

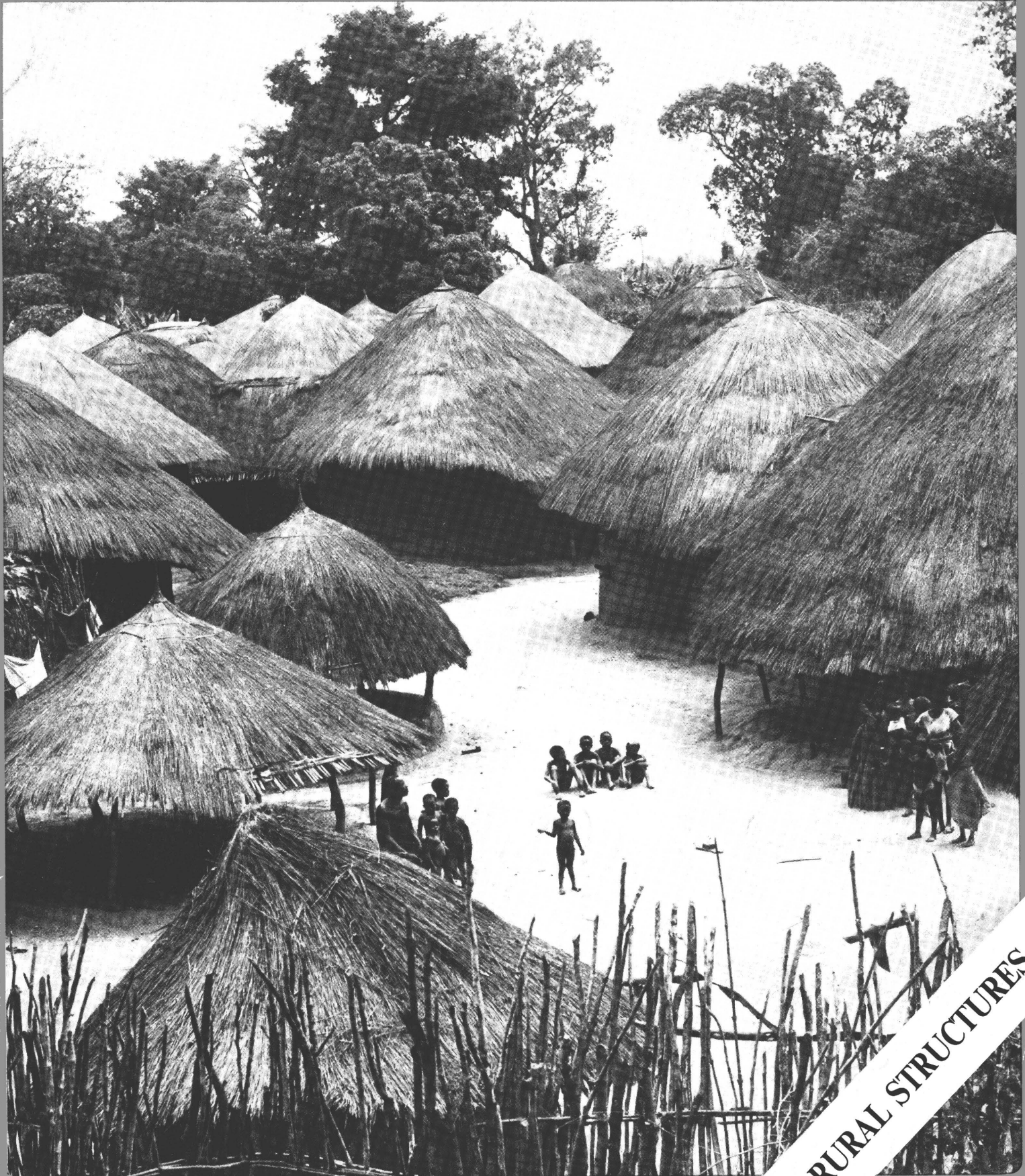


The Courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC - EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Published every two months

N° 99 - SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 1986



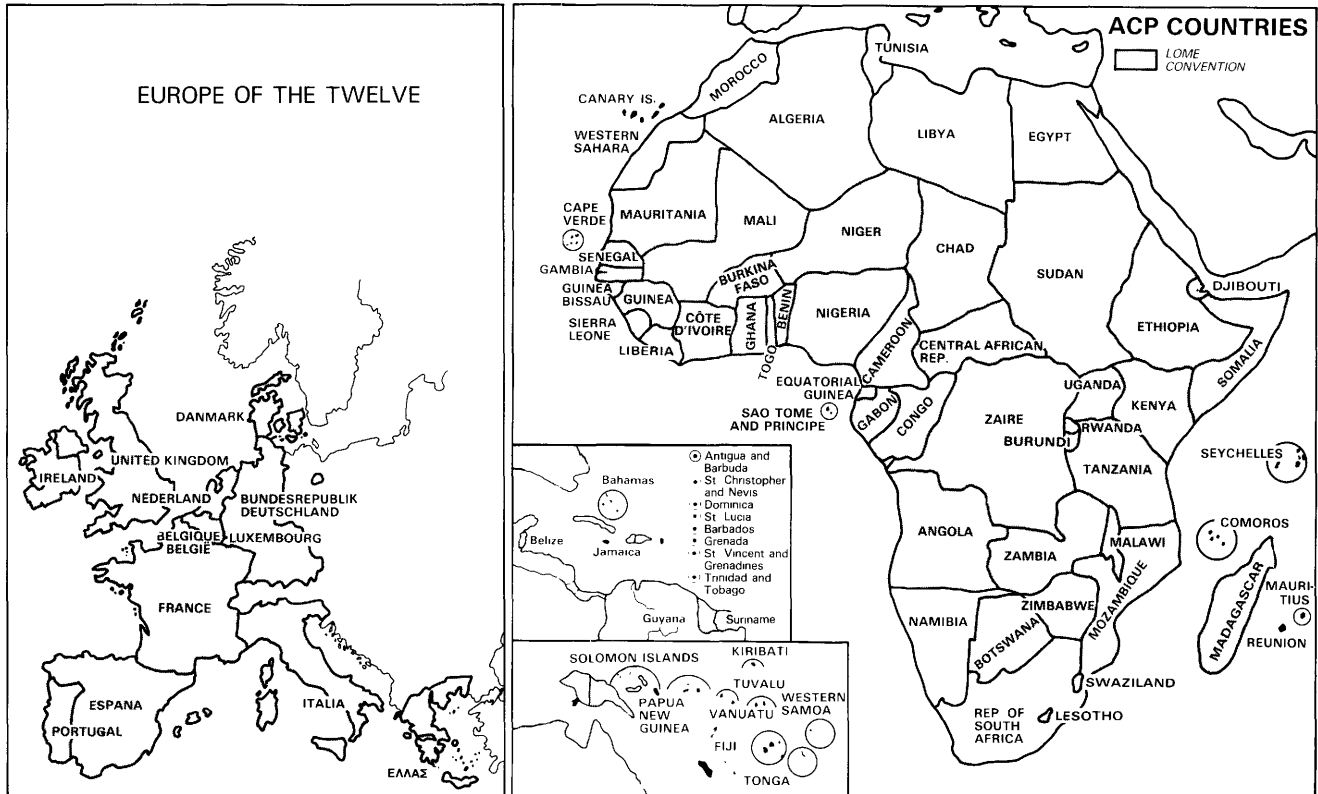
RURAL STRUCTURES

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

THE 66 ACP STATES

ANGOLA	GAMBIA	ST. VINCENT & THE GRENADINES
ANTIGUA & BARBUDA	GHANA	SAO TOME & PRINCIPE
BAHAMAS	GRENADA	SENEGAL
BARBADOS	GUINEA	SEYCHELLES
BELIZE	GUINEA BISSAU	SIERRA LEONE
BENIN	GUYANA	SOLOMON ISLANDS
BOTSWANA	JAMAICA	SOMALIA
BURKINA FASO	KENYA	SUDAN
BURUNDI	KIRIBATI	SURINAME
CAMEROON	LESOTHO	SWAZILAND
CAPE VERDE	LIBERIA	TANZANIA
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC	MADAGASCAR	TOGO
CHAD	MALAWI	TONGA
COMOROS	MALI	TRINIDAD & TOBAGO
CONGO	MAURITANIA	TUVALU
CÔTE D'IVOIRE	MAURITIUS	UGANDA
DJIBOUTI	MOZAMBIQUE	WESTERN SAMOA
DOMINICA	NIGER	VANUATU
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	NIGERIA	ZAIRE
ETHIOPIA	PAPUA NEW GUINEA	ZAMBIA
FIJI	RWANDA	ZIMBABWE
GABON	ST. CHRISTOPHER & NEVIS	
	ST. LUCIA	



FRANCE

(Territorial collectivities)

Mayotte
St Pierre and Miquelon

(Overseas territories)

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

NETHERLANDS

(Overseas countries)

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

DENMARK

(Country having special relations with Denmark)
Greenland

UNITED KINGDOM

(Overseas countries and territories)

Anguilla
British Antarctic Territory
British Indian Ocean Territory
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Falkland Islands
Southern Sandwich Islands and dependencies
Montserrat
Pitcairn Island
St Helena and dependencies
Turks and Caicos Islands

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

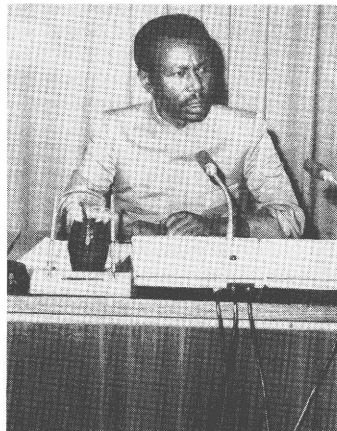
The *Courier* uses maps from a variety of sources. Their use does not imply recognition of any particular boundaries nor prejudice the status of any state or territory.

MEETING POINT: Katharina Focke

The Courier interviewed Katharina Focke, Chairman of the European Parliament's Development Committee in Strasbourg. She emerges as one of Europe's leading protagonists for a policy of development aid to the Third World and for the defence of the basic rights of its peoples. Pages 2 to 4.



COUNTRY REPORTS



ETHIOPIA: An ancient empire and an even older civilisation, Ethiopia has taken a new direction over the past decade. The socialist government of Mengistu Haile Mariam has been faced with drought, famine, external threats, secession and internal dissent in the course of building the institutions which, he believes, offer a better future for Ethiopians. What these institutions are, and how they are changing an age-old way of life are subjects of an interview with the country's Head of State. Pages 16 to 38.

BURKINA FASO: It is among the countries considered "least developed". The causes of under-development are many, among them, according to the Burkinabé authorities, poor management by the previous government of national resources. The present government's policies are aimed to show that good management, a better use of the strengths of the nation and a viable social policy are guarantees for the success of the country's development. Pages 39 to 55.



DOSSIER: Rural structures



Ever since man came into being he has come together in groups—whether for greater physical safety or for mutual comfort or in the hope of enhancing his standard of living. In the rural world, living and working together continues to be a way of life. This dossier looks at present-day rural groupings,

both old and new, and at the ways in which they can accelerate—or imperil—development. Pages 62 à 92.

NEWS ROUND-UP:

- Vith SADCC Summit in Luanda, Angola
- First Sir Seretse Khama SADCC Medal for Mwalimu Julius Nyerere
- Frontline States Summit in Luanda
- An interview with the Reverend Jesse Jackson on sanctions



The Courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC — EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

No 99 — SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 1986

CONTENTS

2. **MEETING POINT:** Katharina Focke, Chairman of the European Parliament's Development Committee

ACP-EEC

5. The EEC's development aid contracts
9. "Ten years of Lomé"
11. The Nairobi International Show 1986

ACP — Regional cooperation

12. ADB — A strongly growing bank

COUNTRY REPORTS

16. **ETHIOPIA:** Old Land, new directions
26. Interview with Head of State Mengistu Haile Mariam
33. Coffee-Ethiopia's brown gold
35. EEC-Ethiopia cooperation
39. **BURKINA FASO:** Following in St. Just's footsteps
42. 'Counting on ourselves'
49. Interview with the Minister of the Family and National Solidarity
53. EEC-Burkina Faso cooperation
55. Developing fish farming

EUROPE

56. Diagrams of the enlarged Community
59. Eurostat: Statistics in support of African food strategies and policies

62. DOSSIER: Rural structures

64. Rural groupings and organisations—with special reference to Tanzania
69. Authority in rural African communities
72. Samoan village society
75. Zimbabwe's rural savings clubs
78. One formal structure among many—fisheries cooperatives
81. Cooperatives and other craftsmen's associations in rural areas
84. The Anaguta of Northern Nigeria—a rural case study
86. Traditional health care in rural Kenya
88. The Naam groups tackle the drought
91. Rural structures as agents of development

CLOSE-UP

93. Zimbabwe success stories

DEVELOPING WORLD

95. The brain drain: stemming the flow
96. Optimum use of water

CTA BULLETIN

99. The small farmer and the CTA

NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)

CDI — Industrial Opportunities

OPERATIONAL SUMMARY (blue pages)

KATHARINA FOCKE,

Chairman of the European Parliament's Development Committee

Enabling the ACPs to "manage their own development in their own way"

Katharina Focke, a member of West Germany's Social Democratic group within the European Parliament in Strasbourg, is a fervent campaigner for basic human rights and for the dignity of man in his environment.

Here she explains her view of ACP-EEC cooperation and of the relationship between development and disarmament.



E.P. Luxembourg

► *Mrs Focke, Lomé III took effect on 1 May. What are its most important innovations, in your opinion?*

— The focal point of the new Convention, as far as we are concerned, is that it gives the ACP countries greater economic independence over the coming five years so that ultimately they can manage their own development in their own way.

Within this general principle, there is a major priority on developing farming so that these countries can produce enough food to feed their people. This is part of a policy stressing environmental protection and anti-desertification.

But then there is a human factor to which the Convention pays particular attention, and for the first time, and that is human rights, especially women's status, and the involvement of women in the development process.

Lomé III is also trying to ensure that each programme and project respects the culture and social situation of each ACP country and region.

And lastly, a serious start has been made on south-south cooperation. All those, I think, are new and important fields of action.

► *Do you think that this will make*

Community aid for ACP development more effective?

— Yes, I think it will. Because the various improvements I mentioned reflect the proposals the European Parliament made in its own-initiative report for Lomé III to improve the quality of ACP-EEC cooperation. And they also reflect the concerns of the ACPs themselves — in the Lagos Plan, for example, they called for the same thing with a view to defining development initiatives better.

Naturally everything depends on how the programmes are run and whether they fit in properly with the design of the Convention.

The anti-desertification campaign — bolder action

► *Desertification and food aid are two of the things that most concern you, aren't they? Let us take desertification first. How do you see the schemes the Community has run so far and how do you feel about the future?*

— I fear what has been done so far is nothing like sufficient. And I regret that even the ACP regional proposals have not so far been practical enough. So I hope that the various regional

organizations will now be suggesting proper schemes because it is in the regions that lasting solutions must be sought.

I know that communications on anti-desertification are good. And we on the Development Committee are drawing up an report suggesting bolder action against desertification. So I hope that, in a year or two, we will have a clearer idea of the contributions Lomé has made to fighting this scourge.

"Food aid is not currently a factor of development"

► *You have come out clearly against food aid as it is at present, on the grounds that it is not an integral part of the Community's global development aid policy. And you don't think it is a "factor of economic progress" either, I believe. Can you explain your standpoint?*

— I am quite convinced that food aid is a necessity, especially in disaster situations like those we had in 1984 and '85 in the Sahel and Mozambique and Angola and other parts of Africa. I am not satisfied, as I have said hundreds of times, with a system of food aid which is renewed every year

according to the Community's surpluses, often with quite the wrong sort of contributions for the eating habits of the countries that receive them, and on terms that discourage agricultural production there. This is where I think food aid as it is at present is not a factor of development.

I strongly hope that the European Commission is at last going to present us with a new outline regulation that stresses emergency food aid and the fact that the food aid policy has to be an integral part of an appropriate food strategy in each of the recipient countries, as it is in Mali, for example. What we have to do, outside any emergencies of course, is to subordinate food aid to agricultural development and food production by the countries in question.

Food aid also has to be provided as part of a triangular process. That is to say that the Community ought to purchase products for a food aid operation in the countries of the recipient region of other countries near the recipient, as was done recently in the Sudan in the case of Ethiopia, instead of sending products all the way from Europe. The last example I gave was useful and reasonable and I hope that, in future, there will be more transactions of this sort.

► *They say that some non-Community countries, especially, are using food aid as a means of commercial penetration, which makes it difficult to make any profound changes to the Community's policy. What do you think?*

— There may well be countries that run these operations in their own commercial interests, but my feeling is that the Community should not feel obliged to do the same and should reform its food aid policy along the lines I have just mentioned. Obviously, our policy has to be coordinated with the national policies of the Member States and it has to avoid any contradictions which might make reasonable Community schemes clash with practices that are perhaps not those of a policy aimed at food autonomy, in its broadest sense, in the ACP countries.

Disarmament and development

► *You often put arms and development side by side. That is to say that*



E.P. Luxembourg

The conviction that justice and progress are the bases for political action: "I am convinced that if military spending is cut ... it would be easier to finance development today"

the more the armament the less the development. How do you feel about the process leading to the disarming and economic development of the countries of the Third World?

— I prefer to put the two together because I am convinced that, if military spending is cut and arms spending is cut, if we move towards disarmament that is to say, it would be easier to finance development today. Some economies founded on arms spending alone are now in a position to make a lot of investment in underdeveloped countries.

The important thing here, I think, is the reduction or the end of regional conflict. Take southern Africa, Asia or Latin America. There are conflicts in these parts of the world that force the countries involved in them to build up their arms more than they actually want to. I have also been very frank about the large amounts of military

spending in the ACP budgets and the arms the EEC countries export to them. So there must be less fighting and more peace and more economic development. These are better answers to the development problem than exporting arms and maybe even exploiting regional conflict in the context of wider East-West confrontation. This is why I am for a big UN conference on disarmament and development and this is why I fully approve of the Geneva talks looking for ways and means of finding international solutions to the problem of arms proliferation and its very serious consequences.

The European Parliament's Development Committee is doing something about this — it will be presenting a report and I hope this will give us something to get the debate on disarmament moving.

► *In early 1987, the Development Committee will be organizing a debate on hunger and North-South relations, at your instigation. What do you expect of this debate — which might simply be a repetition of views and situations we already know about?*

— I think it is important for the European Parliament not to discuss the internal problems of the Community all the time. So we have decided to spend a day and a half next February on North-South relations and making progress with them. I cannot rule out the possibility of discussion of some subjects we have heard before, that are still as up-to-the-minute as they were years ago and still haven't been dealt with, coming up again. They have to be aired again. Fresh ideas are called for and fresh people to implement them. In any case, you have to go on repeating what is always right and what hasn't been achieved yet and you have to give fresh impetus to the active quest for solutions to problems old and new — the African and South American debts, for example. And you must not forget the long-standing commitment the industrialized countries have to channel 0.7% of their GNP into the development of the Third World, which they still haven't done. So I think we have to think about new and more efficient means of action and not lose sight of developing phenomena which shape the present and about which we are concerned.

The fight against apartheid — “We have wasted a lot of time”

► *Mrs Focke, we know about your complete aversion to apartheid and your personal commitment to the fight to do away with it. Why do you think that the international community cannot agree on the words and deeds that will abolish institutionalized racialism in South Africa?*

— You want me to explain a situation, the one in South Africa, that has complex ramifications and is in fact very difficult to explain. Naturally I can try and give you an answer based on one or two findings. First of all, as far as we, the Member States of the Community, are concerned, there are two things to consider. For a start, the United Kingdom and Federal Germany have so far held back the decisions, if you like, and impeded common measures against South Africa, particularly as regards economic sanctions against the Pretoria régime. We are increasingly aware of the fact that these measures are the only language that the apartheid regime in South Africa understands. We hope that the recent South African aggression against the ANC in the neighbouring countries puts into even sharper focus the need to think and take decisions and introduce political and economic pressure against South Africa as the Foreign Affairs Ministers envisaged back in September last year.

But at that stage they also felt that the South African Government should be given the time to take steps to abolish apartheid — although events suggest that this is not what it wants to do. I think we should stop beating about the bush. We have wasted a lot of time and the ACP-EEC Bureau recently emphasized (unanimously, bar one abstention from the European right) quite clearly that the time has come to take these measures and make some progress towards solving the apartheid issue. I hope we shall get results fast.

Women and socio-cultural cooperation

► *Mrs Focke, you have already touched on the major role of women in development. Do you think that Lomé*



A meeting in Swaziland of the Joint Assembly, where EEC and ACP parliamentarians put forward their views on cooperation and look together for ways of achieving the economic development of the ACP States

III goes far enough on women's status in the ACPs?

— I think the Convention goes far enough to accomplish a certain number of important things. We on the Joint Assembly have done some good work. The report Rose Waruhiu, from Kenya, wrote is being followed up by a working party. The important thing now is for the criteria that we, in the Joint Assembly, have defined to be taken into account in every project and programme so that the involvement of women really is catered for and assured, something that has rarely been the case so far. There is still a long way to go. There is still pressure to bring to bear on those who decide on the conditions in which projects have to be run. But this work can now be based on the Convention. We actually have to accomplish something now. Together, the ACP women and we here must go on pressurising our respective governments to prevent them from forgetting this side of the Convention. Yet I do feel that the all-important thing is for the ACP women themselves to monitor the implementation of projects and take an interest in the contribution women should normally be making to them. For example, they ought to think about their role in agricultural projects, because it is often they and not the men who

work in the field. We could make a lot of progress here, sector by sector.

► *On a more general level, Mrs Focke, what do you think about the chances of practical implementation of the Lomé provisions on self-reliant development and socio-cultural cooperation?*

— I think the Convention itself is the first step and it gives us a better chance. The programming phase has gone well so far. Will we stick to the sound ideas of the Convention and the guidelines of the programming when the projects are actually implemented? That is the question. And that is the one thing that can give us an exact idea of what has actually been done. The duty of the Joint Assembly is to follow this closely and every general rapporteur will help us do so.

Although I am aware that there is not enough money attached to Lomé III and that we also need an international success at the UN Special Session on Africa — even if I already have the firm feeling that the European Community has not done enough groundwork for the New York meeting — if we go on cooperating properly on the Joint Assembly, if we go on speaking as we find, and if we go on emphasizing what is going well, we can get good results. ○

Interview by LUCIEN PAGNI

The EEC's development aid contracts

by André AUCLERT (*)

Community development policy has gradually become one of the pillars of the EEC's external policy.

But it has to be implemented—and by more than EEC officials. The projects and programmes that the Community finances involve launching calls to tender and awarding and signing contracts with professionals, with private operators, firms and suppliers and with engineers and consultants who supervise the work in the field. So as far as the professionals are concerned, development is an opportunity for practical cooperation with the Community. It represents a contract and the size of it has to be known, as do the trends⁽¹⁾ and the procedures governing access to Community-financed contracts.

Size of contracts, volume of finance

The Community's development policy is financed from two separate sources.

The European Development Fund (EDF), an instrument not covered by the budget, is reserved for the 66 ACP (African, Caribbean and Pacific) States and a few overseas countries and territories that are still not independent. A total of ECU 8 620 million has been earmarked by the EDF and the EIB for Lomé III, for the five years beginning 1986.

Then every year the Commission budget finances the food aid policy, cooperation with the countries of the South-east Mediterranean, aid to Asia and Latin America and a host of other one-off training, trade promotion, energy and environmental schemes, NGO projects, emergency aid, relief for refugees and so on. Title 9 of the budget, which is devoted to development, is worth ECU 1 300 million annually.

(*) André Auclert is Director of Finance in the EEC Development Directorate.

(1) The two tables give the breakdown of contracts financed under the 4th and 5th EDF, by nationality and type.

A more practical idea of the contracts can be had from total annual outlay by the EDF and the Community budget. In the last year for which figures are available (1984), this was ECU 1850 million, 60% for the ACPs and 40% for the others. With the Lomé III increase and normal budget trends, it seems likely that this will go up to ECU 2.5-3 billion.

The different sectors

The three big conventional areas of development—agriculture, transport infrastructure and energy-mining-industry—are fairly well balanced in the ACPs at the moment.

In the Mediterranean, however, EIB aid predominates and industrial schemes are to the fore.

In Asia and Latin America, the accent has been on agricultural development and food security for the poorest countries right from the start, which is why the programmes are split on an 80% (Asia): 20% (Latin America) basis.

Lastly, it is to be expected that the new Lomé III policy will tend to concentrate on the rural sector and regular food supplies.

Practical achievements

The Community finances three types of contract:

— first, works contracts (52%) to build roads, ports, airports, railways, telecommunications networks, irrigation and drainage, schools and public health premises; second, supply contracts (30%) for the provision of equipment, vehicles, fertilizer, pesticide, farm tools and furniture; and third, the service contracts (18%) for feasibility studies, training programmes, technical studies and works supervision.

It seems reasonable to suggest that this breakdown by type of contract will be affected by the new Lomé III policy and the professionals need to know this. There will be fewer projects

and more programmes and no doubt fewer works and more supplies. There will be new building, of course, but the repair and maintenance of previous projects will be important. Have we seen the last of concrete jungles and multiple farming schemes? The future will tell us—and soon.

How firms get contracts

I shall simply deal with works and supply contracts here. That is to say, I shall try to describe our procedures by outlining specific questions that the private businessman will almost certainly ask when he approaches what is a new contract as far as he is concerned and by trying to say what answers the Community would give. Six essential questions, I think, can be outlined.

1. What will be the competition? That is to say, who can apply and with whom will I be competing? This raises the idea of equal relations.

Our principle here is to launch a public international invitation to tender that is open, on equal terms, to firms in both EEC and ACP States. We seek to obtain as much competition as possible, in the interests of both the recipients and the donors (because competition affects prices) and we try to bring out the diversity of technological resources offered by private firms. This is why we have launched 2400 international invitations to tender, about 150 a year, that is, since the start.

There are exceptions to this golden rule, of course. In urgent cases and where only small quantities are involved, there is the possibility of restricted invitations to tender and personal contracts and even of having the work done by the public works department. But they are the only exceptions.

European firms will come up against competition, starting with the ACPs themselves, as an intelligent development policy has to encourage national firms and industries. This is why the so-called accelerated invitations to tender are only published in the recipient countries where work does not exceed ECU 4 million, so as to create a network of firms and industries

there. Then, ACP firms get a 10% preference for work costing less than ECU 4 million and a 15% preference when they are providing ACP-origin supplies. Lastly, when two tenders are equal, preference goes to the ACP tender or to the tender involving the greatest use of the physical and human resources of the ACP countries. The result of these measures is proof that they are efficient—for the 5th EDF for example, ACP firms have won 41% of the works contracts, 16% of the supply contracts and 6% of the technical assistance contracts.

European firms, on the other hand, do not come up against any serious competition from third countries. Only in rare cases (with cofinancing with international organizations or third donors) are exceptions made and the procedure for doing so is complex. Firms from third countries have only managed to get 3% of all EDF-financed contracts so far.

2. How will I hear about work opportunities and what clear, detailed information will be available about projects that have been and are to be financed? This is the question of openness.

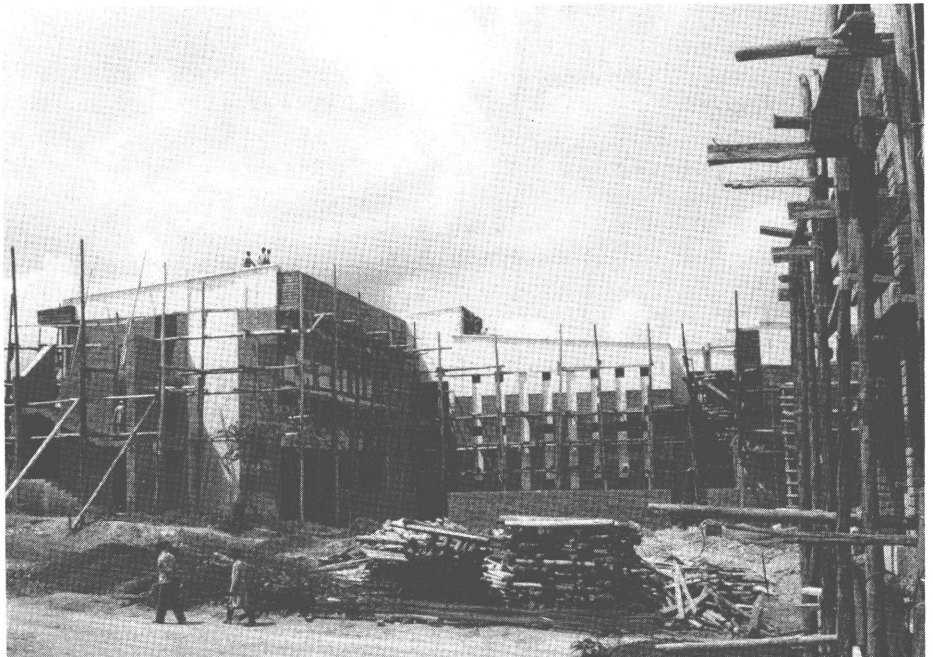
(1) Before the financing decision is taken, information appears in the blue pages of the ACP-EEC Courier, which comes out in French and in English every two months. These details of project content are published once the recipient country has applied for financing and they are updated as the project is assessed and implemented. In early 1987, information from the blue pages of The Courier will go on computer (the PABLI system) and firms will have access to these data banks for a modest fee. Details of this will appear shortly.

(2) When the invitation to tender is launched, the Commission takes various steps to ensure as much openness as possible. The tender dossiers, which are drawn up by the recipient countries or, as is more common, European consultancies, are systematically reviewed by local Commission Delegations and by headquarters in Brussels so as to cut out any discrimination and ensure that the specifications are completely neutral. Time-limits for invitations to tender are decided jointly with the recipient countries so as to guarantee that a reasonable time is allotted to tenderers (i.e. four months for works

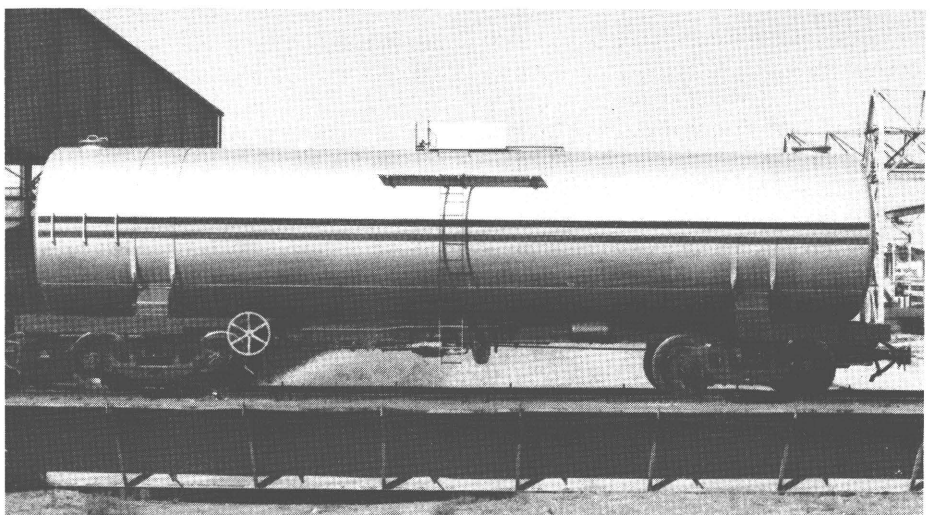
contracts and two months for supplies).

The invitations to tender are published simultaneously in the Official Journal of the European Communities and the official journal of the recipient country. For the past two years, firms have also had access to this information through TED (the Tenders Electronic Daily system) on their computers for a modest fee. The specifications themselves can be viewed free of charge either at the Community Information Offices in the capital city of each of the Member States, or at the Commission's Delegation (or local office) in every ACP State, or with the

local foreman. They can also be purchased from the consultancies which draw them up. Detailed information is attached to the invitation to tender works dossiers, pointing out useful facts about local conditions (weather, price of materials, wages, transport facilities, tax etc.). In the case of major works, visits to the site are organized for firms interested and there is an information meeting when the national authorities and our local Delegation can answer the firms' questions. Minutes of these meetings are sent to all firms which purchase the dossier, whether or not they visit the site. Lastly, the results of the invitation to ten-



Works contracts (above, construction of hostels at the Polytechnic College of the University of Malawi) have so far represented more than half (52%) of all Community-financed contracts. Under Lomé III, supply contracts (below, tank wagons supplied by a Zimbabwe company to Uganda under a Lomé III — EDF contract) could grow in importance



der are published once a year in a special number of the Official Journal of the European Communities.

3. Who will judge my tender—the recipient country alone, the funder, an ACP minister or a committee by public procedure? This is the idea of objectivity.

In EDF-organised procedures, the tenders are opened publicly by a tender board in the presence of the local Commission Delegate who sees that things are done properly. The results are announced publicly and the dossier is immediately handed over to the authorities, the Delegate and the consultancy which drew up the specifications for assessment.

Once tenders have been assessed, the authorities of the recipient country suggest that the Commission award the contract to the firm they think has made the most economically advantageous offer, in the light of a series of criteria (price of services, qualifications and guarantees offered by the tenderer, nature and conditions of implementation of works and supplies, cost of utilization, technical value and the possibility of after-sales services).

The local Delegate may approve on the Commission's behalf if three conditions are met—the tender has to be the cheapest, economically the most advantageous, and not exceed the amount earmarked for the contract.

Here I must insist on the guarantee which the Commission's network of Delegations represents for the professionals, as it covers 72 locations overseas and involves 260 expatriate officials (economists, engineers, agricultural experts and financial experts) whose job is to keep a permanent check on the operations to see they are being carried out properly and that Community funds are put to proper use. There is none of the red tape of the international organizations and the Commission can be proud of being the only body in the world with a roughly equal number of staff at headquarters and in the field.

4. What clauses govern relations between the firm and the authorities? What laws cover the contract and how will the firm be protected against arbitrary treatment by the authorities? How will cases of *force majeure* and any exceptional circumstances interfering with the economics of the contract be settled? This is the question of objectivity.

When Yaoundé was in force, the Commission did its best to produce a general set of specifications for all the contracts it financed and to negotiate them with its partners in French-speaking Africa. In this it succeeded, and this general system, a genuine code of public contracts, was introduced in all the countries which had signed the Yaoundé Convention.

The same now needs doing in the very enlarged framework of Lomé — which is to say that the English-speaking associates, which have very different legal traditions, have to be included. The Commission has produced a synthesis of the legal differences and is currently negotiating three general sets of specifications (for works, supplies and services) with its ACP partners. Work on this should be completed by the end of this year.

The aim, a both clear and ambitious one, is to provide the ACP authorities and private operators with standard, modern, general clauses in all the languages of the European Communities for inclusion in the internal regulations of the recipient country. It is a work of comparative international law of considerable scope and practical interest.

5. Who will pay me and how—in foreign or local currency? This is the question of financial objectivity.

(1) Tenders for works contracts are expressed and compared in the currency of the recipient country which launched the invitation to tender. However, the tenderer may ask for a percentage of the amount of his tender (according to the extent of the external spending) to be transferred to him during the implementation of his contract in the currency of the country where his head office is situated at a

Table 1
4th EDF — Situation as of 31 March 1986
by type of contract

Firms from	Works contracts			Supply contracts			Technical cooperation contracts			Total contracts		
	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85
Germany	89 376	7,18	7,21	100 055	18,65	18,53	86 888	21,39	21,40	276 319	12,63	12,60
Belgium	66 857	5,37	5,39	25 654	4,78	4,79	29 719	7,32	7,32	122 230	5,59	5,60
France	284 149	22,82	22,79	127 553	23,78	23,94	75 444	18,57	18,69	487 146	22,27	22,31
Italy	140 644	11,30	11,34	75 448	14,07	14,19	49 056	12,08	12,17	265 146	12,12	12,19
Luxembourg	—	—	—	23	0,01	0,01	5 211	1,28	1,29	5 234	0,24	0,24
Netherlands	33 850	2,72	2,73	27 358	5,10	5,00	29 884	7,36	7,40	91 092	4,16	4,15
Denmark	2 309	0,19	0,19	3 361	0,63	0,62	9 477	2,33	2,35	15 147	0,69	0,70
United Kingdom	54 340	4,36	4,38	107 620	20,07	20,16	62 738	15,44	15,35	224 698	10,27	10,27
Ireland	1 544	0,12	0,12	114	0,02	0,02	8 954	2,20	2,09	10 612	0,48	0,46
ACP-OCT	561 783	45,12	45,02	44 400	8,28	8,08	46 274	11,39	11,30	652 457	29,83	29,75
Third countries	10 254	0,82	0,83	24 751	4,61	4,66	2 589	0,64	0,64	37 594	1,72	1,73
Total	1 246 106	100,00	100,00	536 335	100,00	100,00	406 234	100,00	100,00	2 187 675	100,00	100,00
	56,91%			24,52%			18,57%			100,00%		

Table 2
5th EDF — Situation as of 31 March 1986
by type of contract

Firms from	Works contracts			Supply contracts			Technical cooperation contracts			Total contracts		
	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85	Amount	% 31.3.86	% 31.12.85
Germany	71 710	8,36	8,37	94 343	18,88	18,79	69 293	22,73	23,17	235 346	14,16	14,20
Belgium	33 418	3,90	4,04	17 679	3,54	3,50	22 082	7,24	7,35	73 179	4,40	4,48
France	194 440	22,67	22,84	108 699	21,76	22,12	54 127	17,75	16,80	357 266	21,49	21,52
Italy	86 636	10,10	10,48	43 770	8,76	8,70	30 148	9,89	9,99	160 554	9,66	9,85
Luxembourg	—	—	—	1 018	0,20	0,20	4 548	1,49	1,58	5 566	0,33	0,35
Netherlands	5 086	0,59	0,61	30 082	6,02	6,08	26 628	8,73	9,08	61 796	3,72	3,80
Denmark	—	—	—	1 075	0,22	0,20	10 085	3,31	3,31	11 160	0,67	0,66
United Kingdom	79 856	9,31	9,42	112 146	22,45	22,05	53 014	17,39	17,77	245 016	14,74	14,74
Ireland	—	—	—	10 759	2,15	1,95	9 181	3,01	3,12	19 940	1,20	1,15
Grèce	—	—	—	158	0,03	0,03	6 043	1,98	1,25	6 201	0,37	0,24
ACP-OCT	365 313	42,58	41,65	73 440	14,70	15,05	19 735	6,47	6,57	458 488	27,58	27,27
Third countries	21 405	2,49	2,59	6 458	1,29	1,33	35	0,01	0,01	27 898	1,68	1,74
Total	857 864	100,00	100,00	499 627	100,00	100,00	304 919	100,00	100,00	1 662 410	100,00	100,00
	51,60%			30,06%			18,34%			100,00%		

fixed rate of exchange (i.e. that of the month preceding the issue of the invitation to tender). He may also ask for this transferrable percentage to be expressed in ECU and paid at the rate obtaining on the day of the transfer. These technical provisions mean the firm is to all intents and purposes completely covered against exchange risks.

(2) The cover against exchange risks is even better with supply contracts. In this case, tenders may be made and payments settled in either the currency of the recipient country which issued the invitation to tender or the currency of the country in which the tenderer's head office is situated or in the currency of the country in which the supplies originated or, of course, in ECU. The payments are staggered advantageously so as to considerably facilitate the prefinancing of firms—60% on ordering (with a bank guarantee) and 40% on provisional receipt.

(3) With both supplies and works, the Commission has a series of provisions to guarantee the punctual payment of contracts it finances. Payments are made through a number of banks (the payers-delegate) in the ACP countries in the case of expenditure in local currency and in the Member States in the case of expenditure in foreign currency. These banks are sup-

plied by the EDF treasury so that they are always in a position to make the relevant contract payments. The local Commission Delegate has to keep a register showing the dates of the provisional reception of the works and supplies and the collection of bank guarantees, so he is always in a position to remind the national authorities to be prompt. If the authorities fail to respond, the Commission reserves the right to step in and authorize the payments due directly. That is to say that this series of guarantees and securities means there is no point in using onerous export credit and insurance facilities. Firms which have been awarded Community-financed contracts thus never need to pay for them themselves, as they (plus any arrears of interest) will always be paid.

6. Who will settle any disputes during the contract and which courts are competent to deal with them? Here we have the problem of objective legal treatment.

Local courts in the recipient country are not competent to deal with disputes of this kind and neither is the Court of Justice of the European Communities—as it itself established, unambiguously, in three recent judgments.

So the Conventions say that there will be systematic recourse to arbitra-

tion. For the moment, this means the dispute settlement procedure of the International Chamber of Commerce in Paris, but in future the UN (i.e. the Conference on the development of Trade & Industry) procedure seems preferable.

But before resorting to long and expensive arbitration procedures, firms have clearly every interest in making their claims amicably to the authorities in the recipient countries—in which they are assured of the help of the Commission itself.

Conclusion

So those are the contracts. Firms, operators and professionals will now know them better. I have tried, as a professional myself, to explain the procedures and conditions of access to them. There is nothing secret or even complex about it, for the key word in the Community and the Commission is transparency. We live in a glass house and it is up to the firms who want to come into it, to make full use of the instruments of information at their disposal and take their chance in the competition. For, clearly, no tender means no contract. So we say good luck to all those who wish to try. ◦

A.A.

“Ten years of Lomé” — a record of ACP-EEC partnership

by Brendan McNAMARA (*)

The Third Lomé Convention came into operation on 1 May 1986 and, following the completion of indicative programmes for the use of funds provided in Lomé III, the ACP States are now engaged with the central services of the Commission, with its Delegations and with the European Investment Bank in preparing proposals which will give reality to those programmes. In these circumstances, it is opportune that the Commission, in association with the EIB, has now prepared a report on the operation of financial and technical cooperation under the first two Lomé Conventions covering the period 1976 to 1985. This report—“Ten Years of Lomé”—has recently been presented to the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers in order to assist it in its annual examination—carried out under Article 119 of the Second Lomé Convention—of the extent to which the objectives of financial and technical cooperation are being attained and of what problems result from the implementation of that cooperation. It is to be hoped that the report will also serve to provoke discussion among all those concerned with contributing to the improvement of economic and social conditions in ACP States.

“Ten Years of Lomé” is an important document in that it brings together for the first time a wide range of information, both in the form of statistics and practical examples, relating to all aspects of the implementation of aid financing under Lomé I and II—trends in use of aid including approvals, commitments and payments, sectors to which aid is allocated, contract placement, evaluation etc. It also examines the evolution of aid policy, notably the development of aid programming over the last 10 years, leading in particular to the major changes in indicative programming in Lomé III based on establishment by

the ACP States in consultation with the Community of sectoral priorities for financing under the Convention. The report also studies the way aid instruments have been introduced and developed over the years—STABEX, SYSMIN, Emergency aid (with particular reference to the way in which it has been possible to react under the Lomé Conventions to the problems of famine in Africa), microprojects, risk capital etc.

An important feature of financial and technical cooperation under Lomé is the participation by the institutions provided for in the Convention in a continuing monitoring of the implementation of cooperation and in recommending measures which may improve aid procedures or which can respond to the new challenges with which ACP States have been faced. “Ten Years of Lomé” looks, in Chapter 5, at the roles played by the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers, the Joint Assembly, and indeed by the Community Institutions themselves, in the evolution of Lomé policy.

The “Ten Year Report” describes the way in which the Lomé partnership has matured since the first Lomé Convention came into force. This was not, of course, the Community’s first experience of development cooperation. The European Development Fund dates from the signing of the Treaty of Rome in 1957, and “Lomé” was preceded by the Yaoundé I and II Conventions with Associated African States and Madagascar. However, Lomé I represented a quantum jump in development cooperation—from 19 African States to 46 States in Africa, the Caribbean and Pacific; an increase in population from 80 million to 250 million. The last 10 years have seen the addition of more ACP States which now number 66 (with total population of 413 million) as well as the further enlargement of the European Community to include, first Greece, and, from 1 January 1986, Spain and Portugal.

