an aim that is in the best interests of the people of Europe and of those of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific."

This first volume, on the ACP states which signed the Lomé Conventions and on their relations with the EEC, is a remarkable book from all points of view. It is a sound, precise guide that is vital to anyone who wants to get to grips with the complexity of the close and original cooperation between the ACP group and the EEC. ○

Florent BONN

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L'Energie solaire au service du développement — Rapport de la Conférence internationale tenue à Varèse, Italie, du 26 au 29 mars 1978 (**Solar energy for development** — Report of the international conference held in Varese, Italy, on 26-29 March 1979) — Technique et documentation, 11 rue Lavoisier, F-75384 Paris Cedex 08 — 255 pages — 1980

Solar energy is increasingly being seen as one of the most promising sources of power for the developing countries.

Since it does not depend on the sort of infrastructure traditional fuel supplies require, it fits in with the technological capacity of the developing countries — which, given their direct sunlight, the biomass, the wind, etc., are very well placed as far as this form of energy is concerned.

This book describes the work of an EEC-sponsored conference and assesses solar energy potential in relation to needs in the developing countries,

particularly in the rural areas. It contains discussions by experts on technical applications of solar energy in areas like rural development, agronomy, hydrology, electricity production, domestic work and telecommunications, and also covers the economic, financial, ecological and social aspects of the question.

There are chapters on the main sessions which dealt with water, electricity production, solar heating, international and regional cooperation as well as the social and ecological repercussions. Each one has an introductory outline and a specially written report of the discussion.

There is a brief chapter on the recommendations and priorities that emerged at the conference and the main speeches and declarations on specific subjects by experts at the conference.

This work will be of considerable interest to national, regional and local authorities in the developing countries, to national and overseas international development bodies and anyone involved in the research, development and manufacture of solar energy devices. It will also be useful for those interested in seeing how solar energy can promote development.

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Elikia M'Bokolo — Le Continent convoité (The coveted continent) — Editions «Etudes vivantes» — 1980

Elikia M'Bokolo, a Zairian historian, has just brought out this book, in the *Etudes vivantes* series, covering African affairs since the era of independence in the '60s to the present day.

The author divides Africa into major geographical regions, giving the historical background of each of the countries within them.

Earlier historical details and specific problems of each region (climate, colonial heritage, foreign influence, ideological struggles, etc.) precede this and tables, maps and a bibliography complete the study.

The author's university studies were in France, at the Ecole Normale Supérieure. He holds the agrégation in history and is currently lecturing at the Ecole des Hautes Etudes in Paris.

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Paul HARRISON — **Inside the Third World** — Penguin Books Ltd, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England — 480 pp. £ 2.95 — 1979

Anyone reading this book would agree at the end of it that it is one of the best (if not the best) ever written on the Third World.

Combining poetry, literature, geography, history and politics with a powerful language, Paul Harrison analyses the problems of the Third World in a most comprehensive, emotional, captivating and sometimes humorous manner.

Inside the Third World is the story of millions of souls struggling for survival against the powerful forces of nature (drought, flood, cyclones and earthquakes) and of the oppression of the industrialized world.

Paul Harrison blames the colonial powers for laying "the foundation of the present division between the industrialized nations and the hewers of wood and drawers of water."

They wiped out indigenous industry and forced the colonies to buy their manufactures. They undermined the self-sufficiency of the Third World and transformed it into a source of raw materials for western industry.

Sometimes they forced the locals to grow the desired crops—as the French did with cotton in the Sahel or the Dutch with sugar in Indonesia. Sometimes they bought land or just seized it to set up plantations, drafting in cheap labour to work them.

"In this way the colonial powers created the world economic order that still prevails today, of industrial centre and primary producing periphery, prosperous metropolis and poverty-stricken satellites."

Paul Harrison, who was once a lecturer in French language at the University of Ife in Nigeria, devoted three years to research and travels in the Third World to produce this book.

It is therefore not entirely a surprise that he views the problems of the developing countries like someone from that part of the world.

Published in paperback, the book is cheap and certainly within the reach of anyone interested in learning of the frustrations and sufferings of people who make up three-quarters of humanity.

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Ukandi G. DAMACHI, H. Dieter SEIBEL and Lester TRACHTMAN — **Industrial relations in Africa** — The Macmillan Press Ltd — £5.95 — 373 pages — 1979

It is not often recognized in contemporary African politics that long before liberation movements became fashionable, the struggle for national independence in Africa was carried out mainly by the trade unions. How and why are revealed in this book.

One would wonder whether it is not a sign of ingratitude towards African trade unions that they have today been reduced so much to inactivity as to be considered non-existent.

Admittedly they have become part and parcel of the government itself in many countries, but this is rather due largely to coercion than their wishes.

It could be argued that this is the inevitable legacy of the colonial era, when trade unionism was seen by most colonial regimes as a good instrument for the implementation of the policy of forced labour and when strikes for better conditions of work were regarded as subversive.

Today, the cooperation of the trade unions in the development process of Africa is needed more than ever before. But can this be got through coercion and muzzling?

The authors in the introduction to this book point out that higher wages and better conditions of service are themselves stimulants to economic activities.

But the trouble is that, as in the colonial era when the Public Works Department (PWD) was the biggest employer, for example, in English-speaking countries, the government is the biggest employer today and can hardly afford higher wages.

However as the private sector becomes more and more important, so will trade unionism grow and move gradually to full independence.

Because of the difference of colonial masters, trade unions in the French and English speaking Africa have certain marked differences in character.

These are analysed in detail by a dozen experts in this book. Zaire, Mozambique, Angola, South Africa, Zimbabwe and the whole of North Africa are not treated.

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William ARMSTRONG — **Better Tools for the job — specifications for hand tools and equipment** — Intermediate Technology Publications Ltd., 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN — 43 pages — £ 1.95 — 1980

These simple specifications for hand tools and equipment were developed in connection with the Kenya Rural Access Roads Programme. Started in 1975, the plan covers the building of some 15 000 kilometers of simple unsealed roads in remote parts of the country using labour intensive methods during an approximate 10 year period.

It will be appreciated that such a project calls for the use of very large quantities of hand tools such as shovels, jembes, etc., and simple equipment such as wheelbarrows.

At the outset of the RAR Programme the quality of these items was, in general, very poor, leading to breakages, supply difficulties and low productivity in the field.

A technology unit attached to the Ministry of Works in Nairobi worked intensively on the upgrading of tool and equipment quality. These specifications, though originally applied to the Kenyan road programme, are equally applicable to other countries for labour intensive projects.

The policy of buying tools and equipment by tender at the lowest price is all too common and results in unsatisfactory quality. Tenders which include specifications like these to which manufactures must conform result in tools which perform satisfactorily in the field.

The author is a member of the UK Institution of Mechanical Engineers and was retained as a consultant to the Kenya Rural Access Roads Programme.

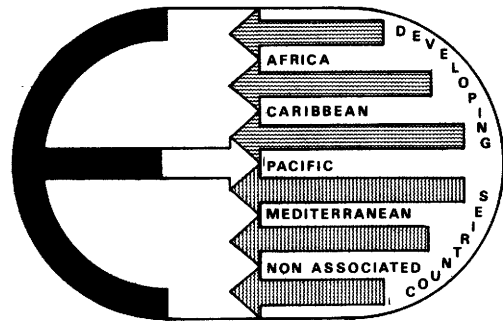
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Laurent LUCCHINI & Michel VOELCKEL — **Les états et la mer — Le nationalisme maritime (States and the sea — maritime nationalism)** — La documentation française, 124, rue Henri-Barbusse, 93308 Aubervilliers Cedex — 463 pages — FF 38 — 1978

The sea is no longer just an open space. Since 1973, 150 states meeting at the third UN Conference on the Law of the Sea have been trying to come up

(continued at third cover)

Operational summary of EEC-financed development schemes



OPERATIONAL SUMMARY No. 1 — November 1980

The following information (to be provided every two months) is aimed at showing the state of progress of EEC development schemes prior to their implementation. It is set out as follows:

Geographical breakdown

The summary is divided into three groups of countries, corresponding to the main aspects of Community development policy:

- the ACP countries (Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific), which signed the multilateral conventions of Lomé I (28 February 1975) and Lomé II (31 October 1979), plus the OCT (overseas countries and territories) of certain member states of the EEC, which get the same type of aid as the ACP countries;
- the Mediterranean countries (Maghreb and Mashraq), which signed cooperation agreements with the EEC in 1976 and 1977;
- the non-associated developing countries of Asia and Latin America, beneficiaries since 1976 of annual aid programmes.

The information within each of these groups is given by recipient country (in alphabetical order).

Note

As the information provided is subject to modification in line with the development aims and priorities of the recipient country, or with the conditions laid down by the authorities empowered to take financial decisions, the EEC is in no way bound by this summary, which is for information only.

Information given

The following details will usually be given for each development scheme:

- the title of the project;
- the administrative body responsible for it;
- the estimated sum involved (prior to financing decision) or the amount actually provided (post financing decision);
- a brief description of projects envisaged (construction work, supplies of equipment, technical assistance, etc.);
- any methods of implementation (international invitations to tender, for example);
- the stage the project has reached (identification, appraisal, submission for financing, financing decision, ready for implementation).

Main abbreviations

Int. tender: International invitation to tender
Acc. tender: Invitation to tender (accelerated procedure)
Restr. tender: Restricted invitation to tender
TA: Technical assistance
EDF: European Development Fund
EUA: European unit of account

ACP STATES

BAHAMAS

Food technology laboratory. — Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, Nassau. 0.446 m EUA. Establishment of first food technology laboratory in the Bahamas. Gross area 520 m² consisting of a chemical and microbiological laboratory, pilot processing plant, store rooms and offices. Building construction: acc. tender. Equipment and fittings: restr. tender. TA: two food technologists specialist in processing and in standards and quality control. Tenders and award of contract, end '80.

BARBADOS

Oistins fisheries project — Ministry of Agriculture. EDF 0.950 m EUA. Local 0.450 m EUA. Construction of the western complex of the existing fish market, jetty construction, erection of a fish-handling centre, sellers' stalls, shops, 80-vehicle car park and a boat repair yard. Work contracts already awarded. Equipment: int. tender in several lots. Minor equipment: restr. tender or direct agreement.

Integrated rural development of Scotland District, phase 1 — Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated total amount of 8.7 m EUA. Estimated external financing 5.6 m EUA. Request has been made to the IADB to finance 65% of the total cost of the project. EDF assistance is requested for partial financing of the local costs. Objectives: natural resource conservation; improvement of socio-economic well-being of the region; diversification of agricultural output, crop development and afforestation. Project clearly identified, 5th EDF.

BENIN

Djougou-Porga road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Intermittent road improvements over 180 km. Economic study: SEDES Consultant (F). Technical study to be done. Short-list already drawn up. (Works foreseen under 5th project).

Dassa-Parakou road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Reinstatement and asphaltting of the road (210 km). Economic study: SEDES Consultant (F). Technical study to be done. Short-list already drawn up. (Works foreseen under 5th EDF project).

Upgrading of health service infrastructure in Porto Novo Hospital and in Cotonou Maternity Clinic — Ministère de la Santé Publique. Porto Novo: renovation and construction of the hospital building and equipment. Cotonou: construction and equipment of new building. Technical and architectural studies: Cabinet SODOGANDJI Consultant (local). Date foreseen for financial decision, end '80.

Parakou polytechnical complex — Ministère de l'Enseignement Moyen, Général, Technique et Professionnel. Construction of 8 000 m² of pedagogical and administrative buildings and hostels. Supplies and equipment. Studies to be done: (a) Programming; (b) Technical and architectural. Short-list not yet drawn up. Date foreseen for appraisal: 1st quarter 1981; for financial decision 2nd quarter 1981. 5th EDF project.

BURUNDI

Consolidation of tea production — Ministère du Plan. 9 m EUA. To increase productivity and to improve quality production of tea projects previously financed. (Technical

assistance, crop inputs, improvement of infrastructure). Date foreseen for financial decision end 1980.

Institut Universitaire de Sciences de l'Education (IUSE) — Ministère de l'Education Nationale — 0.7 m EUA. Construction and equipment of educational buildings (general teaching classes, laboratories, workshops). Architectural and technical studies: TETRA Consultants (B). Project on appraisal.

Rural development of East Mpanda — Ministère de l'Agriculture. Development of 5 950 ha of land — irrigation, construction of a road network, socio-economic infrastructure, for a population of 5 320 families (of which 3 835 are to be installed). Duration 7 years. Estimate 30.8 mEUA. Cofinanced project. Funding: IFAD 10.5 mEUA — Local 7.0 mEUA — AFDF 6.9 mEUA — EDF 4.3 mEUA — OPEC 1.5 mEUA — PAM 0.6 mEUA. Project clearly identified. 5th EDF.

High altitude foodcrop production — Ministère de l'Agriculture. First phase (4 years), estimate 8.3 mEUA. Cofinanced project. Production of selected seeds, their distribution and commercialization of surplus products, fertilizer and plant-health products, training. Funding: Local 0.4 mEUA — USAID 4.1 mEUA — EDF 3.8 mEUA. Financial agreement between USAID and government signed on April 1980. For EDF: project clearly identified. 5th EDF.

Ngozi-Kayanza hydro-electric power station — Electrogaz. Construction of a hydro-electric station on Ruvubu river (capacity 2.5 MW) and of electric transmission lines (74 km, 30 KV). Estimate 6.61 mEUA. Cofinanced project. Funding: KfW 5.24 mEUA, EDF 1.37 mEUA. Project on appraisal.

CAMEROON

Dibamba bridge (Douala-Yaoundé road) — Ministère de l'Équipement. Estimated cost: 4 mEUA. Project on appraisal.

Extension of Ecole Nationale Supérieure Polytechnique — Ministère de l'Education. Construction of 2 600 m² of pedagogical buildings (EDF part) and construction of 1 500 m² of administrative buildings, plus equipment (GOC part). Estimated cost for EDF 1.5 mEUA, local 1.2 mEUA. Technical and architectural studies: Buban Ngu Design Group Consultant (local). Date foreseen for financial decision, end '80.

Rural development in the North-West Province — Ministry of Agriculture and North-West Cooperative Association. Cofinanced project. Estimated cost: 35 mEUA. Increase of production of agricultural foodstuffs, improvement for professional training of staff of the extension service, rural credit to promote foodcrop development and coffee production, and repairing regional road network. Funding (estimated): EDF 9 mEUA, Local 9.5 mEUA, IFAD 9 mEUA, KfW (D) 7.5 mEUA. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision, end '80.

Transcam — realignment of Eseka-Maloume railway — Office des Chemins de Fer Transcamerounais (OCFT). Geotechnical study: Coyne et Bellier (F). Economical study: Sofrerail — OCCR Inter G (F). Project stage: identification 5th EDF.