The report highlights a number of features of the ACP/EEC partnership over the last 10 years:

— maintenance in real terms of the amount of financial resources provided for the European Development Fund and this at a time when other aid donors have found it difficult to hold the level of finance for their aid;

— the flexibility and quick response of the European Community in meeting new needs and in dealing with crisis situations. Examples of these are to be found in the contribution of STABEX in problem years, in the development of microprojects and in the introduction of SYSMIN. The measures taken to deal with famine in Africa in 1984 and 1985 are particularly worthy of note;

— the special attention given to least developed, landlocked and island ACP States in relation to implementation of financial and technical cooperation;

— the open and frank nature of the ACP-EEC partnership as evidenced in the work of the “Article 108 Committee” set up under Lomé II, most recently in its report to the Council on cases of specific difficulties in applying financial and technical cooperation, and in the preparation of draft Council resolutions on aid evaluation;

— the impressive quantitative and qualitative results achieved by Lomé aid. The specific examples cited in Chapter 3 of the report provide solid evidence of the success of Community aid and while the general development indicators quoted there are at this stage no more than preliminary, the totals do give some idea of the positive results of EDF aid under Lomé I and II:

- 10 200 km of roads
- 53 hospitals with 4 200 beds
- 567 000 hectares of plantations developed
- 372 schools provided for a student population of 86 000
- 25 large scale water projects
- energy projects

— the major contribution of the European Investment Bank to ACP development over the last 10 years through maintaining its lending (both from its own resources and risk capital) in circumstances where the creditworthiness of many ACP States has been jeopardised by the continuing effects of the recession and of conse-

(*) Head of Division for Financing in the Directorate General for Development.

quent increase in the burden of foreign debt;

— the sectoral shift away from “bricks and mortar” towards greater use of human resources as evidenced in the increased concentration in Lomé II on rural development and industrialisation, largely at the expense of transport and communications which, however, with 18% of financing still remains an important sector.

The priority given to rural development—which will be further increased under Lomé III—leads to a consideration of some of the difficulties in aid implementation over the last 10 years. The analysis in Chapter 2 of the “Ten Year Report” shows a decline in the rate of project approvals, commitments and payments in the first 5 years of Lomé II as compared with the corresponding period of the First Lomé Convention. The accompanying table summarises the figures for approvals (i.e. financing decisions), aid commitments (i.e. amounts allocated to meet contract obligations) and payments.

While it is normal that commitments should drag somewhat behind approvals (although recent practice of calling for tenders in anticipation of approvals has speeded up procedures somewhat), the rhythm of approvals and commitments under Lomé II has been slower than under the first Lomé Convention. Predictably, so also has the payments rate although when related to approvals, disbursements under Lomé II were higher than under Lomé I. Progress on payments under Lomé II is still well in line with that of earlier Conventions under which it takes something over 10 years to complete disbursements relating to a Convention.

Many explanations can be found for the slowing down of approvals and commitments—increase in available Lomé II financing as compared with Lomé I, rise in the share of non-programmed aid (from 26% to 33%). Three particular points should, however, be mentioned. First, there are the problems discussed in the Specific Difficulties report of the Article 108 Committee relating to aid implementation procedures (e.g. problems in identifying, preparing and appraising projects, delays in project approval and in the contract placement process).

Approvals, commitments and payments of EDF aid under Lomé I and Lomé II (as percentages of total aid allocated)

	Lomé I (1) 1976-1980	Lomé II 1980-1985
Approvals	83	77
Commitments	64	58
Payments	46	43

(1) The corresponding rates for Lomé I for the 10-year period 1976-85 were: approvals 97%; commitments 94%; payments 88%.

Then there is the fact that greater concentration on rural development within the framework of Lomé II has inevitably led to a slow-down of implementation procedures. Rural programmes, frequently involving large numbers of farmers spread over wide areas, and with their high concentration on technical assistance and human resources have a slow gestation period—the ratios of commitments to approvals and of payments to approvals under Lomé II were 6.8 and 5.3 percentage points below average in the case of aid devoted to rural production.

The third point relates to the effects on project implementation of changes in the programming process. As part of the effort to improve the effectiveness of EDF aid, greater emphasis was placed in Lomé II on establishing objectives for programmes rather than on applying the “shopping list” approach of the first Convention. This more demanding approach may have had repercussions on the implementation process.

The even greater emphasis on rural development and on more rigorous programming under the new Convention, again aimed at improving aid effectiveness, inevitably raise the question of what will happen to aid implementation under Lomé III. As “Ten Years of Lomé” makes clear, a top policy priority in the years ahead must be to adapt the application of aid instruments to permit of higher absorption of EDF aid under the new Convention. One way to do this will be to apply the provisions of Article 188 whereby aid shall be provided for sectoral development and import pro-

grammes which contribute to the functioning of productive sectors of the economy and to help meet basic needs. “Such programmes may include the financing of inputs... such as raw materials, spare parts, fertilizers, insecticides, and supplies to improve health and education services...”.

As is clear from the table, even in advance of implementation of Lomé III, there remains the question of speeding up Lomé II implementation. Again it will be necessary, consistent with ensuring that aid allocation is of high quality, to find ways to speed up aid procedures in respect of Lomé II finance. This is the responsibility of all the institutions concerned with ACP/EEC cooperation.

In its last chapter, “Ten Years of Lomé” looks to the future. While the ACP-EEC partnership can derive some consolation from its past record of achievement, the way ahead is challenging. The problems facing the ACP countries, and notably Sub-Saharan Africa are a matter of world concern. A whole range of difficulties present themselves simultaneously—the continuing effects of world recession, of deterioration in the economies of ACP countries and the associated severe imbalances in their external payments and indebtedness, the problems of rapid population growth in African countries, food insufficiency and deterioration of the environment. While it is the responsibility of the international development community in the world as a whole to meet these challenges, the ACP States and the European Community, drawing on past association dating from pre-independence days and, more particularly, on the links forged in the Lomé partnership over more than ten years can make an important contribution to reversing the decline in the ACP economies and to raising living standards, particularly in the poorer developing countries. As “Ten Years of Lomé” says (page 16), it is only through such joint effort that we can all survive: “We are like runners in a three legged race each tied to the other; while we run we advance together; should we stumble, we both fall... the Community has a particularly important rôle to play in ensuring that it and its ACP partners in the Lomé family continue to advance rather than to stumble”.

o

B. McN.

The Nairobi International Show 1986 and the PTA

by Robin Saville (*)

The Nairobi International Show, which will be held between 29 September and 4 October 1986, will have an interesting additional dimension this year, because it will include for the first time the participation of Member States of the Preferential Trade Area (PTA)⁽¹⁾ grouped together in one "village", similar to the way the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries group together in "villages" at the ITB Tourism fair in Berlin each year.

Apart from the areas relating to customs, trade matters and payments, the Lusaka Treaty, which established the PTA in 1981, makes provision for cooperation in the sectors of agricultural development, transport and industrial development. The PTA is concentrating less on agriculture and industry at present, however, and is devoting its main energies to trade cooperation, the activities of the Clearing House for payments and transit facilities, which are seen as directly related to trade.

At the time of writing, the 15 Member States of the PTA have all expressed their intention to participate in the Nairobi Show and there will also be a PTA Information Stand. The following countries are intending to be present — Burundi, Comoros, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Somalia, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. These participations will be financed from the Lomé Convention Regional Trade Fairs programme with a little "topping up" from national indicative programmes. The original idea was to hold a PTA Trade Fair as such, but the administrative and logistical problems would have been enormous, not to mention the expense, and so it was recommended to the Secretary-General that he should try to arrange a formal PTA participation in an existing well-established Fair. Hence the choice of Nairobi and its famous International Show held in the delightful setting of Jamhuri Park outside the city. This ev-

ent is the annual showpiece for Kenya's agriculture, commerce and industry which attracts wide international interest.

For Trade Fair participations to be worthwhile, they must be properly prepared, professionally executed and meticulously followed up. To this end it is encouraging to report that the PTA Secretariat has arranged for two consultants (funded by the UNDP and the International Trade Centre) to advise on preparations in the participating Member States, to assist with the display on the PTA Information Stand and to stay on after the event to advise on follow-up activities. During the week preceding the Fair, CBI Rotterdam (funded by Dutch bilateral aid) will be conducting a seminar in Bujumbura on Export Marketing Management and Trade Promotion for the PTA region, all of which is relevant to effective preparation.

There have been inevitable growing pains and difficulties for the PTA over rules of origin, the common list of products and the workings of the

clearing facility, to name a few. This Fair will give a chance to the businessmen of the different countries to meet each other, to inform themselves about what the others are producing and selling and to assess the competition and pricing in their neighbouring Member States. Quite apart from the obvious opportunities for the promotion of trade, there will also be an opportunity for the PTA to present itself politically in the international environment of the Show. Hence the importance of the PTA Information Stand.

The Commission began its cooperation with the PTA in July 1985, when it gave financial support to the first meeting of the Federation of Chambers of Commerce. Since then financial assistance has been given for a seminar on customs harmonisation and technical assistance for the establishment of a Secretariat for the Federation of Chambers of Commerce. In terms of the volume of financial assistance from the Community the amount given to the PTA (ECU 154 000) for the hire of space, construction and decoration of stands and an element for transport at this fair is the largest contribution made to the PTA so far for any one action. ◊

R.S.

PARTNERS FOR TRADE PTA AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

1st TRADE FAIR OF THE PREFERENTIAL TRADE AREA
FOR EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA

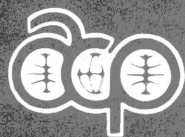
29 September - 4 October 1986 Jamhuri Park, Nairobi, Kenya

ANGOLA • BOTSWANA • BURUNDI • COMORES • DJIBOUTI • ETHIOPIE • ILE M
KENYA • LESOTHO • MADAGASCAR • MALAWI • MOZAMBIQUE • OUGANDA •
RWANDA • SEYCHELLES • SOMALIE • SWAZILAND • TANZANIE • ZAMBIE • ZI
ILE MAURICE • KENYA • LESOTHO • MALAWI • MOZAMBIQUE
OUGANDA • RWANDA • SEYCHELLES • SOMALIE • SWAZILAND • TANZANIE •
ZAMBIE • ZIMBABWE • ANGOLA • BOTSWANA • BURUNDI • COMORES • DJIB
ETHIOPIE • ILE MAURICE • KENYA • LESOTHO • MALAWI • MOZAMBIQUE
OUGANDA • RWANDA • SEYCHELLES • SOMALIE • SWAZILAND • TANZANIE •
ZAMBIE • ZIMBABWE • ANGOLA • BOTSWANA • BURUNDI • COMORES • DJIB
ETHIOPIE • ANGOLA • BOTSWANA • BURUNDI • COMORES • DJIBOUTI • ETHI
ILE MAURICE • KENYA • LESOTHO • MALAWI • MOZAMBIQUE
OUGANDA • RWANDA • SEYCHELLES • SOMALIE • SWAZILAND • TANZANIE •
ZAMBIE • ZIMBABWE • ANGOLA • BOTSWANA • BURUNDI • COMORES • DJIB
ILE MAURICE • KENYA • LESOTHO • MALAWI • MOZAMBIQUE
OUGANDA • RWANDA • SEYCHELLES • SOMALIE • SWAZILAND • TANZANIE •
ZAMBIE • ZIMBABWE • ANGOLA • BOTSWANA • BURUNDI • COMORES • DJIBOUTI • ETI



(*) Principal Administrator, Directorate-General for Development.

(1) The PTA was described by The Courier in its issue No 97 (May-June 1986), pp. 46-47.



ADB

A strongly growing bank

50 independent countries of Africa excluding Libya, Algeria and Nigeria—get loans and Algeria and Nigeria could well become borrowers in the fairly near future.

The ADB group (the ADB, the ADF and the SFN) is involved in non-agricultural projects through its cofinancing with private bilateral and multilateral organisations (see table).

The African Development Fund and the Nigerian Special Fund

The African Development Fund was set up in 1972 to facilitate the Bank's interventions, especially in the worst-off member states. This Fund finances projects on favourable terms for African countries whose resources prevent them from obtaining certain types of credit. It offers these soft loans from three-year Funds and is currently into its fourth three-year period. Operations began in 1974 and capital rose from \$326 million (first Fund, 1976-78) to \$1 billion (third Fund, 1982-84) and then to \$1.5 billion (fourth Fund). The sectors of intervention have also broadened as the Fund has proved itself to be one of the ADB's most suitable and efficient means.

The Nigerian Special Fund, which the Nigerian Government set up with an initial capital of \$80 million (fully subscribed) in 1976, has also given the ADB an additional means of financing infrastructure and production projects in the least developed of its member countries. The capital (\$88 million) has in fact been reconstituted since 1981.

The Bank and the two Funds today make up the ADB Group, with a combined capital of some \$8.68 billion (\$6.3 billion for the Bank, \$1.5 billion for the African Development Fund and \$88 million for the Special Fund).

The African Monetary Fund

A currency is an internationally recognised and accepted means by which a country pays its bills. Its value is determined by political and economic factors, but essentially the latter, the real overall wealth of the country, which is assessed roughly, and in principle, from the difference between

The 22nd annual general meeting of the African Development Bank was held in Harare in May. It was attended by something like 1500 delegates from international financial bodies and development organisations, the IMF and the World Bank included, and 70 ADB Governors, in particular Finance Ministers from the ADB group. This high attendance shows how much the Bank has consolidated and continued to expand since formation in 1962 and was certainly indicative of the fact that it is considered to be a reliable instrument of African development and a financial institution of international renown. In 1985, it went beyond the \$1 billion mark in its capital (\$1.154 billion as against \$978.26 million the previous year) for the first time and both payments and cofinancing with private organisations increased considerably over the same year too. This was an increase of 31.3%, after a drop of around 2% in 1984.

Right from the start, the ADB's aim was to give the member countries an instrument to finance their economic development and this only three years after most of them achieved political independence. It was, African leaders felt, an imperative if they were to consolidate independence and the future of the continent. The Bank has pursued these objectives with very little upset and with a fair amount of success, in spite of the international economic and financial crisis whose main effect on Africa was to push up its external debt by more than 20% between 1972 and 1983 and increase the particularly heavy burden of repayments.

Main sectors of ADB financing

Farming. This, naturally, is the Bank's main concern and 36% of its financing went into the sector in 1985, with the accent on food production — as the food situation and the economic directives on the future of the continent must make clear. Farming is and

will go on being the priority sector, the head of planning and research said recently. Overall, the priority interventions are planned over five-year periods. The present period (1982-86) aims to mobilise \$7.3 billion at the end of the programme, 33% of it for loans in the agricultural sector. According to the Bank, agricultural investments have been expanding constantly and "over and above any loans



Babacar N'Diaye
President of ADB

to this sector, including for rural development, the ADB group also intends to boost technical skills with "defining, planning and running projects", so as to make for greater effectiveness.

Other projects. The ADB has also financed many projects in other areas of development in the member countries. It has given loans for transport (28% of loans last year), for public service infrastructure (21%), industry (8%) and social development, essentially health, education and training (7%). All members—that is to say the



Rice cultivation in The Gambia, a project financed by the ADB

exports (foreign exchange earnings) and imports (foreign exchange spending). The balance gives the relative wealth of the country and decides whether its currency is sought-after or not. But this only holds good if the country in question has a national economy, a domestic market and open, geographically-spread trade relations. If it does, it can define and run a monetary policy (interest rates, exchange rates, reserves etc) in spite of the occasional outside constraint from open economies — which it can also resist, for a time, with the help of its international partners or, in particular, the economic-monetary zones.

Directly after they gained their national sovereignty, the African countries were unable to meet the basic conditions for an autonomous monetary policy. Some found themselves under the monetary control of the former metropolis and others struck their own currencies and failed through bad management — which was understandable in countries where a high proportion of the new managers had had no introduction to financial or monetary problems.

The ADB, which had proved that it managed its financial and banking affairs soundly, felt the time had come to move on to a second phase using another financial and monetary instrument, something which is vital for any economic policy. The idea was to achieve one of the aims of the Lagos Plan for the development of Africa (1980-90), which stressed the need to

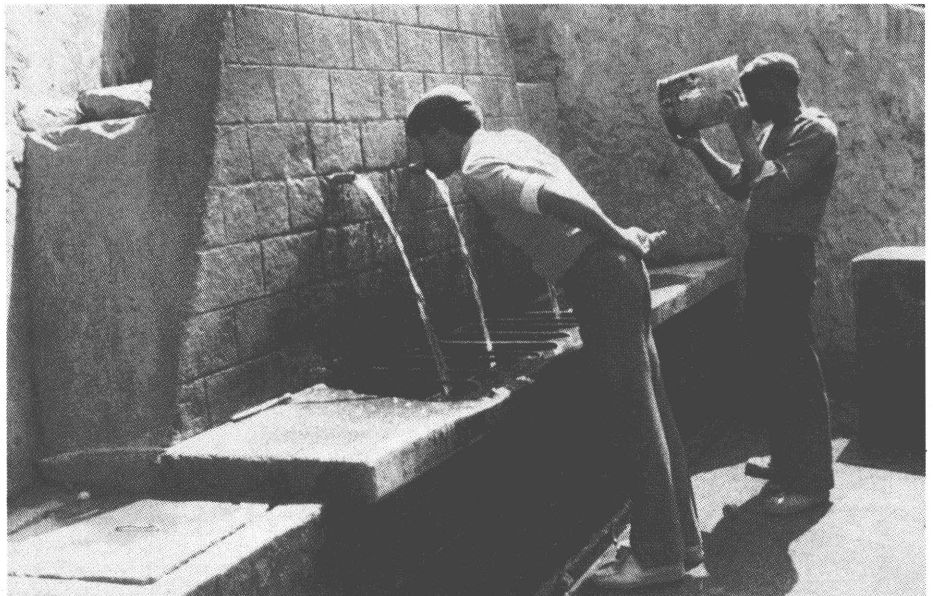
set up an autonomous African financial and monetary institution to provide machinery that would ensure the full reorganisation and reorientation of the programmes and policies of Africa's imported monetary and financial institutions (central and trading banks etc) so as to adapt them more to the development aims of each nation. The creation of an African Monetary Fund was the most efficient way of doing this as it would make a considerable contribution to encouraging and promoting monetary and financial cooperation in the region and sub-region — as a UN study of the point and feasibility of the project put it.

The establishment of the Fund

means complex financial techniques and sound international cooperation. And it also means creating a proper African economic area in which strong primary, secondary and tertiary production can be developed to give the currencies of the member countries the necessary wealth to back up the Fund.

Robert Mugabe, Zimbabwe's PM, said at the opening of the 22nd annual general meeting that prudence was both necessary and useful in achieving an objective that was as important to the countries concerned as this. "We must avoid this institution becoming a scaled-down version of the IMF and laying down similar conditions. We all know that the constitution of an organisation such as this is right because we have to have a monetary institution that does not give handouts but takes a positive attitude to the needs and problems of Africa. This is why it would be better to develop all the formulae exhaustively and carefully rather than try to speed up the whole process," the Prime Minister said.

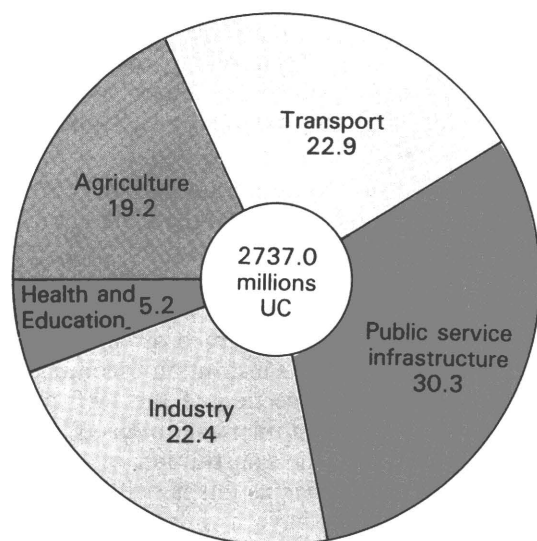
At ADB headquarters in Abidjan, it is very clear that the functioning of the international economic and monetary system puts obstacles in the path of the countries of Africa and the idea of the African Monetary Fund is welcomed. "Africa is on the move and no stone will be left unturned in the drive to ensure its economic progress and independence", one Bank official said, "but it must be done with assurance".



Rural development. Water supply in Cape Verde, financed by the ADB

REGIONAL COOPERATION

**Cumulative amount of loans approved by the ADB
by sector at 31 December 1984**
(In % terms)



**Cumulative amount of loans approved by the ADB
by region at 31 December 1984**
(In % terms)

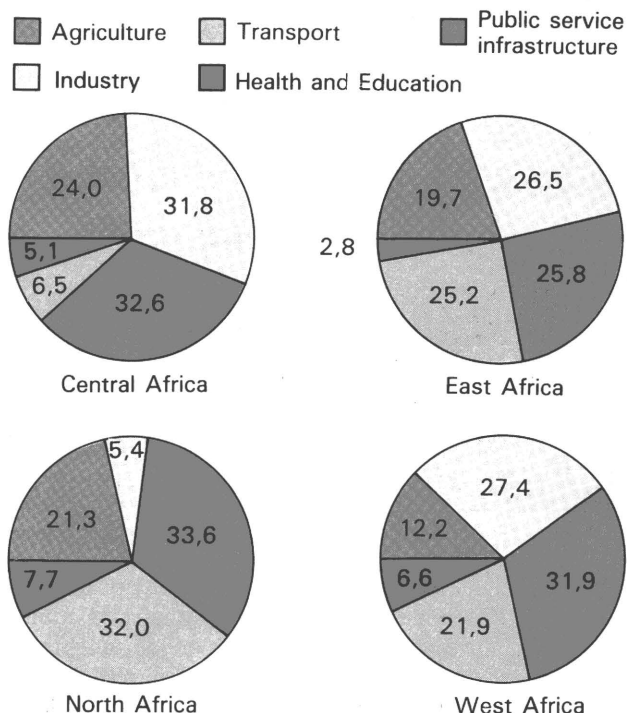


Table 1
Sectoral and regional breakdown of ADB^a loans 1967-84
(in mECU; 1 ECU = \$ 0.973)

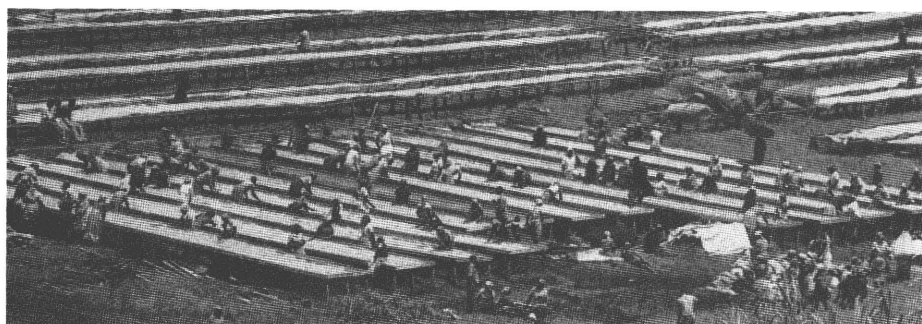
Sector	Central Africa	East Africa	North Africa	West Africa	Total	Percentage
Agriculture, including lines of credit to agriculture	125.67 (17)	191.89 (27)	133.80 (16)	74.76 (18)	526.12 (78)	19.22
Transport	166.48 (27)	258.08 (36)	33.77 (8)	167.89 (29)	626.22 (100)	22.88
Public service infrastructure	170.39 (19)	251.17 (34)	210.65 (27)	195.80 (40)	828.01 (120)	30.25
Industry, including lines of credit to industry	34.05 (7)	244.88 (34)	201.00 (17)	134.17 (30)	614.10 (88)	22.44
Health and education	26.50 (2)	27.54 (3)	48.30 (3)	40.20 (5)	142.54 (13)	5.21
Total	523.09 (72)	973.56 (134)	627.52 (71)	612.82 (122)	2 736.99 (399)	100.00
Percentage	19.11	35.57	22.93	22.39	100.00	

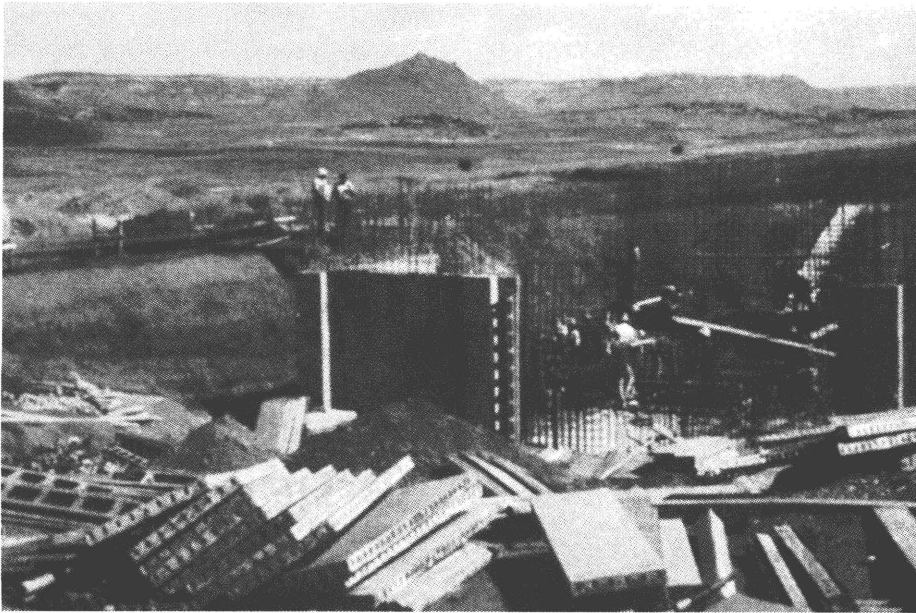
^a Including cancellations. The figures in brackets indicate the number of loans.

The ADB's impressive progress, the fact that it is now about to increase its capital as a result and the political will of the member countries on the continent are all assets in this continuing process. ○ L.P.

Coffee plantation in Kenya.

"The ADB Group will continue to treat agriculture and rural development as priority areas in the foreseeable future..."



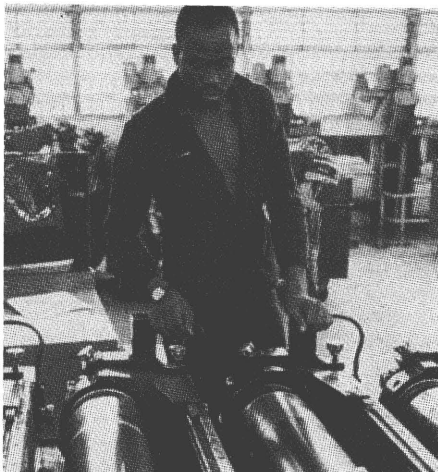


The ADB co-financed the construction of Lesotho's airport

Table 2
ADB group loans, by sector & institution,
30 September 1985
(US\$ '000)

	ADB	ADF	FSN	Total ADB group	%
Transport & telecommunications	1 066 560	677 034	60 323	1 803 917	28,71
Water & electricity	775 875	458 326	16 315	1 250 516	19,90
Agriculture	599 541	950 747	15 785	1 566 073	24,92
Industry & development banks	892 545	161 965	9 244	1 063 754	16,93
Education & health	161 678	417 914	19 659	599 251	9,537
Total	3 496 199	2 665 986	121 326	6 283 511	100

Source: ADB, Abidjan (Côte d'Ivoire)



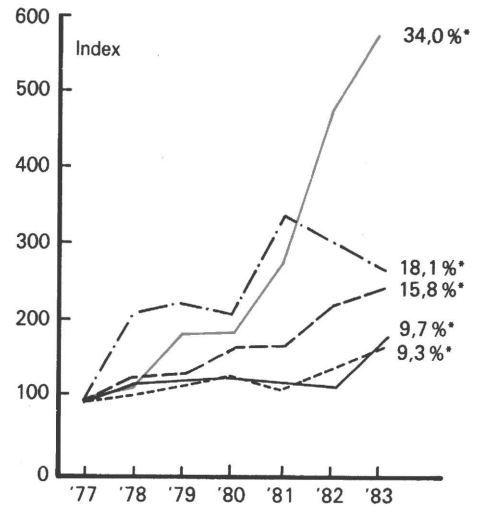
Printing fabrics at a textiles factory in the Côte d'Ivoire

Asked whether he agreed with the judgement that the ADB has been called the most successful institution in Africa, and, if so what made it a success, Mr Babacar N'Diaye, said:

"I would be satisfied if in a few years we can say it is the most useful institution in Africa. Its success could be in its usefulness. That would be most satisfying for me".

Total Equity Capital

Subscribed & Reserves
(Base year-1977)

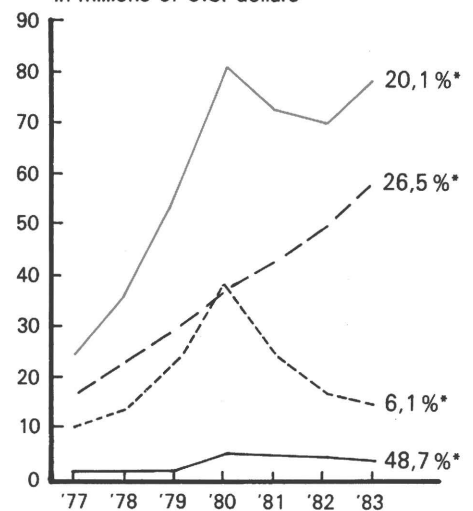


- African Development Bank (ordinary capital resources)
- - - European Investment Bank
- - - Inter-American Development Bank (total ordinary & inter-regional capital)
- Asian Development Bank (ordinary capital resources)
- - - International Bank for Reconstruction & Development

* Compound average annual growth rate for 1977-1983 period.

Income Analysis

African Development Bank
Ordinary Capital Resources
In millions of U.S. dollars



- Total Income
- - - Total Loan Income
- - - Investment Income
- Other Income

* Compound average annual growth rate for 1977-1983 period.



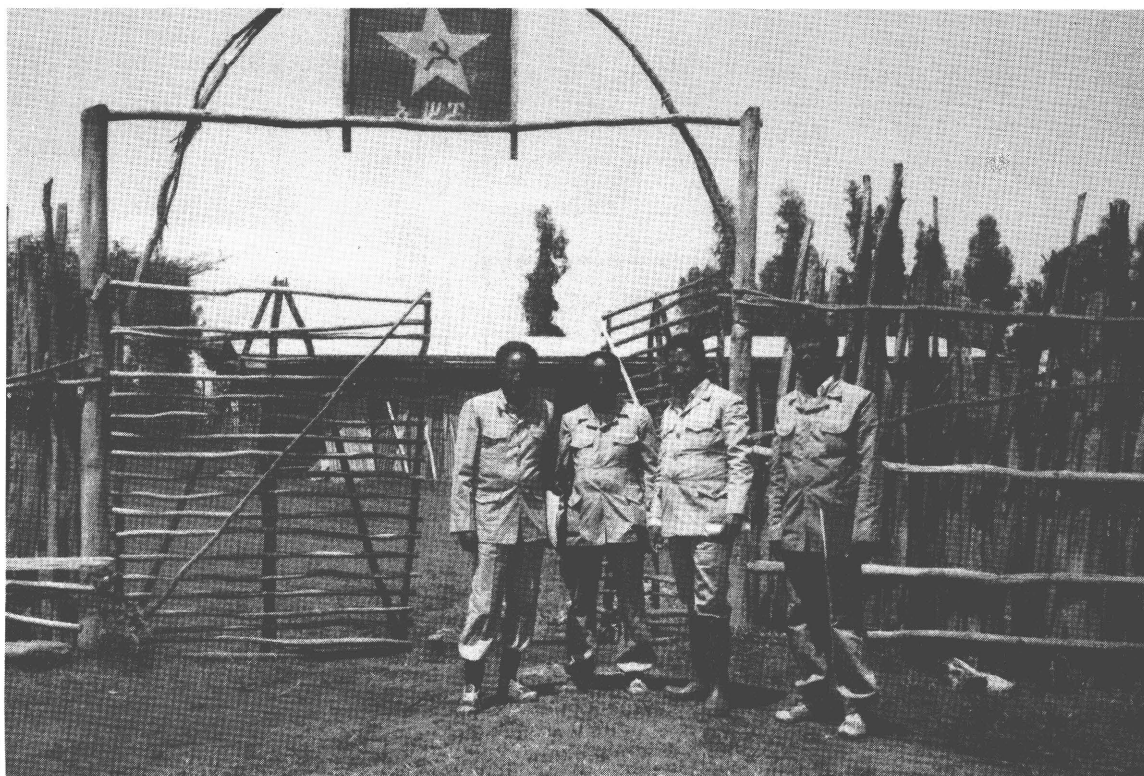
Hapte Selassie

ETHIOPIA

Old land, new directions

The rugged beauty of the highlands of Ethiopia has infused its spirit into the people for more than three millennia. There have been civilisations there ever since Makida, the legendary Queen of Sheba, visited the Israel of King Solomon and brought home in her womb the line of rulers who took the title "Lion of Judah". Building was not learned from colonial forts and trading posts—at Axum in the north of the country, and seat of its ancient capital, there are the ruins of palaces and monumental steles covered with inscriptions in Ge'ez, Ethiopia's sacred and ritual

language. They date from the second to the ninth centuries A.D. Ethiopia's masons and carpenters needed no lessons from Europe's master builders in the Middle Ages. The rock-hewn cruciform churches of Lalibela—the "new Jerusalem"—rival the great cathedrals of northern Europe in complexity and ingenuity. And although Portuguese mission-



The Courier

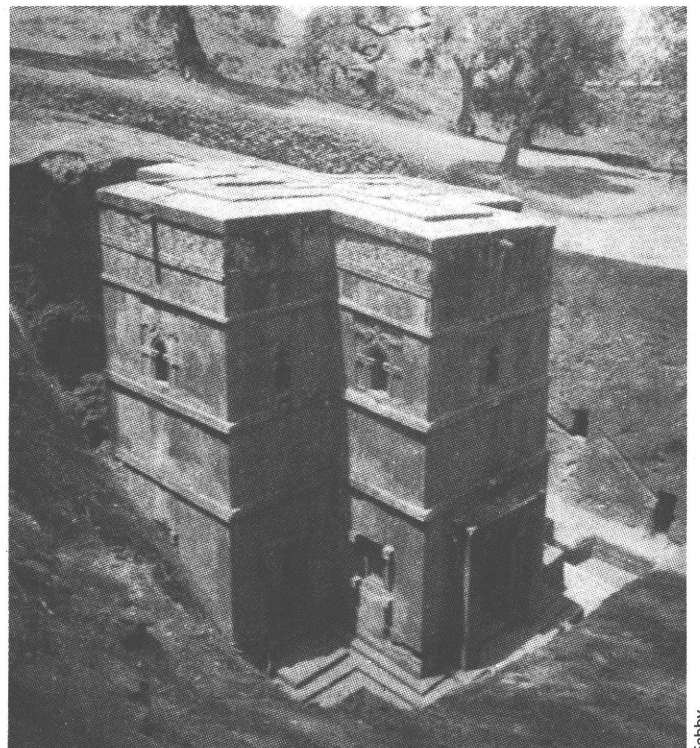
aries came to Ethiopia in the 16th century, they did not come to implant a new religion. Much of the land was converted to Orthodox Monophysite Christianity in the 4th century. Indeed, legends of a vast Christian empire ruled by "Prester John" had inspired voyages of discovery like those of William of Ruysbroeck and Marco Polo in the 13th century, who sought the mysterious emperor's alliance against Islam. The Empire of Prester John was never discovered, however. The highlands of Ethiopia were a defensive barrier against which even the tide of Islam washed in vain, but they effectively barred Ethiopia from the currents of the modern world as it developed to the north and west. An inspiration and a defence, therefore, but these highlands also constituted a barrier. And because they were broken up into numerous isolated valleys separated by steep mountain walls, they also helped to shape the feudal nature of the country. The emperor's writ, when unpopular, could only be enforced by armed might, from one valley to another. Use had to be made of diplomacy, of the Church, of granting favours, of loosening the bonds of central authority. Then, in the middle 19th century, almost contemporarily with the revival of feudal Japan, came a series of modernising emperors Theodore II, Johannes IV and, perhaps the greater of all, Menelik, who laid the groundwork of the modern state—the capital at Addis Ababa, railways, telegraphs, a national currency and a stunning military victory over the Italian Army at Adowa in 1896, thus guaranteeing the country's territorial integrity.

This was the dawn of the modern age in Ethiopia, but the problems facing the country were the same that had faced it for a thousand years—external aggression (whether from the Italian army of 1896 or the Somali leader Hassan Mohammed Gurai, "the left-handed", who had planted the banners of Islam on the walls of Harar in the 16th century), threats to national cohesion (whether from Italians who seized Eritrea as a colony in 1890, or the various feudal princes who continually sought to loosen the ties of the central government) and internal plotting, the struggle of courtiers for power and influence. Again, this is why the highlands are central to an understanding of the country—remote, secure and defensible, they are also barriers to the spread of modern ideas and the effectiveness of modern administration. They are the cradle of modern and ancient Ethiopia but they also have the potential to be its grave.



Lalibela, the medieval religious capital. Above, frescoes in Guhu Church

Below, the famous rock-hewn church of Bieta Giorgis



The modern age dawned with the Emperor Menelik, but its most famous proponent was Ras Tafari Makonnen who succeeded as Regent in 1916 and was crowned as Emperor Haile Selassie in 1930. Five years later, he was driven from the throne by the Italian invasion of his country and six years after that he returned when British and Commonwealth forces defeated the Italians. He recognised early on the values of importing modern ideas and techniques, but although he was a successful proponent of the age-old feudal regime he was also its prisoner. He relied on the Church, the feudal landlords and on the aid of Western donors. Impressive statistics on health and education during the latter part of his reign mask the fact that these were largely concentrated in urban centres and did not touch the 90% of the population in rural areas. Nor did the ordinary people gain much from this modernisation. The power of feudal landlords to exact up to 75% of peasant production was, if anything, increased by the codification of feudal law in 1960, and while a small urban bourgeoisie began to prosper, the ordinary citizen still had to rely on self-help or outside charity.

When the Imperial Government was faced, in the years 1972-74, with a disastrous famine, it was not well-equipped to react, except by attempting to ignore the facts. The result was a series of popular uprisings which coalesced rapidly into a revolution which sealed the fate of the monarchy and led the country in a new direction.

The Revolution of 1974 was avowedly socialist and among its first actions was the abolition of feudal land tenure and the restoration of the land to the people. The tasks facing the new government were herculean. There could be no progress without the creation of institutions, yet the vast bulk of the people were illiterate, scattered, timid and very, very poor. Even so, a start was made—Peasant Associations were set up, whereby knowledge, skills and resources could be pooled, cooperative schemes organised and channels for inputs and marketing set up. The peasant could begin to be the master of his own destiny. But this could not be achieved without the recurrent nightmare of Ethiopia's rulers striking again—in the early

years of the Revolution, the triple scourges of external aggression, secessionism and internal struggle reappeared. War broke out with Somalia over the long-disputed Ogaden region. The Eritreans, and to some extent, the Tigreans, intensified the operations of their Liberation Fronts, seeking to secede from the historic lands of Ethiopia, while elsewhere, groups loyal to the old regime or antagonistic to the new, made administration almost impossible in the areas they controlled. The low point of the Revolution was reached in 1978. Ethiopia's traditional friends, alarmed by the government's socialist leanings, drew back, and the gap was filled by arms, funds and advisers from the East. The Somali thrust was beaten back, the internal dissenters crushed and the Eritrean and Tigrean secessionist movements at any rate contained. From about 1980/81, the government could recommence the arduous task of building a viable new society. And in 1983 and 1984, the drought and famine struck.

The land— exhaustion and renewal

Although the drought of 1983-85 struck the Sahel region, it was of particular significance to Ethiopia. It caused the always-fragile balance of survival to tip disastrously against the peasant population. There are a number of reasons for this. Firstly, Ethiopia's population and rate of population growth are enormous. After Nigeria and Egypt, it is the most populous country in Africa with a population in excess of 42 million, growing at the rate of 2.9% (or 1.2 million people) every year. Even in historic times, the population hovered on the subsistence level, and famines were a regular occurrence, whether due to drought, locusts or the depredations of warring feudal lords. These latter also ingrained in the peasant population a feeling of apathy about the land—since the landlord would take the bulk of the crop, there was no point in producing more or caring for the soil.

There are three main types of land in Ethiopia—the quollo, or lowlands, the awenadegga or semi-lowlands and the degga or highlands. Historically, the highlands have supported the vast bulk—85%—of the population and

have been the heartland of the ruling groups, the Amhara and Tigreans. But it is this once-fertile zone that is now a major disaster area. Even before the 1974 revolution, the Ethiopian government called in the World Bank to find out the reasons for the 1972-73 drought. And the response was as follows:

“The disaster could not be blamed entirely upon natural causes, notably an exceptionally severe drought, but was largely brought about by a combination of bad land use and increasing human and animal populations. It is, and has been for many years, apparent that practically all land that can be cultivated is cultivated; that hillsides are almost entirely denuded of their original forest woodland cover... soil conservation is either inefficient or totally lacking...”

The lower-lying areas in the south and west of the country are fertile and well-watered and the population is sparser. The plains in the east also have potential, and for more than just the grazing of Ethiopia's enormous livestock population (the largest in Africa, with 27 m cattle, 23 m sheep, 20 m goats, 17 m pack animals—horses, donkeys and mules—and a million camels). But it is in the highlands that the majority of the population live.

No visitor to Ethiopia can fail to be struck by the signs of erosion. The great rivers, the Baro, the Omo, the Blue Nile, the Shebelle, are bright brown with topsoil that they are carrying away to make other countries fertile. It has been estimated by one authority that 200 m tons of soil are lost annually and that the Abbay River alone takes 50 m tons of soil in a year. “This is equal to large truckloads of earth touching each other and stretching three-quarters of the way round the Equator”.

Finally, the peasant population in the highlands leads a strange solitary existence. Villages are not common. Each farming family perches dizzily on a weathered outcrop and scratches its precarious living on the hillslopes round the homestead. During the recent famine in Tigre and Wollo food could not be brought to many farmers by road, and the aircraft were obliged to drop the food out of the back doors, flying at a height of less than 10 m



Soil erosion in Shoa. The land can no longer support agriculture

RRC

above the homesteads. This isolation means that it is impossible to undertake any collective measures, be it in farming, provision of common services or land reclamation.

This is not to say that nothing grows in the highlands. They are still one of the major wheat and general cereals growing areas, with the export crops grown in the south, south west and eastern areas. But they cannot do the two things historically required of them—feed the agricultural population and feed the market-dependent population. The Ethiopian authorities have begun to tackle the problem. They have been stung by criticism from the Western world of their major policy initiative—resettlement.

Resettlement: history is not repeating itself

Ethiopian ministers and officials are not reluctant to talk about resettlement. "On the policy of resettlement itself" said Cde Goshu Wolde, the Foreign Minister, "concern by outsiders is wholly out of line. There were mistakes in the implementation and on that, criticism may have been legiti-

mate. But if we leave the people on their ancestral lands, we, as a nation will have to continue as beggars of the international community. We are a proud nation and cannot bring ourselves to do that." Cde Mersie Ejigu, Minister in charge of the General Plan also put it into perspective. "You may not know that over a million people resettled themselves between 1950 and 1974. In the face of an emergency, during the drought, we resettled 600 000. That is less than ten per cent of the drought-affected popula-

tion".

Ethiopia's government uses the traditional language of Marxist-Leninism and it is the government of a proud and ancient empire. Its failure to explain in detail what resettlement involved to the many Western aid donors brought about charges of forced

collectivisation, forcible depopulation, deaths and the splitting up of families. These charges are emphatically refuted. "There was no political motivation" said Cde Goshu Wolde. "There is no aim to depopulate northern Ethiopia. The international community should come and see for itself. The less politicised the reporting is, the more people will come to see that the government had no option." Comrade Fasikka, Head of the Economic Department of the Central Committee of the Worker's Party of Ethiopia added "Of course one could invest in the eroded areas. But this is extremely expensive and a long-term solution. Only 17% of cultivable land is currently cultivated. Over 80% lies waiting".

Time and again, the question was asked about resettlement, and each time the answer was the same—there was no feasible alternative, and the settlers were volunteers.

This hardly squares with much of the reporting in the West today. Comrade Fasikka elaborated here: "We sent cadres to the designated areas to inform and exhort the people. This certainly enhanced their willingness to go. But you must remember, the peasant is conservative, and after many years as a tenant, it was now *his* land. So there was some reluctance, and if that is coercion, yes, we committed it. As to families being split up, that did happen, but you must remember that this was an emergency. There was a



Even where erosion has been halted, the desert still advances

The Courier

ETHIOPIA

huge relief programme under way for famine relief. Now, relief and settlement camps were mixed together, and in view of the urgency we tended to cut corners. We have set up a Family Reunion Task Force in each settlement area whose job it is to trace and bring together family members who ended up in different resettlements. And another thing, it is trivial, perhaps, but was an important factor. The peasants, some of them, are still illiterate, and the buses used on the resettlement convoys were mostly the same colour. Now, after they stopped for food and rest, a lot of the settlers got on the wrong bus. The results were upsetting, but the cause was a simple mistake”.

About 600 000 people have been resettled, a little more than 1% of the population, in the fertile and underpopulated parts of the country, 90% of them in the Western Region, which comprises the provinces of Kaffa, Wollega, and Illubabor. Cde Petros, Regional Planning Commissioner for the Western Region was in no doubt as to the value of the settlers. “Settlement has greatly assisted in the development of the region”, he said. He looked forward to more settlers to develop the enormous agricultural potential of the region.

Will there be more resettlement? After the furore it has aroused, with the expulsion of an NGO and the profound hesitation among some Western aid donors, there is no doubt that the present pause is welcome. But it is a pause for evaluation and planning. The scale and mode of future resettlement will depend on the lessons learned and on the government's capacity to actually carry it out. “We won't move anybody in the coming year” said Cde Fasikka “before the land on the settlement site has been cleared prior to the arrival of settlers”. Cde Mersie Ejigu confirmed this. “In future, there will be more planning and preparation involved, as well as smaller numbers”, he stated. But at all levels, Ethiopians feel that they have nothing to feel ashamed about.

Kishe is a settlement village in Kaffa Province. It is divided into two actual villages, 10 km apart. The two villages contain 10 816 people and farm over 2 000 ha cooperatively, of which 540 ha are private plots. By 1987 they



A pause for fresh air on the long trip to new settlements

hope to be self-sufficient. They came in January 1985 and have two schools (one for the settlement alone, one for a mix of settlers and locals). There are two clinics and five wells at the smaller village alone. Party volunteers came to the settlement, to help set up literacy classes, home management, health and general agricultural courses. They rotate after six months, and by 1987 they will leave altogether. Kishe village will be just another village. Today it is still at the half way stage. Enormous strides have been taken. There are modern tractors to plough the fields for maize and sorghum. A storehouse is being erected with the aid of a Jesuit-backed NGO. But some of the settlers are still in a state of dependence. None doubted that this was an improvement on the lands they had left, for the most part in northern Wollo. “Is this the same country”? they asked when they first saw the fertile, well-watered fields and the green hillsides. Seyid Ali, a literate and dynamic 25-year-old from northern Wollo, is not a typical settler—he is exemplary. He was lucky to be in a relief shelter for only one day and in the settlement camp for only two. Many have had months in each. But Seyid Ali's tale is worth telling anyway. In his part of Wollo there had been disappointing harvests for three to four years before the drought. His whole village went to the distribution

point when food aid arrived. Then, he said, government volunteers came to seek volunteers for settlement. “The poorest” he recalls, “volunteered first. Those with grain and seed stocks didn't. They were in a minority and they are still there, including my parents. I have written to them, to try and get them to come here, but I don't think they will”. He emphatically denies that compulsion was used, at least not in his experience. “We didn't need to be convinced about the quality of the land”. Resettlement was a desperate measure but one that seems logical—moving people from land acknowledged to be practically dead to new and fertile zones. And the people have recognised the logic. For agricultural production is the key to Ethiopia's development.

Agriculture: a priority of priorities

Sixty percent of Ethiopia's export revenues come from a single crop: coffee. And other agricultural exports, hides and skins, pulses and cotton, push this figure up to 90%. The agricultural sector employs 85% of the population and accounts for 45% of GDP. The country's economic situation is extremely precarious: inflation running at about 8%, a trade balance in the red by \$ 500 m (1983) public debt (external) at \$ 1.4 bn and a debt



The Courier

"Concern by outsiders is wholly out of line". Goshu Wolde, Ethiopia's Foreign Minister

service ratio rising to 21.5%. Agriculture must lead the way out of the country's financial and structural problems. The government has made this clear right across the board: industry is being developed only as a satellite to agriculture, to provide tools, equipment and inputs for agriculture and to process agricultural production. Agriculture, and more specifically, peasant agriculture is the sector on which hopes for development are placed.

Six million hectares are under cultivation, 94% by peasant farmers. These grow a mix of cash and food crops depending on the state of the land and weather conditions. In 1975, the Revolutionary Government promulgated its land reform, ending centuries of tenancy and sharecropping. Rural dwellers were not permitted to own more than 10 ha, and leasing of land was forbidden. The land itself, explained Cde Mersie Ejigu, is now nationalised, but the peasant farmer has the permanent right to till it and be paid for his produce, and he may pass this right on to his descendants. In order to bring the broader benefits of the social revolution into even the remotest parts of the countryside the government has encouraged the formation of Peasant Associations, now a source of pride to Ethiopia's govern-

ment. "The most important aspect of the Revolution" said Cde Mersie Ejigu "has been the building of institutions". These are assemblies and bodies which are democratically constituted and which carry out administrative and judicial functions. There are some 23 000 of these institutions throughout the country and it is through them that extension services, provision of inputs and fringe benefits like health and education services can pass. These Peasant Associations are voluntary, but it is obvious that they will exert a major pull on non-members once the level of investment in the peasant sector rises. Groups of Peasant Associations may also form service cooperatives for the buying of tools, fertilisers, other inputs, as well as consumer goods for sale to members. In return, they deal with the marketing of produce either to the Agricultural Marketing Corporation or to private sector traders. Some Peasant Associations may also form producer cooperatives, but since this effectively ties down a number of professional staff, from accountants to veterinary officers, only a few have been given legal status in recent years.

Since the drought and famine in Africa, a major preoccupation of western donors and African governments alike has been the search to revitalise agriculture. And a point of general agreement on the way to raise food output has been incentive pricing. Ethiopian ministers and party officials do not believe that this is the whole picture. Indeed since 1980, farmgate prices have fallen in Ethiopia by 40% in real terms, and peasant production has dropped—in the last two years—by 22%. Challenged on a possible causal link between these two figures, spokesmen are quick to point to a variety of factors which, they believe, have to be taken into account. "We have never been against the free market, or against incentive pricing" explained Cde Fasikka. "Perhaps haven't communicated our views very well to other countries. But you must set the free market in its context. Our markets are imperfect and require government intervention. You would assume that with high prices for products, production would rise to meet demand. But our agricultural sector is inflexible—there are physical factors, natural phenomena, input supply



The Courier

Seyid Ali with wife and child. "We didn't need to be convinced about the quality of the land"

which makes it unresponsive". The Ethiopian government sees salvation rather in the fields of technology and infrastructure; factors such as research, inputs, soil conservation and irrigation. Questioned as to whether the AMC has a monopoly of purchasing, Cde Fasikka specified "The total marketable surplus of food is around 1.2 m tons, and the AMC has never bought more than 260 000 tons. This may rise to 400 000, but the rest will be sold on the free market. Moreover, you must not forget that some crops, like coffee, are regulated by international prices, and oilseeds and pulses are outside the State system. The State prices apply only to food grains". The reach of the AMC is very varied. In areas where transport is feasible, such as Gojjam, the AMC is extremely active, buying up 100% of the surplus. In other areas, it is more practical to allow the open market free rein.

Much effort has been put into the infrastructure of the peasant sector. The Ministry of Agriculture has 22 000 extension officers, and a network of peasant training centres has produced 2 000 trainees so far. Inputs such as tools and pesticides are being turned out (though the prices are still too high, and peasants are using 60% less fertiliser than they were five years ago). Even consumer goods, where



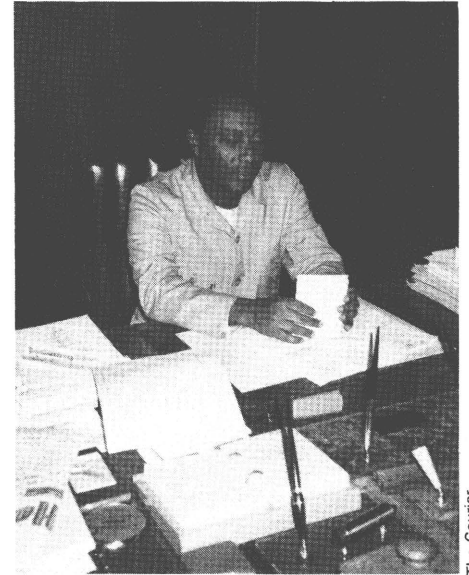
The Courier

"We have never been against the free market" Cde Fasikka, Head of the Economic Bureau of the Central Committee of the WPE

possible, given the foreign exchange shortage, are directed to the countryside. "Some people say we are punishing the urban population", added Cde Mersie Ejigu. But on the general approach—infrastructure, not free market—there is a broad consensus in government thinking. "We have decided", said Mersie Ejigu, "to implement in the development of our society and economy, the use of the planned approach". Cde Fasikka went even further. When discussing the government's approach to the peasant

sector, he said, "We are careful not to move on the basis of our subjective wishes. Knowing the situation of our food deficits and the conservative nature of our peasantry we are careful to move very slowly". Among future inducements to the peasant farming sector, he listed a drop in fertiliser prices and the setting-up of tractor-hiring stations which would operate at cost price. And, he added, agricultural interest rates would be reduced to 4.5%. There was more than a touch of "subjective wishing" in that last promise—individual peasants, many still illiterate, have no access to rural banking facilities. Service cooperatives are not de facto encouraged to borrow, nor are Peasant Associations. Cheap rural credit will go to Ethiopia's pampered agricultural sector—the State Farms.

Although the country's Ten Year Perspective Programme 1984-94 lays heavy stress on the peasant sector—indeed the TYPP sees this sector as the "motor" of the whole economy and postulates growth of 4.5% per annum throughout the Plan period—only 22.5% of the country's total gross investment will go to agriculture. The argument most frequently brought forward in defence of this policy is that infrastructural investment, investment in health, education, provision of clean water, agricultural research, soil conservation and reafforestation are the real spin-offs to compensate the peasant. And it is true that enormous



The Courier

Addis Tedla, Politburo Member and Deputy Chairman of the Office of the National Committee for Central Planning

investment is being made in these areas. But in terms of direct agricultural investment, it is undoubtedly the State Farms which derive the most benefit.

State Farms cover 4% of agricultural production and are designed to produce cash crops and food crops for the large (6-7 m) market-dependent population. This latter consists of the urban population, the armed forces, government services and so on. They are capital-, investment-, and skill-intensive. The cash crops grown are coffee, sugar, cotton and bananas, and the objective is to make these farms efficient enough to earn their own foreign exchange requirements in due time. They are also the platforms for constructing agro-industrial complexes—cotton mills and clothing factories, sugar refineries and so on. They are controlled by the Ministry of State Farm Development and they attract the best and brightest managers, accountants, agronomists and researchers. The Middle Awash Agricultural Development Enterprise, in Hararge Province, is a typical complex of State Farms. The whole Awash Valley is given over to these State Farms, some for sugar, some for horticulture, and some for cotton. The origins of the farms are usually to be found in pre-Revolutionary farms, operated by progressive landlords or foreign companies, which were nationalised with compensation. (Although some compensation claims are still outstanding). Middle Awash



Ethiopian Press Office

Many hands making lighter work of the teff harvest

A.D. Enterprise is a complex of five State Farms growing cotton, with 13 000 ha under cotton, bananas on 440 ha and broom corn on about 200 ha. The irrigation for the area is handled by the EDF-financed Amibara Irrigation Project (55% of irrigation) and by pump irrigation. Ploughing is mechanised and 56% of planting operations are also mechanised. Insecticides and pesticides are used selectively and airborne spraying is carried out six times a year. Harvesting is manual and the 7 000 permanent staff are joined by up to 20 000 seasonal casual labourers who are paid at piece rates (average pay around \$ 1.50 a day) and who stay for 3-4 months. These casual workers are transported by bus and temporary accommodation and meals are provided for them. It is a very impressive operation and produces very impressive results. Over 40 000 tons of cotton are produced, over 3 tons per hectare, which represents 40% of the national demand for cotton. Indeed, the enterprise manager, Cde Moges Abraha, proudly displays the silver cup which the enterprise won for being star cotton producers two years running. He is confident of being able to do this again, and ascribes success to the growth and development of sound management information systems and the enthusiasm of the workforce. This enthusiasm is bolstered by Party cadres, selected from

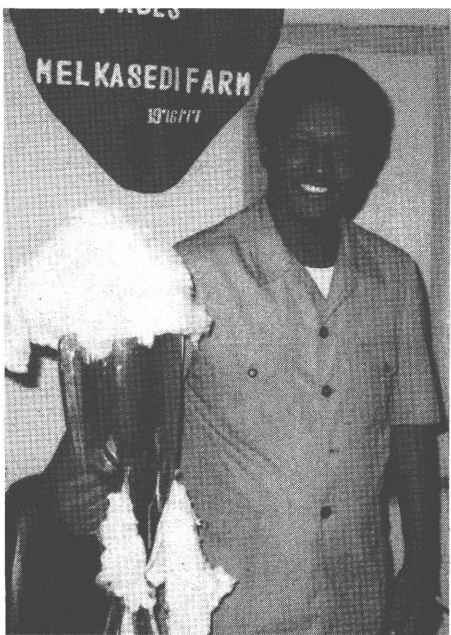
the five farms in the enterprise, whose job it is to learn about cotton and teach about production. "Production" said Cde Moges, "is the essence of politics: our task is to strengthen the economy of the nation". And, since 1984, a Socialist stimulation programme has been set up, offering incentives to mechanics and technicians. It is easy to see why, to a government and Party staking the nation's future on science, technology and production, Middle Awash Enterprise is so attractive, and why individual peasant farmers (scattered, illiterate and conservative as they are) are a harder concept to grasp.

It has already been said that Ethiopia has a food crisis—not just the aftermath of drought, but a structural food deficit of around 500 000 tons p.a. in a good year. In poor years, such as 1983-85, this can more than double, and the growth rate of population will make the gap harder to close with each passing year. Part of this is due to the exhaustion of traditional farming areas in the highlands, part to the existence of a large market-dependent sector of society. But it is also due to the peculiarities of Ethiopian agriculture, and to one peculiarity in particular—the Ethiopian farmer's seeming reluctance to live near his neighbours. And this has stimulated another policy which the Ethiopian government is finding controversial among donors—villagisation.

Villagisation: a new way of life

All the arguments which Western donors raised against resettlement, and which have, at least for the most part, been answered by the Ethiopian government, have been raised again, this time against villagisation. The aims of villagisation are fairly simple: to move people into villages where it will be possible to provide the basic essential services, extension, marketing, clean water, access to roads, education and health. But Western observers, or at least reporters, have likened it to mass expulsion, forced collectivisation and so on. The drawbacks of solitary settlements were highlighted during the recent famine when airdrops had to be made to individual settlements. And any coherent land-use or land-recovery programme

will depend on concerted and collective efforts. As far as possible, villages are constructed—out of traditional materials, to make the Ethiopian tukul, the circular hut with a thatched roof—not more than 2 km from the fields of the villagers who occupy them. In the short term, villagisation is undoubtedly a burden on the Government and the farmers—work time is diverted from agricultural production and money is spent on the new villages. But over the longer term, it is confidently hoped that the benefits will outweigh the disadvantages. Among the benefits which have not been mentioned are: improved house, latrine and stove design, a better atmosphere for innovation, better control of livestock and cropping and strengthening of the role of women by better opportunities for meeting and organising. There will be corresponding disadvantages, however. The fields will be further from the individuals, which means that there will be longer walks to and from work; perennial crops will be left in the fields and natural predators will multiply. Intensive cropping, grazing and tree-cutting will take place near the new villages, and crowding might cause an increase in communicable human and animal diseases. Furthermore, even if villagisation has been on the whole, a voluntary affair, no doubt farmers were induced to move by promises of improvements. Where these are not forthcoming, there is a risk of increasing resentment and apathy, which will undoubtedly be reflected in output. There can be little doubt that the "subjective wishes" of the government include a certain amount of collectivisation, but at all times it was stressed that the government was aware of the need to move slowly. Cde Addis Tedla, Vice-chairman of the National Commission for Central Planning, explained it thus: "The villagisation programme is not proceeding at a fast pace—except in Hararge Province, where over-zealous officials were responsible. Each province plans to complete its villagisation programme over five to six years and great care is being taken to ensure that over-enthusiasm doesn't get in the way of the agricultural work." At one village, Kobo, in Bacho District, in Chago-Gurage Province, two hundred family heads had been villagised. The



The Courier

Moges Abraha, holding the silver cup his Enterprise won for its cotton production

ETHIOPIA



The Courier

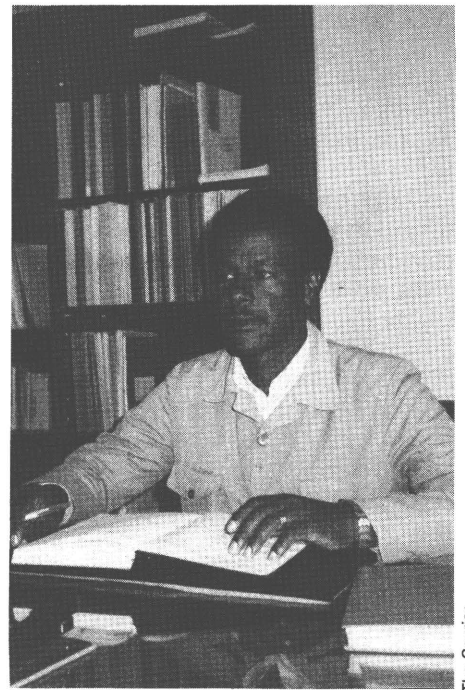
Mersie Ejigu WPE Central Committee Member and Head of General Planning. "The most important aspect of the Revolution has been the building of institutions"

village itself looked raw and new, but the houses were larger than the owners' previous houses, they had separate kitchens and improved stoves, and most of the farmers could see their old fields from the new site. The majority of holdings were individual ones, although 39 family heads had formed a cooperative to grow wheat, chickpeas, nug (an oil crop) and teff which is the staple diet of much of Ethiopia. The teff grains make a pale grey paste which is baked on a flat plate and produces a pancake similar to the Indian chapatti. Another village, Jigdu-Sardo, had turned itself into a producers' cooperative, and was obviously a model for the whole district. Although mostly producing teff, wheat, sorghum, nug and chickpeas, plans were in hand for the setting up of a dairy and a draught animal improvement scheme. Here, the only private land cultivated was a plot of 1000 m² round each house, as a sort of kitchen garden. Jigdu-Sardo rather than Kobo was the way the government would wish villagisation to go.

Ethiopia's new society

A considerable amount of time has been spent on agriculture, agricultural institutions and policies because of the

overwhelming significance of this sector to the Ethiopian economy. After all, until just over a decade ago, the country was, to all intents and purposes a feudal autocracy on the same pattern, but not at the same stage of development, as Russia in 1917. There was a bicameral Parliament but it was a constitutional cloak to the personal rule of the Emperor. The traditional values of the empire were those of medieval Europe. Armed nobles held the land, and supported and were supported by, the Church and the Emperor. There was no commercial class—the national philosophy, like that of feudal Europe, was antagonistic to trade. "God made the knight, the priest and the peasant, but the Devil made the burgher", Marc Bloch records in his survey "Feudal Society". Such trade as there was, was in the hands of foreigners, Greeks or Armenians for the most part, or foreign companies. An exception might be made for the Gurage, a small tribe traditionally associated with trading, who today provide the Governor of the National Bank! Thus, there is no very vocal opposition today to the government's policy of taking over much of the apparatus of commerce and large and medium-scale industry. There are fewer retail shops than there once were in Addis Ababa (although the 2 km² Mercato, market, is still by far the largest in Africa and the traveller can buy anything from a stereo to an antique



The Courier

Western Region Planning Commissioner Petros. Most of the resettlement has taken place in this region

ecclesiastical cross) and the taxis are all over 12 years old, struggling on gamely despite a desperate shortage of spare parts.

This lack of concern over what seem to be "extras" in society, consumer goods, by and large, is partly a matter of economic policy and partly a matter of ideology. It is economic policy because there is simply no foreign exchange to pay for the import of—



The Courier

Kobo village. Newly-villagised, most of the farmers can still reach their fields with ease

largely western—consumer items. This explains in part why there has been no rise in farmgate prices—not all the profits made by the peasants would be spent on domestic items. They would want watches, radios, bicycles and clothing for which scarce foreign exchange would be needed. At a time when the country's GDP declined by 6.5% (1985-86) and the agricultural component declined by 18% (1985-86) it would be defensible to restrict imports. It is not a situation which can remain stable for long—soon the government will have to decide whether to risk a high import bill, inflation or a drive to stimulate saving among the farmers.

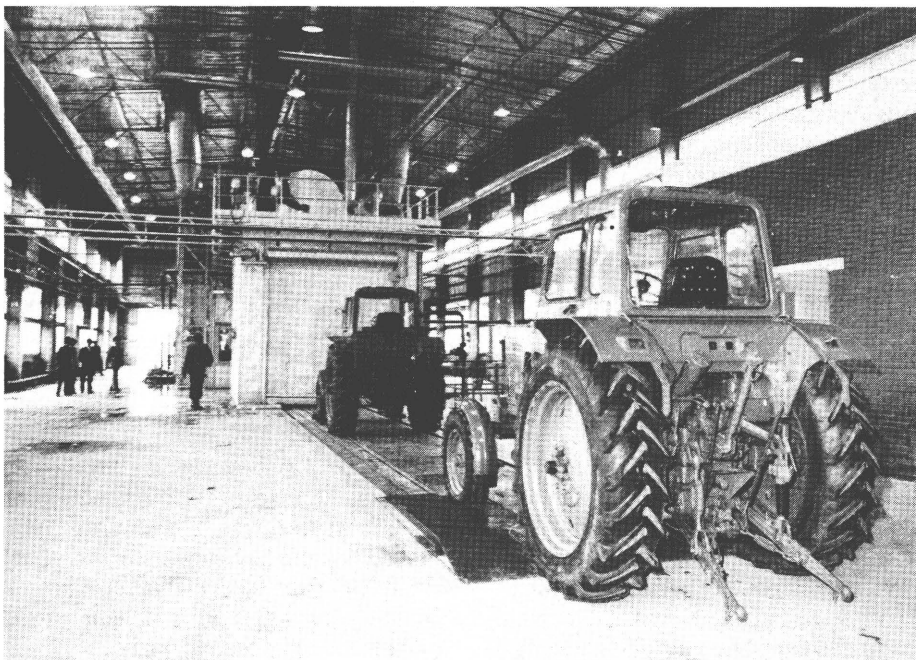
What the Revolution stands for, to the thousands of mostly-young and highly-skilled technicians, economists, managers and Party "agitators", is not necessarily economic growth. First and foremost, they seek development, and they seek it by institution-building. The Peasant Associations have been touched upon—they have their counterparts in towns called Urban Dwellers Associations, which set up schools and clinics and do civil police patrol duty. There are Women's Associations and Youth Associations who have earned their stars doing voluntary work for the resettlement operations. Of even greater significance is the national educational drive. At the time of the Revolution, only 7% of the

nation was literate—that number is now over 60%. Schools have multiplied, factories are turning out school desks, chalk, blackboards, radio receivers and textbooks. An especial push is being made in the rural areas—radio, correspondence courses, night classes and special adult literacy classes run by the Peasants Associations. It is the expectation of the government that every Ethiopian will be literate by 1994, and the entire school curriculum will have been revised by 1998 to take account of the realities of the new social order. Universities and colleges are springing up, five of them devoted to agriculture. The surfaced road total has doubled since 1974, from 2 000 to 4 000 km. Factories are being built, one of the most impressive being the tractor factory in Nazareth; cement plants, hydroelectric power stations, dams and water supply schemes. All these aspects—visible signs of construction and development—are, to the ruling groups in Ethiopia more real and wholesome aspects of development than the economic prescriptions of the World Bank. "The World Bank's report" said Cde Fasikka "began with an analysis which we agreed with. It was the prescriptions for change with which we disagreed—devaluation and incentive prices." If there is a perceived lack of anything, it is of trained manpower. Cde Addis Tedla stressed that

the expansion of the first two or three years used up much of the available manpower and this has led to a slowdown.

But, in effect, the process of building institutions, and institutional checks and balances, has taken away from the vital sectors much of the desperately-needed manpower. In every region, there seem to be several parallel management structures—civil administration, Party officials, Planning officials and Ministry representatives. Of their qualification and dedication there can be no doubt—and they are to be found in the front line, in the fields, in the research centres, on the road, and not in offices in the capital. But it is a moot point whether these scarce resources could not be more effectively deployed.

The devastating famine and the massive involvement of Western aid donors has tended to colour the views of Ethiopia in the West. The crisis has sometimes been put at the door of the country's guiding political philosophy and not at the country's scarcity of human and natural resources; of its state of chronic underdevelopment. Moreover, as Addis Tedla wryly remarked, "we are now the undisputed bottom of the league table for international aid per capita. We used to be neck and neck with Bhutan, but they now get \$ 9 per capita each year, and we get \$ 6." And, Ethiopian officials admit, they are not masters of the art of public relations. "We have not, perhaps, communicated our views well to many donor countries" said Cde Fasikka. It may seem ironic that in a country where the population receives between 65% and 75% of the necessary daily intake of calories, one of the priorities should be public relations, but as long as international aid is required this may well be the case. International cooperation is required, and will be for some time. But the process of institution-building, training, research and management is the response of a proud and ancient civilisation to the threat of being a perpetual international mendicant. It is a response which is serious and thorough even though it does not conform with the bulk of development experience. And it is a response from which the young leaders of this old land will not be deflected. ○ Tom GLASER



Ethiopian Press Office

Russian-designed tractors coming off the production line at the impressive Nazareth Tractor Factory

“The implementation of socialism requires a very long period of time”

Interview with Comrade Chairman Mengistu Haile Mariam, Ethiopia's Head of State

Mengistu Haile Mariam is Chairman of the Central Committee of the Workers' Party of Ethiopia, and has been the country's Head of State for over a decade. He was a Major in the Army at the time of the 1974 Revolution, and speedily rose to prominence in the Dergue, the Provisional Military Administrative Council. His time in office has not been easy. Menaced by threats to the territorial integrity of this ancient land, the Government has, at the same time, had to combat the effects of two severe droughts and their attendant famines. World attention, not always very flattering, has been focussed on Ethiopia, and the importance which the Government now must give to explaining its policies to donors is behind this lengthy and comprehensive interview which Chairman Mengistu gave recently to *The Courier*.

► *Your Excellency, Ethiopia's famine is not yet conquered. When and how will the crisis be overcome?*

— What we have done is to immediately launch programmes both for short- and long-term solutions to overcome the crisis. In order to be able to implement this programme we have come up with the following solutions: we have already taken a number of steps to overcome the food deficit situation of the country. First, by supplementing local resources with foreign aid and also by making additional purchases of grain in order to feed the people. These have helped alleviate the devastation that the drought and famine would have brought on our people and have saved many lives.

But these measures cannot in themselves provide a lasting solution to the problem, and the long-term strategy we have adopted for this is to resettle people who have no prospect of being self-sufficient (and of ever being independent of relief assistance) on their exhausted lands, to more fertile parts of the country where they can build a decent life.

On the whole, both the short and the long-term solutions for overcome-

ing the problem will be determined by the emphasis we give to the development of agriculture and the effectiveness of the policies we adopt and implement in this area. In this regard, even before the occurrence of the drought in its current form, expanding and strengthening our organisational capacity in the field of agriculture had been a primary objective. We have thus reorganised the Ministry of Agriculture on an entirely new basis and have allocated large resources to provide it with the necessary inputs in terms of manpower, material, equipment and finance. It has been restructured in such a way as to cover the peasant sector at all levels down to the lowest administrative unit of the country by assigning agricultural cadres and development extension workers.

All this is by way of providing technical assistance and organisational strength to the peasant sector in our country. Parallel with these, measures have also been taken to get the Ministry of State Farms to undertake in different parts of the country those agricultural tasks that are beyond the scope and capacity of the peasant sector. Another ministry that has been

similarly strengthened and expanded is the Ministry of Coffee and Tea Development.

Over and above the obvious contributions that these institutions will make to the development of the economy in their own sectors, they will also have a further vital role to play by way of introducing modern farming techniques and the use of agricultural machinery to the peasant sector.

And to provide the necessary back-up services to this vital sector of the economy, I may cite the establishment, for the first time in our country, of such state agencies, like the Science and Technology Commission and the Commission for the Development of Water Resources.

All this is with regard to the agricultural sector of the economy. Similarly, extensive measures have also been taken in the field of training manpower. As a result of the measures taken in this field there are, now, no less than five full-fledged agricultural colleges in the country. In addition, an entire agricultural university has been set up in the eastern part of Ethiopia which is entirely devoted to the training of high-level agricultural experts.



Comrade Mengistu Haile Mariam,
Ethiopian Head of State

With the co-operation of these institutions and the experts already working in the country, we have taken effective measures to set up agricultural research stations in different climatological zones of the country. We are, at the same time strengthening existing ones. The combined work of these institutions and of many other centres engaged in the breeding of improved seeds will make available to the peasants the vital services required in advising and familiarising them with modern farming techniques. And for the peasants to become effective recipients and beneficiaries of these services, a comprehensive peasant training institute that takes into full account the language and needs of this class has been set up.

So, everything within our means is being done to introduce a rational use of water and soil resources, to lay the foundation for a modern and scientific agriculture based on research, and to take full advantage of all the innovations introduced. Our primary aim is, of course, to achieve food self-sufficiency. Our aim is also to free this sector of the economy from the difficulties that have always affected it in order that the natural and human resources of the nation can be used to bring agriculture to a stage where it can be a support to other sectors of the economy. We are poised, now, at his point of development.

Although we cited the measures taken in the sector of agriculture, because of the interdependence of all sectors of the economy, we can say that what we are undertaking is a fully integrated programme of rural development. We



"Familiarise the peasant with modern farming techniques". Locally-assembled tractors supplied to a new village in the South-West

have to do this because the recurrent crisis that afflicts us does not have its origins only in natural and/or man-made calamities, but it is also basically a problem of underdevelopment. This integrated strategy is necessary, we believe, if we are to make ourselves beneficiaries of science and technology, if we are to be able to put nature at the service of man and if we are to gear society to the task of development and the raising of productivity. It is only by such an integrated approach that we can overcome our difficulties.

► *Resettlement has attracted a great deal of international attention because of the scale and manner of its organisation. How successful has resettlement been, and how long will it continue?*

— The resettlement programme is not something that we embarked upon only now, i.e. in reaction to the cur-

rent drought. Though on a smaller scale, it has been going on for much longer, from the earliest days of our Revolution when the country was then the victim of very severe drought. In fact, we have been conducting a considerable resettlement programme in different parts of the country as part of the measures undertaken to avert the consequences of that earlier drought and this was done with the co-operation of the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission as well as other state agencies operating in the agricultural sector.

In the Ten-Year Perspective Plan that was adopted by the country before the occurrence of the current famine, resettlement is one of the major cornerstones of our agricultural development strategy. This was a position we arrived at after a close examination of the peculiar characteristics of our country and the concrete problems at hand. But we were not alone in seeing resettlement as an important element of rural development. The recommendations of various outside experts including those of the World Bank supported and confirmed this very strategy.

Of course, the intensity and the vast scale of the current drought which is a result of the remorseless southward advance of the Sahelian belt has obliged us to speed up both the pace and the scale of resettlement. But I don't think this should surprise anybody.

To come to the question of how far we have been successful in carrying out this resettlement project. I believe that the best approach, the best answer would be for you to go to the places



"Put nature at the service of man". Irrigation of cotton fields in the Middle Awash Valley



Ethiopian Press Service

“Resettlement is one of the major cornerstones of our agricultural development strategy”

where the resettlement project is being conducted and to gather for yourself first hand information about what is actually being done. That, more than what I say, will be a better answer to the question.

The second question is how long this project will go on. Well, this resettlement project will go on until such time as we are able to bring about a balanced settlement pattern in our country, that is, to bring about a balanced man-to-land ratio, and also until such time as we have fully implemented modern practices of soil and water conservation and of rational land use policy. The resettlement programme will, as an integral part of our rural development strategy, continue indefinitely through the effort of the people until all these goals are achieved and agriculture has been fully restored to the role that it ought to play in the economy.

We are getting considerable help and assistance from some countries which sympathize and see the logic of our effort and have declared themselves ready to work with us in this long-term project. From among the socialist countries we have secured already the assistance and co-operation in differing degrees, of the Soviet Union, the German Democratic Republic, Cuba and Poland. These countries have provided assistance to us in the form of transporting equipment and settlers from one part of the country to the other, and have provided us with medical service units and agricultural equipment whenever that has been possible.

We have also had the assistance of some western countries. Particularly,

Italy has co-operated with us in providing extensive aid, equipment, expertise and manpower. The government of Canada has also given us assistance in such areas as the setting up of agricultural research centres and the provision of food and equipment for the resettlement projects.

Well, I am only mentioning here the kind of assistance that has involved direct aid and participation in the resettlement project. But, of course, in such areas as relief assistance and the provision of food, many western countries including, particularly, the member countries of the EEC have been very prominent.

► *Resettlement is depopulating Wollo and Tigray provinces. What are your Government's plans for the development of the provinces?*

— The allegation that the resettlement is designed to depopulate the regions of Tigray and Wollo by moving the populations to other parts of Ethiopia is simply preposterous. That just cannot be the case. One thing is obvious, though. It is these two regions that have repeatedly been hardest hit by the cyclical droughts that have affected the country. And, it is very much in the nature of things that they should be the foremost beneficiaries of resettlement project and that the bulk of the programme should be in these two regions. But this does not, of course, mean the resettlement project is confined to the populations of these two regions alone.

In fact, most parts of the country are involved in this project. One may cite Shoa, the region at the very heart and centre of the country which has had

more people resettled from it than from Tigray, and second only to Wollo. I could mention others, similarly affected in a major way by the resettlement project: Gondar in the north west, Bale, Arssi etc. These last two regions have been familiar with resettlement for quite some time and new resettlement villages there are quite old. So, really, it is the entire country that has been involved in this resettlement project. Wherever the conditions for agricultural and livestock development are not favourable, then we have to continue this policy of resettlement. And as I indicated earlier, until such a time as we have attained a balanced ratio between population and land so that the pressure of the former over the latter is not excessive, and until a balanced pattern of settlement is attained to avoid soil degradation, naturally we will continue with this. Consequently, all parts of Ethiopia are of necessity involved.

Of course, when we talk of resettlement, we do not mean a wholesale and unending mass relocation of people from one part of the country to the other. There are pockets within the various regions in our country, pockets where nature has not been very favourable and where the prospects for agriculture are not really very promising and where it simply does not make sense for people to live. But in other parts of the same region where conditions are suitable for agriculture, of course, we will develop agriculture. The rest should be allowed to recover through a programme of re-afforestation or, perhaps, depending on the mineral resources available, go for industrial development. This is what is happening in the resettlement programme, including those in the region of Tigray and Wollo.

► *Your Excellency, can you explain the motives behind villagisation? And how is the population responding to a scheme which changes their traditional way of life?*

— We can say that the villagisation process is, in certain important ways, motivated by exactly the same considerations behind resettlement. I say that there is a common motivation behind resettlement and villagisation in the sense that both are conducted with the purpose of helping the peasantry get the best out of the agricultural lands of the country.

The settlement pattern of the rural population in Ethiopia is such that the people live scattered everywhere without any consideration to agricultural suitability, in valleys, on the sides of mountains, on hilltops and in a very isolated manner. And this situation has been directly responsible for the ecological deterioration of our country. Besides, whenever a crisis situation arises like the one which has just occurred in our country and when effort is underway to supply relief—food and medicine—to victims, precisely this scattered pattern of settlement has been a very, very monumental hindrance to bringing supplies to the people. Some villages were so completely inaccessible that we had to airdrop supplies and medicines to them. This then is the kind of concrete situation that obtains in the country.

So, if we consider the history and trends of economic development throughout the world, it is only when people live close together, be it in cities or in villages, that they can pool their manpower, their money, their inventiveness together in order to make the best use of the resources for them.

As long as people continue to live in this scattered and isolated pattern, it will be impossible to provide facilities such as drinking water and electricity for every house, or to establish common social services such as schools, clinics, markets, banks etc. It is only when they come to live together that such economic and social services can best be organised and installed. And on the whole, not only to free themselves from the legacy poverty and underdevelopment, but also to be really, firmly on the road of development, the coming together of scattered isolated rural households into villages is absolutely necessary. This is our justification and rationale for villagisation.

Obviously, but for the rights and privileges bestowed upon the people by the democratic revolution of Ethiopia, the peasants could not have been able to move about freely from one place to another and settle wherever they want to and wherever they wish. And this, if you like, is precisely the sort of concrete meaning that the democratic process and the victory of the revolution have come to signify in the minds of the people.

This would have been inconceivable before the Revolution. The whole



Ethiopian Press Service

"It is only when people live together that they can pool their manpower, their money, their inventiveness"

countryside belonged to a handful of rich people, and the peasants had absolutely no right to move about and settle wherever it would have made sense for people to settle. And it must be emphasized that this is the kind of victory that the Revolution has put in the hands of the people.

Just as in the case of resettlement, there are parties and individuals that are blindly and wilfully ill-disposed towards the idea of villagisation and whose attitude is totally negative.

Here again, I will suggest that the best answer to the question will be to go to some of these new villages and talk to the people themselves and find out what they feel about it, whether they had been coerced into coming into villages or if they came of their own free will, and what advantages they have observed as a result of the villagisation. And I think what the people have to say to this would be the best answer.

There are, of course, some deliberate and wilful distortions of the motivation behind villagisation. Some have gone to the extent of calling it a violation of human rights in which people have been moved into villages against their will. Others have equated villagisation with socialism and collectivisation, whereas what we are in fact doing is simply trying to face up to our desperate daily problems and to come to grips with our underdevelopment and backwardness.

Though the choice of socialism is the sovereign right of our people, it is not something that can be made to come about overnight, in one stroke. Socialism can be realised only with the full, voluntary participation of the people and its implementation requires a very long period of time.

Our objective in launching the villagisation programme is to bring about the necessary preconditions which will allow people to pool together their initiative, resources and combined strength in order to overcome their daily economic and social difficulties and to lay the basis for a sustained development.

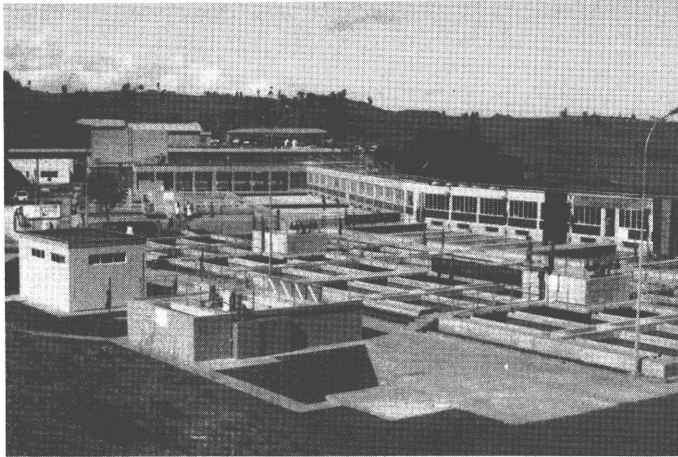
► *Thank you very much Mr Chairman. If I can go on now to another facet, Ethiopia is plagued by a number of secessionist movements. Do you think there is an alternative to the military solution which has so far eluded you?*

— Incidentally, there is a point that ought to be clear. There are not that number of secessionist movements in Ethiopia. What there are, are those who, for reasons connected with the losses of their vested interests, are consequently opposed to the new democratic order we are setting up in our country. There are also a few groups which advocate the idea of secession.

Well, to come to the question, it has always been the cardinal policy of our party, of our people, and of our Revolutionary Government that the solution to any of our national problems be a peaceful and a political one. And on our part, no effort has been spared in seeking to make a peaceful solution a reality, no time when our hand has not been extended for this purpose.

And in the course of the last twelve years, the number is not small of those who, realising the error of their delusions, have taken up the hand of peace extended to them and have returned to engage in the peaceful construction of their country.

There are undeniably others, who remain adamant and persist in their



The Courier

The Addis Ababa Water Supply Project, the largest project of its kind ever to be undertaken in an ACP State. Left, the Legadadi Filtration Plant. Right, Chairman Mengistu at the official opening

destructive misadventures, rather than follow the path of reconciliation and return to peaceful life.

As long as these elements do not favourably respond to the call of peace that has been made to them and as long as they continue pursuing their anti-people and destructive course, it naturally becomes the duty of the government to take appropriate measures. This does not mean, however, that if the antagonistic elements regret their past action and express willingness to pursue peace and participate in our development efforts we will not welcome them. The peace offer we made earlier in this regard is still standing.

A major step being taken at the moment in the way of resolving this and related problems is the issuance of the new draft Constitution. This draft Constitution which is currently being widely discussed by the population at large, guarantees the democratic rights and freedoms of citizens individually and collectively, including those of nationalities.

The draft Constitution which, eventually, will be submitted to the people for their approval through referendum, is to embody the will and aspirations of the Ethiopian people, at large. Nothing can be done against the will and the interest of the people. Any suggestion made in line with the interest of the people by any body for the improvement of the draft Constitution is naturally welcome. A democratic forum facilitating such a constructive participation is readily available.

The draft Constitution being a democratic and popular document, entertains all the burning questions of

our society, but stands against all the sinister attempts of disunity and disintegration. It is our firm belief that this Constitution, which is one of the main achievements of our revolution and which provides a solid ground for the progress of the country, will give answers to many questions of society. All those who have good will and are in right mind would definitely heed this.

► *Your development is based on scientific socialism, despite this model's failure elsewhere in Africa. Could you elaborate on your choice of system?*

— To begin with, it is not right, in my view, to mention the path of scientific socialism in Africa for comparison, as it is in its embryonic stage in this continent. The condition in which the African continent finds itself at the present moment is well expressed by the 13th Extraordinary Session of the General Assembly of the United Nations. Scientific socialism can surely not be responsible for the sad situation prevailing in the continent. We believe that Africa needs to combat backwardness through the sustained application of scientific and technological findings in her development efforts. In this regard what each country does individually or collectively is of decisive importance.

► *Your Excellency, mutual cooperation seems to be making progress. How optimistic are you that the aims to IGADD can be translated into fact, and how soon?*

— I believe that the step taken by the countries of Eastern Africa to cooperate particularly in combating the

problems arising from drought is a constructive step. The main functions of this organisation are to help member states obtain assistance urgently needed to withstand the problems arising due to drought, desertification and other natural calamities, to encourage and cooperate in the formulation and the undertaking of medium- and long-term projects and, in general, to follow up matters pertaining to drought situations in the region.

Nevertheless, the establishment of the organisation, though an important step, cannot be an end in itself. It has to have the capacity to attain its aims. It is at present premature to evaluate this organisation fully as it has been established only recently. I believe though that the organisation is moving in the right direction. Member countries are currently formulating development programmes which will be integrated into the development programme of the organisation. The strengths or weaknesses of the organisation can only be judged fully in the future. It is my firm belief that the effectiveness of this organisation depends not only on what the organisation does per se, but also on the degree of trust member countries put in it, on their genuine wish to cooperate with it and to benefit from it. Ethiopia fully and whole-heartedly supports this organisation. The assistance of similar and other international bodies to this new organisation, is believed will be indispensable.

► *How do you view the outcome of the UN's Special Session on Africa?*

— That the economic rehabilitation and development programme of the

continent approved by the 21st Summit of the Organisation of African Unity has gained general acceptance and also been taken up by the United Nations is a significant thing. In other words, this is the result of the African countries having given special emphasis, more than ever, to their economic development and difficulties, in unison.

What has been attempted so far is encouraging. Nevertheless, the United Nations, as well as other international organisations, is known for its myriad resolutions but faces formidable problems in their implementation.

For instance, the minimum external economic assistance needed for Africa is estimated at 46 billion dollars in the coming few years. If we fail to achieve this, the resolution becomes just a dead letter.

On the other hand it must be noted that the African countries individually as well as collectively bear the prime responsibility for fulfilling the vital needs of their peoples. One cannot and should not solely depend on external assistance.

— The Lomé Convention, which embraces countries of the European Community on the one hand, and those of the Pacific, African and Caribbean regions of which Ethiopia is a part, on the other, is an arrangement which has reinforced and further strengthened the already existing link we had with the Community. The Lomé III agreement is, no doubt, of mutual advantage to both parties, it is especially significant in boosting commercial and financial relations between the two parties concerned. As much as we need economic and technological cooperation with the Community, the Community, on its part, needs raw materials and minerals from these countries for its industries. We believe that this cooperation is of significant mutual advantage.

Nevertheless, what the Lomé Convention covers is very limited in nature. The benefit Ethiopia derives from the Convention is relatively quite low, especially if we consider the size of her population. Ethiopia as an ardent member of this Convention, strives for its development and strengthening.

tage of markets and low prices for the raw materials produced by the developing countries. It is only when these and other similar problems are resolved to the advantage of all concerned that a healthy cooperation can develop. Failing to consider these burning issues would mean serious contradictions and weakening of relations.