CAPE VERDE

Praia water supply and sewerage (urgent part) — Ministère des Travaux Publics. City of Praia. 1.2 mEUA. Improvement of the existing system concerning water supply (limited to present available resources), sewerage (public fountains, wash-houses and lavatories) and town refuse collection. Study: Bureau W.P.W. (D). Works: direct agreements. Equipment: int. tender end '80 or 1st quarter '81. TA: direct agreement.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

Rural development in Ouham — Ministère de l'Agriculture (UCCA — Union Cotonnière Centrafricaine). Int. tender foreseen end '80 for supply of materials for phytosanitary treatments, insecticides and fertilizers. Estimation '79: 1 mEUA. Project in execution.

Improvement to the running of the Société Nationale des Eaux (SNE) — Ministère de l'Équipement des Transports et du Tourisme. 1 mEUA. Supply of valves and meters and TA. Date foreseen for financial decision end '80. Short list not yet drawn up.

DJIBOUTI

Randa drinking water supply — Ministère de l'Agriculture. 0.150 mEUA. Installation of a water supply, town network. Date foreseen for financial decision: end '80.

ETHIOPIA

Health project — Ministry of Health. 4.3 mEUA. Construction and equipping of two rural hospitals and a school for laboratory technicians in Addis Ababa plus the supply of laboratory equipment to the Central Laboratory in Addis Ababa. Studies: architectural design, Norman and Darnbarn (UK). Establishment of list of equipment: Mr V. Welles (UK).

Cotombe—Combolcha power line — Ministry of National Resources and Energy. Construction of a 300 km 135 KV power line. Feasibility study: ACRES (Canada). Study: final design and tender documents: short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

GAMBIA

Artisanal fisheries development — Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Fisheries Dept. 1.485 mEUA. Processing, handling and marketing facilities at Gunjun Beach, preservation and distribution of the fish, improvement of access to fishing centres. Tenders for works and equipment, first quarter 1981.

Brikama College, phase II — Ministry of Works and Communications, Banjul. 1.925 mEUA. Construction and equipment of academic and residential buildings. Works by mutual agreement. Equipment for phase II: int. tender, first quarter 1981.

GHANA

Jema/Enchi rubber project — Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. Feasibility study for the identification of 3 500 hectares of rubber including processing installations. Consultant: IRCA and MANCONSULT (F. and local).

Central and Accra Regions Rural Integrated Programme (CARRIP) — Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. Prefeasibility study for the identification of potential projects within the two regions, with the aim of improving the food situation in Accra and other coastal towns. Consultant Halcrow-ULG (UK).

Oil palm development in Ghana — Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. Study of state farms oil palm plantations as a basis for a possible rehabilitation and development programme (Pretsea excepted). Consultant: Harrison Fleming (UK).

Pretsea oil palm plantation rehabilitation — Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. 7.390 mEUA, EDF 1.910

mEUA, Local 5.480 mEUA. Complete rehabilitation of 4 500 hectares of oil palm plantation and of an existing oil palm extraction mill at Pretsea. Supplies funded by EDF. Int. tender end '80, 1st quarter '81. Works financed by GOG. Restr. tender. TA: Harrison Fleming (UK) selected.

GUINEA

Land development in Kankan et Labé regions — Ministère de l'Agriculture et des F.A.P.A. 2.5 mEUA. Cultivation of 1 000 ha. of hydro-agricultural land by rural development brigades. Project on appraisal.

IVORY COAST

Korogho sewerage — Direction du Drainage et de l'Assainissement de la SETU. 2.57 mEUA, EDF 1.9 mEUA, Local 0.670 mEUA. City centre drainage by a concrete main service system for rainwater and establishing a system to collect solid refuse. Works: contracts already awarded. Equipment to collect solid refuse: int. tender, end '80.

KENYA

Machakos integrated development programme — Ministry of Economic Planning and Community Affairs. 23.140 mEUA. EDF 17.700 mEUA, and Kenya government and farmers' contributions 5.440 mEUA. Main elements are water development (construction of earth dams and other low-technology water schemes), agricultural (crop and livestock) improvement, soil conservation and strengthening of local community institutions and services. Works by acc. tender in 1981 and 1982. Supplies (cotton insecticides and crop inputs) by int. tender 1981/82, 1982/83. TA awarded to Salzgitter Consultant (D). Project in execution.

Geophysical survey (Kerio Valley) — Ministry of Planning. 1.5 mEUA. Survey to identify mineral prospects in the Kerio Valley. Project on appraisal.

LESOTHO

Maseru airport — Ministry of Transport and Communication. Estimation 34 mEUA. Provision of a modern international airport 15 km south of Maseru. Funding (estimated): Lesotho 2.2 mEUA - Saudi Fund 7.4 mEUA - Kuwait Fund 3.1 mEUA - ABEDA 4.4 mEUA - OPEC 2.2 mEUA - Abu Dhabi 0.6 mEUA - ADB 7.7 mEUA. EDF 3.0 mEUA - Project on appraisal. 4th-5th EDF.

LIBERIA

Coffee and cocoa development project at Zwedru and Plahn — Ministry of Agriculture 5.7 mEUA, EDF 2.9 mEUA, Local 2.8 mEUA. To develop 980 hectares of robusta coffee and 1 320 hectares of cocoa in Grand Gedeh and Sinoe countries. Works by restr. tender end '80 — Supplies by int. tender end '80, 1st quarter '81. TA: SATMACI Consultant (Ivory Coast).

MADAGASCAR

Development of coconut palm plantations in Sambava — Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Réforme Agraire. 5.757 mEUA. Creation of 2 000 ha. new plantations. Equipment, crop inputs, infrastructure. Project in execution. Works and equipments: int. tender, 1st quarter '81. Crop inputs (fertilizers and pesticides): int. tender, 1st quarter '81, '82, '83, '84.

Development of Namela Plains — Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Réforme Agraire. Hydro-agricultural development of 700 ha. Study: Bureau SOMEAH-SOGREAH (Local + F). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision: 3rd quarter '81. 5th EDF.

Hydrological study of Basse Betsiboka Plains — Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Réforme Agraire. Study to improve knowledge of Basse Betsiboka hydrology. Estimated cost 0.2 mEUA.

Equipment for six technical schools — Ministère de l'Education. 1.150 mEUA. Supply of equipment to teach science and industrial engineering. Int. tender in '81.

MALAWI

National rural development programme, phase I — Ministry of Agriculture. Integrated rural development programme financed in parallel with other donors. Infrastructural improvement, roads, housing, boreholes. EDF 7.9 mEUA, UK 9.0 mEUA, Germany 5.1 mEUA, IBRD 14.6 mEUA, CIDA 2.0 mEUA, USAID 0.6 mEUA, Local 7.5 mEUA. Project in execution. Int. tender for vehicles and equipment during 1981. T.A.: Huntings Consultant (UK).

Blantyre-Mwanza road — Ministry of Works. Reinstatement and asphaltting of the road (\pm 95 kms). Economical study: Hoff & Overgaard Consultant (DK). Technical study: short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

Chirimba industrial estate — Ministry of Planning. 3.2 mEUA. Provision of land infrastructure for an 80-acre industrial estate. Study: feasibility, design, tender documents, S.W.K. Consultant (UK). Project on appraisal.

MALI

Seed protective device and crop conservation, phase 2 — Ministère du Développement Rural. 1.360 mEUA, EDF 1.040 mEUA, Local 0.320 mEUA. Equipping an industrial workshop to produce insecticides and fungicides, with imported active materials. Works: direct agreement. Equipment: contracts already awarded. Supply of active materials for insecticides: int. tender end '80, 1st quarter 81. TA: short list not yet drawn up. Project in execution.

MAURITANIA

Extension of Kaédi regional hospital — Ministère de l'Équipement. 1.925 mEUA. Construction, equipment and TA for Kaédi hospital (100 beds). Works: direct agreement. Medical-technical equipment: int. tender, 1st quarter '81. TA: short list not yet drawn up.

Aleg-Boghé road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Reinstatement and asphaltting of 62.1 km. Existing technical study for execution, financed by non-EEC aid. Project will be presented for funding 2nd quarter '81. Estimated cost 14.270 mEUA. Co-financed by: Germany 5.611 mEUA, EDF 3.700 mEUA. Works: int. tender after prequalification, end '80.

MAURITIUS

Mauritius housing project — Mauritius Housing Corporation and the Ministry of Housing, Lands, and Town and Country Planning. 3.2 mEUA. Financing (for low income households) of approximately 1 250 housing units. Infrastructure work for urbanisation and service plots: int. tender, mid-1981. Consultancy service: short list not yet drawn up.

NIGER

RN 1 road, Birni N'konni-Guidam Roundji section — Ministère des Travaux. Strengthening maintenance works over 186 km. Study: Inventory, Denzinger Kg, Consultant (D). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financial decision end '80.

Development of modern rice-growing on Niger river — Ministère de l'Agriculture. Office National des Aménagements Hydro-Agricoles (ONAHA). 5.5 mEUA. Development of 375 ha. in fully controlled water to allow double annual rice cultivation. Works and supplies: int. tenders end '80 and '81. Technical supervision and monitoring: short list not yet drawn up.

Mechanized well brigade — Ministère des Mines et de l'Hydraulique. Direction de l'Hydraulique (OFEDS) 1.5 mEUA. Pilot project to drill wells (1.5 m diameter) in relatively soft soils up to 60-80 m. deep. Purchase of sink equipment: int. tender in 1981. TA: short list not yet drawn up.

Main lines for regional development of areas affected by Kandedji Dam — Ministère des Travaux Publics, des transports et de l'urbanisme. Consultancy service (study): Main lines. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Development of beef and veal production — Ministry of Agriculture. 1.9 mEUA. Project to consider possibilities to develop cooperative ranch. Study to define project: Bureau Hunting (UK). Project on appraisal.

Foodstuffs production on the south coast — Department of Primary Industry. Development of seasonal cultivation and marketing. Technical and economic studies. Definition of the project: Produce Studies Ltd. Consultant (UK). Project on appraisal.

RWANDA

Bugesera water supply — Ministère du Plan. Construction of a drinking-water network in Bugesera. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

ST VINCENT AND GRENADINES

Union Island clinic — Ministry of Health. Estimated 0.350 mEUA. To improve health care at the remote Union Island by establishing a new clinic (total gross area \pm 400 m²) and also housing accommodation for the staff (\pm 300 m²). Studies: design and tender documents: Tomlin, Voss Associates (Local). Project on appraisal, 5th EDF.

Improvement of the general hospital at Kingstown — Ministry of Health. Estimated 1.540 mEUA. Follow-up of phase 1 financed from 4th EDF. New extension. Studies. Master plan for the extension: Watkins, Gray Woodgate (UK). Final design and tender documents: short-list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal, 5th EDF.

SENEGAL

Tobor gravel road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Upgrading and surfacing of 7 km. Study: execution, Bureau Geoprogetti (I). Date foreseen for financial decision, end '80.

SIERRA LEONE

Forest resources development in Sierra Leone — Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Feasibility study in order to analyse the forest resources and submit proposals for their further development. Study: Consultant Atlanta (D).

North-western integrated agricultural development project — Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Four-year integrated programme to develop mangrove swamps, upland crops, coastal fishing, infrastructure. Project on appraisal.

Koinadugu integrated agricultural development project — Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. 7 080 mEUA, EDF 5.9 mEUA, local 1.180 mEUA. Four-year integrated programme to develop inland swamps, upland crops, livestock sector, infrastructure, marketing and credit system. Works: restr. tender, end 1980. Supplies: int. tender, 1981 and 1982. T.A.: Carl Bro International (DK).

Support for existing educational institutions — Ministry of Education. 2 050 mEUA. Water and electricity supply and equipment for Njala University College, building and equipment of additional hostel accommodation at several teacher training colleges. Njala University: works for water supply, int. tender 2nd quarter 1981—agricultural equipment: int. tender, 3rd quarter 1981. Teacher training colleges—building works: int. tender, 2nd quarter 1981.

SOMALIA

Saakow rural experimental centre. — Ministry of Agriculture. Creation of an irrigated area (60 ha) with all facilities and equipment. Aim: agronomical experiments. Study: Bureau Nuovo Castoro (I). Project on appraisal.

Development of Golwein-Bulo Mererta rural area. — Ministry of Agriculture. Hydro-agricultural land improvement (600 ha) for seasonal cultivation. Study: Bureau AGROTEC (I). Project stage: identification.

Bardheera Dam. — Bardheera Dam Authority (BDA). 433 mEUA. (Estimated) Dam project 349 mEUA. Powerline to Mogadishu 84 mEUA. Funding: EDF 44 mEUA, Italy 36 mEUA, Germany 32 mEUA, France 18 mEUA, Saudi Arabia 18 mEUA, Local 20 mEUA. Total 168 mEUA. Present lack of funds of 265 mEUA will be made up by Arab bilateral and multilateral funds during 1981. Power and river regulation for agricultural development. Construction of a concrete gravity dam with hydro-power station, associated infrastructure and electrical transmission lines. The dam will provide water, flood protection and power for up to 233 000 ha of irrigated agriculture in the Juba Valley, and energy to Mogadishu. Consultancy services: restr. tend. procedure. Contract award: COYNE et BELLIER (F). In a second stage 5th EDF Project the consultant will supervise construction. Civil works: first int. tender during 1982. Transmission lines: int. tender in 1982. Equipment: powerhouse main equipment and auxiliary equipment, int. tenders in 1983. Gates, valves, intake equipment, int. tender in 1984.

SUDAN

Jebel Marra rural development project — Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources. 15.043 mEUA. EDF 11 mEUA. Local 4.043 mEUA. Agricultural extension and improvement of rural infrastructure (road improvement and maintenance, forestry programme, community development programme). Works: project building, and houses (new + rehabilitation) int. tender, last quarter '80, first quarter '81. Supplies: vehicles, trucks, animal cultivation equipment, fur-

nishings, int. tenders in 80, 1981 to 1983. TA: Hunting Technical Services Ltd (UK). Project in execution.

Awel rice development project — Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources of the Southern Region. 5.747 mEUA. EDF 4.4 mEUA. Local 1.347 mEUA. Project comprises the initial, 2 1/2 year phase of an overall project for the development of an area of 2,865 ha, suitable for irrigated rice production under full water control. Works: contracts already awarded. Supplies: vehicles and equipment and agricultural inputs: int. tenders 1981. TA: Euroconsult b.v. (N). Project in execution.

Nuba Mountains rural development project — Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources. 6.650 mEUA. EDF 5.5 mEUA. Local 1.150 mEUA. Introduction of improved farming techniques and systems in two nucleus development centres of the Nuba Mountains region. Works: contracts already awarded. Supplies: vehicles, furniture and animal traction equipment, int. tenders end '80, 1981, 1982. TA: SATEC Consultant (F). Project in execution.

Gum arabic development — Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources. Rehabilitation of gum arabic production in the Sudanese gum belt (including production and marketing aspects). Preliminary study to be carried out: Gum arabic development in North Kordofan Province. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

Upper Talanga tea project — Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources. 8.350 mEUA. Establishment over 10 years of a 1 000 ha tea plantation in Eastern Equatoria Province of the Southern Region. Phase 1 '77-'81. Phase 2 beginning 2nd quarter '81. Factory, access road, project buildings and houses, vehicles, equipment and technical assistance. Works: tea factory (turn-key project) int. tender end '80. Supplies: land development equipment, int. tender end '80. TA: Agrar und Hydrotechnik (D). Contracts for buildings, houses and vehicles already awarded. Project in execution.