Another matter that deserves a special attention is the need for refraining from interference in the internal affairs of the sovereign Member States while conducting negotiations and concluding protocol agreements. The issues raised above, I believe, are all in the spirit of the Convention, the implementation of which we should all strive for.

► *How do you feel that the impact of the EEC and its Member States on the development of Ethiopia could best be increased?*

— As I said earlier, the Lomé Convention has contributed towards strengthening of our relations. The relations between the EEC countries and our country have been growing and widening. This has given us a degree of satisfaction. The bilateral relations we have with many EEC Member States is developing on the basis of respect and understanding. We attach significant value to this development.

As regards our relations with the Community, at large, especially during the last few years when we needed crucial assistance, though some Member States pursued rather negative attitudes towards our country, it was gratifying to note that the majority stood by our side.

Not only was the assistance readily forthcoming, but we also appreciate the initiative taken by Members of the European Parliament and other officials who came to see the efforts of our Party and Government in channelling the necessary materials to those who needed them most. We are hopeful that this positive cooperation between ourselves and the European Community would continue in the future. On our part, we are determined to develop our capability to overcome the obstacles facing the progress of our people. We are also certain that the assistance we receive will be utilised properly, as usual. ◊ Interview by T.G.



The Courier

“The relations between the EEC countries and our country have been growing and widening. This has given us a degree of satisfaction”

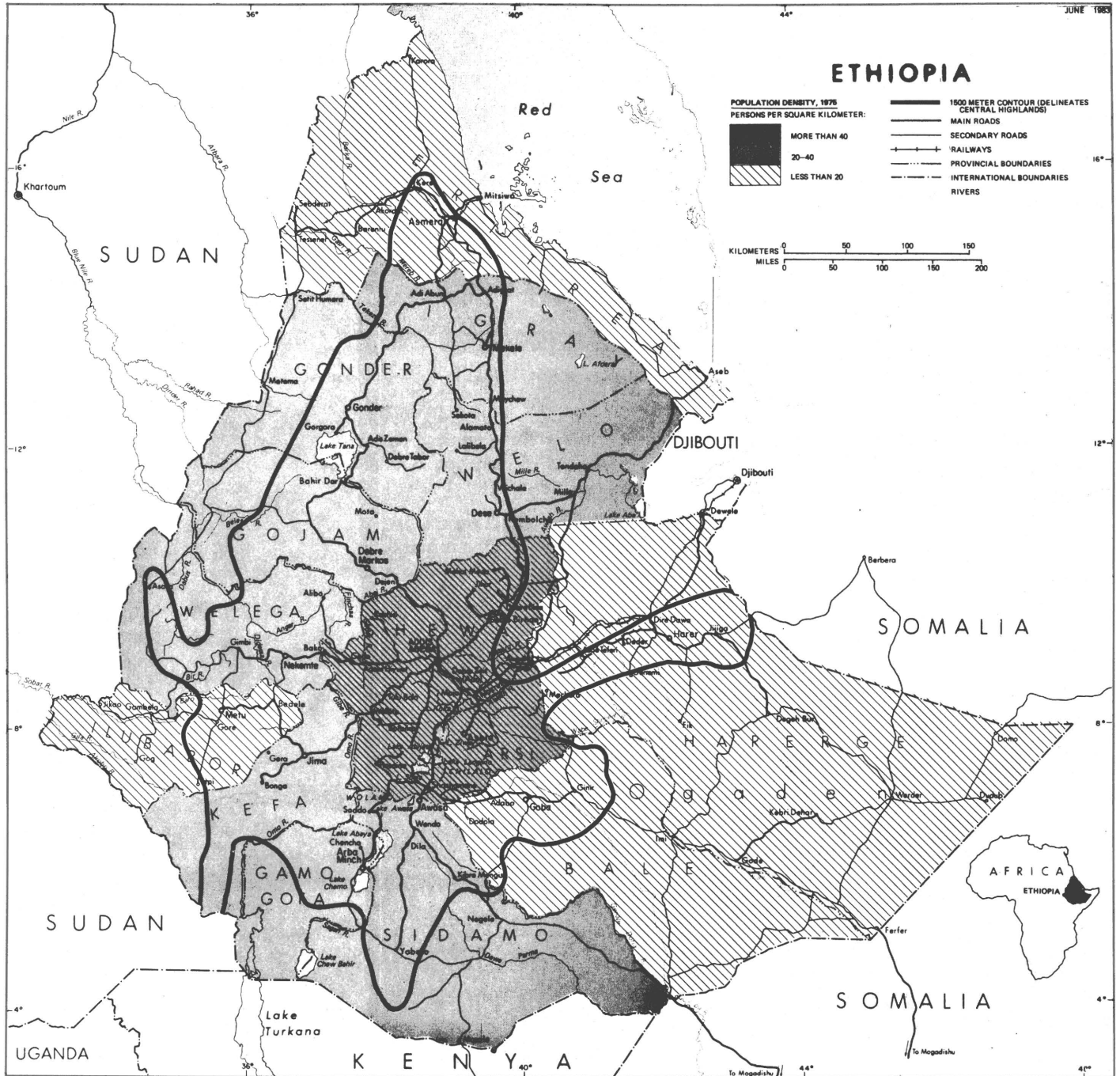
We believe that the concerted action of the African countries and that of the world community under the umbrella of the United Nations for the implementation of the above resolution can alleviate, to a certain degree, the economic hardships of the continent.

► *How satisfied are you, Your Excellency, with the cooperation model which Lomé III represents? How do you feel it could be improved?*

There are a number of questions to be considered if the Convention has to give a balanced and fair attention beneficial to the growth of the member countries. For example, the fact that the price of manufactured goods necessary for the development of the developing countries has soared beyond their reach is evident to everyone, and I believe that this issue should be given primary attention.

The second issue of concern is short-

ETHIOPIA



Profile

Head of State: Cde Mengistu Haile Mariam
Population: 42 million (1984)
Surface area: 1.2 m km²
Per capita GNP: ±\$ 115
Currency: Birr (2.07 Birr = US\$1)
Capital: Addis Ababa (pop. 1.5 m)
Other cities: Asmara, Assab, Debre Markos, Harar, Jimma, Makale, Gondar
Political Party: Workers' Party of Ethiopia
Languages: Amharic, English (main languages)
Literacy rate: 61.1%
Main exports: Coffee, hides and skins, sesame
Value of exports (1984): ±\$ 430 million



Coffee—the brown gold of Ethiopia

For a country with few exploitable mineral resources, and with a chronic food deficit, Ethiopian coffee has come to be as good as gold and as secure as oil to the nation's treasury. Every year, about 100 000 tons are exported earning around \$ 300 m (depending on international prices) and contributing 60%-70% of the country's foreign exchange earnings. A measure of the importance of coffee is the existence—quite separately from the Ministry of Agriculture—of a Ministry of Tea and Coffee Development. Turn the matter round the other way, and note that the word coffee, café, kaffee, caffè in whatever language you want, is derived from the Ethiopian province of Kaffa, one of the five provinces in the country where the coffee grows best. The others are Sidamo, ararge, Wollega and Illubabor.

Coffee in Ethiopia is a sort of shorthand for total hospitality. Coffee is roasted in every house fresh every morning. Beans are ground before the eyes of the family or the honoured guest. Each roasting is boiled three times of which the first is the strongest, and the guest is required to taste from all three boilings. A story is told about two visitors who came to a house. The first visitor was in a hurry, and left after drinking only one cup. En route to his destination, his mule and all his belongings were swept away in a flash flood, and he himself was stranded. The second visitor drank his three cups and, avoiding the flood, which had subsided, was able to rescue the other visitor. The moral is clear: don't hurry over coffee!

Ethiopia grows about 230 000 tons of coffee each year, consumes more than half that, puts a certain amount aside for stock, and sells about 100 000 tons. The coffee grows on

around 1/2 m ha of which 50% is wild, 40% garden and 10% plantation coffee. 98% of all coffee is grown by peasant farmers, either on communal land owned by the Peasant Association to which they belong, or on their individual plots. The coffee is bought by the Coffee Marketing Board which inspects and classifies the coffee and which holds the cautions in Addis Ababa. The coffee is eagerly sought: washed coffee commands the highest prices, except for the Mocca Harar type which is among world leaders for taste and quality. The bulk of Ethiopia's coffee, however, is dry prepared Arabica which reaches and indeed surpasses the international standard set by Brazil which is called Santos 4. Ethiopia's main markets are Saudi Arabia, Japan and the EEC.

The coffee-growing areas of Ethiopia are in the South-western and South-eastern highlands, the Arabica bean flourishing best at between



The Courier

1 400 m and 1 800 m in the south-west and 1 100 m and 1 500 m in the south-east. Since the vast bulk of the crop is grown by peasant farmers and since they have been doing this from time immemorial, one might be forgiven for thinking that no outside help is required. But this is not so. The peasant farmer, until the revolution of 1974, worked the land as a tenant, with the obligation to pass up to 75% of his crop to the landlord, and the incentive to improve his yield or his land was entirely lacking. The result was very low yields and a multiplicity of problems—old coffee trees, poor roads, little use of fertilisers or pesticides, shortage of labour for picking and, most important of all, pests and diseases, the most devastating of which was Coffee Berry Disease (CBD).

Coffee Berry Disease struck Ethiopia in 1971, along with other African countries. The disease moves very quickly—it can cover 12 km in a season—and it devours all the berries which it touches. It has been estimated that between 22% and 25% of the Ethiopian coffee crop has been affected, with all that that implies for production, export and foreign exchange receipts. But there is one saving grace—Ethiopia, and not Arabia, is the true home of the Arabica bean and the vast number of native strains of the Arabica means that research into resistant varieties is much facilitated. So far, Ethiopian research has isolated 15 disease-resistant strains of cultivar, which are being grown and disseminated as rapidly as possible.

Research and dissemination are beyond the reach of the traditional coffee farmer. The Ministry of Tea



In the foreground, a plantation of young coffee trees, while, in the background acacias give shade

ETHIOPIA

and Coffee Development launched a Coffee Improvement Programme in 1977 which has been supported, to the tune of nearly 40 mECU, by the European Development Fund. The aims of the CIP are twofold—to increase yields per acre, and to promote the use of CBD-resistant strains. Ato Hailu is the manager of the CIP, and has a close personal concern for his project, whether the matter concerns his 1 093 extension and research staff or his 14 million seedlings! During one of his frequent field trips to catch up on developments on one of the 15 CIP schemes operating currently, he explained: “The average Ethiopian yield is 4 quintals (0.4 ton, a quintal being 100 kg) per hectare. After five years’ work, we are getting 8 to 11 quintals per hectare in Kaffa Province”.

He went on to explain the life-cycle of a coffee tree and linked it to Ethiopia’s complex climatic conditions. In Ethiopia there are two rainy seasons each year; the *belg* or small rains, which fall from February to May, and the *meher* or large rains, which fall from June to September. Up to now, farmers tended to plant the coffee trees in July, but Ato Hailu is trying to convince them to plant in April, so that the tree’s roots will be more firmly fixed when the dry season starts in October. Harvesting takes place in October/November and three-year-old trees are the youngest to bear useful crops, although fifty-year-old trees are



The Courier

A nursery. The seedlings are carefully planted and tended before being transplanted

quite capable of yielding good crops, too.

The Coffee Improvement Programme works exclusively with peasant farmers, working through their Peasant Associations and the service cooperatives, by means of extension workers. Like all other productive activities in today’s Ethiopia, it is happy to be able to quantify the work it has done since its inception. It claims it has:

- assisted or trained 296 339 coffee farmers...
- established 46 demonstration sites
- replanted 9 694 ha of CBD-resistant varieties
- stumped 6 817 ha of old coffee
- sprayed 87 616 ha of old coffee
- planted 39.9 m seedlings
- audited 191 cooperatives...

The work so far, Ato Hailu explained, has largely been carried out on the Peasant Associations’ common holdings. But, he added, “what really pleases me is that the farmers are now coming forward voluntarily to seek advice and help on their own plots. That is the best news. It means that we are really getting through”.

“Getting through” means getting individual farmers to learn about stumping and spraying, getting them to invest in disease-resistant seedlings, tools and fungicides (a matter for the service cooperatives, who give credit to the individual farmers) and even

learning which trees to plant to give shade to the young coffee bushes. Acacia and cordia trees are favoured by the coffee plants, while the eucalyptus is most disliked.

For the farmer himself, things are still difficult. The work put in on the common holdings is unpaid, although this may change in the near future. The price paid for the coffee by the Coffee Marketing Board is considered too low, in view of its attractiveness to the market. But there can be little doubt that even on the material front, things have improved. An estimate made by the management of the CIP states that “in coffee growing areas, a farmer’s net annual income, before giving a margin for labour, is 1 459 Birr (about \$ 700) without the Project. With Project involvement, the average rises to 2 399 Birr (about \$ 1 150)”.

Again, the Project itself needs more time and more resources to pursue its work. Research must be intensified, better roads built, more facilities created for washing coffee to give the farmer’s product added value. (Currently, less than 10% of Ethiopia’s coffee exports are washed). More agricultural credit must be made available: seeds and pesticides are given on one year’s credit, and tools on five years’, but the demand is there even when the credit is exhausted.

Coffee, in all its forms, is central to life and society in Ethiopia. It is the mainstay of Ethiopia’s foreign exchange. It is a guarantee of reasonable earnings in the peasant sector. But above all, it is a social cement. Village life revolves round coffee-drinking. It starts off each new day, month and year. It marks family and religious events, both Christian and Muslim. It has been a motor in the formation of women’s groups and Peasant Associations, because new ideas come more easily over a cup of coffee. And in a land where life is hard “coffee is a well-wisher every morning” according to Ato Hailu. The only really peculiar thing about Ethiopian coffee is its name—unlike every other country, Ethiopians do not have a name for coffee which reflects its province of origin, Kaffa. For reasons they keep to themselves, they leave that to the rest of the world and use the word *Buna* to describe the brown gold that is their treasure. ○ T.G.



The Courier

Ato Hailu, Manager of the CIP in front of the shade for some of his seedlings. One of his extension officers is on the right

Cooperation between the EEC and Ethiopia

by Johann WALLNER (*)

Historical retrospective

Cooperation between Ethiopia and EEC began as early as 1973 when EEC made available to the then Imperial Government food aid to help deal with the serious famine resulting from drought prevailing in northern administrative regions in 1973-74. Already prior to the 1974 revolution the Ethiopian government had decided to join the group of ACP States and to take part in the negotiations for the Lomé I Convention. This basic policy orientation has been retained by the revolutionary government after the 1974 revolution. The Lomé I Convention was acceptable to the former Imperial government as well as to the succeeding socialist revolutionary government. This highlights the ideological neutrality of the Lomé concept from the very beginning.

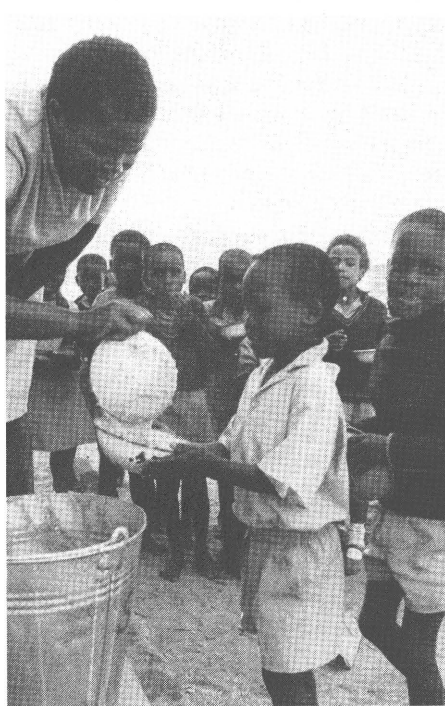
Ethiopia has been a signatory to the Lomé I, II and III Conventions. From the very beginning, it has become the biggest recipient of development aid with an allocation of programmable aid of 120 mECU, 141 mECU and 230 mECU under the successive Lomé Conventions. Due to the worst drought in decades which hit the country in 1984-85, Ethiopia has become the biggest recipient among ACP States of food aid and of emergency aid. Finally, Ethiopia has received resources under the Stabex system, from the European Investment Bank and from the regional section of the European Development Fund. Thus, Ethiopia had drawn substantial benefits from most instruments of the Lomé convention.

Cooperation under Lomé I and Lomé II

Ethiopia received, under the Lomé I convention, a country allocation of 120 mECU and under Lomé II of 141 mECU, largely as an outright grant. For virtually all these funds, financing decisions have been taken and financ-

ing agreements between the EEC Commission and the Ethiopian government have been concluded. Thus, all funds have been committed for specific projects and programmes. Most projects and programmes have been completed and all others are in the stage of implementation. Due to the advanced stage of most projects and programmes the disbursement rate is rather high, with more than 85% and 65% respectively of funds available under Lomé I and II. Ethiopia, in recent years, has shown the best performance of all ACP States in terms of commitment and disbursement of EDF funds. This remarkable achievement is due to the efficiency of the Ethiopian administration in terms of identification, preparation and implementation of development projects and to the good administrative cooperation between the government and the Delegation of the Commission on the spot.

During the past, development cooperation focussed on economic and social infrastructure, with more than



Ethiopia became the largest recipient of EEC food aid during the drought of 1984-85

Table 1
Sectoral breakdown of indicative programmes

LOMÉ I (Amount: 120 mECU)	
Rural development	28%
Economic infrastructure	52.5%
Social development	13.5%
Other	6%
LOMÉ II (Amount: 141 mECU)	
Rural development	22%
Industry, energy, mining	28%
Housing, urban development	43%
Training	4%
Reserves	3%

60% of the funds available, followed by agricultural and rural development with about 30%. Among the major projects by now successfully completed, the following are to be mentioned in particular: Addis Ababa Water Supply (53.45 mECU), Amarti Hydro Power Scheme (37 mECU), Gimbi-Gambella Road (26.40 mECU), Dessie Power Project (24.50 mECU), Geothermal Power Project (13.20 mECU), hospital in Kaffa region and school for laboratory technicians in Addis Ababa (10.20 mECU). These projects are a substantial contribution to the improvement of the country's economic and social infrastructure. Most of them have an adequate rate of internal economic return. They will play an important role in the country's future economic development. Most projects were executed by European contractors and in all projects European consultants were involved.

In addition to these country allocations, Ethiopia has received under Lomé I and II 31.3 mECU from the regional section of the European Development Fund for funding regional projects. The bulk of these funds, 25 mECU, have been committed for the rehabilitation and upgrading of the Ethio-Djibouti Railway, a project in which France has participated as well, with financial and technical assistance. EDF resources have been used to fund the supply of equipment (locomotives, coaches, trucks, inspection trolleys etc.), the installation of a communications system and the rehabilitation of 60 km of tracks.

(*) Commission Delegate in Addis Ababa.



The Courier

Transporting coffee seedlings. Coffee remains the prime foreign exchange earner for Ethiopia

Recently a financing agreement has been concluded between the EEC Commission and the Organisation for African Unity over 25 mECU for funding a campaign against rinderpest in five sub-Saharan African countries. Ethiopia, which has the biggest national cattle herd in Africa, will become a major beneficiary of this regional project.

Moreover, Ethiopia has received under Lomé II from the European Investment Bank a loan of 12.5 mECU with a subsidised interest rate. The proceeds of the loan are being used to fund the rehabilitation of the textile factory in Bahir Dar in Gojjam administrative region.

Finally, Ethiopia has received under the Stabex system up to the end of 1985 non-repayable transfer payments in the amount of about 26 mECU to compensate for shortfalls in export earnings from five products: coffee, hides, skins, cotton and sesame seeds. The above amount does not yet include transfer payments which might be expected, due to 1985 export performance. Stabex is the first, and so far the only, system agreed between a group of industrialised and developing countries to stabilise the export earnings of the latter.

Cooperation under Lomé III

Under the Lomé III Convention Ethiopia was allocated an amount of

230 mECU of programmable aid, the biggest country allocation for any ACP State. This allocation is composed of 182 mECU of grants, 18 mECU of special loans (1% interest rate, repayment period of 40 years including a grace period of 10 years) and 30 mECU of risk capital. An Indicative Programme on how to use these funds was agreed upon between the EEC Commission and the Ethiopian government in March 1986. Prior to the conclusion of this agreement, the Commission, in line with the spirit of the Lomé III Convention, had conducted with the Ethiopian government a dialogue, which focussed on objectives and policies in the agricultural sector. Both sides agreed that a reduction of the present structural grain gap and the achievement of grain self-sufficiency in the medium term is a policy objective of overriding importance. Hence, 85% of the funds foreseen in the Indicative Programme shall be spent on the peasant agricultural sector. Ethiopian farm policies to be supported with EDF resources will aim at improving the productivity of peasants, increase the output per hectare and per family, increase the income and the living standards of peasants and improve grain supply to non-agricultural consumers. These goals shall be achieved by an increased supply of improved farm inputs to peasants, by improving agricultural research and extension, by improving rural infrastructure (rural roads, storage facilities etc.) and by improving the agricultural credit system for peasants. There has been full agreement between both sides that essential improvement of material incentives for peasants is a necessary condition to ensure a positive response of peasants by producing and supplying a growing marketable surplus. In line with this basic idea the Ethiopian government will increase the farmgate price of AMC⁽¹⁾ for grain, taking into account the costs of farm inputs and the import parity price for grain. Furthermore, marketing arrangements and in particular the AMC share in grain marketing and the system of compulsory delivery quotas imposed on peasants will be reformed in order to create an efficient multi-channel marketing system offering the peasant various possibilities for selling

(1) Agricultural Marketing Corporation.

Table 2
Indicative programme IVth EDF
List of operations
Amount of I.P.: ECU 120 000 000

Projects	Decided amount (ECU) (financing decision)
- Multiannual Training Programme	3 875 000
- Coffee Improvement Project	12 870 000
- Rural Water Supply	14 180 000
- Amibara Irrigation Project	17 245 400
- Low Cost Housing	1 500 000
- Microprojects	
1st Annual	320 000
2nd Annual	538 000
- Practical Education	2 100 000
- Fisheries Development	1 739 950
- Geothermal Research	13 190 000
- Ghimbi Shebel Road	22 000 000
- Angele-Bolhamo-Amibara 2	345 000
- Dessie Region Power Project	13 000 000
- Amarti Diversion Power Project	4 000 000
- Delegation	1 835 077.31
- Construction and Equipment of Teferi Hospital	10 000 000
- TA to Ministry of Finance	115 000
- TA to the Ministry of Mining	6 000
- Study of Cotobie-Kombolcha Power	55 823.67
- TA Training	500 000.00
- Equipment for health projects	24 000
- Fisheries Development	60 000
- Health projects	167 000
- TA Trade Promotion	35 441.32
- TA Examination of studies	36 058.87
- Agricultural Study	174 314.16
- TA Development Agency	65 430.05
Total	119 977 495.38

his marketable surplus. Finally, grain marketing within and between regions by private operators shall ensure the smooth flow of grain from surplus to deficit areas. These policy measures will be adopted by the Ethiopian government during the lifespan of the Lomé III Convention, in parallel with the commitment and disbursement of EDF funds for projects and programmes in the peasant agricultural sector.

The dialogue on Ethiopian farm policies which began so promisingly and resulted in the Indicative Programme of March 1986 will be continued in the coming years.

Table 3
Indicative programme Vth EDF
List of operations
Amount of I.P.: ECU 141 000 000

Projects	Decided amount (ECU) (financing decision)
— Coffee Improvement Project	27 200 000
— Addis Ababa Water Supply • including loan ECU 7 700 000	53 450 000
— Amarti Diversion • including loan ECU 16 000 000	33 000 000
• Study	100 000
— Dessie Region Power Project	8 500 000
• TA Dessie Region Power	76 541.91
— Training Programme	5 000 000
— Amibara Irrigation Proj. (loan)	2 900 000
— Electricity tariff study	307 412.48
— TA Ministry of Education	55 000
— TA Ministry of Finance	99 000
— Section Shebel Gambela of the Road Ghimbi Gambela	5 810 000
— Rural Water Supply Extension	1 900 000
— Geothermal Study	400 000
— TA Mining	85 000
— Construction and Equipment of Teferi Hospital	1 500 000
Total	140 382 954.39

In addition to the improvement of peasant productivity and increase of agricultural production in high potential areas, EDF assistance in drought-affected areas will put major emphasis on soil and water conservation, on afforestation and reforestation as well as on the gradual rehabilitation of the productive agricultural potential.

Over and above the country allocation provided for under the Indicative Programme, Ethiopia will continue to benefit from resources of the EDF put aside for regional cooperation, which amount, under the Lomé III Convention, to 1 000 mECU, from which an amount of 185 mECU has been earmarked for the East African subregion. With the formation of the Intergovernmental Agency for the fight against Drought and for Development (IGADD) in January this year, there should be more scope for regional projects in the Horn of Africa. Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan, Somalia and Uganda are members of IGADD. The

organisation has drawn up an action plan and a first donors' meeting for IGADD has been scheduled for November this year. If IGADD becomes efficient as to identification, preparation and coordination of projects of member states designed to fight desertification, it might well attract resources from the regional section of the EDF as well as additional funds from other donors. The prospects for future cooperation between Ethiopia and the European Investment Bank are promising. EIB recently has made available 500 000 ECU for funding a feasibility study concerning the expansion and intensification of gold mining in Sidamo administrative region. The feasibility study is under execution by an experienced European consulting firm. In case of positive technical findings and economic conclusions, an investment of rather substantial proportions might follow.

Food aid and emergency aid

The structural and longer-term development problems of Ethiopia have been aggravated by the 1984/5 drought, the worst in decades, which has caused unprecedented suffering and affected almost 8 m people, one fifth of the total population. The grain requirements were estimated at 1.5 m tonnes for 1985 and 1.1 m tonnes for 1986. There has been a generous response by the international community to the government's appeal for relief assistance, meeting to a large extent the country's relief requirements. The government has shown a good performance in managing a relief exercise of such big proportions. The government, in mastering organisational and logistic problems of such magnitude, has demonstrated its ability to deal effectively with short-term crisis situations.

The EEC Commission took part in the international relief effort with substantial quantities of food aid and large amounts of emergency aid. Ethiopia, indeed, has been a regular recipient of EEC food aid since the seventies, and it has repeatedly received, even prior to 1984 emergency, aid via the supply of vehicles, medicines, blankets, seeds, etc. Since October 1984, EEC relief aid for Ethiopia has substantially increased. The Commission pledged, in 1984, food aid to

the value of 52 mECU and emergency aid of 22.8 mECU, in 1985, food aid of 49.5 mECU and emergency aid of 55.3 mECU and in 1986 food aid of 46.7 mECU, emergency aid of 6 mECU and rehabilitation aid of about 33 mECU. These sums were used to initiate, in 1984, the supply of 78 000 t of grain, in 1985 of 155 000 t of grain and in 1986, so far, of 110 000 t of grain. Furthermore, substantial quantities of supplementary food (butteroil and skimmed milk powder) were supplied. Food aid has been supplied as an outright grant cif port of unloading (Assab, Massawa, Djibouti). Inland transport costs were paid in part as well. The major part of EEC food aid has been given directly to the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission, a government agency, for free distribution in drought-affected areas, and the rest has been channelled via nongovernmental organisations.

The 78.3 mECU of emergency aid made available since 1984 have been used for funding inland transport costs of food aid, the supply of medicines, medical and medico-nutritional operations by nongovernmental organisations, costs of airlifting and of airdropping of food, procurement of food and of seeds. Emergency aid has been channelled via the Ethiopian government (RRC), via UN agencies (UN, UNHCR, UNICEF) and through NGOs.

The EEC Commission, after careful analysis, felt that between emergency relief on the one hand, and long term development aid on the other hand, there is a need for short/medium term rehabilitation aid, the purpose of which would be to bring the performance of the agricultural sector as fast as possible to pre-drought levels. For that purpose a rehabilitation plan for Ethiopia of 31 mECU was adopted in early 1986. Under this plan, 19 mECU will be spent on the supply of farm inputs to peasants in drought-affected areas (fertiliser, pesticides, seeds, handtools, material and equipment for irrigation) 9 mECU for improving the economic and social services in rural areas (truck spare parts for the fleets of RRC and of Natracor, storage facilities, rural water supply) and 3 mECU for spare parts needed by the Ethio-Djibouti Railway. The rehabilitation programme is under execution.



The Courier

Signature of the Lomé III Indicative Programme in Addis Ababa in March 1986. From left to right, Dieter Frisch, Director General for Development, Comrade Mersie Ejigu, Head of General Planning, ONCCP, and Jacques Silvain of the EIB

Due to the substantial amounts of emergency relief from many sources, coordination of major donors of food aid and of emergency aid has been of major importance. There has been close and continuous cooperation between the Commission and EEC Member States in Brussels as well as in Addis Ababa. Furthermore, regular meetings of major donors in Addis Ababa ensured a swift and comprehensive exchange of relevant information, facilitating the smooth flow of relief items from the Ethiopian ports to the needy population in drought-stricken areas.

Commercial relations

The Lomé Convention is a comprehensive aid and trade pact. Under the trade provisions of the Convention Ethiopia enjoys, as do all other ACP States, free access to the EEC market for the vast majority of its products without any customs duties or quantitative restrictions. These preferential trade arrangements for products originating in ACP States do not carry any obligation of reciprocity and in Ethiopia EEC products do not enjoy any preferential treatment. Ethiopia treats products from all third countries—EEC, USA, Japan, Comecon—legally

on an equal footing. EEC has been the leading trading partner of Ethiopia well ahead of all other countries. With 35% of total Ethiopian imports and 28% of Ethiopian exports, the EEC is the main supplier to Ethiopia and the main customer of Ethiopian products. Ethiopian exports to the EEC rose from 87.5 mECU in 1976 to 227.3 mECU in 1984. Over the same period Ethiopian imports from the EEC quadrupled from 100 mECU in 1976 to 446.3 mECU in 1984. The main products exported were coffee, hides, skins, and sesame seeds, whereas the main products imported were machinery, transport equipment, foodstuffs and chemicals. Among the EEC member states Germany, France and Italy have been the main customers for Ethiopian products whereas UK, Italy and Germany have been the main suppliers. Over the past 10 years the EEC always has had a surplus on its trade with Ethiopia, rising from 13 mECU in 1976 to 219 mECU in 1984.

It is a major policy objective of the Ethiopian government to expand and to diversify exports. The EEC is encouraging these efforts within the framework of trade promotion. In recent years Ethiopia has participated in a number of European trade fairs at the expense of the EDF.

Conclusions and prospects for future cooperation

Ethiopia, under Lomé I and II, has received substantial amounts of programmable and nonprogrammable aid. She, in addition, has received in recent years big quantities of food aid and a considerable volume of emergency aid, partly under the Lomé Convention and partly from the Community budget. There has been from 1975 to 1985 a resource flow from the Community (excluding bilateral aid from member countries) to Ethiopia in the amount of 608 mECU. The bulk of these resources have been given as an outright grant. This high volume of resources, supplied partly in cash and partly in kind, partly for short-term emergency relief and partly for longer term economic development, has been efficiently absorbed and properly used by Ethiopia. Quite a number of important development projects resulted from EDF development aid. This remarkable performance as to absorptive capacity augurs well for future Ethio-EEC cooperation.

The goal of Ethio-EEC cooperation is to reverse the past trend of low economic growth and of almost stagnant food production, which, aggravated by drought, have led to poverty, famine and a growing structural food gap. Ethiopia will have to achieve, in the years to come, a GDP growth rate of 3.5% and a growth rate of agricultural output of 3% at least in order to avoid a further deterioration of output and income per capita. A significant improvement would require higher growth levels. Economic growth depends on the amount of public and private investment, on the efficiency of resource allocation and on the performance of economic agents. The policy framework plays an important role in this respect. Therefore it must be improved and reformed in the light of practical experience. The decisive test of an economic policy and of an economic system is whether it delivers the goods expected. If this is not the case, adjustments and reforms are required. In this sense Ethiopia's future development policies, hopefully, will be guided by the needs of the population and lessons from past experience will be learned. After all, economic policy is a process of trial and error.

J.W.

BURKINA FASO^(*)



SIPA - Senepart

Captain Thomas Sankara

In the wake of the 1983 revolution he believed that a moral line had to be set, so that common aims and conduct could be determined and so that both the new team and its policies could reflect a trustworthy and pleasing image

Following in Saint-Just's footsteps

Sunshine follows showers and showers follow sunshine here in Ouagadougou in June and from the plane the capital looks green. And the streets and offices and other places of everyday activity give no signs of disaster either. Yet this is the Sahel—although only in northern Burkina does the full force of its harsh climate strike. But news of this country over the past couple of decades has not often been

(*) The country report was carried out during June 1986, since which time the Burkinabé Government has been reshuffled, several of the Ministers quoted in the report having changed portfolio or having left the Government altogether.

hopeful about development. It was as if Upper Volta, which became Burkina Faso in 1984, had been overcome or doomed, like Sisyphus, to heave the rock of its climate and landlocked situation up a never-ending hill.

It is the refusal to accept fate as the universal explanation of underdevelopment, it is this desire to break with its historic task of supplier of labour to the countries around it in the system they inherited on independence (and which was never questioned, either intellectually or by the optimum utilization of the certain and complementary

advantages of the States in the region) that provide us with our first plausible explanation of the profound change in Ouagadougou on 4 August 1983. The take-over by the young army officers, with Captain Thomas Sankara at their head, looked like the culmination of an economic, social and even ethical decline for which the ruling classes had proposed no final solutions that would get the support of the young people, born after independence, who make up the bulk of the population.

In this, the Sankara regime was similar to the system of Flight-Lieutenant Jerry Rawlings, who was brought to power in Ghana by the army to "rationalize the country's political and economic life". Like the Ghanaian Head of State and the present leaders of Nigeria, Captain Sankara has had no hesitation in applying the strictest disciplinary measures to corrupt state officials and he has felt justified in so doing by his conviction that his economic and social policy has the approval of large and important classes of the population, who, rightly or wrongly, felt they had been victimized by the traditional political class. But going beyond social justice—or just justice—the President has felt, right from the start, that a moral code is essential if they are to fix objectives and decide on general behaviour and to give the new team and the new policy an image that is flattering and inspires confidence. So the slogans proclaiming honour and glory to the people were closely associated with others denouncing "corrupt functionaries" in virulent terms. Captain Sankara's political guidance speeches stress the ethical notion that must be ready to step in at all times as an effective and immediate element of decision-making.

Revolutionary tribunals or public confessions

So Burkina's new leaders think a sound moral basis is vital if they are to achieve their economic and social objectives. But they have been quick to realize that the job would be difficult without putting an end to corruption and the misuse of state funds and keeping public opinion informed of the process. The People's Revolutionary Tribunals (TPR), which were set up after the August '83 revolution,

Structural adjustments "We didn't wait for the IMF"

The need for proper management of Burkina Faso's economy and finances does not just come from the country's "new political outline". It comes from the realities of the situation, the very limited means the Government has for its strategy. State income is small and mainly derived from direct and indirect taxation (80-90% of the 1985 budget of CFAF 70 billion). At the same time, the increasing burden of repayments on the external debt and soaring labour costs are widening the gap between income and outlay. Damo-Justin Barro, the Minister for Financial Resources, whose department has the delicate task of holding the purse-strings for the others, explained how the Government is applying the fundamental principles of the country's general policy in this key sector.

"Since the National Council of the Revolution was formed, the Government's main concern has been to manage the State budget stringently by regular reviews of the spending of each ministry and drawing attention to any risk of serious overspending likely to interfere with the running of the government programme... This makes it possible to control and keep the various budgetary over-runs within a certain bracket", Mr Barro added. And furthermore, he went on, the State has also taken serious steps to contain spending. That is to say, it has brought in structural adjustments. "We didn't have to wait for the IMF to see the point and the necessity of structural adjustments in our new economic and financial policy". Practically speaking, this means discontinuing or reducing certain investments that are not very productive or profitable and cutting back on administrative operating costs and State spending.

Renault 5s for the President and the Ministers

One of the most spectacular measures in the State's hunt-the-waste campaign was the 1984 decision to give the President, Captain Sankara himself, and the Ministers small cars—Renault 5s, without air-conditioning. The Mercedes and Peugeot 505s, the luxury cars here in Burkina,



President Sankara and his ministers—here Joséphine Ouédraogo—content themselves with small cars, such as the Renault 5

are kept for official visitors—who, however, "really don't mind using their partners' Renault 5s". The Financial Resources Minister says that the Burkinabés' confidence in the present Government will come from its ability to improve their standard of living and prove it has put the sacrifices asked of them to good use within the framework of the Popular Investment Effort.

But as far as the Government is concerned, everyone does not have to use small cars, just because it does. It is a matter of means. And in the clean and shady streets of Ouagadougou, two-wheelers, the lords of the traffic, vie with a whole range of cars. And as we shall see later, the authorities maintain that sound financial management should both make for productive public investments and encourage the private sector by cutting costs and creating the flexibility and psychological conditions the economic operators need. ○

LUCIEN PAGNI



Damo-Justin Barro, Minister of Financial Resources "Since the National Council of the Revolution was formed, the Government's main concern has been to manage the State budget stringently"

have been an opportunity not so much to "judge" and "condemn" the "guilty" (which they do), but to get the people responsible for these major offences to make "purifying" public confessions which are broadcast in full so as to produce a psychological shock and get public support for an operation that was not initially popular because of the newness of the procedure and the occasional inquisition-like excesses of some of the judges. The authorities willingly admit that there is a risk of over-enthusiasm and the most serious cases have in fact been dealt with publicly.

As a result, there is genuine respect for public property in Burkina Faso today. Whether from fear or conviction, the Minister who says: "I have refused several offers of bribes in the interests of my country and the people", or the tax inspector who goes on TV to explain certain rumours show, as one expatriate observer pointed out, that "something is happening in Burkina that could well change people's ideas on the indelicate financial management of the African countries". Of course, you have to be careful about the root causes in assessing African finances. Even if leaders here in Burkina find no excuses—to put it mildly—for their predecessors' errors of management, some leaders recognize the fact that "temptations could have come from outside too".

Profile

Surface area: 275 000 km²

Population: 6.7 million (31 December 1983)

Population density: 25/km². Annual growth rate: 2.9%

Capital: Ouagadougou (pop. 250 000)

Other towns: Bobo-Dioulasso (150 000), Koudougou (42 000), Ouahigouya (25 000), Kaya (16 000), Banfora (13 000)

Principal products (1983):

Agriculture: sorghum (600 000 tons); millet (300 000 tons); groundnuts (77 000 tons); cotton and cottonseed (22 000 and 50 000 tons); sesame, rice, fruits and vegetables, sugar

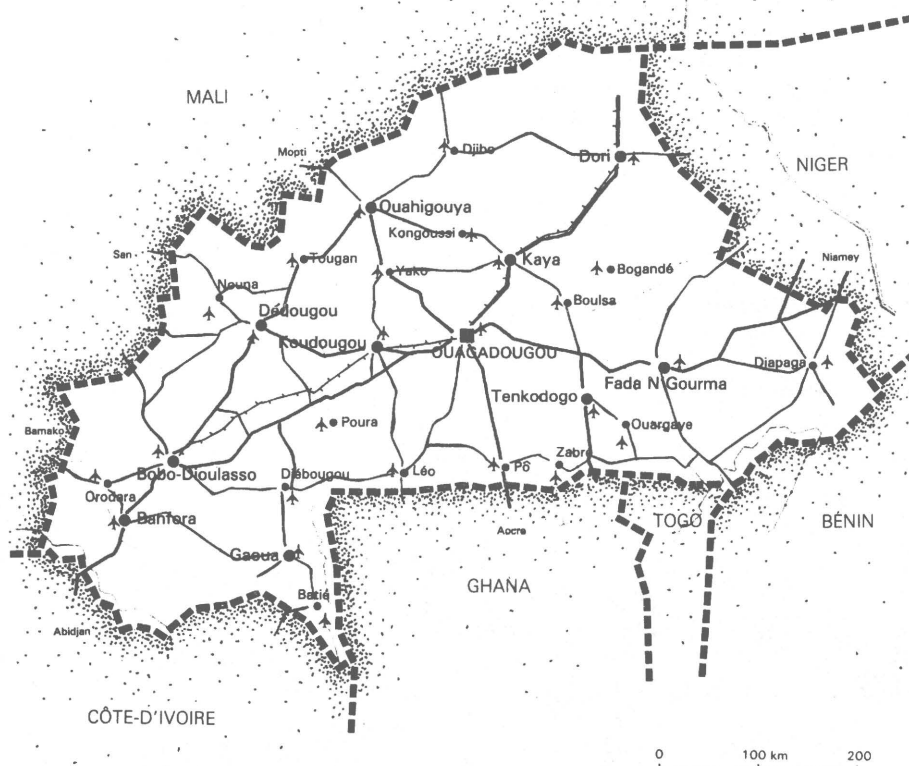
Livestock: 7 m, of which 3 m cattle

Per capita GNP: \$ 160 (*) (1984)

Balance of payments and reserves, 1984: -\$ 67 million

Gross external debt (1984): \$ 433 m, of which public debt \$ 407 m. Debt service: 2.3% of GNP (*)

(*) Source: World Bank.



A large low-cost housing programme has been launched in the country, as evidenced here in Ouagadougou with Cités An I et An II

Professional training at the Technical High School in Ouagadougou



ECONOMICS

“Counting on ourselves”

As we saw in the previous article, Burkina's new regime makes the rationalisation and sound management of public finance the cornerstone of its economic policy and the *sine qua non* of success. The idea is to make the country less dependent on the economies of the industrialised world and on these new regional focuses that are in some ways extensions of the economically dominant nations. For there, Burkina's authorities maintain, countries in the region with serious handicaps (being landlocked or

drought-ridden or short on natural resources), such as Burkina has itself, play a decisive role in overall economic developments and therefore get only marginal benefit from the positive effects of what should be complementarity with neighbouring countries—which, in spite of better economies, are still affected by the ups and downs of external industrial centres.

In Burkina, the drive to raise farm prices and cut state spending should generate fresh resources for the re-

launch of agricultural production and productivity. And agriculture is the sector on which the new economic strategy hinges.

Self-sufficiency in food is the leit-motif of agricultural policy. Agriculture represents around two-fifths of GNP and food imports are ever on the increase (they rose from about \$ 59 million in 1980 to \$ 69 million in 1982). Cereals and dairy products are the bulk of these imports and it should come as no surprise, as grain is the staple food of the 6.5 million-strong population—which produced 1 million t of millet and 110 000 t of maize in 1982-83. Subsistence farming is still very common and the drought of the past few years has reduced the efficiency of certain agricultural measures and it caused a food deficit, estimated at about 150 000 t, in 1984-85. The

Vegetable growing around a well in Yatenga. The government is anxious to encourage production activities around water points installed throughout the country



Faicutti

present Government has tried to take all these natural parameters and—and this is perhaps the most important thing—the human factors into account in devising its economic strategy.

Population involvement

There can be no green revolution without the active involvement of the rural populations. They are of course the vanguard of agricultural development. An “objective” alliance between the Government’s programme and the traditional and individualistic aspirations of the peasant classes is to be achieved, the CNR (National Committee of the Revolution) has decided, in two main ways, through agricultural reform and the modernisation of farming.

Reform means one thing—nationalising the land. But why does the State think it has to do this? Seydou Traoré, the Agriculture Minister, told us that: “Because of the drought, farming has speeded up the advance of the desert, leading many peasants to move to land that is still cultivable but in many cases away from their original areas”. Only 9 million ha of the 275 000 km² national territory is arable land and only 2.1 million ha of that is being worked. “We thought we could manage the land fairly if we nationalised it and made a better job of organising migration by sharing out good land properly so that peasants who are forced to leave unfertile land can be resettled on a lasting basis without any conflict between past and present uses”, Mr Traoré went on. But in some regions, sound, stimulating competition must be created. “In the Volta Valley Development Scheme, the success of new arrivals initially caused friction between them and the locals, but in the end it led the locals to make an active contribution to developing land that had been improved by the eradication of river blindness”. Now that the State can make use of fertile land, and distribute it to people anxious to make something of it, fertile land need not be left in the hands of others who seem less active. And “nationalisation” does not mean “plundering” either. “What we wanted to do”, the Minister said, “was just have the land where it was available but not being used, even if traditionally it belonged to certain families. We want to

get as many people as possible, particularly young ones, involved in our new agricultural policy, with the ultimate aim of producing our own food and achieving self-sufficiency in food on our own very quickly”.