Juba airport — Civil Aviation Department. 21.5 mEUA. EDF 16.3 mEUA. Local 5.2 mEUA. Construction of a new airport. Consultant: Bureau NACO (N). Works: Int. tender, 1st quarter 1981.

University of Juba, phase II — Ministry of Education. 7 mEUA additional facilities on the new campus for a capacity of about 400 students: 3 hostels, (1 100 m² each) dining hall and kitchen (360 m²), 3 college buildings (1 850 m²), 21 staff houses (each 170 m²). Works including infrastructure for water, sewerage and electricity: int. tender in 1981. Equipment: int. tender in 1982. Work supervision: short list not yet drawn up.

Four higher secondary technical schools — Ministry of Education. 6.3 mEUA. Renovation and new constructions of four existing schools, each with a capacity of 324 students. Works contracts already awarded. Equipment: int. tender in 1981. Project in execution.

Juba-Laboni road study — Ministry of Public Works. Technical study and design for improvement of ± 106 km. feeder road in Southern Sudan. Short list already drawn up.

SWAZILAND

Teacher training college at Nhangano — Ministry of Works. 2.5 mEUA. Construction and equipping of a full residential teacher training college with a capacity of 400 students. Works: contracts already awarded. Supervision: Con-

sultant Design + Planning International DPI (Local). Equipment: Int. tender 1st half 1981. Project in execution.

TANZANIA

Coffee improvement programme — Coffee Authority of Tanzania (CAT). 25.434 mEUA. EDF 12.677 mEUA. Local 12.757 mEUA. To increase quantity and quality of coffee production in the main coffee areas of Tanzania by improving the extension services, supply of farm inputs, provision of training facilities, renovation of central pulperies and road improvement. Works: Contracts already awarded. Supplies: nature of tenders to be decided but launched on 1st half of 1981. TA: Mr. Maxwell (UK). Project in execution.

Coffee improvement programme phase 2 — Coffee Authority of Tanzania (CAT). Extension and intensification of the activities promoted under the phase 1. The programme will cover improvements in production (through extension services, inputs, supply), roads and storage facilities. CAT will itself prepare the phase 2 project. Project stage: identification, 5th EDF.

Agricultural development project in Iringa region — Iringa Regional Development Directorate. 6.5 mEUA. To increase agricultural productivity in the Iringa Region, through strengthening of the extension services, improvement of infrastructure and supply of farm inputs. Works: contracts awarded. TA: Agrar und Hydrotechnik (D). Supplies: driers for pyrethrum, int. tender first half of 1981. Project in execution.

Iringa integrated rural development, phase 2 — Iringa Regional Development Directorate. To extend and intensify the activities currently being carried out under phase 1. Main elements are strengthening of extension services, provision of farm inputs, extension of the oxen cultivation programme, improvements of the road system and promotion of animal production. Study: project preparation, Agrar und Hydrotechnik (D). Project stages: identification, 5th EDF.

Lusahunga-Bukambe road — Ministry of Works. 20 mEUA. Bitumen road of 127 km. Works: Int. tender last quarter 1980. Supervision of works: restr. tender last quarter 1980.

Technical teacher training college, Mtwara — Ministry of Education. 1.4 mEUA. Training facilities for technical teachers. Classrooms, laboratory and workshops, dormitories and sanitary block, administration. Total area 3 765 m². Works: contracts awarded. Equipment: int. tender with possibility of restr. tender or direct agreement depending on nature of supply. Supplies: restr. tender. Project in execution.

TOGO

Cattle-raising in palm plantation — Ministère du Développement Rural. 1.136 mEUA, EDF 0.884 mEUA, Local 0.252 mEUA. Stock-farming under palms to improve meat production and to make industrial palm plantation maintenance easier. Study: project plans, Bureau SOTED (Local). Works: direct labour. Supplies: vehicles, int. tender 1981. Supplies, equipment and cattle purchase: direct agreement. Date foreseen for financial decision: end '80. Project on appraisal.

Adele Ranch — Ministère du Développement Rural. 3.207 mEUA, EDF 2.788 mEUA, Local 0.419 mEUA. Establishment

of a cattle ranch for local supply of oxen, improved heifers and breeding bulls, surplus for local slaughter and market. Works: direct labour. Supply: graders and vehicles, int. tender end '80, 1st quarter '81. TA: short list not yet drawn up. Project in execution.

UGANDA

Agricultural rehabilitation studies — Ministry of Agriculture. 0.250 mEUA. To provide basis for financing proposal concerning four agro-industrial sectors: tea, coffee, seeds and cotton. Studies: Booker Agriculture International (UK).

Rehabilitation of poultry farming — Ministry of Animal Industry. 0.500 mEUA. Supply of equipment, one-day chicks and female chicks. Works and equipment: direct agreement. Supply of chicks and female chicks: int. tender end 1980 or first quarter 1981. Project in execution.

Kampala-Masaka road — Ministry of Works and Housing. 5 mEUA. Repair and asphaltting of 60 km and supervision of works. Works: int. tender in 1981. Supervision of works: short list not yet drawn up.

Nutritional rehabilitation centres — Ministry of Health and Ministry of Works. 1.100 mEUA. To improve health care in rural areas and to reduce malnutrition (particularly widespread among children). Contribution and equipping of 10 centres. Supply of 30 vehicles for health inspectors. Works: acc. tender. Supply: int. tender. Project in execution.

UPPER VOLTA

Stock-farming in Hauts Bassins and Comaé ORD — Ministère de l'Agriculture (Direction services élevages). 1.961 mEUA. Improvement of traditional breeding conditions and continued development of animal-drawn tillage. Various works and supplies: direct agreement. Supply of means of transport: int. tender, 1st quarter '81. TA: short list not yet drawn up.

ZAIRE

Completion of the Butuhé tea-project — Département de l'Agriculture. (Commission Agricole du Kivu). 3.030 mEUA. Extension of 100 ha tea plantation and upgrading of nearby ground to install a small power station. Works: plantation by direct labour. Power station: acc. int. tender end '80. Supplies: equipment for power station: int. tender end '80. TA and supervision of works: ILACO Consultant (N).

Cotton improvement programme — Département de l'Agriculture (Caisse de Stabilisation Cotonnière). Estimated cost 8 m EUA. To place financial means at disposal of Caisse de Stabilisation and cotton—mills to provide equipment, spare parts, vehicles, insecticides, fertilizers. Supplies: partially int. tender, partially direct agreement, 1st quarter 1981. Financial decision: end 1980.

Extension of Kinoise market garden's — Département de l'Agriculture (Centres des Produits maraichers: CECOMAF). Estimated cost 7.9 mEUA. EDF 4.5 mEUA, FAC and local 3.4 mEUA. Development of three valley floors to grow vegetables and fruit. Area 3 000 ha, of which 185 ha intensive cultivation and pisciculture and 584 ha orchards, rest for protection. Works: acc. int. tender 1st half 1981. Sup-

plies: in. tender and direct agreement, 1st half 1981, TA: FAC (F). Financial decision end 1980.

Akula-Gemena road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Upgrading and asphaltting of the road (115 km). Economic study: Bureau SPE (local). Technical study to be done. Short list already drawn up. Project on appraisal 5th EDF.

Gosuma oil-palm factor — Département de l'Agriculture. Palmeraies du Zaïre (PALMEZA). 8 mEUA. EDF 7 mEUA, Local 1 mEUA. Building of an oil palm factory in Gosuma. Initial capacity 20 T bunches/hour and later 30 T/hour. Works and supplies: direct agreement after restr. tender. Restr. tender end '80, first quarter '81. Supervision of works and management: direct agreement after restr. tender. Restr. tender already made (contract will be awarded to a local consultant specialized in the sector).