The Government is also being “very circumspect in considering state farms”, seeking a system that allows the farmer the maximum benefit of his labour. Some pilot farms have of course been planned but they will be for instruction and primarily aimed at gauging the potential of certain ecological areas. The Government tends more to “encourage producer cooperatives”, something which reflects its other concern—to avoid State monopolies in the marketing of produce.

Dams

Agricultural reform was aimed at reducing conflict in land ownership as far as possible, but the Government and the people who expressed their private concerns in the People’s Development Programme (PPD) begun in 1984 have realised that water is also a vital aspect of the drive for self-sufficiency. If they can control their water resources, they can cope with the problems of inadequate, badly-spread rainfall. This is why a Ministry of Water Resources was set up two years ago, with the aim of building dams for agriculture and providing drinking water in the towns and villages.

There are major water projects. The Bagré dam on the White Volta should, the studies say, make it possible to irrigate about 7 300 ha of land on which 32 000 t of paddy rice, 15 000 t of maize and more than 7 500 t of vegetables can then be grown every year. The whole agricultural programme aims to produce 1.7 million t of millet, sorghum and maize in 1990 in contrast to the estimated 1.5 million t of 1985, and the figure for rice should be 85 000 t (68 000 t today). The Sourou rice scheme, begun in 1984 with European aid and population participation, will ultimately yield 10 000 ha of irrigated rice plots worked by 25 000-30 000 families.

The anti-erosion campaign

Michel Tapsoba, the Minister for Water Resources, said that water con-

trol is an important contribution to the anti-erosion campaign. In the past, the big hydro-agricultural schemes (the Kou and the Comoe tapping operations, for example) led to the extension of vegetable and industrial crops that were thought to be the only things that would pay for the investments. Ultimately, the failure to find any schemes in cereal-growing areas led to low-productivity land being developed and to a deterioration of the soil related to an acceleration in temporary crop cycles. A cut in the cost of work and recurrent costs (which are now planned for when projects are priced) should substantially reduce the final cost of village schemes, particularly those involving agricultural water supplies and small retaining dams which the locals themselves are responsible for and which can also help intensify the anti-erosion campaign.

Better integration of agriculture and industry

The productive apparatus will be boosted as part of a plan to integrate agriculture and industry better as Burkina’s structural trade deficit is tied up with the type of extraverted economy that is typical of so many countries of Africa. Hence the need to put priority on developing import substitution industries—and hence the creation of the Ministry of Economic Promotion after 4 August 1983. The aim, says Captain Henri Zongo, its head, is to “monitor and control the management of public bodies and State and mixed companies and to recast the rules governing these establishments so they are profitable economic concerns for the nation”. But the job of the Ministry is also to supply any assistance requested by private firms that might help reduce the country’s dependence on imports of basic goods. After two years, industrial responsibilities were added to economic promotion and now, Henri Zongo told us, “in the matter of our priority on food, the Ministry has to encourage activities that lead to food production”. The Government’s economic promotion facilities have enabled a tractor plant to be opened in Bobo-Dioulassa and now the farmers get their machinery quicker and can be introduced to and trained in modern farming methods more quickly. The Ministry of

BURKINA FASO



Michel Tapsoba
Minister of Agriculture

Economic Promotion also helps producers get bank credit and set up allied industries, producing fertiliser and other agricultural inputs.

The Ministry also provides a better response to the need to substitute national products for everyday agricultural imports by encouraging "the opening, further down the production chain, of processing units turning out groundnut oilcakes and cotton cakes for cattle, since herding is such an important sector", the Minister explained. It will thus be easier for the nomadic herdsmen of the north to agree to keep their cattle in enclosures built for them and the animals can be fed better and more regularly with feed that is produced in Banfora or Bobo-Dioulasso at very competitive cost prices and can therefore be sold cheaply to the herdsmen. Burkina currently has an estimated 7 million head of livestock, including more than 3 million cattle.

Animal feed will also be produced for sheep and goats, which thrive in Burkina's climate, as well as for poultry and even for fish farming, where the potential is considerable.

Certain firms—Grands Moulins du Burkina (GMB) and the sugar refinery—have been rehabilitated and for the past two years have shown profits of CFAF 500-700 million. This is because of diversification by SOFITEX (textiles) of Sourou, which is now producing maize, soya, millet and wheat for processing by GMB. In the past, these crops were mostly imported and there were chronic deficits in the firms concerned as a result.

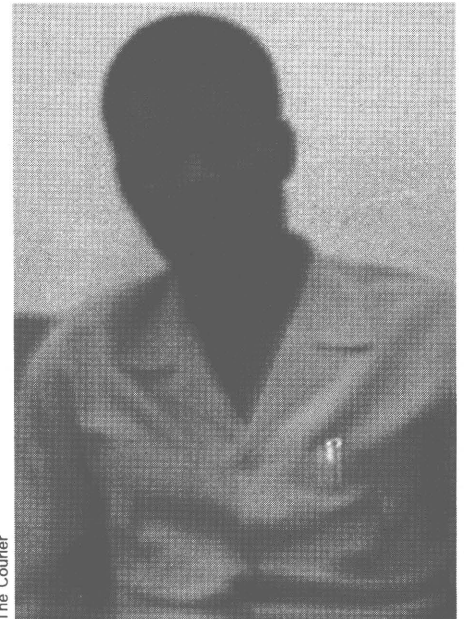
The Minister of Economic Promotion summed up the situation by say-

ing that, ultimately, "industry must make a strong contribution to the development of agriculture and it must also help solve unemployment and the problem of keeping the population supplied with everyday manufactures". It is also clear that the support industry gives to agriculture will depend on how much vitality agriculture can show.

Manufacturing is one of the weakest links in the country's economic chain, accounting for only slightly more than 11% of GNP. In 1983 it accounted for 19% of GNP; in 1981 it employed 13% of the active population. A shortage of raw materials, the need to import oil and, above all, the narrow local market are a brake on expansion. The biggest firms in the sector, apart from those mentioned above are the oil mill (with a soap plant in Banfora), one or two breweries making beer and soft drinks, a footwear factory, a scooter and motorised bicycle assembly plant and a tyre factory. Another handicap in manufacturing is the shortage of both skilled labour and capital, problems which the Government is trying to solve by concentrating on practical training for young people and making the conditions for private investments in Burkina easier.

Exports

The Government is stressing food production, but, given the economic structure of the country, export pro-



Youssouf Ouédraogo
Minister of Planning and People's Development

duction, although less decisive, has always been encouraged too. Burkina's main products are groundnuts, sesame, cotton and karité nuts (for oil and butter), all crops which are very sensitive (apart from cotton) to changes in the weather. In 1984 Burkina's exports rose to CFAF 35 billion, originating mainly from the agricultural sector (cotton accounting for 20 billion).

Fruit (mangoes especially) and vegetables have also deteriorated in quantity and price for both internal and



Fruitsellers in Ouagadougou. Burkina produces the best mangoes in Africa

external reasons (exorbitant transport and marketing costs). The Government is trying to handle the drop in output and producers' incomes by a 40% increase in the agricultural share of the budget and a substantial rise in the prices paid to producers of food and export crops.

Hope in the mining industry

Hope of boosting Burkina's export earnings could come from the mines, as known mineral resources so far seem considerable. Poura gold production came to a halt back in 1966, but was resumed in 1984 thanks to ECU 27 million-worth of funds paid by the EEC to a majority state-held company. The mineral reserves at Poura are estimated at 1.5 m tonnes. Annual gold production is of the order of 1 500 kg.

Then there is antimony



at Malafou, marble at Tiara and sand supplies of zinc and silver at Perkoa near Koudougou. In addition, Burkina has manganese deposits in Tamboa, in the north-west. Discovered in 1959, manganese constitutes a potential of 14 million tonnes which can be exploited at the rate of 500 000 tonnes annually as and when the price of manganese justifies its exploitation.

Technically speaking, there are no major problems associated with mining the ore and bilateral and international funders have already agreed to develop these resources, which should improve the State's foreign exchange earnings.

Then there is agricultural input—the phosphate reserves at Kodkari, an estimated 224 million t, could boost the nation's fertilizer output for domestic consumption and for export too.

Transport and communications

The Government's whole economic strategy is geared to achieve as high a degree of self sufficiency as possible. At best, this would lead to a large increase in the internal flows of marketable products requiring the right sort of infrastructure.

The country's network of surfaced roads (1 400 km) is by no means dense, but most of the big centres and agricultural areas are linked up by almost 3 000 km of main roads and tracks.

The Abidjan-Niger railway (1 175 km), of which 517 km is across Burkina, is the main transport route, linking the Ivorian port, Burkina's only direct outlet on the coast, with the urban centres of Banfora, Bobo-Dioulasso, Koudougou and Ouagadougou, the capital. The Burkinabé stretch of the railway accounts for 30-40% of traffic on the line. Although this declined before 1984, it has been increasing since



Rainfed rice cultivation in Banfora, above, and, below, a visit to the Sourou bottomlands which will enable rice to be grown over an area of 10 000 hectares

The Courier

BURKINA FASO



Drinking water in all Burkinabé villages—one of the government's priorities

then and an estimated 2.4 million passengers were carried in 1984-85.

Burkina has two airports catering for long-haul aircraft, at Ouagadougou (2 500 m strip) and Bobo-Dioulasso (2 050 m).

The Sahel Railway

In early 1985, Captain Thomas Sankara himself laid the first rail of the track between Ouagadougou and Tambao, the frontier between Mali and Niger in northeastern Burkina. His idea was for the line to continue the RAN (the Abidjan-Niger Railway) which, as we know, stops, in spite of its name, in the capital of Burkina. The manganese reserves in the Tambao area were thought to be economic justification for the investment, but the international funders thought that even the 14 million t deposit was not enough to make a Ouagadougou-Tambao line a paying proposition. However, Burkina's President says the railway would do a lot more than shift ore. It would open up the north of his country and the two neighbouring countries and mean the whole vast area could be supplied with food and

Fadutti



The need for cleanliness (as here) is sometimes such that the risks of stagnant water are forgotten



Vivant Univers

Peasant smithy in Burkina Faso. Smelting iron ore is an ancient tradition of the Sahelian people; which proves that they have known about their mineral resources for a long time

Great future for tourism

There is not enough emphasis on Burkina's tourist potential. The Mossi culture, symbolized by the ceremonies of the court of the Naaba (or king), has long fascinated the Europeans, and the sophisticated fashions of the Peuls in the north, which have inspired many a western designer, show that the country has cultural and national resources that could be a great attraction to the tourist. And of course there is the naturally welcoming character of the Burkinabé people.

The Government's idea is to be selective in developing the tourist trade. It has signed agreement with bodies such as Point Air (Mulhouse, France) which specializes in popular and above all cultural tourism. The infrastructure will be installed gradually, with the help of major international hotel chains, with another type of visitor in mind.

International cooperation

The Government feels that "we have to count on ourselves for self sufficiency in food... Food aid is no incentive to development". Captain Sankara of course does not deny the interest of food aid but it must, as he pointed out again in June, be limited



Henri Zongo

*Minister of Economic Promotion.
"The railway will create the conditions
for its profitability"*



The "Battle of the Railway" monument. Will the Sahel railway (Ouagadougou-Tambao) become a unifying force for the Burkinabés?

and aimed to cope with one-off situations.

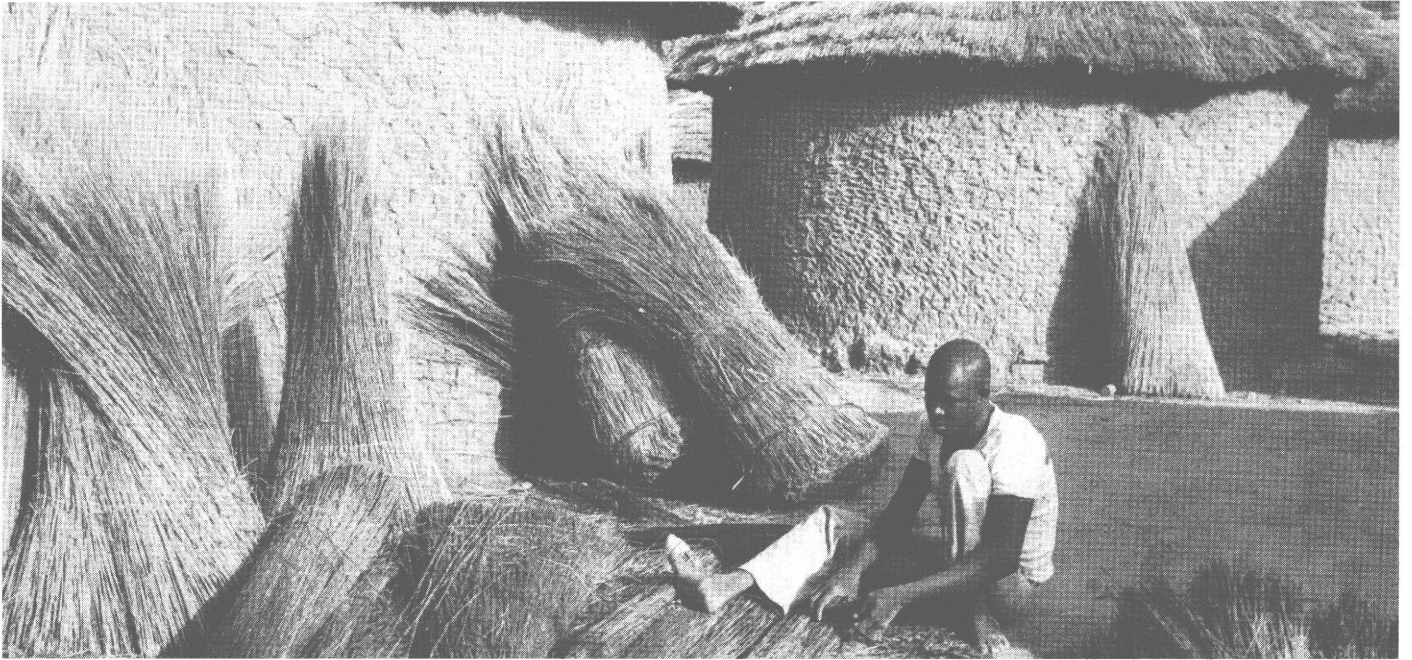
Yet the development programme of the coming years, as laid down in the five-year (1986-90) Plan devised in the light of the needs expressed in all the provinces, cannot be implemented without outside help or, therefore, great international cooperation between Burkina Faso and its partners.

Yousouf Ouédraogo, the Planning and Development Minister, is counting on economic growth of an average 3.1% p.a. throughout the Plan. "Economic self-financing, evaluated at 13% in 1979-84, rose to 18% in 1985 and should be up at around 22-25% by the end of the Plan in 1990", the Minister told me. Although global investments are worth something like CFAF 600 billion at current prices, only about 46% will come from domestic financing. How can international help be obtained with the Plan when some aspect of it may well not meet the funders' criteria in the present international environment where many development options and methods seem to need revision? As Yousouf Ouédraogo sees it, "the permanent dialogue with our partners should make them more confident and lead them to make a firmer commitment to our programme". And the dialogue also makes for greater consultation on

Transport of wood in Ouagadougou

other basics. So the Tambao railway, as it was called at the onset in 1960, has become in Captain Sankara's eyes the Sahel Railway and, if no international financing is forthcoming, he will wage a "railway campaign" whereby the people of Burkina themselves can build the 345 km of line between Ouagadougou and Tambao on their own. Henri Zongo, the Economic Promotion Minister, who is also responsible for this scheme, says that the Government considers it to be "an integral part of the regional communications network". The Government has by no means abandoned the idea of the railway, contrary to what some people are saying, and it thinks that after the first stage (105 km between Ouagadougou and Kaya), there needs to be a "period of assessment, with the partners, of the exact cost of the Kayo-Tambao stretch, which is currently estimated at CFAF 29 billion". Even at this price, the partners still think the economic interest is not adequate justification, but the Government has made it clear that the "railway will create the conditions for its profitability, as it will improve communications and not just shift ore". The Economic Promotion Minister summed the situation up by saying: "We want to kill two birds with one stone". The battle of the railway, the national leaders feel, is a symbol which should show, as it does in the drive for self-sufficiency in food, the Government's ability and determination to overcome certain apparently insurmountable obstacles.

BURKINA FASO



Preparing thatch for traditional houses in Burkina. The government has initiated a modern building programme which should mean an overall improvement in the standard of living of rural and urban populations

the results, which is the best way of keeping control of investments. The Planning Minister prefers the idea of a permanent dialogue to the dialogue on policies which he feels encroaches more on the States' freedom of choice. Economic options must be left to the recipient countries and the recipient countries alone, Ouédraogo said.

The Planning Minister also thinks that the "rigorous financial management" of the present Government is a further guarantee for Burkina Faso's partners.

In the particular field of EEC-Burkina cooperation, Youssouf Ouédraogo feels, both partners should make an effort to "reduce their red tape", which holds up cooperation projects. But he does consider that it is the decisions taken in Brussels "that help delay the programmes and contribute to Burkina's small aid absorption capacity—and to the increase in the costs of certain small projects".

The Planning Minister welcomes EEC aid and feels that the concentration of 6th EDF assistance on the agri-

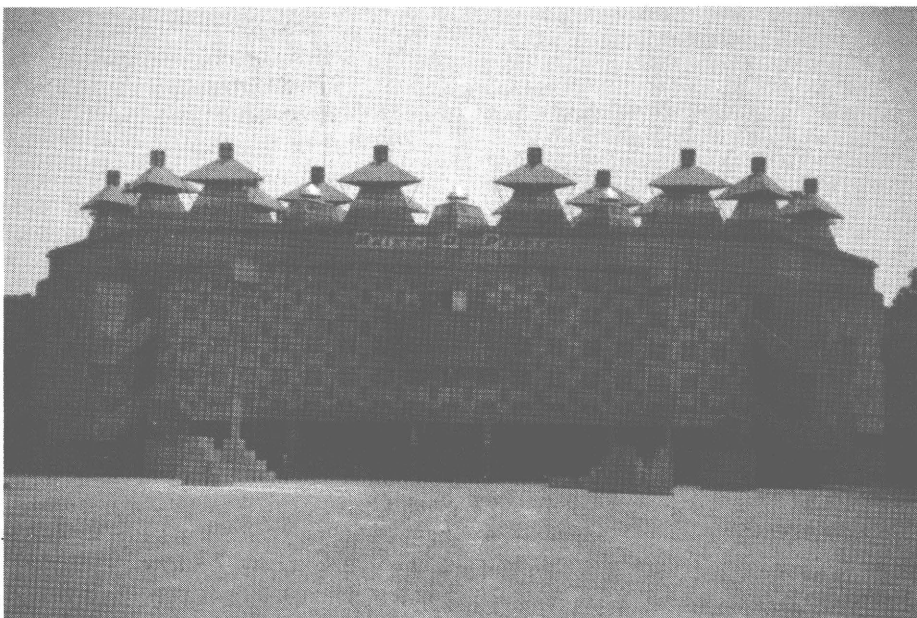
cultural sector is fully in line with the country's ideas.

The major assets of the Government

The drive to rationalise the economy and "generally clarify our financial management will make it easier to see what our real possibilities are", Youssouf Ouédraogo told me. This is a real asset and one that can help us avoid too much loss at the various stages and in the various processes of implementation of development financing. Another asset, and a not negligible one either, is the dynamism of Burkina's leaders, who are undeniably anxious to "do things properly".

It is not all plain sailing, of course. The first problem is a technical one—the lack of experience of the Government and some of the leaders of the regional development departments and organizations does nothing to facilitate the vital coordination between the different ministries, particularly, for example, those in charge of equipment or using equipment. It can also have unfortunate consequences on relations with the international cooperation bodies. But the need for efficiency which Captain Sankara imposes on all members of the Government leads the Minister for Financial Resources to think that "these difficulties will soon be overcome". ◦

L.P.



The "Maison du Peuple". One of the new aspects of the country's capital

Interview with Josephine OUEDRAOGO Minister for the Family and National Solidarity

“Never too poor to share”

The Minister for the Family and National Solidarity stands as an appropriate symbol for the current government of Burkina. Young and dynamic, she explains with both charm and conviction the importance of creating a policy for the family which is up-to-date but does not violate the basis of national traditions; and the need for solidarity among the Burkinabé so that they can jointly create a prosperous country.

► *Mrs Ouédraogo, what is your family policy given the country's population increase and economic problems?*

— We know our population growth rate, up at around 2.9% per year is high. And we also know that our economy is not expanding as fast as the population. But at this stage in our development, we don't think population is the only factor of economic progress. Our policy is to get the economy to develop faster than the population by trying to combine both factors as rationally as possible. We know that a substantial increase in standard of living brings about a drop in the birth rate and not the other way round.

But, for the first time in the history of the nation, we have brought in a family planning policy. The government has come down clearly in favour of family planning and it has decided to turn schemes not just to help economic development but to foster the well-being of our families too. This does not mean that we shall systematically be using contraceptives because there are so many of us. Not at all. We are going to teach the people, certain classes of the population that are most affected by the problems of large families, to see and better understand size of family and the social problems that go with it. I am thinking here of mothers who are worn out and of the socio-economic difficulties you see so often



Mme Joséphine Ouédraogo

in the towns and in certain social groups in our rural areas too. So, what we are trying to do is give these families an idea of family planning—that is to say to establish a relation between number of children and standard of living, the health of the mother, health of the children.

To sum up then if you like, we think that smaller families, and greater well-being therefore, should be both the incentive for and the result of an improvement in the standard of living of our families. This is an idea we want to get across—not just in terms of the limitation of the number of children a couple has, but also and above all, of the spacing of pregnancies. We do not wish to force anyone with the means of bringing up a large family to behave in a particular way. What we want to do is make men realise that expecting women to have several pregnancies is compromising their health. We want people to think about their behaviour.

► *What are the other points in your family planning policy that we see advertised on television?*

— Last year, we had a national family planning action plan which was devised by the various departments concerned—family, health and education—plus the different private associations for social and family affairs. And in it we defined our options and methods in the family planning sector. By choosing target groups for our action, we can more easily identify the environment concerned and the kinds of problems most families come up against. We amended the law of 1920—it was still in force here and in other French-speaking countries—which prohibited abortion and the use of contraceptives. Contraceptives are now authorised, although we still ban abortion.

We are going to adopt a sex education programme for all secondary schools. We are drawing it up at the moment. It will also be for young people who do not attend school. The ABBF, the Burkinabé Association for Family Well-being, and other basic health organisations help people understand how to use contraceptives.

► *Do they have to buy their contraceptives?*

— Of course they do. We don't get them for nothing either. But the Ministry of Health made an effort last year to reduce the price of some forms of contraception. At the moment we are looking for the cheapest methods that are easy to use and don't need expensive medical examinations—or have major side effects, which is most important.

► *Mrs Ouédraogo, you are also responsible for national solidarity which means sharing, above all. But what does this mean in a poor country?*

— The spirit of solidarity we are trying to establish here in Burkina involves making every one of us realise

BURKINA FASO

that he or she has resources. We have to reject the idea we were long forced to accept that we are very poor and have to wait for everything we want to be given to us. Even the poorest, we think, have something to give. This is something that comes over very clearly in our African traditions, as you can see, especially in the country areas. We are trying to get across the idea that solidarity is a fundamental and important thing to us and that it must be manifest at all levels of our society. This is the spirit that resulted in the creation of the Solidarity Fund two years ago, when we realised the worsening effects of the drought had led to famine for many people here in Burkina. The decision to set up this Fund was badly misinterpreted abroad where it was thought we forced people to contribute. At the beginning, of course, we did ask civil servants to make a bigger effort according to their grade, although they were not forced into anything. But all the contributions we are continuing to get now from all classes of society are quite spontaneous. This is an illustration of our idea of helping each other. Africa's well-known hospitality is not a sign of wealth. It is a way of life.

► *Do you think this burst of solidarity could have come about in the same way in the past?*

— I think it could—if we had rejected or tried to reject our situation of

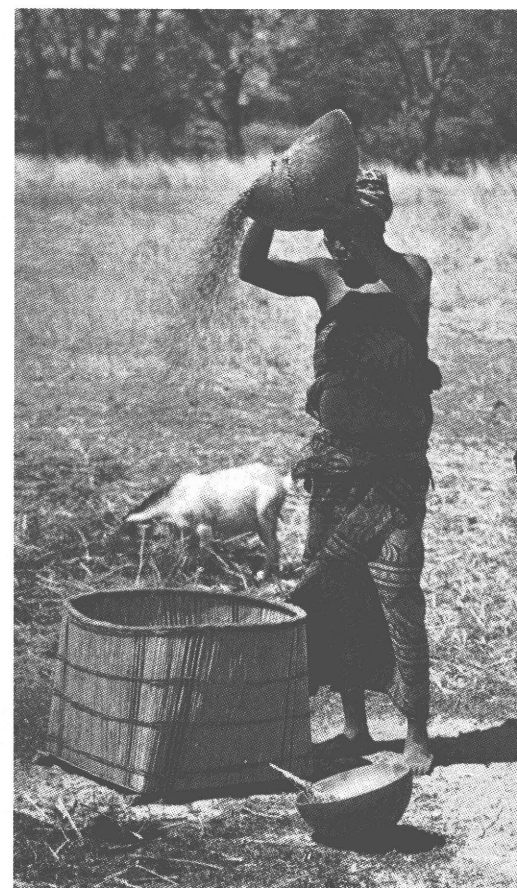
perpetual receivers of assistance that people wanted to force upon us and upon all our previous governments so the Burkinabés ended up thinking they were the poorest, that they had nothing, no resources and that they needed aid. This very much reduced our people's ability to react to their economic and social difficulties.

► *Health, education and housing are more indicative of wealth or poverty than the quantity of material goods owned, aren't they?*

— There are indeed countries we call rich today but which are classified amongst the under-developed ones because, although they have accumulated material wealth at national level, they have not so far managed to justify its use for the well-being of the people. As we see it, a country can be considered developed when the majority of the population has the economic and social well-being to which we all aspire—that is to say health and education, that driving force behind the development of the economy and the individual.

► *Northern Burkina has a more difficult climate and is not so easy to get to, I believe. Do you have any special plans for this area?*

— We think this part of the country has to have a special programme of its own. The traditions of production and consumption there are different from



The traditional image of the African woman—child-minding services have been set up to relieve women of the ever-increasing workload

ours in the South. Their way of life is shaped by herding, if you like. During the crisis, our prime aim of course was survival. We took drugs to the people there and we made them realise that they too were responsible for seeking solutions for the apparent poverty. Each individual in these provinces had to be made to realise that there was no such room for fatalism, but that there was no miracle answer to the crisis either. The idea was to get people to react against poverty rather than to submit to it as they did in the past. Today, people are beginning to say and admit that the Sahel provinces have enough water above and below ground, that there is good land that can be used to grow many crops, potatoes for example, and that there is considerable livestock potential too.

So now we are reversing the trend a bit and making everyone realise that these provinces have different resources, below the ground and above it, and that, if they haven't been developed so far, it is because no one be-



Faidutti

Fetching water is still women's and children's work. More wells must be sunk to reduce the number of trips and the waiting time, which tire them out after a long day's work in the fields



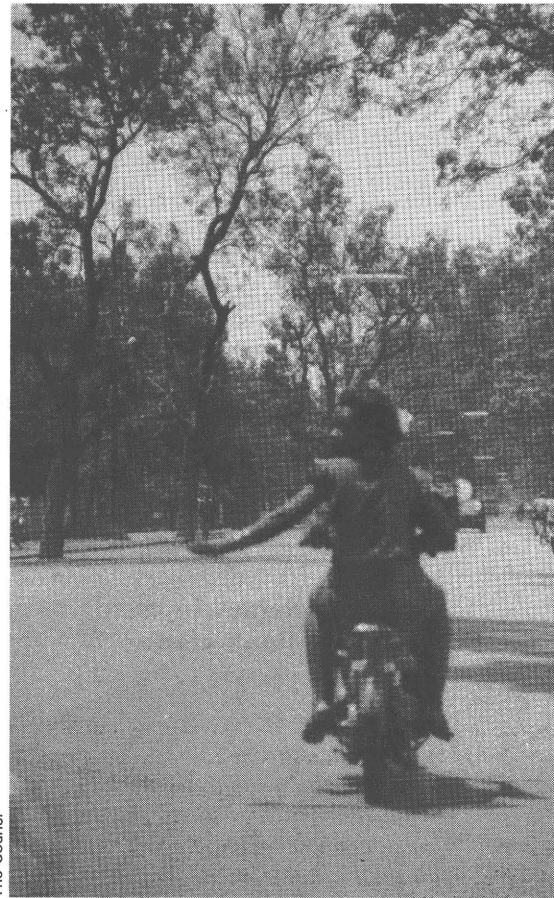
The Courier

The Minister for the Family and National Solidarity; "establish a relation between the number of children and standard of living, health of the mother..."

lieved in them. Just imagine—when a civil servant, administrator or technician, was sent to the North, it used to be seen as a disciplinary measure. But for more than a year now, the story has been different and people are beginning to believe that the region has a future. Today, I think, nobody still maintains that the Sahel regions of Burkina are poor and condemned.

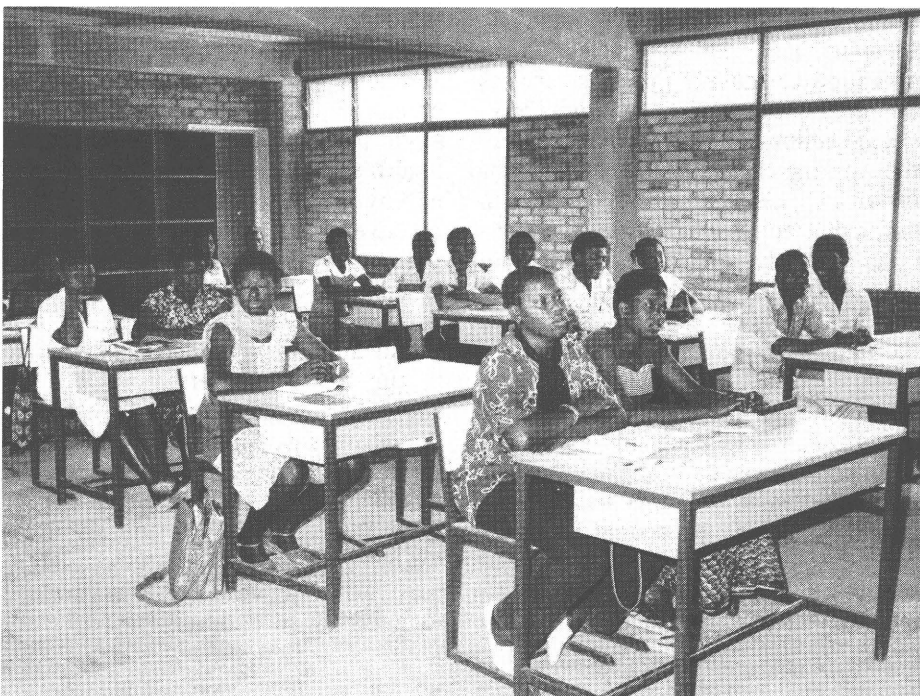
► *What do you think about food aid?*

— We need food aid, alas. We were still receiving food aid recently and there are still some contracts under way. But there are two kinds of food aid. Free aid that is handed out in a serious crisis, such as we had only last year, and food aid that goes unseen but still compromises our economic future because we don't produce enough. We sign contracts that grant cereals for us to sell. We get the money for development programmes, but I think that, as things stand, we have never really run any programmes to enable us to do without this food aid. So today, we think that it is not this kind of aid that will help us produce the food we need. The countries that are developed today have not become so through permanent supplies of food aid. Food aid should be transformed into trade relations—that is to say, we



The Courier

Women motorcyclists in Ouagadougou. Caught between their domestic duties and their work in the office, they have to live today according to tight schedules



Faidutti

Technical High School in Ouagadougou

Schools will henceforth offer more skill training and family planning teaching

should be able to buy what we need and sell what we have. There should be trade between the countries and the sub-region, and with the outside world if need be, on terms which suit us all. We haven't got there yet, but considering that we aren't always going to commit ourselves to the same aid contracts is, as far as we are concerned, a great step forward.

"An aberration"

► *What do you think of the triangular approach to food aid as recommended in particular by the European Parliament?*

— It is another stage in the process. Let us say that, if you buy products in the sub-region, it is already a step forward compared to the dependence we had on the countries of the West. It was a complete aberration to be forced to take American corn to feed the people when the sub-region produced enough for us.

BURKINA FASO

Obviously people will always say we are too poor to manage, but we in Burkina are working to defeat this idea of fate. We want to show that, by accepting the constraints of our present poverty, we are paving the way for a more certain future. The countries of the West all had to make sacrifices though they had raw materials from the under-developed world at very low prices. We do not think the international economic system gives us the material or psychological means of developing or allows us to accept the sacrifices that must precede any progress. We want to refuse certain facilities that create and perpetuate our dependence in the developed countries.

“Underdevelopment didn't start yesterday”

► *There is a very strong current of opinion in Europe along these lines. How do you intend to make people more aware of your ideas and get more decision-makers to support policy of national effort?*

— If people think like we do in Europe, so much the better. But our duty, I think, is to ensure that we in the nation and the sub-region closely share ideas on economic development. The Sahel countries have to understand that, unless they join together to define a common economic strategy to restrict dependence on the industrialised world, we will not be able to do anything about our situation without personal effort. The crisis has been with us now for more than a decade. But under-development didn't start yesterday. Just look at a map of the world. Almost all the underdeveloped countries used to be colonies or are politically dominated now. We want to change the economic systems that restrict our possibilities when it comes to defining and implementing our development. But we don't discount the idea of reestablishing our development programme by seeking relations of dialogue and negotiation with our partners. The first stage, I think, is for us in the nation and in the Sahel, to agree.

► *What are the Ministry's big priorities at the moment?*

— Everything is a priority, alas, but



The National Cereals Office (Ofnacer) is the public body which administers counterpart fund-generating food aid. Although this is necessary in the framework of national solidarity in times of crisis, “it is not the kind of aid that will help us to produce the food we need”

we do have a programme that we are running at the moment. Practically speaking, last year we started on an operation to provide minding services for small children from the underprivileged sections of society, that is to say the working classes in town and country areas. This is a priority scheme in our drive to prevent juvenile delinquency. We have tackled the problem of the most marginalised groups of society so as to prevent any increase in the number of people whom development passes over. We have launched a scheme for young people who hang about the streets, pre-delinquents, and another for beggars and prostitutes. I think that is to say this has created hope amongst those people and they don't feel they have been abandoned any more. Our Ministry has very direct contact with them.

► *All this takes money. How do you get people to take an interest in what you are doing here other than by quoting high-flown principles?*

— Our basic idea is that money is not the only big incentive. First of all, because we don't have any money and secondly because if we put finance to the fore, we wouldn't get anything done. We are convinced, as I said, that even the poorest amongst us have resources that we only need to develop to make action possible, particularly socially speaking. UNICEF has given us a lot of help with equipment, which is splendid. It is useful and we very much appreciate it. But we think that even UNICEF equipment creates dependence, although it is qualitative of course. We think our aspirations should take our means into account. That is to say we should be content with the resources we have and make progress slowly—particularly since we are taking the long term view and not trying to force families to join in our schemes and use our facilities if they don't want to. We are careful to respect every family's freedom of choice. ◦

Interview by L.P.

EEC-Burkina Faso cooperation

By Louis-Luc CAMIER (*)

Burkina Faso (formerly Upper Volta) has been receiving assistance from the European Development Fund ever since it became independent in 1960. Apart from the food aid, which became essential after the drought in the '70s, most of this—more than CFAF 100 bn over the 1960-85 period—has gone on the new State's economic and social schemes.

Economic infrastructure

An important economic infrastructure has been created. This includes:

- the building and surfacing of 900 km of tarred road, constituting the bulk of Burkina's primary road network and helping open up the country. Roads linking Ouagadougou with Ghana, Togo and Niger, in particular, have been almost exclusively financed by the Community and the same is true of the road linking Bobo-Dioulasso with Mali. Creation of the Regional Road Maintenance Training Centre completes this work. Much along the same lines, the Community has helped finance;
- the modernisation of the Abidjan-Ouagadougou railroad;
- water supplies and drainage networks have been laid in Ouagadougou, Bobo-Dioulasso, Koudougou, Kaya and Poura;
- electricity has been laid on in Koudougou, Dédougou, Poura, Gaoua, Kaya, Dori, Tankodoga and Fada N'Gourma;
- the Community is currently helping to build the Kompienga dam in the south east of the country.

The EEC contribution to rural water engineering schemes is significant. More than 500 rural dams and more than 1 000 water points have been created, using an original and effective method based on dialogue with the population. Discussions are held on each water point to find out whether the people concerned actually want it and, if so, where they want it and whether a well or a borehole is preferable. They are asked to prove their commitment to the undertaking and

(*) Mr Camier, an EEC Commission official, is responsible for Sahelian Africa.

guarantee that the project lasts by forming a water committee, appointing repairmen and paying for their training and contributing to a maintenance fund to cover the cost of spare parts⁽¹⁾.

Developing agricultural and industrial production

Other Community schemes have helped expand Burkina's agriculture and industry.

The Community funded an anti-erosion project in Yatenga during the 1st EDF and, although it was sociologically wanting (it did not involve the local population enough), it did restrict the effects of drought in the region afterwards. EEC financing also went to creating 3 000 ha of irrigated rice plots (of a current national total of around 7 500 ha) which now produce something like 10 000 t rice every year. The Comoe Rice Project, which is mainly for women rice growers, is worth particular mention here.

The campaign against river blindness (onchocerciasis) in southern Bur-

(1) See Courier no. 96, March-April 1986, p. 88.

kina has freed fertile areas of the disease and made it possible to settle migrants there under the aegis of the Volta Valleys Development Authority.

The Community has also been active in the fight against cattle plague and financed a number of livestock schemes in the three different parts of the country. They have concentrated on animal health and fodder, particular attention being paid to feeding methods that are not a danger to the environment (see inset).

Draught animals have also been encouraged by a new national cattle training centre and a line of credit to the National Agricultural Credit Fund.

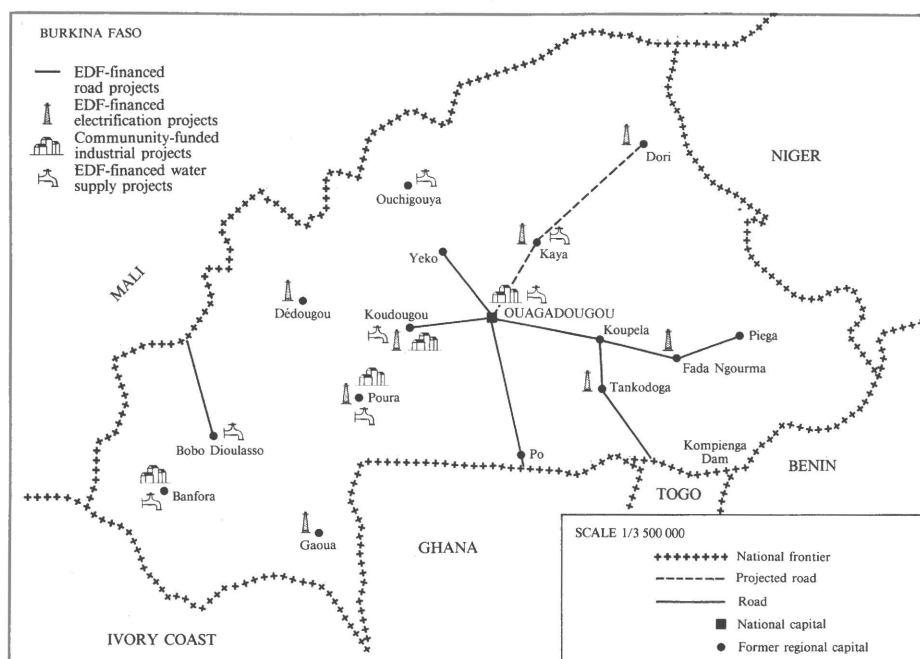
Fish farming has had a boost too, with cooperatives being set up to stock and exploit Burkina's many reservoirs.

Community assistance in industry has been spread over a number of projects:

- the Banfora mill and sugar complex;
- the Koudougou textile complex;
- the Ouagadougou industrial slaughterhouse;
- the Poura gold mine.

Training schemes

All this has been backed up with the relevant training schemes and almost





Vivante Univers

3 000 study grants have been awarded to rural craftsmen, nurses and agricultural credit agents.

The Community has helped set up local high-grade training schools which are of great importance in the development drive. They are:

- the National School of Administration;
- the School of Rural Engineering and the School for Higher Technicians in Hydraulics and Rural Engineering, which have turned out several hundred highly-qualified, highly-motivated engineers and technicians;
- the Ouagadougou Technical High School;
- the Women's Craft Training Centre.

Special attention should be paid to the rural education project—300 centres for young farmers have given Burkina the rural education so many development theorists dream about. The project involves small farm-schools where the timetable is divided between scholastic subjects (reading and writing the language of communication, arithmetic and agricultural studies) and practical farming. The centres, which organise cooperatives, cereal banks and other collective activities, have turned out tens of thousands of students (of both sexes).

Burkina complements this with micro-project programmes in the villages. These have made it possible to

build communal facilities (schools, dispensaries, wells and stores) and agricultural installations (dams and small plots). Schemes of this type, which have been backed up by NGO work, should be expanded in the future. NGOs in Burkina have had more than CFAF 1 billion from the European Community.

Burkina's export trade is small and gets little benefit from Stabex, although there have been transfers for groundnuts, cotton and karité nuts.

Note that almost all the Community's aid has been in the form of grants or quasi-grants (i.e. 40-year loans at 0.75%), so the country's debts to the EEC are minimal.

Food aid and the drive for self-sufficiency

Bad weather conditions from 1971 onwards created a demand for food aid and the Community has provided Burkina with 100 000 t cereals, 15 000 t milk powder and 5 000 t butteroil over the 1971-85 period. In most cases, this aid has been sold and the resulting cash used to finance new development projects, in addition to those already described.

However, the dangers of food aid began to be realised in the '80s and the Community's concern to avoid unfair competition with national cereal production has led it to back up the ef-

forts of the National Cereal Board. Article 958 of the Community budget and the counterpart funds have enabled it to grant the Board operating funds so it can buy cereals locally at advantageous prices.

In 1986, Burkina received assistance as a substitute for food aid (this was under Article 929) and was thus able to improve on a previous Community scheme by increasing storage potential in the north and setting up buffer stocks.

The six EDFs in CFAF '000 000	
1st EDF	7.0
2nd EDF	8.3
3rd EDF	12.3
4th EDF	19.3
5th EDF	27.7
6th EDF	39.4
	114.0

6th EDF

This drive for self sufficiency in food is very noticeable in the 6th EDF indicative programme, which is based on a more articulated development. Community aid will be concentrated on developing and capitalising on agricultural output and promoting the rural world with a view to reaching the strategic target of self sufficiency in food and regular food supplies. Cooperation between the EEC and Burkina will therefore involve a coherent set of measures, schemes and investments aimed at boosting food production and ensuring that achievements are maintained by an integrated fight against desertification.

The main aims are to:

- improve the living conditions of the rural population (food, water, education, health etc.);
- improve and make food production more secure, especially cereals;
- restore and protect the land and the plant cover;
- make optimum use of water in the rural areas.

Research has already is already being run into mobilising water resources with financing, in particular under Article 958 of the budget and food aid counterpart funds o L-L.C.

Developing fish farming

By Etienne BAIJOT (*)

The EEC began its action in fishing and fish farming, at Burkina's request, with a thorough study of the sector. The technical assistance project at the Directorate for Fisheries and Fish Farming, which started up in September 1983, was primarily aimed at drawing up a master plan for the development and optimum use of the country's potential. The idea was also to decide which projects were feasible in the short and the medium term.

The groundwork for this involved:

- producing an inventory of present and future resources that could be used for fish. Alongside this, a number of sets of measures involving the main physical and chemical parameters provided an opportunity to get a better grasp of the aquatic environment;
- organising and running field surveys over a period of 16 months;
- producing a synthesis of the data available on projects that had been completed, were being run or had been proposed for financing.

These investigations yielded the following main data: Burkina has about 3 500 fishermen (all categories), including 1 000 professionals and semi-professionals. The present exploitable area is about 35 000 ha, 20 000 of which is constituted by the 123 artificial lakes which are scattered mainly over central Burkina. Together, the country's rivers, lakes and reservoirs produce about 2 350 t fish, with *Tilapia* and *Silures Clarias* often representing more than 60-70% of the catches. Since fish is popular almost everywhere, there are few problems keeping it fresh, as the storage time is very short. This is also due to the even distribution of production over the year. The exploitable area by the year 2 000, including the reservoirs behind the major dams currently being built, will be about 100 000 ha. Fishing and fish farming combined should then yield

about 8 100 t of fish and the sector will provide work for 5 000 fishermen and 1 500 fish farmers.

The main recommendations of the master plan are as follows:

Small fishing concerns should be developed on lakes and reservoirs of more than 100 ha. Semi-industrial fisheries should only be opened on large reservoirs (more than 10 000 ha). Biologically speaking, the job of stocking the artificial lakes etc. with fish should be completed.

Village fish farming (semi-intensive, on small artificial lakes) should be promoted and, alongside this, village breeding tanks should be built with a view to the large-scale production of fingerlings. Fish farming on natural lakes is only planned for research stations and where the topographical and hydraulic conditions are right (essentially in the south west).

All schemes should be backed up by a major training drive at all levels—cadres, producers, processors, tradesmen, managers and government agents.

There are plans to regionalise aid, with joint centralisation via a future fisheries cooperative and the relevant official department.

Projects should have genuine and continuous support from the producers and aim for the autonomy of the group organisations that are set up.

However, EEC action is not confined to financing the formulation of the recommendations. Over the period October 1985-April 1986, village fish farming schemes were tested and a better job was made of defining how semi-intensive fish raising should be carried out in small hydro-agricultural reservoirs. Although there were not enough fingerlings,

the first yields were 350 kg per ha in one month—about three times the figure on a control reservoir exploited without any development instructions. The villagers were found to participate willingly in fattening the fish and supervising the waters, as well as in digging their tanks. Discussions were also held with the recipients to decide how the income from the first yield would be used. The income from the best reservoir, where the active nucleus of villagers numbered 8-10 people, was CFAF 350 000.

Simple fish farming management, based partly on proper observation of the basic environment and partly on the interest and genuine involvement of the producers, is to continue to receive EEC financing, at the Burkina Government's request, in September when the project to develop Burkina's fisheries potential starts.

The project was identified during the studies leading up to the master plan. The overall cost is CFAF 962 000 000. It should help about 800 fishermen and 270 fish farmers in the villages and the anticipated production, once things are turning over normally, is about 1 100 t p.a. Over a five-year period, the average target is to set up a control unit (its status—cooperative, private company, mixed organisation etc.—has yet to be defined) to represent all the little organisations of fishermen and fish farmers scattered over Burkina. This unit, which should be self-financing by the end of the project, is intended to facilitate the optimum management of the country's various fish resources. Its main tasks include centralising orders for fishing equipment, organising fish collection and distribution circuits and helping the fishing organisations with their technical and financial management. The unit should work closely with the authorities—which should issue directives on the management and preservation of stocks. ○ E.B.

Partial view of a planned village fishing session on the Kokologho dam. They caught 350 kg fish in three and a half hours.



(*) Technical adviser at the Ministry of the Environment and Tourism.

Diagrams of the enlarged Community (*)

Six Member States in 1952, twelve in 1986: the European Community today joins together more than 321 million citizens, from Denmark to Portugal, from the Shetland Islands to Crete.

Rich in their diversity, the countries of the Community also share a certain number of common values. By forming a partnership, they want to improve the prospects for democracy, for peace, and for a better distribution of prosperity.

With less than 2% of the globe's surface, the enlarged Community has 7% of its population. Average population density is therefore quite high; there are, however, sharp contrasts between the Netherlands, where the density far exceeds that of Japan, and countries like Ireland, Spain or Greece (diagram 1).

The inhabitants of the Community far outnumber those of the United States. Common to the industrialized countries, however, is the ageing of their population, as witnessed by the relatively low number of young people under 15 and the high proportion aged over 64 (diagram 2). Europe's already limited share of the world population is thus destined to diminish during the coming decades; in 2020, Community citizens will number no more than 4% of the world's inhabitants.

Some citizens of the Community have seen their purchasing power curtailed by the international economic crisis. Nevertheless, by world standards, the average European is relatively rich. The Community's gross domestic product⁽¹⁾ per head is about 270% of the world average, compared with 30% for China and nearly 400% for the United States (diagram 3).

The number of television sets, telephones and private cars also gives interesting indications of relative living standards (diagram 4).

The Community has not failed to react to these disparities. It is busy intensifying its efforts to develop its less prosperous regions. It is also pursuing an ambitious policy of cooperation with the Third World.

The Community is the world's principal commercial power, as is shown by its share of world trade, not counting commerce between member countries (diagram 5). Germany, the United Kingdom, France and Italy carry out the greater part of this trade but if it were measured in relation to the number of inhabitants in each country, Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark and the Netherlands would figure among the leaders.

In the Community as in all the developed countries, services will henceforward provide the greatest number of jobs, more than industry or agriculture whose share of employment has been greatly reduced over the years (dia-

gram 6). Two major facts, one concerning industry, the other agriculture:

(i) Between 1972 and 1984, the index of industrial production rose by 20% in the Community, as against 36% in the United States and 58% in Japan. So of the great industrial powers, the Community has experienced the slowest growth and been the most vulnerable to the economic crisis (at the end of 1984, several member countries had still not regained the level reached in 1980).

(ii) For a range of basic food products, the degree of self-sufficiency now equals or exceeds 100%; thus the Community, often in recent years not producing enough, now produces as much as, or more, than it consumes (diagram 7). Thanks to increased productivity, European agriculture has removed the threat of shortages and sudden price fluctuations; instead it has given rise to the delicate problem of surpluses: a problem which explains the efforts of the European Commission to reorient Community agriculture policy.

In answer to appeals from the Community, most Member States have managed to make their economies healthier and to establish a basis for new growth by reducing inflation and by cutting down their dependence on imported energy. Nevertheless, in both respects, the position of Europe remains less favourable than that of the United States and there are still appreciable divergences among Member States: inflation is higher in southern Europe; energy dependence would be greater were it not for the hydrocarbon resources available to the United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

One dramatic problem above all persists: unemployment affects more than 16 million people in the Community (nearly 12% of the working population) and total employment has fallen; yet it has risen strongly in the United States and modestly in Japan (diagram 8). In view of this challenge, the European Commission is pressing for a common strategy which should stimulate growth of a kind more productive of employment and improve Europe's international competitiveness. The Commission puts particular emphasis on a joint effort to master new technologies and on the creation of a wide European internal market, through the abolition of all obstacles to trade between Community countries.

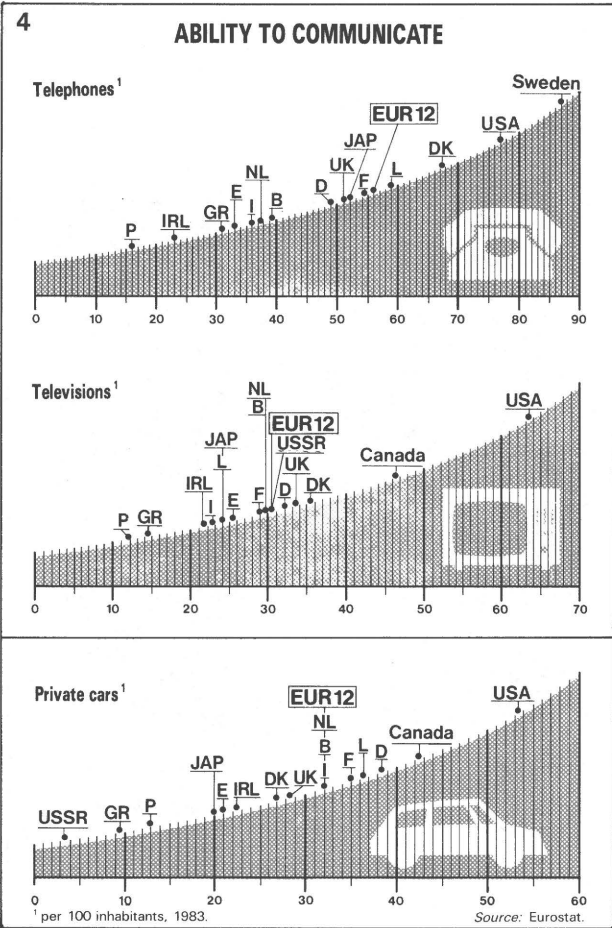
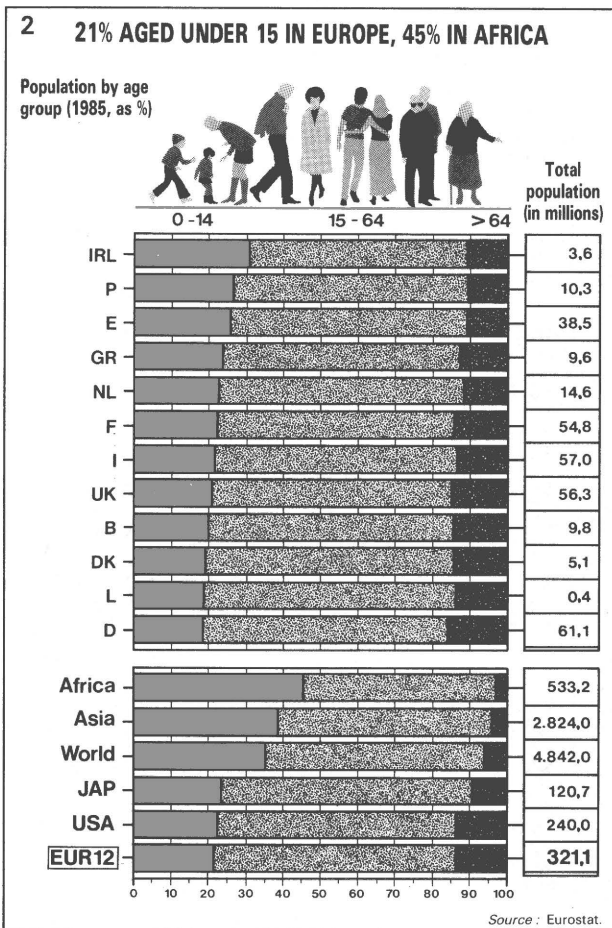
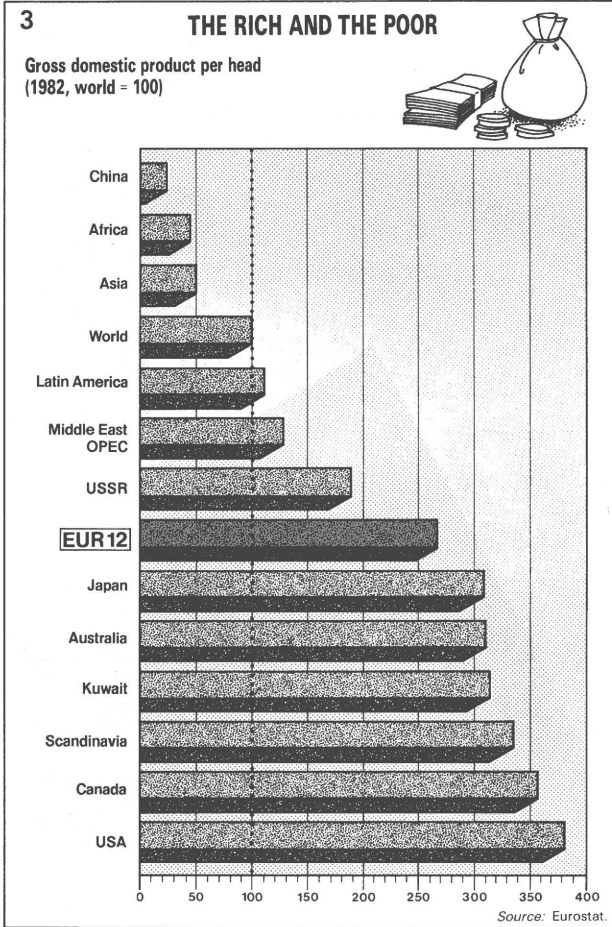
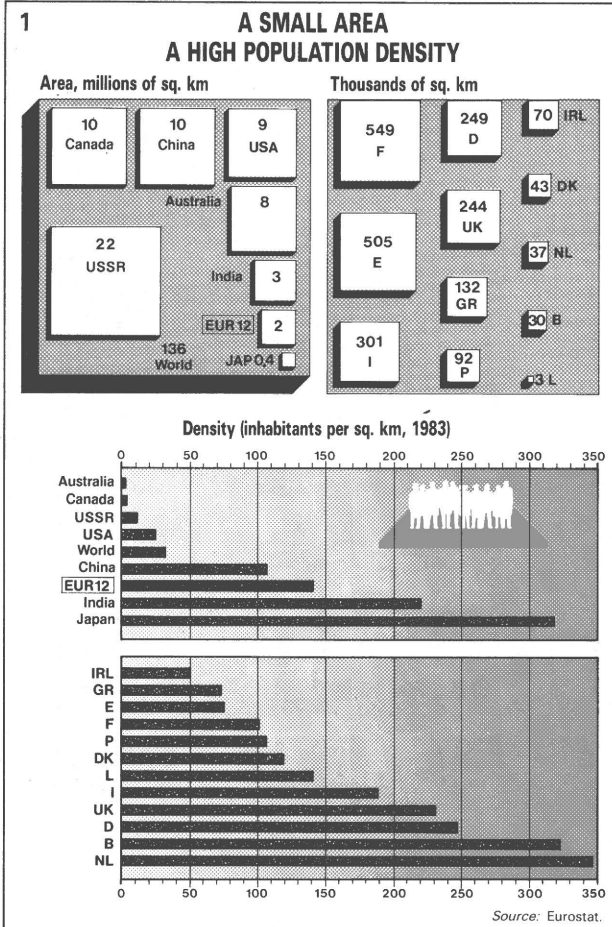
But to implement a policy the appropriate means are needed: not only reinforced Community institutions—towards which the current revision of the European treaties should contribute—but also adequate financial resources. However, the Community budget, far from 'bleeding' the taxpayer, remains very modest (about 3%) as a proportion of the sum of the national budgets. Besides, the European budget is still largely devoted (70% in 1984 compared with 80% in 1978) to one of the few major European policies that are really integrated: the agriculture policy (diagram 9). To respond more effectively to the challenges of our time, the Member States must be willing to give the Community the means to play a more significant role in such areas as research, industry and regional and social policy.

o

(*) Source: Directorate-General for Information, Commission of the European Communities.

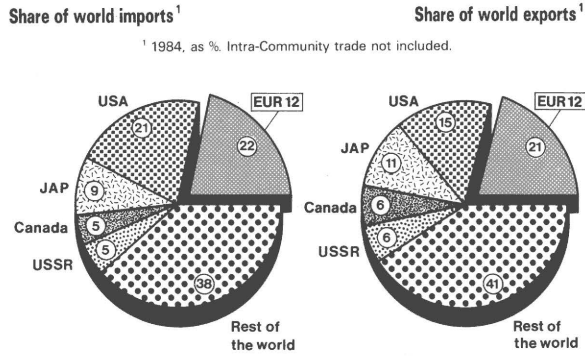
(1) Briefly defined, GDP is the final result of all producer activity. In order to limit the effect of inflation and of variations in the exchange rates of the different currencies, it has been calculated in volume at 1975 purchasing power and price parities.

(2) PPS represent in all cases an identical volume of goods and services, irrespective of the price level.



5

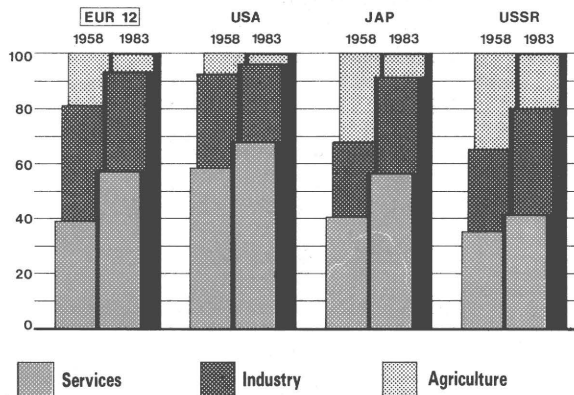
LEADER OF WORLD TRADE



6

THE FUTURE IS IN SERVICES

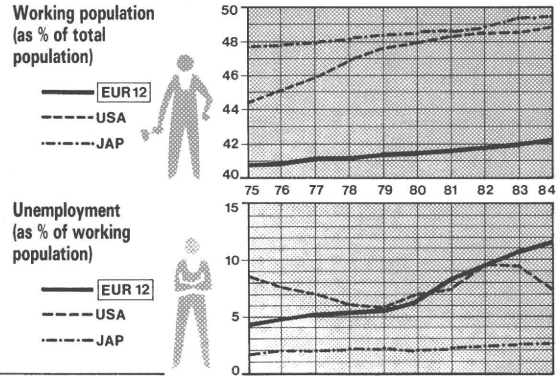
Share of different economic sectors in total employment (as %)



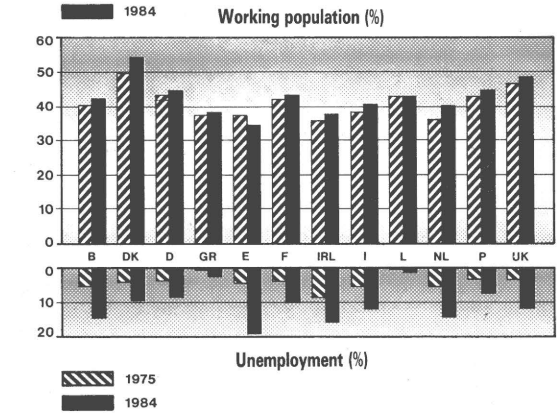
Source: Eurostat.

8

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT: EUROPE MUST FIGHT BACK



1975 1984

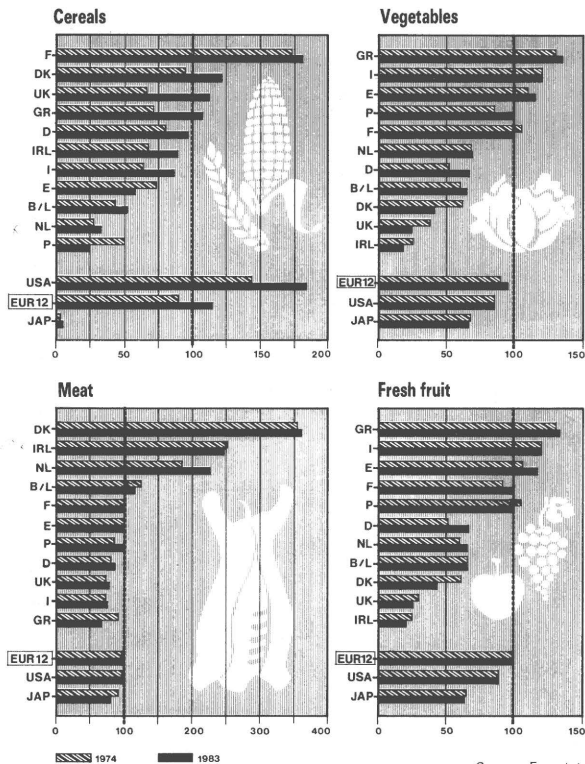


Source: Eurostat.

7

AGRICULTURE MUST BE REORIENTED

Degree of self-sufficiency (as %)

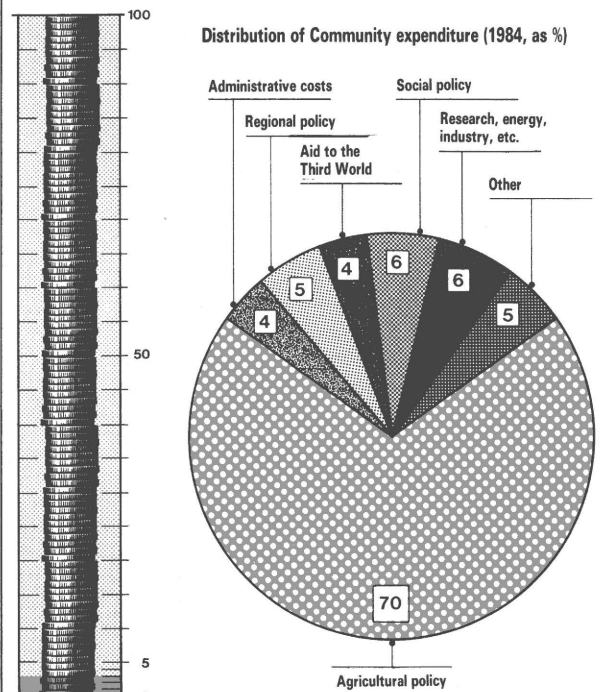


Source: Eurostat.

9

THE COMMUNITY BUDGET: TOO HIGH OR ILL-BALANCED?

Community expenditure compared with central government spending in the Member States (as %)



Source: Community revenue and expenditure account.

Statistics in support of African food strategies and policies^(*)

The inadequacy of statistics is a serious impediment to management in practically all sectors of most African economies. Agricultural data systems have been notoriously deficient and have been identified as an important constraint to food strategy design and implementation in Africa.

Given the growing importance of national food policies as the backbone for development strategies to overcome Africa's crisis, the Workshop on "Statistics in support of African food strategies and policies", held in Brussels from 13 to 16 May, 1986, was particularly timely. The Workshop was organized by the Statistical Office of the European Communities (SOEC) in collaboration with the World Food Council. Forty-five specialists from Africa and other regions attended. Participants came from Government services, development assistance organisations, universities and private institutions, but attended in their individual capacity as statisticians, planners, scientists and related professions.

Three major themes emerged as leit-motifs throughout the discussions.

First and foremost, the need to bridge—through dialogue and supporting institutional arrangements—the communications gap between statisticians and planners or, more generally, between producers and users of statistics and information. The Workshop was particularly effective in bringing this issue to the fore and providing guidance for change.

Second, the need for simplified and more cost-effective statistical approaches, which at the same time

should provide more disaggregated information tailored to food strategy needs. The Workshop urged stepped-up and more innovative efforts in this field.

Third, the importance of adapting, and improving the co-ordination of donor policies to support changing, policy-oriented data requirements. This would include new approaches to international co-operation, both within and outside existing assistance channels.

Following is a summary of the major issues, conclusions and specific follow-up suggestions which emerged from the Workshop.

I. Shortcomings of existing data systems in Africa

Although conditions vary from country to country, African statistical systems, especially in the field of food, agriculture and related socio-economic data, suffer from:

- (i) inadequate quality of data;
- (ii) lack of timeliness of data as a result of long delays between data collection and final availability;
- (iii) limited relevance of available statistics to policy formulation; and
- (iv) high cost for low-utility output.

These shortcomings, often related to fragmented uncoordinated data-collecting activities, are both cause and effect of the low priority which many Governments have attached to statistical activities and the strengthening of the supporting institutional framework.

The fundamental issue underlying these shortcomings is the dichotomy between the processes of policy analysis/decision-making and data and information generation. Low quality and lack of timeliness of available data have led to a relative neglect of statistics in policy making. At the same

time, policy analysts and decision-makers have failed to communicate their specific information requirements to statisticians. Moreover, these requirements are undergoing significant changes, with the increased adoption of the food-strategy concept, which calls for both more disaggregated information and a broadening from narrowly-focused agricultural statistics to food-and-hunger-related socio-economic information.

The principal challenge is therefore to work towards a convergence of the decision-making and information-producing processes, through the establishment of an institutional framework which facilitates dialogue and interaction between data users and producers while also overcoming the operational weaknesses of existing data systems and institutions.

II. Improving data and information systems for food strategy formulation, implementation and monitoring

To overcome current shortcomings, improvements are called for on three fronts:

- more timely, relevant and reliable data for food planning;
- improvements and innovations in the methods of data collection and processing in support of better data; and
- institutional improvements, streamlining the statistical activities of various institutions and with greater emphasis on co-operation among the producers and users of statistics and information.

In this context, the Workshop considered a country typology to define measures for strengthening data and information systems according to varying country conditions.

^(*) Article provided by the Statistical Office of the European Communities.

1. Improving the data base

The Workshop identified a number of priority areas for strengthening the data base for more effective food policy and project planning. These include more emphasis on:

- a) socio-economic data on hunger and malnutrition, identifying affected population groups and the nature and causes of their nutrition problems;
- b) much more reliable time-series data on area, yield and output, especially for traditional food supplies;
- c) data on smallholder farming systems;
- d) data on food distribution, local stocks, prices and marketing margins;
- e) data for more systematic and improved assessment of food aid requirements; and
- f) where possible, information on informal cross-border trade.

Efforts to improve the statistical data base should be complemented by information from other sources, such as anthropological and social-science related surveys.

2. Cost-effectiveness considerations in adapting statistical methods to user needs

Given financial constraints, demands for additional and more disaggregated data will generally have to be accommodated within existing budget allocations. This may mean cost-cutting and suppression of certain activities within existing data systems, as well as requiring the better use of existing data and the introduction of innovative, more cost-effective methods.

First, there is a need to review the cost-effectiveness of nation-wide statistical activities such as agricultural censuses and detailed household budget surveys. The scarcity of funds often leads statisticians to devise extremely complex and cumbersome operations which do not necessarily provide corresponding utility to planners. Many countries could benefit from a shifting of emphasis from certain complex national surveys towards simplified small-sample surveys yielding rapid results on selected issues for policy formulation.

With regard to agricultural censuses, Workshop participants favoured a shift away from decennial censuses,

which are difficult to organise and process properly and can give misleading results, to partial-coverage surveys, undertaken regularly enough to produce meaningful output and productivity series. It was also felt that, for most countries in sub-Saharan Africa, political and civil service pressures for *ad hoc* data—for example on fertilizer use or cattle stocks—would best be met by special case-studies, rather than increasing the load on national or regional data-collection services.

Second, the monitoring and evaluation systems of donor-supported projects can be an important information source for national data systems. Simplified procedures, a certain redirection and a link-up of these activities with the national food and agricultural statistics system could help increase the cost-effectiveness of data systems for food planning purposes.

Third, in addition to simplifying conventional statistical methods, efforts are under way to develop innovative techniques which emphasize speed in producing reasonably reliable results. Workshop participants urged stepped-up experimentation with "light surveys" ("enquêtes légères"), or rapid rural surveys e.g. including tapping information concentrated by markets or traders, and emphasized the importance of ensuring their complementarity with traditional methods.

In this context, the Workshop also discussed the comparative cost-effectiveness and reliability of different approaches to crop forecasting and yield estimation, such as farmer interviews, crop-cutting, sampling and remote sensing. Contrary to the experience in India, where crop-cutting samples have been a cost-effective approach, in some African countries where this method has been tried the approach has not been without problems.

3. Food- and social-accounting methods as planning tools

The Workshop reflected on the usefulness of social- and food-accounting matrices and food-policy modelling for decision-making in an African context. While these models are built on farm-management studies in distinct agro-ecological zones, they are useful techniques only if used in con-



Vivant Univers

Rice cultivation in Casamance, Senegal. Strengthening the data base for more effective food-policy planning requires, amongst other things, much more reliable data on area, yield and output, especially for traditional food supplies

junction with reasonably reliable food-production and consumption data series.

The development of social- and food-accounting matrices may be seen as an investment—especially in statistically more developed countries—which, when maintained and refined, could significantly benefit policy planners in decision-making, as they provide a consistent description of the food system. For less developed countries in sub-Saharan Africa with a generally weak data base, such matrices may prove less useful for planning purposes although they facilitated cross-checking of data and identification of areas of statistical weakness which could guide moves to improve statistics.

4. Strengthening the institutional framework

More effective data systems for food policy planning depend on improvements in the institutional framework. Such improvements are required in three main areas.

First, as noted earlier, there is a need for some “consultative mechanism” through which statisticians and planners can advance a common understanding of policy issues and related information requirements, clarify objectives for data collection and utilization and agree on the most cost-effective means of meeting identified information needs. Joint “data producer/user committees”, such as those recently established in Kenya, are one way of approaching the problem of improving collaboration between statisticians, planners and decision-makers.

Second, there is a need for a central “facility” for monitoring food policy and projects and related sectoral adjustments. At the national level, such a “facility” would build up a centralized food information system, including:

1. the setting of data information priorities for planning purposes;
2. the systematic collection and processing of data from regional surveys and studies;
3. Capitalising on data already available, both the directly statistical and that in existing administrative structures;

4. the co-ordination of data collection, in particular food production, consumption and nutrition surveys;

5. the development, with the Ministry of Agriculture, of methodologies to study smallholder farming systems;

6. information-gathering for monitoring and evaluation of food policy reforms and structural adjustments including a limited number of rapid key indications for “political” management; and

7. feed-back of project-level statistics into the centralized system.

Third, there is an urgent need for manpower improvements at all levels in the statistics field.

III. Adjusting donor policies in support of food-sector data systems

African countries will need significant external support to redirect and strengthen their food strategy-related data systems. This will require more flexible responses from assistance agencies.

Specifically, assistance agencies need to attune their activities in food and agricultural statistics to the “demands” for data from African countries’ food policy planners and statisticians. They must better co-ordinate their contributions to building national data information systems in the framework of advancing food strategies. This could be achieved in the context of existing food policy dialogue mechanisms at the country level.

At the project level, assistance agencies should refrain from setting up complex and isolated monitoring and evaluation systems, as these are too costly to follow up when the project ends,

There is an important need for effective external assistance in stepped-up training programmes to strengthen national data information and food policy management capabilities. This will require a focus not only on the technical, methodological and management aspects of food and agricultural statistics but also on the analytical framework and planning techniques for advancing food policy analysis, monitoring and evaluation. External assistance should stay, strengthening African-based training facilities in this

area. A promising approach to institution-building and training is the multi-year “twinning arrangements” between African and industrialized countries; those established between Swedish institutions and several countries in sub-Saharan Africa are an example. Building sustained co-operation, this approach includes provision for African professionals to work in developed-country institutions, as well as for external advisers to work with African statistical offices. The aim is to build up, over time, flexible, integrated systems for data selection and processing capable of meeting changing demands without repeated restructuring.

IV. Specific follow-up suggestions

There emerged from the Workshop four areas in which follow-up is urgently needed.

1. Stepped-up efforts are needed to strengthen national capacities in African countries to build up cost-effective data and information systems for the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of food strategies and related structural adjustments. The establishment of strengthening of consultative arrangements for data users and producers must become a major element of these efforts.

2. More specifically, greater support is required for interested African countries to improve reliable basic data and ensure timely and regular series on main food-crop output and seasonal nutrition-status data on at-risk groups.

3. Efforts to improve the techniques of survey design and management and the cost-effectiveness of data systems will require additional experimentation and testing to determine the approaches most suited to individual African countries. New and simplified sampling techniques, e.g. “light surveys” and household-farming systems surveys, should be further developed and tested.

4. There is an urgent need to raise the priority for assistance in training both data producers and users (food policy analysts and planners), to support the building of national food data information and policy-monitoring capabilities. ○

RURAL



STRUCTURES

In Dogon-Doutchi, on the southern border of Niger, a group of middle-aged and elderly men gather together in the shade of the afternoon sun. Most are seated barefoot on the ground, but one, of higher rank, enjoys the privilege of a deck chair. This man is the local chief, and the group surrounding him are his counsellors. As the shadows lengthen and the heat abates the discussion wears on... There are matters to be settled, important decisions to be taken together on land ownership, on marriages to be made, on crops to be harvested... They carry in them the authority of experience—and the wisdom that comes with it—and are honoured and revered by the community as a whole.

This is Dogon-Doutchi, but with other faces, other forms of clothing, other styles of housing, the scene could be almost anywhere in rural Africa. It could even be in the Pacific, in Samoa, for instance, where the village, with its own well-defined social hierarchy, constitutes the fundamental unit of society and where even the capital is described as a “mega-village”, rural life on a larger scale but otherwise unchanged.

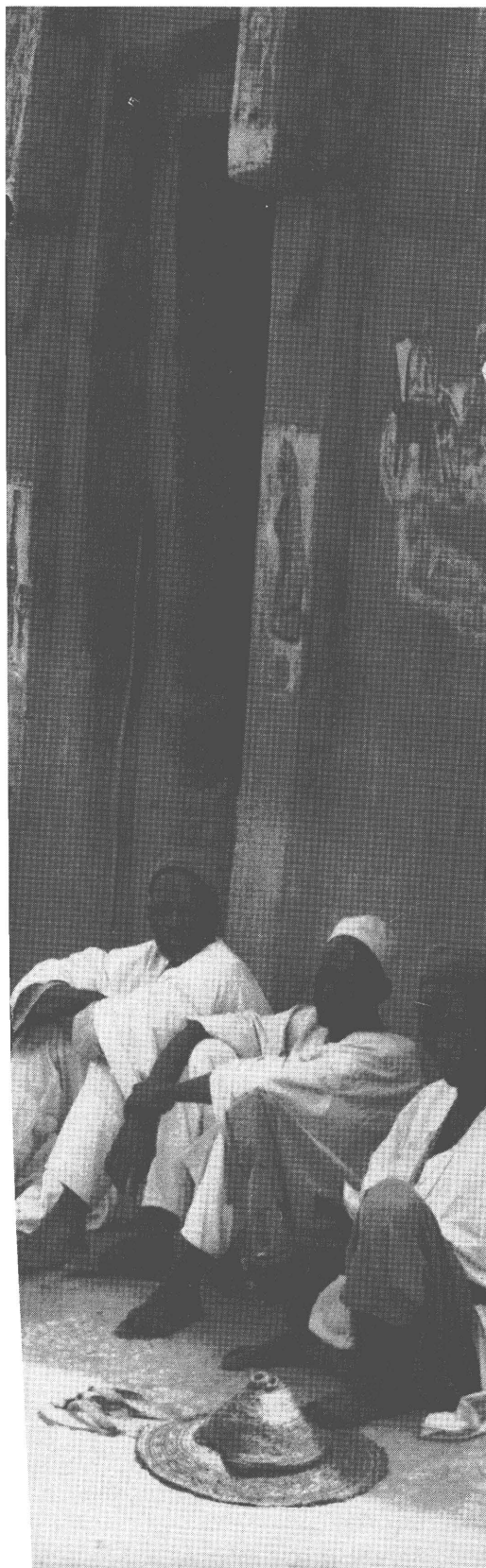
This dossier is about rural groupings in the ACP States. It does not, of course, presume to cover the whole range of formal and informal, traditional and modern groupings, or structures or organisations that exist in the vast geographical area that the ACP Group represents. But it does, perhaps, give an idea of the multiplicity and range of such groups—groups to produce or consume together, to save or spend together, to defend causes, or to promote them. It ranges from articles on formal, highly-structured cooperatives, counting hundreds or even thousands of members, to tiny *ad hoc* village associations with no more than a couple of dozen

“faithful” and where members make up the rules (and often the aims) as they go along. It covers “top-down” associations, where the inspiration and guidance comes from central government, and “bottom-up” groupings, where initiatives by individuals have spread to national level.

Much of the dossier is not, however, about newly-created groups or organisations at all, but about the social organisation of rural life as it has existed for hundreds of years and in which the communal spirit has always played a major role. In Africa, living and working together is a practice as old as the continent itself, probably never better described than by President Nyerere in his introduction to *Socialism and Rural Development*: “The traditional African family ... lived together and worked together because that is how they understood life and how they reinforced each other against the difficulties they had to contend with, the uncertainties of weather and sickness, the depredations of wild animals and, sometimes, human enemies and the cycles of life and death”. And, just as communalism is preminent in the rural developing world, individualism is as good as absent, only coming to the surface as the introductory article observes, “when the grouping has given individuals sufficient assurance that they can go it alone”.

For much of the rural populations of the ACP States this state of assurance has not so far—for better or for worse—come about. Having evolved over the centuries, in response to the community's needs, the traditional social organisation of rural life has stood up well to the test of time. Indeed, as the following articles leave one to understand, those who ignore, or try to by-pass or to replace such groupings in the name of development have often done so at their peril... ○

Myfanwy VAN DE VELDE



Vivant Univers

Rural groupings and organisations — with special reference to Tanzania

by A. ODHIAMBO ANACLETI (*)

This introductory article to the Dossier look at the various forms of social organisation that exist in present-day rural Africa, examines their origins and the reasons behind their durability. The special reference to such groupings in Tanzania is of particular interest because of the strength revealed in them through the villagisation programmes, the government's efforts to mobilise the collective productive forces of its rural populations.

If development is taken as a process of alleviation of poverty, ignorance and disease, and the creation of sustained equitable growth in the rural areas it is necessary that such process begins with, and is built on, the skills and experience already available to the population. This process is, however, a complex and long-term undertaking which requires the growth and strengthening of the traditional local organisations and production methods. The development of such a process also requires new strategies for rechanneling the local ability and capacity to apply people's energy more efficiently and effectively.

For some it is still conventional, however, to assume that any substantial change and transformation in the rural sector has to come from outside the rural sector. That is to say that such ideas have either to come from the more enlightened town dwellers, who are after all sons and daughters of the rural inhabitants, or from overseas in the form of aid and grants. This view persists in spite of the evidence that for meaningful transformation to take place a country has to and utilise, first and foremost, the available resources in the rural sector itself. This should be even more true if the transformation which is envisaged includes the development of people. After all, it

is vital to remember that the people are a major, if not *the* major factor in development.

Fortunately it is now becoming commoner to hear that development, in the last analysis, must be a development of people and not of things. The belief that economic planning must be blended with social planning is gaining greater acceptance than hitherto. Organisation and management are not of course foreign elements in the rural areas. This is because rural inhabitants are human beings, and as such it is only natural for them to group themselves in ways that will provide them with the best physical security. In fact individualism among human beings only comes to the surface when the grouping has given the individuals sufficient assurance that they can go it alone. This is why communalism and a communal spirit is more pronounced in communities which have not fully developed their technologies.

Origins of such groupings — the example of Tanzania

The nationalist struggle that preceded constitutional independence in Tanzania led its people to think of themselves as Tanzanians and nothing else, although they know that they belong to smaller groupings which are, probably more important to them in their daily lives. Such thoughts were certainly justified for political expediency, however, which at the time demanded political unity and the building up of a free national identity.

It would be erroneous, though, to think of Tanzania as nation that came into existence overnight on April 1964. The country is not even a colonial creation, as some people would like to think. The Tanzanian people had their own dynamism even before coming of the colonial powers. In fact the years just preceding colonial occupation i.e. the end of the 17th century and the beginning of the 18th, should

not be looked at as times of disintegration of Tanzanian societies, but rather a period of integration and expansion of scope in all fields.

Stereotyped generalisations of the history of African groupings and social organisation have tended to blur the fact that history is actually a record of the day-to-day activities of different societies and the ways they interact with nature and their immediate, intermediate and long-distance neighbouring societies. To negate the existence of rural groupings and organisation at any time in history would be tantamount to negating humanity to rural inhabitants for several reasons. First, it is natural for human groupings to come to existence as a way of ensuring their security against a hostile environment or a hostile neighbouring society. Tanzania was no exception in this. In fact the whole national ideology of ujamaa is premised on a belief in the existence of such groupings in pre-colonial times.

In order to understand present rural groupings and organisations, it is important to appreciate the fact that such groupings and organisations have usually had longer incubation periods in their development than most groupings and rural organisation systems proposed by both colonial and post-colonial governments. It is no wonder therefore, that rural organisation schemes, like the transformation and improvement approaches bequeathed to independent countries by their former rulers, did not achieve all the intended results of raising the peasants' standard of living and improving agricultural output and quality.

Forms of rural groupings

What are the forms of rural groupings that have been key factors in the sustenance of the rural way of life under what have sometimes been very difficult circumstances? Such groupings and organisations include the age-grade system. They also include organ-

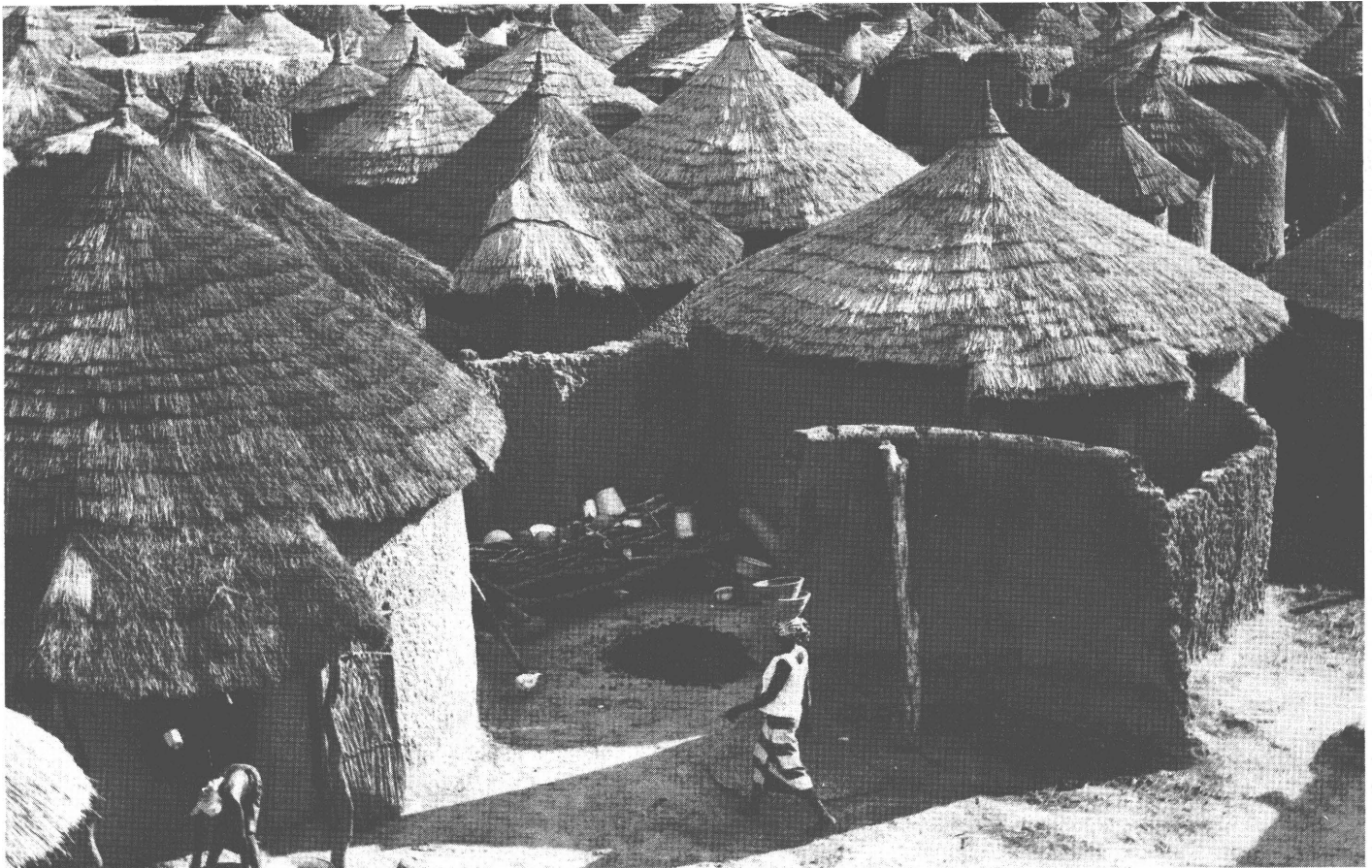
(*) Oxfam, Arusha, Tanzania.

isations like working groups, parties and even the more formally-structured societies such as, for example, those of the Sukuma medicine men.

It is conventional when people think of rural groupings to think of the tribe and its subsets of clan and lineages. These are usually thought of as divisive elements in national unity. Tribal groupings or ethnic groups are thought to be unilial in so far as they have

tried sometimes to use it as an instrument for their policy of divide and rule. Yet it is not true that tribalism has always been a divisive factor in the people's organisation system. In fact as early as 1750s, it was already difficult in Tanzania, for instance, to find a group that could be described as a tribe in the sense of a consanguinous group under a traditional leader such as chief having his territory and politi-

Similarly, it was only in the late 1920s that the British discovered that, in fact, there were seven distinct tribes present in the Serengeti district. All these people had, and still have, similar social and economic organisations, including initiation rites, the age-grade system and a heavy inclination to pastoralism as a way of life, while remaining agricultural in practice. These similarities must have developed over



VIVANT UNIVERS

African village scene: a reflection of the remarkable communal spirit that exists in rural communities

no contact with one another and have a natural tendency to be antagonistic to one another. They therefore tend to be considered as irrelevant to any development-oriented action. Great efforts have been made in trying to abolish tribalism at the political level, where it is seen as the chief factor militating against national unity and stability and also the main root of nepotism in developing countries.

Tribalism

Tribalism as a system has been a social phenomenon in most of African societies for a long time. It was, however, made into a negative political factor by the colonial authorities who

cal system. At this time there were already groups which had their special identities which transcended this definition. It is possible to say that a new concept of tribe had evolved, consisting of new groupings of people who had moved and inhabited new areas and had, through contacts, begun to share basic cultural attributes, notably language for wider communication (Kiswahili in the case of Tanzania).