Regional Projects

BELIZE

Caricom grains project, pilot farm — Caribbean Development Bank. Development of 400 pilot farm. Estimate 2.145 mEUA. EDF 1.826 mEUA. Works: acc. tender 1st quarter '81. Supplies: equipment and vehicles: acc. tender 2nd quarter '81.

CARIBBEAN REGION

Assistance to Caribbean Development Bank — Caribbean Development Bank (1.06 mEUA). Pilot schemes and studies. TA for studies in agriculture and fisheries. Mutual agreement: end '80, first quarter '81.

FIJI — TONGA — WESTERN SAMOA

Tonga airport — Public Works Department. 0.600 mEUA. Supply of technical equipment, training and maintenance. Int. tender end 1980.

University of the South Pacific—agricultural and marine resources programme — South Pacific Bureau for Economic Cooperation (SPEC) 3.2 mEUA. Buildings and teaching facilities, vehicles and small vessels, technical assistance and programme finance for: development of Marine Resources Centre, Fiji—Rural Development Centre, Tonga—Applied Agricultural Research Programme, Western Samoa. Contracts for work and equipment already awarded. T.A. for Fiji: four man years in marine biology and fishing technology from Europe and study programme assistance. For Tonga: five man years for the centre director and technologist and study programme assistance. For Western Samoa: four man years in plant breeding and agricultural economics. Short lists not yet drawn up.

COMMISSION DU FLEUVE NIGER (CFN) IN NIAMEY

Hydrological forecast system of river Niger basin — CFN. 6.8 mEUA. EDF 1.5 mEUA, UNDP, OPEC, CFN, member states 5.3 mEUA. To provide CFN possibilities to take hydrological dates on the whole Niger basin. Supplies:

hydrometrical instruments, means of transport, equipment for teletransmission, supplies, int. tender end-1980. TA: supplied by Organisation Mondiale Météorologique (UNDP funds), direct agreement.

WEST AFRICA REGIONAL PROJECT

Regional project to improve millet, sorghum and niébes — CILSS. Institut du Sahel, Bamako (Mali). Estimated cost 3 mEUA. To test in various trial centres results from rural research institutes. Project on appraisal.

SENEGAL — GUINEA

Tambacounda-Labe road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Upgrading and asphaltting of the road (455 km). Economic study: SONED (SE). Technical study to be done. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

SOMALIA — DJIBOUTI

Somalia-Djibouti Road Link — Ministère du Plan. Economic study: Economic Consultant (UK). Technical study to be done. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

SUDAN — KENYA

Juba-Lodwar road — Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 17 mEUA, EDF 10 mEUA, USAID 7 mEUA. Contribution for bridge-building and intermittent improvements over 655 km of gravel road. Project on appraisal.

CAMEROUN — CONGO — GABON — EQUATORIAL GUINEA — SAO TOME PRINCIPE

Regional study on sea fishing in the Bay of Guinea — Direction des Pêches of the five countries. Inventory of fish resources. Marketing. Juridical evaluation—situation and future prospects. Consultant: SCET international (F). Study to be done: evaluation campaign by echo-integration on pelagic coastal fauna. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

Countries acceding to Lomé Convention

VANUATU

Project to develop stock-farming in the Melanesian milieu — Ministry of Agriculture. 1.762 mEUA, EDF 0.900 mEUA, Local 0.862 mEUA. Increasing livestock production and improving marketing throughout the archipelago. T.A.: direct agreement, last quarter 1980. Agricultural equipment: int. tender 1st quarter '81.

Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT)

MAGHREB — MASHRAQ

BELIZE

Animal health laboratory — Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Public Works. 0.400 mEUA. To improve the existing veterinary investigation service. Works: direct labour. Equipment: int. tender end 1980. 2 vehicles: direct agreement. Project in execution.

Three junior secondary schools — Ministry of Education and Ministry of Works. 1.250 mEUA. Technical and practical skills in rural areas. Classroom blocks, workshop blocks, principal's house. Works: direct labour. Supplies: furniture and equipment, restr. tender or direct agreement. Project in execution.

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Curaçao Slaughterhouse — Ministry of Planning. 2.7 mEUA. Construction of a new slaughterhouse, general and technical facilities, cattle boxes. Final design and tender document: Consultant Janga (Local). Works: int. tender 1981. Equipment: int. tender end '81. Works supervision: short list not yet drawn up.

St Martin Airport — Ministry of Public Works. Construction of new air terminal. Study and works. Study: execution, Flughafen Frankfurt (D). Financial decision end '80.

FRENCH POLYNESIA

Tahiti territorial abattoir — Service de l'Economie Rurale, Papeete (Tahiti). Secrétariat d'Etat des Départements et Territoires d'Outre-Mer, Délégation de la Polynésie Française, Paris. 0.850 mEUA, EDF 0.730 mEUA, Ministère Français de l'Agriculture 0.120 mEUA. Modern abattoir to replace old slaughterhouses and improve hygienic conditions for meat provisioning. Capacity 2 000 cattle and 13 000 pigs per year. Study: expert to verify technical dossier drawn up by administration. Short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal.

REUNION

Hydro-agricultural development of Bras de Cilaos — Ministère de l'Agriculture. 2.650 mEUA. Installations of a first section of water-supply network. Supplies and duct-laying and accessories, int. tend. end '80.

WALLIS and FUTUNA ISLANDS

Poi-Tuatafa track — Administration territoriale. 0.665mEUA. Construction of a track suitable for motor vehicles, 8.4 km. Works: acc. tender end '80. Supplies: int. tender end '80.

Mata Utu road system — Administration territoriale. 0.850 mEUA. Local roads and drainage road system. Total length 10 km of which 2 km to be asphalted. Works: acc. int. tender end '80.

ALGERIA

Livestock development study for vine-growing reconversion areas — Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Révolution Agraire. 0.095 mEUA. Possibilities for development of dairy cattle. Study to determine project contents: SCET International (F). Projects stage: identification.

Study for artificial insemination development in Algeria — Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Révolution Agraire. 0.080 mEUA. Study to establish an artificial insemination service. Short list already drawn up. Project on appraisal.

EGYPT

Soil improvement programme in Kafre-el-Sheikh Governorate — Executive Authority for Land Improvement Projects (EALIP). Provisional amount 9-14 mEUA. To reclaim an area of 65 000 acres of saline soil, located in Hamoul district of the Kafre-el-Sheikh Governorate. Feasibility study of the project: Euro Consult (N). Project on appraisal.

Improvement of agricultural input storage facilities in the Daghalla Governorate — Principal Bank for Development and Agricultural Credit. Provisional amount 4.5-8 mEUA. Feasibility study of the project: Berlin Consult (D). Project on appraisal.

Preliminary study on the export potential of Egyptian products — Egyptian Promotion Centre. 0.025 mEUA. First phase, selection of a limited number of products or groups of products with the biggest export potential and to draw up exact terms of reference for the main study. Short list already drawn up. Report due end '80. Main study due 1st quarter 1981. Short list not yet drawn up. Results of the preliminary study will determine amount to be allocated for main study.

JORDAN

Assistance to the Jordan Valley Farmers' Association — Provisional amount 1.5 mEUA. National Planning Council (NPC) and Jordan Valley Farmers' Association (JVFA). To assist the JVFA in the implementation of an agricultural machinery repair and servicing centre, and a vegetable seedling propagation unit. Study: feasibility of the project, Minster Agriculture Int. (UK). Project on appraisal.

1 Secondary Industrial School (SIS) — National Planning Council (NPC) and Ministry of Education. EEC 0.950 mEUA. School for technical education at secondary level at Mafraq. Buildings to be financed by Jordan. Training and T.A. programmes also. Study: to identify and define project, Tema Consultant (I). Date foreseen for financial decision, end 1980. Project on appraisal.

2 Trade Training Centres (TTC) — National Planning Council (NPC) and Vocational Training Corporation. Cost estimate 1.650 mEUA for EEC. The TTCs offer apprenticeship in cooperation with local trade and industry. One TTC for about 400 boys at Zarqa. One TTC for about 400 girls in Amman. Buildings to be financed by Jordan. Training and T.A. programmes also. Study to identify and define project,

TEMA Consultant (I). Date for financial decision, end 1980. Project on appraisal.

MOROCCO

National laboratory for the production of veterinary vaccines — Direction de l'Élevage du Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Réforme Agraire. 2.255 mEUA, EEC 1.980 mEUA, Local 0.275 mEUA. Financing of equipment, installations, supplies and the raw materials for a veterinary laboratory for the production of veterinary vaccines. Works: completion and adaptation of the existing buildings, mutual agreement contract. All material, equipment and raw materials, int. tender in 1981.

Nador and Safi water supply — Office National de l'Eau Potable (ONEP). Ministère de l'Équipement et de la Promotion Nationale. Estimated cost 20.890mEUA, EEC 15.5 mEUA, Local and Saudi Fund for Development 5.390 mEUA. SAFI: water supply extension, partly service main, partly treatment and pumping station. NADOR: Regional water supply realization, service mains and treatment and pumping station. Works and supplies except pumping station and electrical connections: several int. tenders end of 1980.

TUNISIA

Sewerage scheme for 17 towns — Office National d'Assainissement (ONAS). Estimated cost 40 mEUA, EEC 24 mEUA, local 16 mEUA. Improvement of the sewerage system (mainly for sewerage and rainwater) for 17 towns. Service mains extension, building of purification stations. Study: to define programmes and prepare the implementation project. Short list already drawn up. Funding phase 1 end 1980 (12 mEUA). Phase 2: 2nd quarter 1981 (12 mEUA). Project on appraisal.

Non-associated developing countries

ASEAN

Regional collaborative study on aquaculture — The ASEAN Committee on Food, Agriculture and Forestry (COFAF). EEC 0.300 mEUA. To assess the present and future potential of rural aquaculture in the ASEAN countries, and in particular study means of developing existing applied research training and extension facilities in this field. Contract will be awarded by mutual agreement to a mixed team composed of ASEAN and EEC experts. Last quarter of 1980.

ASEAN DEVELOPMENT BANK (ADB)

TA Programme through the ADB. — ADB—EEC 1.200 mEUA—Research and evaluation of agricultural projects in ADB member countries. Consultancy services (studies) contract awarded according to ADB procedures. Selection of consultants end 1980.

BANGLADESH

Tea rehabilitation project — Bangladesh Tea Board (BTB). EEC 6.6 mEUA, UK and Local 55.680 mEUA. Purchase of machinery for tea factories. Call for quotation in EEC member states and Indian subcontinent in last quarter 1980.

Emergency food grain storage — Ministry of Food. EEC 8 mEUA. Construction of flat grain storage buildings in six different locations to store approximately 32 000 tons of grain. Works: restr. tender May 1981. Supply of building materials (cement and steel) int. tender December 1980. TA and local consultancy, mutual agreement, November '80 and January '81.

PAKISTAN

Baluchistan livestock development — Provincial Government of Baluchistan. The Department of Fisheries and Livestock. The Baluchistan Development Authority. EEC 6.7 mEUA, ADB 5.8 mEUA, Local 1.4 mEUA. Development of rangeland for sheep and goat production, construction of kid and lamb fattening units at selected locations, development of the dairy sector, establishment of local vaccine production, construction of a feedmill, training and consultancy services. Works, supplies and consultancy services, int. tenders. Dates unknown. Project managed by ADB.

INDIA

Cyclone and flood protection project, Orissa — Ministry of Finance. EEC 1.5 mEUA. Miscellaneous works to increase security in cyclone and flood-prone areas (reafforestation, drainage sluice, anti-erosion works, helicopter landing places, elevated platforms and shelters). Works: direct labour or restr. tender, end 1980.

Flood protection project, West Bengal — Ministry of Finance, Government of India. EEC 3 mEUA. Construction of 85 flood protection shelters on elevated earth platforms. Design and production of a rescue boat. Works and development of a rescue boat: restr. tender, end 1980.

NEPAL

Livestock project — Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Development Bank of Nepal. EEC 2.2. mEUA. ADB, Australia, UNDP. Local 9 mEUA. Upgrading of animal health facilities and development of livestock production and marketing in two specific areas. Building and civil works: intern. tender. Date unknown. Project managed by ADB.

THAILAND

Cooperation training and marketing — National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) and Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Cooperation (BAAC). EEC 3.037 mEUA. To provide training facilities for the personnel of agricultural cooperatives and equipment for cooperative marketing unit. int. tender end 1980.

Rubber smallholdings yield improvement — Rubber Research Centre (RCC). Ministry of Agriculture and

Cooperatives. EEC 1.8 mEUA, Local 1.8 mEUA. To introduce and popularize new tapping techniques to improve the yield of old rubber trees before their felling. TA by direct agreement. Supplies: modalities of tenders to be agreed between EEC Commission and government. Tenders in mid '81, '82, '83, '84.

Interim Mekong Committee

Technical assistance to the Mekong Secretariat — Mekong Secretariat. EEC 0.400 mEUA. To place at the disposal of the Mekong Secretariat two irrigation specialists during two years, including operating expenditure. TA by advertisement. Advertisement issued. Operating expenditure (vehicles purchase, office furniture) by direct agreement.

LAOS

Seedling propagation centres — Department of Agriculture. Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Hydrology. Mekong Committee Secretariat. EEC 2.9 mEUA, local 0.800 mEUA. To establish six seedling propagation centres and to rehabilitate the agronomical research centre of Hat-Dok-Keo to supply selected seeds for the irrigated areas of Mekong plains. Works: direct labour. Supplies: modalities to be agreed between EEC Commission and government. TA by advertisement in member states newspapers, end 1980.

INDONESIA

Pilot project on integrated soya and foodcrops development in Sumatra — DG for economic, social and cultural relations (Department of Foreign Affairs). EEC 4 mEUA, Local 1.4 mEUA. To investigate the feasibility of arable cropping (mainly soya) and establish a seed multiplication centre in Jambi Province (Sumatra). TA: contract awarded. Works: direct labour. Supplies: int. tender or restr. tender to be determined end 1980.

S.E. Sulawesi transmigration and area development project — Directorate General of Transmigration. EEC 3 mEUA. Islamic Development Bank, Local 44.943 mEUA. Contribution to a settlement programme consisting of studies for future development and local costs for housing, land irrigation, roads. Consultancy services (studies) restr. tender. Contracts already awarded (to be confirmed by ADB).

SRI LANKA

Mahaweli Ganga development — Mahaweli Development Board (MDB). Integrated rural development project. 43 000 ha area with a population of 140 000. Priority to food crops development. EEC 2 mEUA, IDA 87.2 mEUA (joint funding EEC-IDA, IBRD, UK, N, Canada, USA). EEC contribution for social infrastructure and civil works. Modalities: World Bank procedures.

Integrated rural development in the Mahaweli Ganga region — Mahaweli Development Board (MDB). Estimated cost 9 mEUA, EEC 2 mEUA. Development of 2 326 ha irrigated land and rehabilitation of 1 910 ha deteriorated land. Socio-economical infrastructure to allow settlement of 12 000 rural families. TA: FAO implementation not yet started because Sri Lanka authorities have asked for revision of certain project components and have still not signed tripartite agreement with EEC and FAO.