The tribe ceases then to be a mere ethnic unit and becomes a geographical rural organisation with a specific purpose. It is in this sense, for instance, that, in Tanzania, all the people who came from the north-western parts during the long-distance caravan trade, accept to be called *wanyamwezi*.

years as a result of the need to depend on one another both culturally and commercially. It is possible, therefore, to say that by adopting names like Pare, Sukuma, Nyamwezi, Hehe, etc., the people of Tanzania, even in pre-colonial times, were integrating into larger cultural entities beyond the narrower ethnic identities of earlier years.

The spread of Kiswahili as the language of wider communication and the increased intermarriage beyond ethnic bounds has, of necessity, led to a need for a new definition of the "tribe". This new definition is taking different forms, depending on the physical and social environment in which a community finds itself. All the same,

practically everywhere in the countryside, people still acknowledge that they belong to a tribe. They also acknowledge certain individuals among them as their leaders, and obey definite rules, regulations and taboos as

“The issue of rural groupings and organisations can best be understood by looking beyond tribes and clans, but without ignoring them as rural organisation systems”.

guiding principles of their behaviour as a group, even when such rules, regulations and taboos are more territorial and geographical than ethnic. To ignore these facts only leads to the creation of parallel authorities, with the likelihood that the new authority, be it religious, economic, political or just charismatic, is seen by the community as a challenge to what they consider to be the rightful authority and hence a challenge to them.

The villagisation exercise seems often to have lost sight of the fact that tribes, as they exist in many of African societies, are not only lineages, or clan or political alliances, but are also organised along trade lines and along different occupations and services which particular groups are providing to the community. For instance, the Baturi clans among the Eastern shore of Lake Victoria Nyanza are actually blacksmiths and although they speak a variant of the dominant Bantu language in the area, they are considered as aliens in the society because of their particular professional bias. This also applies to groups of rainmakers, medicine and other groups who happen to be endowed with special talents.

The issue of rural groupings and organisations can thus be best understood by looking beyond tribes and clans, but without ignoring them as rural organisation systems. This can be best done perhaps by examining one or two trans-tribal organisational systems.

The age set system as a rural organisation system

The keeping of livestock is a fundamental economic alternative for peasants, especially in ecologically margi-

nal areas. In order to sustain this fundamental alternative, livestock keepers developed an organisation which would not only monitor animal husbandry practices, but also monitor the rights of ownership of animals and pastures which are fundamental to the livestock owner's welfare. This was necessary as, unlike land acquisition and ownership among cultivators, cattle ownership is not shrouded by ancestral descent, rituals, mysticism, customs and traditions. All members of the community know not only the ways open for obtaining livestock, but also how those who have stock did actually obtain their animals. Labour among livestock owners is still largely organised at homestead level. Environmental dangers facing owners in-

the limits of the homestead, family, clan or even the tribe. This is what, for instance, brought all the pastoral Tatos of North Eastern Tanzania together in self defence from time to time, in spite of their belonging to seven distinct groups.

The organisation system which seems to have answered to these demands has been the age set system, which enables every member of the society to be initiated into an age set to which he would belong for the rest of his life. With the other members of his set, he passed through successive age grades. As a system, the age set cuts across consideration of clan or family origins in favour of territorial groupings larger than usually allowed by clan and ethnic loyalties. As such it



FAO/Ganzin

“The age grade system created a solidarity among the livestock owners and enabled them to interact freely in the interest of their livestock”

clude drought and epidemics. Human dangers include the threat of hostile neighbours and, in more recent years, that of hostile government policies.

To face up to such factors, the extended family, or what I prefer to call the communal aspect of labour, has sometimes had to be stretched beyond

also allows for the greater mobility for seeking pasture and water.

The division of labour and property follows along age lines. Hence the elders of the community controlled the pattern of production and the distribution and exchange system. The youth as a group had the role of defending

the community and its property, while the elders had the role of trustees over that property as a group. The system ensured that all social and economic activities were run along age lines. The central item in the economy was livestock, which symbolises wealth and status, not only of the individual but also of the particular age group. The system created a solidarity and coherence among the livestock owners and enabled them to interact freely in the interest of their livestock. A person could travel almost anywhere within the age system and be received cordially, provided he knew the age group he belonged to.

Although the age set as a system is most developed among the pastoralists, age as a system of social organisation is also recognised as a tool for social stratification among cultivating livestock owners, like the Sukuma, where all adult members of the neighbourhood, regardless of their ethnic origins are placed in an age grade system in a well defined position in relation to one another. There are no detailed initiation rites into higher age grades like those of the pastoralists, but everybody has his position in society determined by sex and age. One could not, for instance, marry before one's elder brother or sister, and it is age that also determined the inheritance system in the community.

Age set system in the villagisation programme

Various experiments in villagisation have been made in developing countries and the results have not always been encouraging. Among the negative aspects of such experiments has been sometimes their neglect of the existing indigenous rural organisation systems in their attempts to reorganise the rural sector. The operation tended, in practice, to take the form of bringing people together outside their own known groupings and organisation systems. The age set system that had acted as a source of solidarity was made to appear as the basis of livestock rustling. One apparent result of the negligence of the age set system in the new village structure is that the age groups have been demobilised and have had their roles made redundant. The consequences of this are, of course, numerous. One of them is that



Vivant Univers

A group of young Tanzanian students taking part in the ujamaa in the village of Gatoke

most of the young age groups have taken an opposite role to the original. Villagisation thus generally neglected the age set system as a system for rural organisation, but did not create an alternative that could enhance development in an equal and controlled manner.

Work groups and organisations among cultivators

Work groups in traditional societies were always an attempt to complement individuals' and communities'

limited efforts and resources. Most of these groups were informal, in the sense that they were spontaneous rather than legalistic structures. They, however, had formal recognition and rules that were universally accepted in the whole community. If two people agreed to work in turns in their fields, for instance, both partners were expected to honour their turns dutifully. The groups, which among the Kuria of North Central Tanzania, for instance, ranged from two persons to a whole village, were based on family, neighbourhood, age, gender, and the com-



WHO/Mandelmann

Work groups were informal, and ranged in size from two individuals to an entire village

“Traditional societies were usually small and closely-knit entities: dependency on one another was a must rather than a choice”.

munity as a whole, depending on the nature of the work and its expected results. The complexity and size of the group was dominated by the social relationships that governed the group and the number of individuals or groups involved in the work. Remuneration for work done, for instance, would totally depend on who did the work and for whom the work was done. In the case of two individuals, two families, or even two age groups, no payment of any kind was expected from the beneficiary except that he/she or the group reciprocate the favour to the other side.

Groupings of a formal nature

The more formal groupings took three main shapes. The first was the community-organised groups. This type of work group was mainly intended for public works and duties that concerned the welfare of the community either on a long-term basis, as in the case of clearing a dangerous forest, or digging irrigation channels; or on a short-term basis, as, for example, extinguishing a fire from a burning house, or chasing stolen stock. This kind of work organisation is called differently in different communities but one thing they all have in common is that once this type of work had to be done, all concerned had to turn up or face sanctions. Such sanctions included fines, boycotts, and even expulsion from the community.

The fundamental principle governing such groupings was that, although the work for which an individual was called might not be directly related to personal interest now, one might find himself/herself in a similar situation in which the same work has to be reciprocated.

It was known and accepted that every individual and family would have a death or some other mishap at one time or another. It was also known that the works done through the public

work would be useful to all, even those who for one reason or another did not necessarily see the importance of such work at present. Hence the work so done, was seen as personal work and not assistance or goodwill on the side of the doer.

No material remuneration was expected for such work—they were seen as reserved capital for future economic and social remuneration. There was, therefore, no need for compulsion to such kind of work, since the reasons for them were obvious.

The second kind of grouping was built mainly on the basis of mutual help. This kind of work organisation also fell into two major categories. Traditional societies were usually small and closely-knit entities: dependency on one another was a must rather than a choice and the needs of individuals and individual families were known. The more affluent a member of the society was, the more he was supposed to support the communal effort. At the same time, in order for this affluent person to support the larger community, he had to be given support, when necessary, by the community. One such support was given in form of communal labour, for which he might reward labourers with a beef and beer party. This would not, however, be seen to be payment for the work done: the well-off man would instead be expected to understand that the community rendered its services to him so that he could be more capable of rendering even greater services to the community as and when needed. For the less advantaged members of the community, the work group could work free of charge. This included work such as building houses for widows, or tilling the land for the old and poor. This was done on the understanding that if it were not done, then the community in general would have to bear blame and a greater burden in the future.

This kind of labour is again not for any individual's benefit, but is for the welfare of the greater community. It is expected that the beneficiaries of such community assistance will ultimately improve their lot and render service to the community in turn. If it is not the persons themselves, then their descendants. In this latter case no beef and beer party is expected.

A further type of formal grouping is what might be called, for lack of a better term, “professional groupings”. The whole Sukuma society, for instance is supposed to be divided into two corporate bodies known as *bagika* and *bagalu*. These bodies came into existence in the late 18th century, apparently as organisations of medicine men and their apprentices based on self-defence against sorcery. Later on, these organisations, that were very secretive, developed into competitive bodies in various aspects of the life of the community. Like the age group system they took a territorial approach rather than an ethnic approach. People of the same ethnic origin or even family were allowed to belong to either of the two. The bonds that kept them together were the organisation vows. In fact such vows usually bound the members to each other even more closely than the attachment they had for their own families. These two groups helped their members in both public and private work in teams. Their main work, in pre-colonial times and even in the more recent years, was cultivating in groups to the tunes of dancing drums. Similar organisations and mutual support groups based on one or other profession are prevalent among many Tanzanian societies. Hunters, for instance have their own rules and regulations which give them mutual support and ensure mutual security when in the forest, and blacksmiths are a close-knit society, seeing to it that the secrets of their work are not divulged to a wider public lest they use the knowledge against the welfare of society at large.

Implications of traditional groupings and organisations on the present

The rural groupings and organisations described above cannot be said to be things of the past: they are still in operation in many rural areas, even if not usually recognised *de jure* by authorities. As such, with small modification, these organisations can be very useful in modern rural organisation and development, and attempts to obliterate them can only create a void which it will be difficult to properly fill. ○ A.O.A.

Authority in rural African communities south of the Sahara

by Adrian COLLETT (*)

This article outlines the various systems of authority existing within the many hundreds of culturally distinct societies of the vast geographical area south of the Sahara. These range from the most extreme form of leaderless social organisation, such as is found among hunting and gathering societies, to the strong central chieftainships such as the Baganda and the Zulu. The emphasis is on traditional structures, though, as the author point out, the term "traditional" may well be misleading ...

The colonial experience in Africa lasted less than a hundred years and yet it has had a profound affect on the development of the continent. The partition of Africa at the Berlin Conference of 1884 created artificial boundaries which cut across natural geographical, and cultural divisions. Not only did the arbitrary and often straight lines drawn on the map divide communities, but they also threw together those whose cultural differences are such that it is difficult for them to coexist within the same state.

It is often not appreciated that prior to colonialism there was considerable movement of cultural groups geographically, with conquest, amalgamation and fission. Colonial governments effectively froze cultural groupings as they were found at the beginning of this century by preventing warfare, fission and fusion and creating artificial geographical and cultural boundaries in order to facilitate administration. It is the cultural characteristics of social groups as they were at this time which tend to be referred to as "traditional", with the implication that there were no changes before that time, and that changes since are not part of tradition.

This dichotomy is now generally recognised as being false. For example, the forms of marriage or descent which were characteristic of a society 50 or 60 years ago are unlikely to be those which that society used from time immemorial, even if supported by oral histories and myths. But in spite of internal and external change, cultures are amazingly resilient and may go through cycles of decline only to bounce back with renewed vigour.

In the rural areas of Black Africa there is, to this day, a polarisation in political organisation between acephalous and cephalous groups; that is, between those with a centralised form of government, and those without central or local leadership. Within each of

these two major divisions there is a continuum upon which societies may be placed at different points, each having structural characteristics which enable it to function effectively.

Forms of social organisation

The most extreme form of leaderless social organisation is found among hunting and gathering societies, some of the best known of which are the Kung San of the Kalahari Desert, and the Bambuti of the Ituri Forest in the Congo. These are often referred to as "band" societies and are characterised by division into small groups which subsist by hunting for game, and foraging for roots and fruit. The actual composition of a group varies from one society to another. It may

constitute a number of males related to each other by descent and exchanging wives with other similar groups, or it may be a much more flexible collection of men and their wives who have found they can live and work well together. In general, foraging societies have no institutionalised forms of leadership. Decisions affecting the group are arrived at by consensus after discussion in which all members participate. Leadership and influence within these discussions is determined by factors such as age, ability to speak authoritatively, specialist skills, and gender. The composition of the group is very flexible and may change frequently to take account of ecological factors.

The age-grade system

Within the general category of societies without rulers there are a large number whose primary political and structural mechanism is an institutionalised system of age-grades. These are collectively known as gerontocratic societies and are very common in semi-nomadic cattle herders in East Africa, as well as among settled agriculturalists without cattle in many other parts of the continent. Gerontocracy can also be found in societies with city states and central government, of which the Yoruba are an example.

The characteristics of age organisation are the division of males into a number of age-grades. The first will consist of uninitiated boys and young men. The second is entered after a rite of passage which usually includes circumcision, and this is generally the grade which constituted the warrior group in the pre- and early colonial period. The next two grades usually constitute elders and senior elders, and the last, retired elders. In most societies, each age-grade is further subdivided into a number of age-sets. The age-grade system has been likened to a

(*) Dr Collett is a Lecturer in Social Anthropology at the University of London.

ladder which a man climbs during his life, the move from one rung to another taking place every 15 or 20 years, when the next group of young men are ready for initiation into manhood.

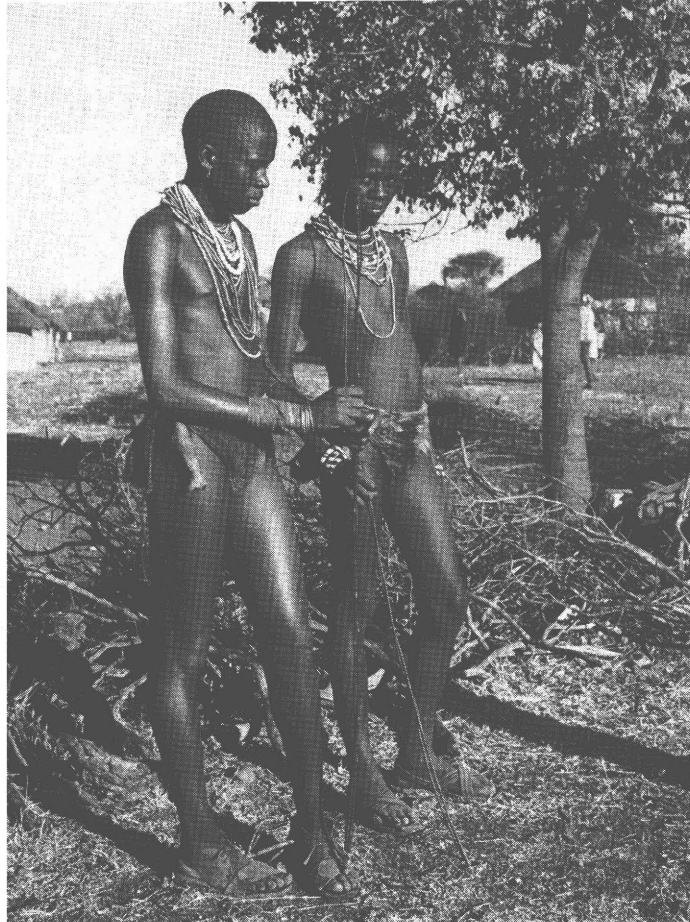
Decision by consensus

Important decisions within this type of political system are taken by the elders or senior elders by consensus. Day to day authority is exercised through the respect that a man in one set or grade has to show to someone in a higher set or grade. This authority often cuts across village and other boundaries. Women are invariably subordinate to men in this type of society and a senior wife will be associated with the age-grade and set of her husband, and she in turn will have authority over junior wives. Retired elders are often considered to have almost achieved the status of ancestors and act in an advisory capacity rather than being involved in day to day decision-making. They may also have ritual roles.

Checks and balances

In many societies with gerontocratic political systems there may be two other instruments of social control. The first is the presence of ritual specialists who have access to the supernatural world and are able to bring sanctions on those who violate the norms and values of the society. Ritual specialists may also help to coordinate the activities of different groups or villages within the same society by having the power to cross territorial boundaries. At the same time there would be highly sophisticated checks and balances between the power of ritual specialists and the power of elders, senior elders, and individuals.

The second is the presence of descent groups which are also usually corporate property groups, and therefore,



VIVANT UNIVERS

Young Motswana on the day of their initiation to manhood

not only have ties of kinship but also a common economic interest. Here, the head of each family and extended family has authority over those below him in the descent hierarchy and this may either reinforce, or cut across the age-grade hierarchy.

The third major category of acephalous societies are those with what are termed segmentary lineage systems, in which the whole society is divided into a series of corporate descent groups of roughly equal size, each having a common interest in land, or cattle, or both. Ritual and secular authority over the group is exercised by the head of the extended family, but as each group reaches a size at which it cannot be controlled by him, or he becomes too infirm to exert authority, fission may occur. However, groups which have close kinship ties will come together in times of hardship or hostility from another group. When there is external pressure of any kind, all the groups will unite and it is in this way that equilibrium is maintained.

There are societies which do not fit clearly into the above category. They have no corporate descent groups and there is a tendency for kin to become widely dispersed among different local communities. A new local community is formed when an influential man moves with his family to a new farm site and others follow him. This individual may not retain the leadership role, and the political focus may change as new members arrive. With both this, and the segmentary lineage system a local community may have a clearly defined life cycle in which it grows rapidly as new members are attracted to it. Having reached a peak it either declines quickly through fission, or gradually decreases in numbers as the land becomes less fertile and families move away to newer communities.

Societies with rulers

Societies with rulers can also be divided into three broad categories. The first of these are those with recognised chiefs or headman at the village level, but where central authority is weak or non-existent. Secondly there are those with both a strong central chieftainship, and local chiefs, characterised among others by the Baganda and the Zulu. Finally there are the city states such as the Hausa/Fulani Empire over which the Sultan of Sokoto held suzerainty, and to whom many other Islamic and non-Islamic societies paid tribute, with varying degrees of willingness.

What is common to all the political systems sketched above is: cooperation in subsistence activities; prohibition against the sale or exchange of the products of cooperative activity, which in the main relates to cereal crops; the redistribution of surplus to those in need, from the chief's granaries where a political hierarchy existed; consensus decision-making, even in societies with centralised forms of

government, and checks and balances against the abuse of power. In societies without chiefs, cohesion was achieved through structural characteristics such as segmentary lineages; through com-

apted or ignored in order to appoint those who could speak the colonial language and who had found favour with the administration.

Today, in much of rural Black Afri-

ety religious cults have survived and many have become more open. Spirit possession cults are prevalent among women, and the native doctor is as much in demand as the Western-style rural clinic, which may not be accessible, often charges fees which are out of reach of the local people, and may not have the appropriate drugs available.

Cooperation in farming and other essential subsistence activities is common, and one still finds moral prohibitions against selling grain crops produced in this way. Commodities such as grain and cattle have a symbolic valency in most African societies. This sets them apart from cash which is an immediately expendable resource having no residual value. (This factor may be underestimated as an inhibiting factor in food self-sufficiency. Another is undoubtedly the exodus from the rural areas into the towns, though this may be overstated since it is still the case that between 70 and 80% of all Black Africans live in villages).

Shortage of labour in present-day rural communities is compounded by storage losses, the dearth of suitable alternative mechanical assistance which can be afforded by local farmers, inefficient marketing systems, and the diversion of land and labour into non-essential cash crops. These factors in turn stem from the absence of means by which rural communities can express their needs, and a consequent lack of understanding of the real problems by centralised urban governments. ○

A.C.



An old blind chief surrounded by a group of village children. Retired elders are often considered to have almost achieved the status of ancestors

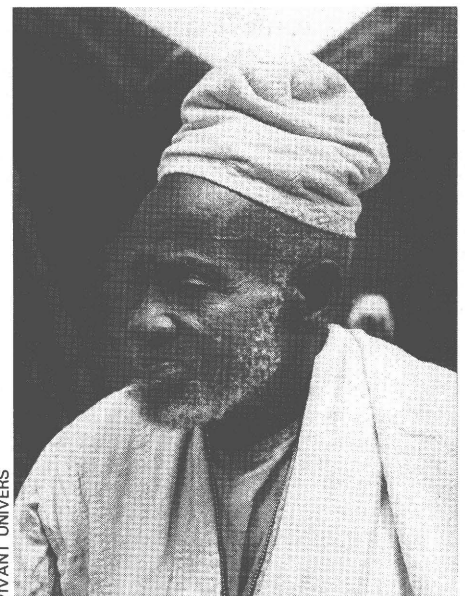
plex sets of reciprocal obligations within groups; and through the exchange of women which created kinship ties and obligations between groups.

After the advent of colonialism neither the British policy of indirect rule nor the more direct methods of the French could cope with the administration of acephalous societies. Chiefs and village heads were appointed and where they already existed, their power was strengthened by the ability to use the force provided by the administration. This upset the checks and balances against the abuse of power and made it difficult for consensus decision-making to operate. Not only was the imposed chief often alienated from his own people, but he had to mediate between the wishes of his masters and the needs of his subjects. Chiefs were also given the symbols and trappings of power such as salaries, official cars, and judicial functions which were totally alien to the society. They were encouraged to move away from direct contact with their people to the developing towns where they could be more closely controlled by the administration. Local methods of selection of chiefs were ad-

ca the political systems described above still operate in coexistence with the colonial system of chiefs and village heads, such is the power of cultural assimilation and adaptation. Attempts have been made, with varying degrees of success and failure, to settle foraging societies and nomadic pastoralists and to bring them into the productive agricultural sector. Secret soci-



VIVANT UNIVERS



VIVANT UNIVERS

Faces of village chiefs — guardians of tradition and arbiters of compromise

Samoaan village society

by AIONO Dr. FANAIFI LE TAGALOA (*)

In the Pacific, particularly in some of the smaller islands, social organisation is based entirely around the village unit. Samoan society—the subject of this article—is really a “confederation of villages”, as the author puts it, with the capital of Western Samoa, Apia, resembling a “mega-village”, little different in its essential economic, social and political structure from the tiniest and most remote of country hamlets. This article examines the various component parts of Samoan village society — surely one of the most ordered of all in the ACP States.

Politics in its philosophical semantics has been defined as the study of the ideal social organisation in any society. The ideal society organisation therefore in Samoan society is the *faa-matai*. And the basic unit in that social organisation is the *nuu* or the village, although the English word does not really convey the full meaning of the original. *Nuu* goes beyond the physical setting of the dwellings — the *fale-etele*, the *afolau*, *falefaaiviivi*, *faleoo* and the cooking and storage houses of *umu* or *tunoa*. It is more than the clustering of houses around the ceremonial greens, and the house sites of the *matai* that the honorifics of each village declares. As well, *nuu* encompasses all the cultural values and practices. *Nuu* therefore is the basic unit of Samoan civilisation, or the Samoan world and way of life.

Samoa — a confederation of villages

Thus the Samoan village is the basic unit of politico-socio-economic development, as well as the focus of self identity, of a sense of belonging and even loyalty. For in fact, the whole of Samoan society is really a confederation of villages ranging from those one might refer to as “mega-villages” like the capital of the country, Apia, to the most remote and littlest hamlet.

What then is this *faamatai*, this ideal social organisation? Is it like communism, or communalism? Is it closer to democracy, aristocracy, autocracy or even meritocracy? The *faamatai* is

none of these social organisations, although it shares certain of their features. Perhaps it would aid clarification if the concept of “sociometric wheel” that I have introduced elsewhere, is used.

Imagine the *matai* as the hub of a four-spoked-wheel; and the four spokes that connect the hub with the rim are *tamaitai*; the *aumaga*; *faletua ma taus* and *tamaiti* or the young offspring of the *matai*.

It is upon this sociometric wheel that every village in Samoa moves and co-operates in its daily activities.

The co-operation and co-ordination in village society is facilitated, yea, almost taken for granted, because the relationship between the *matai*-hub and the four spokes is one of kin, of blood ties or heir with other heirs, and not one of master and servant, chief and subject.

To appreciate village society in Samoa, the reader must understand the status, roles and functions of the five groups.

The matai and the aiga

The *matai* group is made up of the titleholders of the extended families or the *aiga*. Broadly speaking, each *aiga* or extended family is headed by a *matai*-title to which every member of the *aiga* is heir. When the title falls vacant the heirs come together in consultation, and select the next title-holder or *matai* of the *aiga*. The *matai* holds in trust the *aiga* heritage — their verbal traditions and the land which belongs to the *matai*-title. This heir who has been elected by heirs to be trustee of the land, the houses and house sites; the rights and authority of the *aiga* and individual heirs; is the *matai*, the father/the mother/the guardian and protector of all that is important and



The matai of Western Samoa, the society's decision-makers, who hold in trust the heritage of the aiga, or extended family

(*) Aiono Dr. Fanaafi Le Tagaloa is a Member of Parliament in Western Samoa.

valuable to the family. When the *matai* of the different *aiga* in the village foregather, they become the *pule* or authority in the village. A *matai* does not have to be male or female; but what a *matai* must be — is the unanimous choice of all the heirs.

The *matai* group are the planners and decision-makers and the setters of policy; in many respects they are also the executors and managers of the overall affairs of the village. In national politics, it is the *matai* group that have been given the legal right to stand for office or the privilege to cast a ballot in the Parliamentary elections, every three years.

At the village setting, the *matai* group take the lead or give directions in all things. Most of the modern developers, whether they be in government, private business or the church, have recognized this status and rank of the *matai* and have deliberately set their programmes or projects through them. For example, the State Education Department does not provide funds for the purchase of school land or pay for the establishment of school buildings. But every village has a primary school with facilities for classes from primers 1-3 and standards 1-4, forms I & II. The Education Department supplies the salaried school teachers.

By working through the authority of the *matai* groups and their sponsorship, the Education Department has been able to provide schooling and training in school buildings that the villages provided. If the situation demands, the village *matai* could also order the building of small dwellings for the head teachers or assistant-teachers, especially those whose villages are too far away for them to commute daily. In some villages the *matai* group still insist on providing at least one meal, usually luncheon, for the school teachers.

Another interesting example concerns the establishment of "Village co-ops". These projects were introduced to Samoa in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Where the programme tried to use the Samoan infrastructures, the Co-ops' succeeded and survived; where the modern model was imposed without any attempt to use the *matai* authority, the 'Co-ops', lasted for only two or three years, or even less. The

Co-op Store or the '*Sosaiete Felagolagomai*' or simply '*le Sosaiete*' in my village is one of three or four survivors of the 1950-60 "co-operative boom" in Samoa.

A tradition of group work

Many more success stories were recorded when the idea of co-operatives was modelled on the Samoan tradition of group-operation. Many villages decided to approach their planting of cash crops like coconut, cocoa, banana and taro, as village ac-

tivities, instead of extended family or *aiga* operations. This way, instead of 15 or 20 able-bodied workers, the village would have a hundred or more workers at any one time, and if this larger number of workers were to clear the land and plant coconuts or cocoa even for only two hours a day, a lot more would be done than by a single extended family in two or three days.

The use of the *matai*-authority and the group approach to developments at the village level have been extended to the establishment of village estates in some of the villages. For example,



Above, the *Faletua ma Tausi* (wives of the Chief and orators), powerful voices in village affairs. Below, the Women's Health Committee House in *Faleasiu*, where both the *Tamaitai* (daughters of the *matai*) and *Faletua ma Tausi* contribute to improving health and life expectancy in the islands



the estates of the village of *Sili* in *Savaii*. Here, more than five hundred acres have been planted in coconut trees as a village plantation. The *matai* of *Sili* control the harvesting and marketing although the *aumaga* are responsible for the actual planting and harvesting. The *aumaga*, on their own initiative, have introduced 'cattle-under-coconut trees' and they, the untitled sons of the *matai* have complete responsibility for the cattle extension.

The daughters of the *matai* group

The first spoke of the 'sociometric wheel' has been labelled the *tamaitai* or the daughters of the *matai* group. This group includes all the females of the village who are no longer attending school and who are unmarried, divorced or widowed. This is a very powerful group in village affairs, because they are the *tamaitai* for each

extended family or the 'Covenant' of each *aiga*.

The wives

Together with the third spoke or the *Faletua ma Tausi* — the wives of the Chief and orators group, they represent a powerful voice in village affairs and the only force that could question the authority of the *matai* group. But because the connection with the *matai* is that of daughter or spouse, the work relationship has always been positive and mutually supportive.

The untitled sons

The second spoke or the untitled sons of the *matai*, the *aumaga* is referred to by every Samoan as the strength of the village or *le malosi o le nuu*. This is not a mere compliment or praise, for the *aumaga* are the operators, the implementers of the plans and decisions of the *matai*. In Samoan society, the untitled man is the hewer of wood, the tiller of the soil, the planter of trees and food crops, the fisher of the sea, the hunter of wild pigs and snarer of birds. The man is the builder of houses, boats, and maker of fishnets, fish hooks and fish lures and weaponry. The man is the cook and server of food, and he must also sing, dance and entertain.

All these, because he is not only the strength of the village — he is the brother to every 'covenant' or sister in the *aiga*, and *tautua* to each *matai*. *Tautua* has no equivalent in English. The Samoan word means service — but the type of service that is rendered by an heir and equal. It is service that is always relevant and telling, because it is not confined to physical provisions. *Tautua* includes knowledge of verbal traditions and spiritual and moral support. The Samoans believe that *tautua* is the only proper prerequisite to becoming a *matai*. '*E ala i le pule le tautua* — the path to authority is *tautua* or that peculiar service rendered by Samoan heirs to the heir that they have chosen to be their *matai*'.

The other offspring

The fourth spoke or the offspring of the *matai* have no age limit. What keeps them out of the *tamaitai* and *aumaga* groups is the fact that they are still attending elementary or secondary

school. The moment a boy or girl finishes school, or runs away from school, they are immediately required to join the *tamaitai* or *aumaga*, where they begin or continue a different type of schooling, one that aims at preparing them for life in the villages and in anticipation of becoming *matai*, or starting married life.

The Church and Government have utilized the infrastructure of Samoan village society in varying degrees depending on the field of activity. The L.M.S. Church, right from the beginning, based its Victorian brand of Christianity on the Samoan traditions and structures — beginning with the allocation of the status and rank of the *tamaitai* or Covenant to the ministers of the Church.

The health services of Government decided to work through the groups of the *tamaitai* and *Faletua ma Tausi*, and gave a modern label to the combined groups—the Women's Health Committee. Every village has a Health Committee—or *Komiti Tumama* whose first duty is village sanitation, health care and welfare of expectant or nursing mothers, and children. The contribution of the combined groups of daughters and wives of *matai* to the improvement in health and life expectancy of the Samoans is tremendous.

The Samoan woman — a force to be reckoned with

The Samoan female is a force to reckon with — in village society or at the national level. Although they are not yet conspicuous or masculine in their approach, they are still secure in their authority as *tamaitai* of their *aiga* and villages.

Just as there is a peculiar service called *tautua* in Samoan society, there is also a special attitude to responsibility or thinking that is peculiar to the Samoan *matai*. This is the responsible attitude or thinking that must have peace and avoidance of violence as the end in view. Since the Samoans are very human, the *matai* who strive to be good and strong and who make decisions for peace, must possess the patience of Job and be blessed with divine mercy! Perhaps this is the reason why the Samoans refer to the *matai* as "the gods on earth".

The significance of this requisite of *matai* may have to be clarified further for the non-Samoan. The Samoan culture believe that if there is strife and divisiveness instead of peace and unanimity in the extended family or the village, then the *matai* are unworthy of the faith and confidence bestowed upon them.

At the national level, since 45 of a Parliament of 47 members are *matai* (elected by the *matai*) — if there is unresolved conflict and in-fighting in Parliament, then the sitting *matai* members should be removed. The personal wishes of the *matai* MP do not have a place in the national issues and, since there are no political parties in the Samoan Parliament, the *matai* MP for the political districts are expected to think in terms of peace and prosperity for their districts and the good of the whole of Samoa, and not in terms of the wishes of another *matai* MP who happens to be Prime Minister or Cabinet Minister, etc.

In the last general election, this feature of the authority of the *matai* in Samoan society was demonstrated very dramatically. The caucus with which the Prime Minister Hon. Tofilau Eti associated won 31 seats. Since there was no political party (*) affiliation, or financial assistance from the said 'caucus' in the election, none of the 31 successful MPs was under any obligation to support Tofilau or accept his claims that the MPs owed him and his leadership their seats in Parliament. That is the reason behind the vote of no confidence in the beginning of July, only three months after P.M. Tofilau Eti's unopposed election — it is also the reason why Hon. Tofilau Eti's appointment was finally rescinded by the Head of State in December 1985.

The *matai* in Samoan society has much authority — but he must use that authority for those developments that will sustain the welfare, prosperity and peaceful life for the heirs who elected him or her, to be the *matai*-hub of the sociometric wheel that represent the life-movements of Samoan village society. ○ A.F.

(*) There are no political parties recognized by the Constitution. There are 'caucuses' of MPs with labels like Tofilau's HRPP, Tupuola Efi's CDP and the present ruling caucus of "Coalition".

Saving together, spending together: Zimbabwe's rural savings clubs

by Ruvimbo Chimedza (*)

Rotating savings associations (or tontines, as they are sometimes known) constitute a traditional form of saving in rural areas, but many other financial structures, such as banks and credit unions are now in operation too. Another variant in the field of money management in rural Africa is the savings club, and the following article describes the nature and scale of such clubs as they operate in Zimbabwe's countryside.

Savings clubs have been a very important feature of the communal area agricultural sector in Zimbabwe. They first appeared in 1963 and their numbers have been increasing ever since. With the coming of independence, which did away with threats from the fighting forces, savings club membership increased sharply.

The mention of savings clubs in Zimbabwe immediately brings to mind issues relating to rural development, in particular agricultural development or adoption of improved technologies and cooperation among agricultural producers. Most important, it turns one's attention to rural women who are engaged in both subsistence and cash crop production. Although originally savings clubs were not necessarily linked to agricultural development, they have increasingly become so in the last decade, particularly during the post-independence era.

Savings clubs are grassroots organisations, commonly initiated from below, i.e. from among the prospective members and not necessarily from development agents. Their membership consists predominantly of rural women from all strata within the peasant class hierarchy. Small groups of savings clubs, averaging 25 members, are formed by rural women and men with common interests, i.e. an area of an agricultural activity or any other income-earning activity. Affiliation to a club is frequently determined by one's geographical location i.e. distance between members, and, less important,

religious, party political and family affiliation. The size of the club has, to some extent, been determined by the Savings Development Movement (SDM), a small group of volunteers whose primary concern centres on the provision of stationery or record books and training in simple book-keeping procedures. For the ease and manageability of book-keeping, the SDM recommends that clubs limit their membership to 30 or less. This is not a regulation but only a recommendation and thus it is not unusual to

find clubs with a membership as large as 100.

Mainly female membership

The members are in the great majority women who are engaged in subsistence food and cash crop production. Men comprise less than 5% of the total membership. Currently the total membership throughout the country approximates 300 000. These people are drawn from the large population of small farmers based in the communal areas (traditional farming areas) and the resettlement schemes. There is hardly any savings club activity in urban areas. (The city of Bulawayo is one of the few exceptional cases where savings clubs have been organised in an urban situation. This has been due to the efforts of the provincial SDM Officer for Matabeleland who is based in Bulawayo. However,



Village scene in Matabeleland

With the coming of independence, savings club membership increased sharply

(*) Miss Chimedza is a Staff Development Fellow at the University of Zimbabwe.

DOSSIER

the impact of these urban clubs is not of great significance and they operate in a slightly different fashion).

Clubs or societies based on saving and lending have existed in Zimbabwe for a relatively long time. Most of them functioned as rotating savings associations where members contributed a certain amount of money periodically and loaned to one another at agreed frequencies. These associations partly influenced the functioning of the savings clubs in question. However, the present savings clubs have come to operate the way they do not by design, but by adjusting to the conditions of those involved.

When the present savings clubs were first established, at the initiation of Brother Waddelove, a Roman Catholic priest, the aim was to form credit unions and the focus was not necessarily on agricultural development.

Compulsory saving in the first year

The need for some form of savings as a necessary condition for the lending activities of credit unions was recognized right from the beginning. Thus, when the first savings club was formed in 1963, it was agreed that for the first year there would be compulsory saving without any loaning. At the end of the compulsory saving period, members were confronted with the problems of administering loans. This was something they were not adequately prepared for. The problem thus forced them to redirect their efforts to saving money and not lending. This became the foundation of the present-day savings clubs.

After the first savings clubs started to function effectively, there was a positive response to a drive for expanded membership. Brother Waddelove felt the need for co-ordination of the savings activities of the different clubs. He again initiated the formation of the Savings Development Movement (SDM), whose members were involved in church work, agricultural training and financial management. These volunteers were to provide technical, advisory and supervisory services to clubs, according to expertise. They also set out to raise funds for book-keeping materials. They were not directly involved with the day-to-

day running of savings clubs. The SDM only responded to requests for specific types of assistance. The situation has remained more or less the same.

Assistance from extension officers

Because of the nature of the major economic activities of the majority of club members, the SDM enlisted the help of agricultural extension workers in areas where it was feasible. In fact as the membership expanded, some senior officers in the Department of Agricultural Extension Services assigned some of their junior field officers to work exclusively with savings clubs. This meant that more and more women gained access to extension services while at the same time extension officers achieved more by focusing on these groups which traditionally had very little access to extension education and thus did not have adequate knowledge for utilizing the new improved technology productively. In addition it was rewarding for extension officers to work with farmers who made special efforts to raise money to

purchase the recommended types and quantities of inputs.

Every week, each member of a club saves a minimum of 25 cents. Failure to achieve this minimum saving results in a penalty. All the weekly savings are pooled together and deposited in the club's savings account. The majority of the clubs save with building societies rather than commercial banks, because of easier access. However, physical access is not necessarily easy because almost all these formal financial institutions are based in urban areas. The transactions of depositing and withdrawing money involve travelling to urban centres by the signatories to the account, frequently three members of the executive committee.

No borrowing and no lending

The main feature distinguishing savings clubs from credit unions and rotating savings associations is that there is no borrowing and lending involved in any of their activities. For all their financial needs, members attempt to raise money through a varie-



Selling poultry: one means by which members raise money

ty of cash-generating activities such as the sale of poultry products, vegetables, other agricultural products and non-farm products such as crafts. It is not unusual for members of savings clubs to sell their labour for money.

Some of the most common labour services they offer are in the form of preparation of bricks for building, fetching grass for thatching, transporting cow manure to the fields and even weeding for some of the larger farmers.

Pooled efforts and shared benefits

The advantages of being a savings club member are that one gets assistance with income-earning activities in many ways. For relatively large projects requiring big sums of money, or a great deal of labour, members can pool their efforts and undertake the project as a group. In most cases they prefer to contribute equal shares so that the distribution of their returns is even among all members. This is a unique feature of savings clubs. They make a conscious effort to give each member equal standing in most of their activities. This is partly true of their weekly savings. No single member is allowed to save more than 10% of all the club's savings. This is another of the SDM recommendations which aimed to avoid financial domination by certain individuals. It was also hoped that those who wished to save more would encourage others to generate more income for saving.

For savings clubs to be more meaningful and beneficial, the majority of the clubs have a regulation which stipulates that all the money to be saved should be raised from projects that are directly or closely linked to savings club activities. Using money obtained from working spouses as weekly deposits is discouraged. This regulation serves to promote income-earning projects that members engage in and minimise dependence on spouses for these activities. In fact it introduces an element of economic independence on the part of rural women.

Democratic principles

One of the major attractions of savings clubs is that they are democratic

and every member is able to exercise the basic rights i.e. they have access to alle information pertaining to club activities, they have access to most club records, except for personal or individual records, members can question any apparent irregularities that may be displayed by the executive committee and they participate in most decision-making. In general, savings club members have greater control over their organisation than most grassroots-based groups that are initiated by government departments or other development agents. In addition, clubs have greater organisational flexibility to accommodate the special conditions of the members.

Although the SDM plays the role of a coordinator, individual clubs are generally responsible for drawing up their operational rules. They decide on the frequency of their meetings, how they are to be conducted, what activities to focus on, their election procedures and the length of term of office of their executive committees. Each club is an autonomous body and the only point on which they have to be uniform is in the book-keeping. The books and forms they use for their financial records are designed and provided by the SDM. Clubs are required to enter the information in a specific way and submit monthly reports to the SDM office. For some time, agricultural extension workers have assisted them with this exercise, by double-checking the entries and forwarding them to the SDM office which again checks all entries. Periodically, the extension workers check these entries against the bank passbooks. Recently, community development workers have begun to play a more active role among savings clubs.

The impact on rural life

Savings clubs have had a positive impact on the lives of many rural women. For most women, participation in savings clubs has given them an opportunity to have savings that are separate from household savings, which are frequently controlled by men. Although savings clubs accounts are operated as group accounts, each member has complete control of her savings. Withdrawals can only be made at her request. No spouse is al-

lowed to make withdrawals except in the case of illness and death.

Another way in which women have benefitted is their exposure to formal financial transactions and the acquisition of basic book-keeping skills. Normally, women are not given the opportunity to have personal savings accounts. Their doing so through organised groups does not appear to threaten the status quo and is therefore acceptable in society.

The exposure to formal financial transactions has been accompanied by exposure to other markets that are not commonly known to rural women. Savings clubs have exposed a large number of women to wholesale markets. For their agricultural inputs and some of their household items, savings clubs pool their funds and purchase in bulk at wholesale prices. This way, they are able to save on both the actual purchases and transport costs. Furthermore, when items are purchased in bulk, deliveries are made more promptly, and thus they avoid the common problem of delayed deliveries of agricultural inputs.

On the whole, savings clubs have benefitted women, in particular, in a way that other efforts have not been able to do. They have facilitated agricultural growth through adoption of new technologies and increased access to extension services. Furthermore they have encouraged women to be more enterprising and minimise their dependence on their spouses. Although there has been very little government involvement, except in the form of extension services, savings clubs have been able to sustain themselves. Unlike other organized groups which get grants for the initial capital outlay for development projects, savings clubs have in many cases raised their money through smaller projects.

Anyone interested in rural development in the Zimbabwean context should know that savings clubs cannot be ignored. The sheer size of membership itself points to their importance in the rural areas. They are an important vehicle in the process and their role could be further enhanced by the provision of the right kind of assistance, particularly the infrastructural type. ○

R.C.



One formal structure among many — fisheries cooperatives

by Peter-John MEYNELL (*)

Among the more structured of the many forms of rural groupings is the cooperative. A group of producers (or consumers), or suppliers of services, with common interests join together in a structure, whose form of management and financial control is often set down by law, to create a "business" of which they are both the owners and the workforce.

Many examples of cooperatives are to be found in the rural life of the ACP States. Many, inevitably, are connected with one or other facet of agriculture. Others have to do with artisanal production or marketing. The article which follows concentrates on one formal structure among many—fisheries cooperatives—explaining at which parts of the production chain such cooperatives exist and outlining some of the reasons for their success or failure.

(*) Peter-John Meynell is an independent consultant working in the field of small-scale fisheries in developing countries and appropriate institutions.

"Fisheries co-operatives don't work!" If you talk to many fisheries officers and fishermen in developing countries about co-operatives, you will often get this negative reply. And it is true that there have been many spectacular failures as well as some rather dismal ones; but these are the ones that get the publicity and build up the poor reputation of fisheries co-operatives in developing countries. There have been many successes — not spectacular ones, but ones which have continued to serve the fishermen and their communities adequately. However, institutions like fishermen's co-ops are never static and even in the most successful there are periods of relative failure and relative success.

The term co-operative usually means a more formal organisational structure defined by the co-operative laws of the country, but there are many less formal associations and fishermen's groups. Fisheries co-ops have probably had as much success as any other organisational structure, and remain the most coherent formal

structure for fishermen when they are ready to take on such formality.