Eastern Region rehabilitation project — Ministry of Coconut Industries. EEC 3 mEUA, Italy 0.375 mEUA, small UK and FAO contributions, balance up to 7 mEUA financed by Sri Lanka government. Rehabilitation of coconut plantations devastated by a cyclone and diversification of agriculture in the same region. Feasibility study financed by Italian bilateral aid executed by AGROTEC (I). Works: direct labour. Supplies: modalities for tenders to be determined, first quarter '81.

International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) — Manila (Philippines)

Research support 1980 — IRRI. Estimated total amount 11.6 mEUA, EEC 1mEUA Parallel co-financing with the framework of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), EEC contribution: water management, scholarships and the Genetic Evaluation and Utilization Programme (GEU). Project managed by IRRI.

ICRISAT — Institute of Crops Research in the Semi-Arid Tropics — Hyderabad (India)

Research support 1980 — ICRISAT. Estimated total amount 6.2 mEUA, EEC 0.8 mEUA. Parallel co-financing CGIAR. EEC contribution: research and training on the pulses improvement programme. Project managed by ICRISAT.

YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC (YAR)

Resource investigation for agricultural planning in the Wadi Rasyan Basin — Tihama Development Authority, Ministry of Agriculture. Studies concerning physical characteristics, natural resources and potentialities of Wadi Rasyan Basin and preparation of first development plan. Studies: Consultant DHV (N).

GRUPO ANDINO

Estudio Integral de la Madera para la Construcción (Integral study on wood for construction) — Junta de Acuerdo de Cartagena (JUNAC), Lima (Peru). EEC 2.100 mEUA. Three sub-projects: 1. Research programme on wood technology and engineering for construction. 2. Study of alternative construction materials derived from wood. 3. Study of social housing pilot projects using wood as construction materials. Project managed by JUNAC.

CIP — Centro Internacional de la Papa. International Potato Centre, Lima (Peru) — EEC 0.5 mEUA. Parallel co-financing within the framework of CGIAR. EEC contribution: programme components with a view to the creation of regional better-adapted potatoes, to nematode and insect control and to regional research and training. Project managed by CIP.

CIAT — Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical, Cali (Colombia)

Research support 1980 — CIAT. Estimated total amount 10 mEUA, EEC 1 mEUA. Parallel co-financing within the framework of CGIAR. EEC contribution: bean and cassava improvement programme. Project managed by CIAT. ○

with a new way of organizing the world's oceans, one which includes food, transport, industry, energy, raw materials, external trade, strategy, the environment and ever-expanding scientific research in the name of which unilateral appropriation is made.

It is impossible to get a clear idea of this attempt to set up a new international maritime order and of the ways and means at its disposal without looking at the specific, particular nature of the countries involved. The sea concerns them all.

The specific nature of the individual countries depends on how they stand in relation to the sea, situations which may be subjective or objective, and it can lead to confrontations, which in turn gives rise to agreement or disagreement.

The aim of this study which, with its various (geographical, economic, sociological and legal) approaches, perhaps goes beyond a certain form of international speech, is to get to the heart of the behaviour of nations and nationalists, of the "states in situation" and the "states in confrontation" and to get at the truth which may sometimes upset accepted notions of the international scene in the last quarter of the twentieth century.

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Charles GRASSELLY & Patrice GROSSA-RAYNAUD—*L'Amandier* (The almond tree—Preface by Ramon Estervelas—Editions G.P. Maisonneuve & Larose, 15, rue Victor-Cousin, 75005 Paris, France — 452 pages — FF 193 — 1980.

After the success of *L'Olivier*, the first prize-winning title in this series, this is another advanced scientific work, on the almond tree. The authors' experience and qualifications have made this well-illustrated book a particularly useful work of reference which will be vital to anyone involved in growing this tree or selling its products.

Ramon Esteruelas, head of the CIHEAM (the international centre for advanced Mediterranean agricultural studies) has written the preface.

All the works in the *Techniques agricoles et productions Méditerranéennes* collection will be important additions to the libraries of agricultural practitioners, economists, teachers and others interested in agricultural production and in integrating it into the

development of the Mediterranean basin or similar ecological areas.

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Dr Joseph WAYAS—*Nigeria's leadership role in Africa*—The Macmillan Press Ltd — 122 pages — 729 BF — 1979

When someone enunciates political ideas and later finds himself in a position of power or of immense political influence, he can hardly escape the attention of both his critics and admirers, and Dr Joseph Wayas should know it.

A member of the constituent Assembly which drafted the constitution on which the present civilian government in Nigeria works and now president of the Senate, the upper House of Parliament which plays a crucial role in the conduct of Nigeria's foreign policy, Dr Wayas wrote *Nigeria's leadership role in Africa* before his ascent to high office.

In the coming years, many will be watching to see if some or all of what he says in the book shows up in Nigeria's foreign policy.

That Africa today is the cynosure of Nigeria's foreign relations is certainly not due to Dr Wayas. The overthrow of the Gowon regime in 1975 and the advent to power of the late General Murtala Mohammed gave effect to what Dr Wayas describes as "pleas by many Africans that Nigeria should exert herself more forcefully in the affairs of the continent, in a way commensurate with her population and natural resources".

The Angolan civil war provided the first major test of will and of influence, when Nigeria's intervention swung African opinion in favour of the MPLA against FNLA/UNITA and their US and South African allies, thus bringing to a speedy conclusion a war that would otherwise have been protracted.

Nigeria's leadership of back Africa is now an accepted fact. What Dr Wayas has attempted in this book is a detailed analysis of this position and how Nigeria can contribute in the search for a new international economic order and the struggle for freedom in southern Africa.

There has, however, been a change of government in Nigeria recently and as with all changes of government, changes in policy or at least in style are expected. However, with men like Dr Wayas in position of influence, the possibility of Nigeria succumbing to "external intimidation", particularly with regard to southern Africa, is very remote.

Dr Wayas manifests a perspicacious understanding of international organizations, most of which he believes are not in the interest of Africa; but the role he feels that Nigeria should play in this regard suggests an overestimation of Nigeria's "financial and intellectual" resources.

Dr Wayas feels, for example, that Nigeria should set up "a separate independent institute whose primary concern should be to monitor all specialized international agencies.

"The institute should be able to compile information on these agencies and make such information available to other African countries who may need it, either before or after joining such an agency". Keen students of Nigerian and African affairs would wonder whether there is not a need for Nigeria to set her own house in order first before contemplating helping others.

Besides, there is no way of knowing whether these "other African countries" actually need or would appreciate such services. The book nevertheless remains informative and forthright. It is not an overstatement to say that it is one of the best to come out of Africa in recent years. ○

<p>THE COURIER</p> <p>AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC — EUROPEAN COMMUNITY</p> <p>PUBLISHER</p> <p>Jean Durieux</p> <p>Commission of the European Communities</p> <p>200, rue de la Loi 1049-BRUSSELS (Belgium)</p> <p>Tel. 7350040 — 7358040 Telex COMEURBRU 21877</p>	<p>EDITOR</p> <p>Alain Lacroix</p> <p>DEPUTY EDITOR</p> <p>Lucien Pagni</p> <p>ASSISTANT EDITORS</p> <p>Barney Trench Roger De Backer Ian Piper Amadou Traoré Augustine Oyowé</p> <p>Secretariat</p> <p>Colette Grélet (ext. 4784) Mary Beatty (ext. 7587)</p> <p>Circulation</p> <p>Monica N. Becquart (ext. 6367)</p>
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