Fishermen's co-operatives are generally set up to perform a function, or to overcome a problem which can be better achieved through co-operative rather than individual action. They seem to work best when they serve a need which can generate income to sustain that activity. This is in contrast to fishermen's trade unions which have a more political role. Fishermen's co-ops can be found active in one or more of the parts of the chain from catching, handling, processing, marketing, credit and insurance, fishing supplies and repair services, and in social and community services. Primary production, i.e. catching the fish, is often the least successful activity for a co-operative. Fishermen tend to be very competitive and individualistic about catching their fish, and it is only the land-based activities in which they are prepared to co-operate. Marketing and credit are perhaps the most important, because fishermen often find themselves at the mercy of middlemen

who are prepared to lend money in exchange for a preferential rate when buying the fish. Formal credit facilities are often difficult to obtain because the fishermen have nothing to offer as security to the bank (apart from a rather battered boat or canoe); so they are forced into a vicious circle of dependence on the middleman from which the co-operative offers a way out.

Another major area of activity is the supply of services which help to reduce running costs or provide a service which would otherwise be unobtainable — boat building and repair, supply of gear, engines and fuel and workshops for the repair and maintenance of engines. Other co-ops are involved in the provision of ice and processing and packaging facilities; this is most important where fish are sold to distant markets and for export of valuable fish species such as shellfish and lobster.

The area which is seen as of increasing importance for the future is in resource management. With overfishing, destruction of habitat and pollution, the resources of the sea are showing that they are indeed finite. Controlled access to these and resource management for a sustained yield could be taken on by co-operatives, although the mechanisms for doing this are only now being explored.

The history of fisheries co-operatives dates from the early years of this century in countries such as Britain, France, Norway, Canada and Australia. In Japan, fishermen's associations were formed even earlier to control access to the fishing grounds. These have now developed into one of the most powerful associations of fisheries co-operatives in the world.

Elsewhere in the world, fisheries co-operatives were introduced during the colonial era, but the main impetus for their introduction in developing countries came during the '60s and early '70s.

In Africa, Egypt, Kenya, Ghana and Nigeria stand out as having the most fisheries co-operative experience, often with strong government support. In Kenya, where a quarter of the fishermen come within the co-operative movement, the most successful co-ops have been at Lake Turkana and at Lamu: but many co-ops seem to start

out well only to fail after some time. In Ghana, attempts have been made to coordinate the fishermen's co-operatives with the women's fish trader groups, but this has led to difficulties owing to conflicts of interests. In Mali considerable government and external aid has been put into co-operatives which face basic problems of migrant fishermen and illiteracy.

In Latin America and the Carribean, some of the smaller countries have had some remarkable successes. In Belize, after a history of exploitation of the small fishermen, the government restricted access to the lobster fishery to cooperatives, which then found funding from American business interests to establish themselves so successfully that they quickly paid off their loans. Recently one or two of the more isolated co-ops have found themselves in difficulties owing to lack of production and poor management. In St. Lucia, nine co-operatives capture 75% of the market and provide a range of services with full government support.

A co-operative has both a social and an economic function and if either fails then the co-operative will fail. If the co-op is founded on a poor judge-

ment of its economic viability, it will always struggle, if not fail completely. The viability depends upon the membership numbers (to provide the capital base) and feasibility of the activities engaged in. Some of the more successful marketing co-ops owe their strength to proximity or access to a valuable market, e.g. Bombay fishermen's societies and the American lobster market for Belize's co-ops.

The social viability is also critical. If the financial base is not sound, it may be the social strains which cause the society to fail. Even if the financial base is viable, the members commitment and incentives to work within the structure are all important. This can be a very positive force to overcome problems and some of the most successful co-ops are those which the fishermen themselves have formed in response to outside exploitative forces.

If the co-op loses the support of its members, it will fail. Fishermen are not stupid and they can quickly sense when the society has lost its original purpose and is no longer serving their needs. Members can sabotage their society by various ways such as selling



A spin-off of many cooperatives is the opportunity they create for learning to read and write

DOSSIER

their fish outside, by not repaying loans, failing to pay membership dues, not attending meetings, etc.

The social function is also dependent upon the non-members. If outsiders feel threatened, either economically, e.g. because the co-operative has reduced the power of the middleman, or politically because the co-ops may

ops can not afford to pay for quality managers, especially in the early years. But this is just the time when they need good management. Corruption both within the society and outside has wasted the scarce resources of many societies.

Linked with good management and members, support for the society is

providing advice and training where appropriate. For instance, some governments have subsidised the salaries of managers for fisheries co-ops when they start up. But if government policy and assistance is unclear, intermittent and disrupted by rapid changes in personnel etc., the chances of failure will be increased. If the government seeks



"Fishermen tend to be very individualistic about catching their fish, and it is only the land-based activities in which they are prepared to cooperate"

be seen as part of a popular movement, outsiders can take steps to disrupt the society, through both financial and social pressures which become more intense in the more isolated communities.

However, associated with both the economic and social success of co-ops, one of the most critical factors is leadership and management. Often, fisheries organisations have been started upon the initiative of a single person who has managed to unite the fishermen; this person has sometimes been an outsider such as the local priest, or social worker or local government cooperative officer, while at other times the initiator has come from the fishermen themselves. It may seem contradictory that co-ops need leaders, but the evidence shows that without good leadership that works within the cooperative principles, very little will be achieved. Scarcity of good managers is a major constraint for fisheries co-ops; small-scale fisheries are not usually great money-spinners and fisheries co-

the factor of communication. In many failures it is apparent that neither management nor members have really understood the function of the society nor the principles of co-operation. All too often co-operatives have been introduced without the necessary time for acceptance of the ideas or training; the co-op may be put forward as a channel for government funds and assistance, but the underlying principles are not taken on by the fishermen, so their motivation has very little to do with co-operation.

Government involvement can be a major factor influencing success or failure. Fisheries co-operatives have succeeded despite government indifference or even hostility — a sign of the determination of the fishermen. However, where government involvement is too overt or too controlling, co-operatives may be stifled. Governments play an important part through their support both financially and legally e.g. in restricting access to fishing areas to co-ops, tax incentives, and by

to control the co-ops, for example by having officials on the boards of the societies, this would seem to be a recipe for failure.

In conclusion, it is important that if fisheries co-operatives are to work, they must remain under the control of the fishermen themselves, serving their very real needs. Within this, there are many imaginative ways of supporting and training fishermen in the running of their society. It is also important that a flexible approach towards the formation of fishermen's co-operatives be taken. The co-operative is one of a number organisational structures which can be used; it is not always appropriate, and some of the looser, less demanding groups and associations may work better to start with. After a time, the benefits of belonging to the larger fisheries co-operative network in the country and indeed throughout the world, may make formal registration as a co-operative advantageous. ○

P-J.M.

Cooperatives and other craftsmen's associations in rural areas

By Djankou NDJONKOU (*)

The making of handicrafts is a more widespread rural activity than might be imagined, ranking second only to agriculture. It is also a much-contested one, perceived in equal measure as an ideal income-generating activity for rural populations (especially for women) and as time-consuming and unremunerative labour. It is not without reason that many cooperative-type groupings exist in the field of craft production throughout the developing world, for the advantages of concertation, as the following article explains, are manifold...

The crafts sector is one in which cooperatives and similar associations are extremely important, as they enable producers to combine to find answers to the problems they all have. They are, for example, an opportunity to pool artistic talent and make the most of the creativity, the know-how, the talent and the experience of the artists. More generally, craftsmen who join to form a cooperative or similar association improve their supplies of inputs and methods of marketing the finished products. And they offer other advantages too, among them training for apprentices and a stand against unemployment and the rural exodus.

The craftsmen

The distinction between traditional art and craft and the practical crafts that provide a service also holds good for craftsmen working in the towns. In both towns and villages there are people working with wood and metal, textiles, vegetable matter, minerals and hides and skins and so on and turning out both articles that are essentially decorative and goods that are needed in the home. But craftsmen who produce functional objects tend to predominate in the villages, as they are a vital complement to farming, herding,

fishing and forestry. They turn out tools and equipment (hoes, carts, cutters, improved boats and canoes etc.) for these sectors and they are a market for their products and by-products (processing, food, timber, hides, skins, wool, etc.).

The organisations

Craftsmen form all sorts of associations ranging from the most informal to the most elaborate with regulations and rules of procedure. What counts, regardless of the name used to describe the association, is the intention to produce jointly or to use the group to obtain a certain number of goods and services very cheaply. Craftsmen who decide to set up a cooperative have two options:

— Forming a craft production cooperative of people who produce together in an undertaking which they own jointly. At the end of each month, members draw a wage on the cooperative's scale, which takes time served, experience and the amount, quality and type of work produced into account. At the end of the year, the net profits (after legal and statutory de-

ductions) are shared out amongst the members according to the work they have done.

— Forming a craft service cooperative of independent producers who work on their own premises with help from their families and apprentices. The cooperative provides a certain number of specific services that all the members need. They may vary considerably in nature, but will usually include:

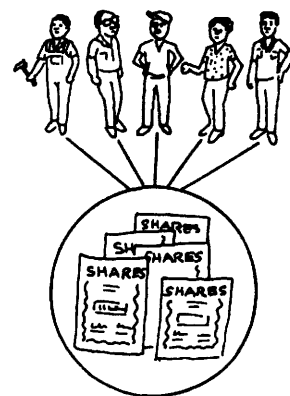
- supplying tools and equipment;
- supplying input and intermediate consumer goods;
- easing access to credit facilities;
- collecting and storing the products;
- running display rooms;
- transporting and marketing the products etc.

In a service cooperative, goods are sold on the producer's behalf and the cooperative takes a commission to cover its costs. Any profit on this is shared out between the members at the end of the year, on a *pro rata* basis according to individual turnover.

In developing countries, especially in Africa, cooperative-type groups are



BIT/Langst



(*) Cooperative Branch, ILO, Geneva.

DOSSIER

the commonest form of organization. They are a transitional stage enabling the associations to consolidate before becoming registered cooperatives in their own right and they are more flexible. In some cases, the government authority which looks after them will lay down criteria for the switch from cooperative-type group to cooperative proper.

Importance of craft cooperatives

Craftsmen form associations of their own bat or after encouragement from outside. In the latter case, the authorities, NGOs, international organisations or other development bodies may well have been responsible for the campaign.

As in many other fields, it is virtually impossible to produce figures to prove the importance of cooperatives to rural craftsmen in the developing world. However, there is no doubt that this kind of experiment is still very marginal in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific and that the Asian countries have the most cooperatives (all categories) and a clear lead in industrial and craft cooperatives, with about 70% of the world total. India alone had 14 250 hand weavers' cooperatives in 1980. This represented 140 000 looms. The cooperatives were grouped into 94 units, 24 local state federations and one national federation. There were a number of variations on the types of organisation outlined above, ranging from those where the craftsmen worked in a joint workshop to others where they worked full- or part-time at home.

Once these cooperatives reach a certain stage of development, they can provide more services. They can combine their input purchasing (which represents more than half the costs of production) and get better prices and they can help solve the many problems (of storage, credit, training etc.) which individual producers may have to cope with.

In Africa, the results are encouraging, but much more modest. There are an estimated 400 craft cooperatives, with 30 000 members, in French-speaking Africa. Morocco and Tunisia alone account for 61%—two thirds—of these people.



BIT

Above, apprentices at the Notsé Artisans Centre in Togo. Below, fine examples of their production



BIT

We have no reliable information on the real effect of the African craft cooperatives on the national economies. In most countries, the small numbers suggest that they are only in the early stages of development, although in some cases, the sector is in fact expanding rapidly. In Kenya, for example, wood carving is a major cooperative activity and one which brings in foreign exchange and creates many jobs in the rural world—to the point where the government has decided to set up a wood carving complex in Wamanyu.

Development seems to depend very much on whether it is government policy to promote this type of association or not.

A cooperative success story

There are, on the other hand, several individual projects to establish craftsmen's cooperatives and other associations in rural areas. Take the Notsé (Togo) craft centre, a carpenters' association, 95 km from Lomé. This was set up back in 1962 with technical assistance and financing from Germany. In 1965, work had to stop, but it started up again in 1979 with help from the Evangelical Church of Togo. Today, the self-managed woodworks has 60 or so people on the payroll, including 12 apprentices and 12 jobbing workmen. It mainly turns out solid wood (teak primarily) furniture, does woodwork for the building trade

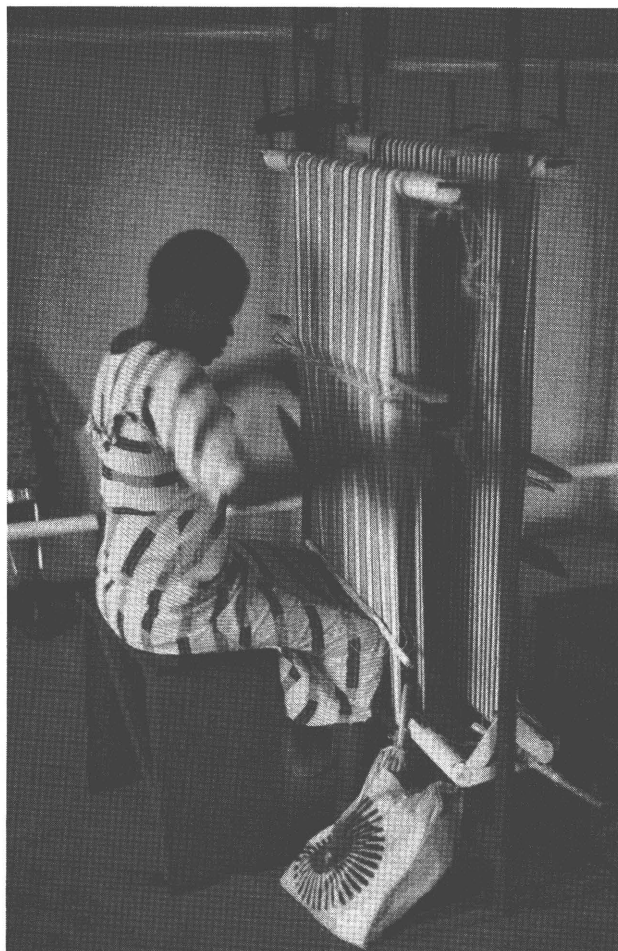
and carries out repairs and maintenance. Cooperative members have opened a basic goods store and set up a fund to buy pharmaceuticals. And there are other examples of craftsmen who have got themselves organized—the Asko and Menagesha potters in Ethiopia, the manioc processors' cooperative in the village of Fangbo-Gbéto in Benin, the traditional art cooperatives of the villages around Bamenda in Cameroon and so on.

The fact that the cooperative movement has not yet made its mark among Africa's rural craftsmen has been confirmed by a regional survey of craft services and production in rural Ivory Coast, which showed that only 4.7% of the 2 658 craftsmen (85.8% owners and 9.5% non-owners, i.e. freelance managers and wage-earners) in the six regions covered (Abengourou, Bonaké, Korhogo, Man and Sassandra) belonged to cooperatives. The situation is no doubt much the same in most other countries of Africa. This lack of enthusiasm for associations is primarily due to the lack of backing. All the Governments do is for craftsmen in the informal urban sector—HASIDA, for example, the agency the Ethiopian authorities set up in 1977 to promote craft and cottage industries, only operates in the towns.

The constraints

These rural craft cooperatives may come up against internal and external problems. The external ones include the governments' failure to provide any promotion or support, as we mentioned just now. Very few countries have cooperative policies and so there are no decentralised dissemination or back-up services to reach the producers in the villages. Financial institutions that could help the rural cooperatives or provide them with credit facilities are also totally lacking. The other external factors are the absence of any technical instruction centres, fluctuating raw material supplies (due to drought and so on) and marketing difficulties. The internal difficulties in-

clude, first of all, illiteracy on the part of the almost all the members, which in turn has clear implications for the cooperative education and training systems that need to be provided. The cooperatives also find it difficult to match supply to demand, particularly



C. Pavard

Member of a weavers' cooperative

By grouping together, artisans can better solve the many problems that face them as individual producers

as far as quality is concerned. This is because they are not really *au fait* with either customers or the potential markets. And lastly, there is the fact that the people involved in the cooperative movement in the rural areas tend to be from the most underprivileged sections of the population, who have very little money, which means that they are not always enthusiastic about pooling their resources and that it is difficult to form even the most modest capital.

Some suggestions

Activity in this albeit promising sector so far has been too restricted to

have any real effect on either the direct beneficiaries or the rural communities as a whole. And assistance, which comes from various sources, is not always coordinated.

There are one or two general suggestions that can be made at this stage to promote craft cooperatives and associations in rural areas. Initially, it would be a good idea to create (or strengthen) the sort of institutional and financial environment that is conducive to their development. Methods of spreading improved techniques should also be introduced in both the functional and artistic sectors of the craft world and vocational training that is geared to the local market (para-agricultural functional craft in particular) should be offered. Urban craft support programmes could also be extended to the rural world.

The types of cooperative groups that need promoting are, in particular, cooperative marketing networks that can capitalise on the products (artwork, for example), savings schemes and the relevant cooperative credit facilities. The craftsmen themselves should be made functionally literate (for the purposes of production management and cooperative organisation) as a guarantee that the association funds are democratically controlled and stringently managed and there is no double-dealing that might discourage the members. Cooperative education should put particular emphasis on the groups being self-financing. Where resources are a problem, members could make a contribution in kind, which would assure their personal commitment.

If measures such as these were an integral part of a national craft development plan, craftsmen in rural areas would have the opportunity to capitalise on their products and creativity in a cooperative framework and thus play a full part in the rural, economic and social development of their countries. ○ N.D.

The Anaguta of northern Nigeria: a rural case study

by Sani S. MAGUDA and Adrian COLLETT (*)

The following article looks closely at a single people, the Anaguta, as they go about their daily life in the village areas around Jos, in Northern Nigeria. The Anaguta happen to live in Nigeria, but the detailed description of their social customs, their leaders, their beliefs and their agricultural practices could hold true, with only slight variations, for millions in rural Africa. One of the article's co-authors, Sani Maguda, is himself Anaguta, and a subsistence farmer in the village of Andigwong, near Jos.

The Anaguta, literally "People of the Bow", occupy an area to the north-east of the town of Jos in northern Nigeria. There are five village areas with populations of about 2000 people comprising scattered compounds, each surrounded by its own farmland. When a man marries he moves away from his father's compound and builds one of his own. This will be occupied by himself, his wives and children. Later, some of his father's wives may join him if his father dies and they are not inherited by his father's brothers. Until early in the colonial period the main settlements were "towns" situated on the tops of five hills forming a protective escarpment to an extensive valley which can still only be reached on foot.

Since the early days of the colonial administration the Anaguta have had a District Head and Village Heads who are all local government appointees. However, the primary locus of political authority in the villages is still the age-grade system which articulates with the offices of priest-chief and other ritual leaders. In spite of the fact that no initiation ceremony for

men has been held for about 50 years, the gerontocratic system is still very much in evidence. Men gain power and status with age, and through their demonstration of the powers of sorcery. In general, only the latter have access to important ritual offices.

Missionisation came relatively late and did not start to take a hold until the early 1960s. The typically animistic Anaguta religion is still very strong, therefore, and there is a roughly equal division between those who follow it, and Christians. In some villages there is a secret society ancestor cult which was borrowed from a neighbouring society in the early part of this century. The cult is used for the divination and curing of individual problems and sickness, and for the control of witchcraft. There are a number of other shrines, public and private, which are used to deal with a variety of problems, and for different ritual occasions. There is also a strong belief in the transmigration of souls.

As late as the early '70s the preferred system of marriage, which was the direct exchange of classificatory sisters between two men, was fairly prevalent. However, this has now given way almost exclusively to marriage by payments to the wife's family. Similarly, a man could inherit either from his father or his mother's brother, and might move from one household to another several times. This system has now shifted strongly in favour of inheritance in the paternal line.

Farming life

There are two seasons. The wet season starts in April and lasts until September or into the early part of October. During the rest of the year there is no rain at all and, except for areas of swamp, the land dries as hard as a brick and one would think that all plant life had come to an end. As soon as the rains start, however, everything suddenly spring to life again. Some of the land, which lies between 3000 and

4000 feet, is hilly and the farms are terraced to prevent erosion, but there are also large areas of fairly level land in the valleys.

The village economy is primarily subsistence farming which has intensified since the *coup* at the end of 1983 when many of those with jobs in the town were retrenched and had no option but to return to their farmlands. A few cash crops, such as carrots, are also grown. Apart from the land immediately around the compounds, which is fertilized by human urine and domestic animal waste, farms are cropped for about three years and then left to rest. Clearing of new farms is done in March using an axe and a small hoe and the rubbish is burnt off to provide fertilizer. As soon as the rain has softened the ground sufficiently, ploughing is done using a large hand hoe with a wooden handle.

The staple crop is sorghum, supplemented with maize, finger millet, hungry rice (*digitaria exilis*), various types of yam, sweet and Irish potatoes, black-eyed and soya beans, cassava, carrots, ground nuts, tomatoes, sugar cane, oranges, guavas, mangoes, locust beans, and other fruit. Many types of green vegetables, the European names of which are not known, are self-seeded around the compounds. Tobacco is also grown for local consumption, as well as gourds and pumpkins. The practice of intercropping is common in which beans, ground nuts and other legumes are grown between the rows of sorghum. Sweet potato runners are also grown under the sorghum and when ready, cut up and planted in ridges on their own. It is also common to intercrop fruit and other economically valuable trees with grain and other crops. A few vegetables may also be grown during the dry season using irrigation but it is more usual to lend irrigable land to local Hausa farmers to grow salad crops for sale in the town in return for a stand of maize at the beginning of the next wet season.

Seed is saved from the strongest plants from the previous year's crop and several different types may be mixed and sown together as a form of insurance. These practices may not produce the highest yields, but they do ensure that crops are likely to have the maximum resistance to disease and extremes of climate than potentially

(*) Sani Maguda is Anaguta and a subsistence farmer. He is currently Secretary of the Farmers' Cooperative in Andigwong Village, Gwong District. Adrian Collett works in community development with Community Roots Trust and lectures at the Universities of Kent and London.

better cropping hybrids. No agro-chemicals are used except for very small amounts of artificial fertilizer.

During the wet season weeds grow so fast that the most difficult job for the farmer is to keep them from swamping the crops. Because of this most of the work is done using rotating cooperative work parties. The Anaguta have a proverb which says: "If the women and children go hungry it is the fault of the men; but if the men go naked, it is the fault of the women." The colonial government did not manage to lure the Anaguta into wage labour on any scale so that farming has remained primarily the responsibility of men. They do the heavy work while the women and children help with the weeding. The women also grow vegetables in their own fenced gardens and sell them in the markets of Jos, Babale and Tilden Fulani. They also sell firewood and fruit. Women are the main earners of cash, both for clothing and other essential goods and for paying taxes, school fees, the school levy and medical expenses. Since the colonial government reforested the hills in the early 1950s with local trees, and set aside areas which could be cropped by the local people, there has been a plentiful supply of wood for cooking and building. Regeneration also seems to be keeping pace with the rate of cropping.

Every family in the village owns between four and six large farm lands which is ample to grow enough food to feed themselves and provide a surplus for cash. There are virtually no jobs available either in the village or in the town, so that farming is the only way a family can live. Thus every farmer is trying to bring more land under cultivation and to increase yields.

The village cooperative

The village cooperative is organised by a group of Christians and it grows crops to raise money for building primary schools, more classrooms for the secondary school, health clinics, and

local roads. Members also do most of the physical work involved in these projects. There is also a Farmers' Union which collects money to buy fertilizer in bulk but, as yet, there is no cooperative marketing system. There is a local clinic, now staffed by nurses who can communicate with the local people. But the price of treatment and drugs has increased so much that few can afford to use its facilities. This means that a lot of reliance is placed on native doctors, and on the local pharmaceutical trader who frequently gives injections.



An Anaguta couple proudly surveying their excellent crop of hungry rice. In the background is a storage silo

In one village there are 14 rotating credit groups, fewer than there used to be. These groups provide a way of saving in the absence of more formal institutions. A group comprises between 10 and 30 people who make a contribution of say 5 naira every week on a fixed day. Each week one person receives the whole of the contribution and this continues until everyone in the group has had a payout. Anyone who is late with their contribution is fined a small amount and this goes into a separate kitty. When a round of payments has been completed this

money is used to buy meat and brew sorghum beer for a celebration.

Frequent celebrations

Village life is punctuated at least once a week by a ritual, ceremony, or celebration of one kind or another. There are large farming work parties exclusively for men of the whole village. There are women's farming work parties between villages. There are beer and firewood exchange partnerships between women; and ceremonies in which spirits which possess women and make them ill are cooled. There are ceremonies to celebrate the harvest, to celebrate the first yams, and to ensure that the crops will reach maturity without disease. There are rituals to invoke rain, and to prevent too much rain; rituals for various kinds of sickness; and rituals to divine and denounce cases of witchcraft. Every ceremony is followed the next day by another to make sure that everybody who attended reached home safely the night before. All the compounds in each village area are linked by a network of bush paths, and from first light until well after dark neighbours drop by to greet the occupants and make sure they are well.

Today, all the young men and women go to school, often until they are over 20 years of age. This means that there is a shortage of labour, particularly as the women spend a lot of time carrying produce to the market on their heads, and may spend

the rest of the day selling it when they get there.

The Anaguta do not keep cattle or horses so that there are no draught animals. There are local groups of settled Fulani who keep large herds, but they are not used for draught purposes either. An animal has to be trained when it is young and both the initial cost and the risks involved in the absence of a tradition of this type of husbandry do not recommend it as a sound investment. The only farm machinery available in the area belongs to the Local Government Council and

theoretically this is available to any local person. However, if a tractor is requested it generally comes too late to be of any use because it has been monopolised by some of the richer non-Anaguta farmers. It also costs as much as 150-200 *naira* to plough one or two acres — more than any local farmer can afford. Fertilizer is also very expensive, costing 12-15 *naira* a bag, the equivalent of about three days' wages, and most farmers can afford to buy only a small quantity at this price.

What is happening is that families are selling parts of their land to buy fertilizer, or to buy grain if they have had a poor harvest, or to pay medical expenses, taxes, and school fees. If this continues, the result will be the development of a landless peasantry within

a few years.

Because of the labour shortage there is a need for some simple machinery which could be owned by the Cooperative and shared by a number of farmers. This could be old but serviceable, so that when it can no longer be repaired because of lack of parts, it can be broken for spares. There are many people in the village who have acquired mechanical skills by repairing motorbikes, petrol-driven grinding machines, and the minibuses and taxis which ply the main road. These people could be taught to maintain and repair tractors, rotovators, and other implements.

Not only would this allow some of the heavier work such as ploughing to be done more quickly, but it would enable the Cooperative to do contract

work outside the village and the earnings could be put towards maintenance and making further purchases. Clearly it would be wise to introduce this type of innovation on a small scale initially to enable any adverse consequences to be monitored.

We are convinced that small inputs at the village level, particularly in societies like the Anaguta where there is a long tradition of cooperation and sharing, will go much further towards achieving food self-sufficiency in the Third World than massive inputs at the level of the state. One way of achieving this might be to set up village adoption or twinning schemes between Europe and African countries in which there is direct contact between ordinary farmers on both sides. ○

S.M. and A.C.

Traditional health care in rural Kenya

by David NYAMWAYA (*)

What structures exist in the ACP States for health care? In most of these countries, Western-style health services exist in the towns, and in many, in rural centres also, if only on a modest scale. In much of the rural developing world, however, traditional health care continues to be the favoured practice. This article examines such care as it exists in rural Kenya — a country in which, in a changing society, it continues to play a major role.

Western-oriented health care is relatively new in Kenya. The earliest western-oriented health care services in Kenya were introduced during the last two decades of the 19th century. By 1910, records show that there were only 77 western-type health workers in a country with about 3 million people. The majority of the population during this early period depended almost exclusively on traditional health services, and even now less than 50% of the country's population are thought to have reasonably easy access to

western-type health care. Recent surveys by the University of Nairobi's Institute of African Studies reveal that even in those areas where hospital-type health care is available, traditional health care is widely used.

Traditional health care in rural Kenya takes many forms and is delivered by a wide variety of health workers. To provide some idea of the many forms which traditional health care takes, I wish to divide the traditional health workers into two main types; first, those who deal with the physical and secondly, those who deal with the psychosocial aspects of disease.

Preventive and curative health is provided by specialists like the herbalists, traditional birth attendants, bone setters, tooth extractors and masseurs. Research carried out by the author of this article in seven of Kenya's 41 districts shows that the herbalists form by far the largest groups of indigenous health workers, followed by the traditional birth attendants. In many cases, the indigenous health workers combine at least two specialities. The herbalists are, in most of rural Kenya, the first health workers consulted by the patient. This is because of their acces-

sibility and the ease with which they can interact with their patients. Another reason for the herbalists being used before western-type health workers is because of the deep belief in the efficacy of their medicines held by many rural people.

Traditional birth attendants are also widely used and there are two major reasons for this. The first is that it is often difficult to transport a woman in labour to the nearest health facility because of the poor road network. Secondly, a number of cultural requirements associated with child delivery make hospital delivery unattractive; for example, many Kenyan mothers believe that the placenta should be cut with ceremony and disposed of ritually. This is not usually allowed in hospital. It must be stated here that traditional birth attendants are very experienced health workers who combine gynaecology with obstetrics.

The powers of ritual

Psychosocial health care is provided by diviners, ritual specialists, prophets and knowledgeable elders. Diviners diagnose the social and spiritual causation of illness and prescribe the appropriate ritual. Ritual experts advise on and lead out during healing ritual performances. The ritual specialists are assisted by elders of the community. Among the Digo of Kenya's South Coast, the diviner *mganga wa mburu-*

(*) Dr Nyamwaya works for UNICEF/AM-REF in Nairobi.

ga diagnoses the type of spirit afflicting a patient and the appropriate ritual, (usually a musical dance called *Kayamba*), is to be performed. The ritual involves the whole local community and is thought to have a cathartic effect on the community as a whole. Among the Marakwet of Kenya's Rift Valley, the diviner, *kipses*, advises on the healing ritual appropriate for a particular illness. A healing ritual among Marakwet is called *ayaba* and takes the form of a ceremony with dancing, singing and eating for the whole community. Such rituals are performed in many other Kenyan societies. It should be stated here that psychosocial therapy can, and usually is, performed for a patient undergoing western-type therapy. There is no contradiction seen when this is done.

The number of indigenous health workers is unknown, but the author has established that in at least seven Kenyan societies, there are as many as one indigenous healer for some 200 people. If it is assumed that there are 15 million people in rural Kenya, then there are about 150 000 traditional health workers in Kenya.

Policy regarding traditional health care

Until recently, the official policy on indigenous health care was not clear. However, since 1979, traditional health care has been recognized as an important part of the life of the people in Kenya's rural areas. The fourth National Development Plan (1979-83) states that consideration is to be given by the government to the manpower aspects of traditional health care i.e. the extent to which certain cadres of indigenous healers might be encour-

aged to serve in government health institutions.

In practice, only the traditional birth attendants have received official recognition and attention. A number of them have been given courses but so far they have not been invited to serve in western-type health facilities, except in a few experimental cases. The present policy is silent regarding registration of all indigenous health care providers.

Organisation

Indigenous health care providers have been very poorly organised until recently. Any organisation which existed before the late 1970s was usually along tribal lines. Today, a number of societies of indigenous health workers have been formed, mainly in the

urban areas. There is now a Union of Traditional Herbalists of Kenya which unites healers from many ethnic groups. In Meru District, three associations of indigenous healers are in the process of being formed. Except for traditional birth attendants who are active leaders in women's groups, the majority of Kenya's rural indigenous health care



Western-style health care is not always available and, even where it is, traditional medicine is often preferred

providers operate on an individual basis.

Relationship with Western-type health care

It is usually assumed (wrongly), that the utilisation of indigenous health care providers is inimical to the utilisation of western type health workers. For the majority of rural Kenyans, both indigenous and western-type health care are seen as forming a single hierarchy of alternatives. In some cases, especially acute conditions and baby delivery, both forms of health care compete. In the majority of cases, however, indigenous health care is perceived as complementing western-type health care. It is therefore common to find a healing ritual being performed for an individual who has just been discharged from hospital. Increasingly, indigenous health care is

Comparison with Western-type health care

Indigenous health care

1. Easily accessible
2. Providers weakly organised
3. Registration of providers as professionals just emerging
4. Training carried out mainly by apprenticeship
5. Little official support

Western health care

1. In most cases inaccessible
2. Providers tightly organised in government, church and private institutions
3. Registration of providers highly institutionalised
4. Training of providers institutionalised with uniform certification
5. Full government backing.

being seen as best suited for the management of the psychosocial aspects of illness which are not part of the domain of western-oriented medicine.

Problems in traditional health care

A number of problems exist regarding traditional health care. The most obvious is that the techniques and pharmacopœia used by the traditional health workers have not been subjected to scrutiny. For now, their efficacy is judged merely from the evidence of ex-patients. There is also the problem of lack of understanding of the basic principles of hygiene. A number of studies have revealed that the mechanism for estimating the dosage for various drugs is not well refined. It is also argued that the quality of training for specific cadres of traditional health worker is declining. In the past, most traditional health workers regarded their work as a vocation. Nowadays, there are many complaints about charlatanism among these workers. With support from the government and research bodies, most of these problems can be sorted out. Such bodies include the African Medical and Research Foundation, the Kenya Institute of Medical Research and the University of Nairobi.

The future

With the emergence of associations and institutions for the training of indigenous healers and tacit government recognition, traditional health care is likely to persist in Kenya in spite of the expansion of western-type health care. The major reason for the persistence lies in the fact that indigenous health care is culturally based and addresses itself to questions pertaining to the psychosocial aspects of illness, which are not given due consideration in Western-oriented medicine. Another reason for the persistence is that a number of the indigenous health care practices such as herbal medicine and baby delivery are seen to be efficacious by the people. The way traditional health care grows in future will depend on the initiatives of its providers in organising themselves and the government's response to such initiatives. ○

D.N.

“Development without damage” — The Naam groups tackle drought —

By Bernard OUÉDRAOGO (*)

With the drought of the past years, the countries of the Sahel have had to face perhaps greater obstacles to their development than any other of the ACP States. In Burkina Faso, around Yatenga, a number of Naam groupings (pre-cooperative movements founded on traditional structures and customs) not content to wait (perhaps in vain) to be the objects of assistance, are actively assisting themselves. Their philosophy is “Developing without damaging” and their objective—more important even than the problems they are trying to overcome—is to instil in each individual, in each group, a sense of responsibility vis-à-vis those problems.

The breakdown of the ecological balance is gathering momentum. Can we still avoid a totally barren Sahel? Poor rainfall, a population explosion, vast energy needs and the extension of farming and livestock are the main factors of the ecological deterioration and this is why the developing nations in the Sudano-Sahel part of Africa are beginning to wake up to the fact that self-help very much depends on their determination and ability to get moving. Simple transplants of models and

methods from elsewhere have often overlooked the customs, traditions and values of those on the receiving end, in spite of the fact that experience suggests that it is only ideas that the people involved have thought out and tried for themselves that really work.

So, since 1978, the *naam* organisations of Yatenga, the north-west province of Burkina Faso, have been doing something practical about this. *Naams* are pre-cooperative movements based on traditional structures and habits and they have been waging a continuous strong campaign against the induced effects of chronic drought—poor harvests, a constant

(*) Bernard Ouédraogo is the Founding Chairman of the “Six S” International Association, B.P. 100, Ouahigouya, Burkina Faso.



Participation in communal work is encouraged from an early age

drop in the water table, drying rivers, lakes and wells and more. This they are doing in the firm conviction that everyone must do his bit. This is their contribution to righting the situation.

“Everyone must do his bit”

Many peasants, particularly the younger ones, are afraid and may decide to leave the rural areas.

Six “S” (the name is taken from the initials of its French title which means making use of the dry season in the savannah and the Sahel) is trying to act here and now to stem this movement. We need to train the people we are working to help to cope with the shortages by saving energy by constructing better stores, making aluminium cooking pots and running a three-fold campaign to keep their animals in check, stop wasting wood and prevent brush fires.

There is also a livestock campaign aimed at creating units of one ram and five ewes initially and small stables later on and at domestic sheep-rearing.

Reconstituting the ecosystem

Six “S” has had to organise the rural world to achieve a high degree of motivation and get it to shoulder responsibility for the problems of its physical and human environment. Here in Yatenga we have done away with imported models in this particular field, as the rules and regulations and instructions for application are also imported. Since 1968, we have been organising our target groups according to what they are, what they know, what they can do, what they experience and what they want. What Léopold Sédar Senghor would say is that we should put down roots at the start—which, strangely, reflects our own philosophy, which is self-development without damage.

“Kê-naam» rather than “Village association”

This is why we use the terms *kê-naam* and *kombi-naam*—or just *naam* (to speak the language and respect the habits of the target-group)—instead of “village association” or “peasant grouping” or “cooperative” or “pilot farm”.

The *naam* group, an improved traditional *naam*, goes back into the mists of time. It is the only Mossi organization in which there is no social inequality. Everyone, irrespective of birth, wealth or sex, is on an equal footing. The only things that count are a socially responsible outlook and ability, as the association is based on qualitative democracy, economic and social solidarity, disinterested help for each other, a fair distribution of wealth and the collective exercise of responsibility. Colonial and imperialistic ideas are foreign to it, as self-development cannot be based on someone else’s culture.

There are three phases which we try to bear in mind:

- Involvement—and spontaneous, de facto, deliberate encouraged contribution and integration
- Accepting responsibility (see table)
- Handling of all the problems of the environment by the people actually concerned.

This is a peaceful strategy whereby the association gradually develops with the general assent of all concerned and without the resulting changes affecting the political or religious beliefs of any member of the community.

As the table shows, when a group feels responsible for a problem, it makes an effort to solve it. It creates means and plans of operation, gets organised and distributes tasks in the light of the temperament, character

and ability of its members. Self-determination leads to self-teaching.

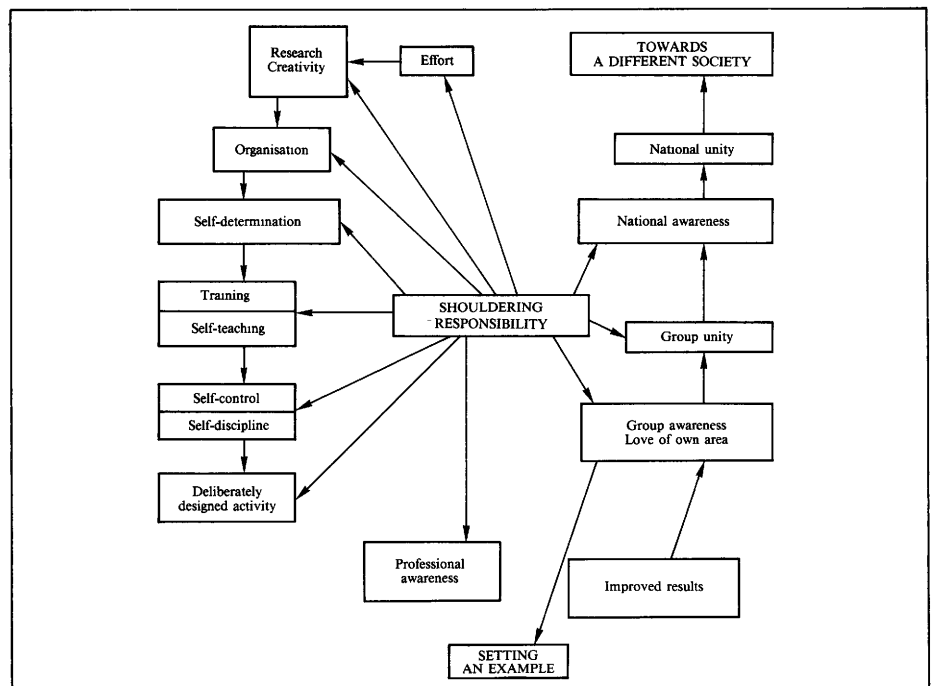
Self control means that activity is deliberately thought through. It also means that a strong professional awareness has to emerge and be maintained. And better results are the inevitable outcome. This gives rise to a kind of serenity. Affection for the area grows and the unity of the group gets stronger, clarifies and leads to the awakening of a national awareness, which, if all goes well, leads automatically to national unity.

The time has come to create other up-to-date, African societies to further the building of African civilisation. The traditional *naam* on which we base our groups helps us safeguard positive, traditional values such as mutual help, a community spirit, communion of thought and action, social, economic and political solidarity, cohesion between the sexes and different age groups and so on.

But it is far from being a place where banning is banned. Our contact with the western world has enabled us to import values and to keep the positive and throw out the negative ones.

* * *

As a rapid conclusion, this other society would be neither traditional (because it deliberately sets aside outmoded customs and taboos) nor western (because it rejects unwanted west-



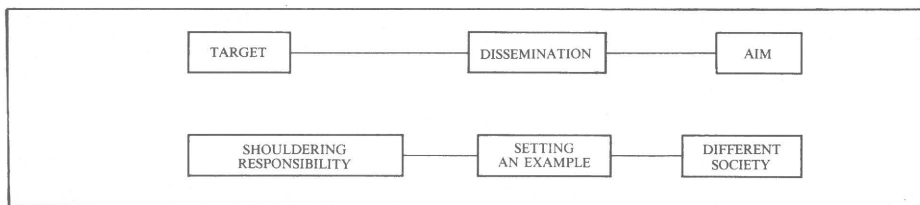


FAO/Mandelmann

Six "S" organises target groups "according to what they are, what they know, what they can do, what they experience and what they want"

ern values and will fight to keep as little social inequality as possible).

To sum up, then, the table could be:



backs up the Bontoné in Kiembara the Tôn in Kissoum, Barfora and Mali, the Tiéni in the Bobo lands, the Tiéntéaa in the Dagara lands, the Djamaati in the Soum, the Walpièlè in the Sanguié, the M'Botaye in Senegal, the Waldé in Mauritania and soon the Samaraya in Niger.

The groups have one target—to get people to shoulder responsibility to achieve the aim of creating a fairer, more genuine society.

Some achievements

Work completed in the drive to reconstitute the ecosystem and achieve self-sufficiency in food includes the building of three dams, water and land conservation operations (2 734.50 ha), deepening and reinforcing 428 wells, shoring up ravines, planting 15 ha of nurseries and 123 ha of trees, turning out 2 259 aluminium cooking pots and a large number of small animal schemes.

The immediate effects on the physical environment, the improvement in the living conditions of both people and their livestock and the vast economic and exploitable potential offered to the populations that have done all this force the critical observer to take notice.

One strategy is aimed at one target and one target only—that of making every individual, group or community responsible for whatever problems arise. The problems themselves are only a secondary consideration.

We have one way of achieving this and that is basing ourselves on what the people concerned actually are, on what they know, on their experience (i.e. their crops), on what they can do (i.e. their technology) and on what they want (i.e. their aspirations).

Our idea is to create a different society, one that is neither traditional nor imported, and is hybrid and therefore more solid and reliable than those which gave it birth. As Elisabeth Nicot so neatly put it after her visit to Yatenga in 1983, "Six S" is the first African creation of a society that is neither a copy of western ideas nor a return to ancestral custom".

"Six S" is based on the philosophical principles of the *naam* and thus

Shouldering responsibility

At "Six S", the person actually concerned devises the project, proposes the ways and means of running it and draws up a programme of implementation that takes his own possibilities into account. The association helps train the relevant technicians and provides tools which the peasant farmer cannot obtain. Many organisations have experts to investigate and point out projects that can be run to achieve the required aim and they are executed by specialised firms. "Six S" makes the recipient shoulder responsibility where others do no more than ask him to join in and in many cases he is simply passed over.

Our fundamental ideas are for development, in the fullest meaning of the term, to lead the citizen to shoulder responsibility for his own problems. This, and only this, will lead to Africa's economic and social take-off. o

B.O.

Rural structures as agents of development— the Bafut experimental project

By Claude PAVARD (*)

Development models, like much else in life, are subject to changes in fashion. While a decade ago the trend was all for large-scale capital projects, today small is beautiful—and not merely small but involving closely those most directly concerned. The article below is about just such a venture—an experimental rural development project the North-West province of Cameroon. The enthusiastic involvement in the project of the local traditional power structure and of the specially elected local committees has undoubtedly enabled the project to succeed, demonstrating thereby the vital role of such groupings as agents of development.

Projects that work are by no means common. Projects that work well are definitely uncommon. And projects that generate enthusiasm are exceptional—but this is what the Bafut Village Community Experimental Programme (VCEP) does. The Bafut project is being run in the north-western province of Cameroon, near Nigeria, where there are four quite different areas: Central Bafut, a savannah basin with a large population which has been there for years and soil that has deteriorated as a result; Mforya-Akossia, fertile plateaux which should be put to good use; Akofunguba, high,

sparsely populated, isolated plateaux that are suitable for herding; and Tingo, the Mentchum valley, which is rich and closed-in and where anything is possible.

So much for the scenery. Now for the actors. They are Fulani herdsmen who came from the north and all is well for them in the rainy season when there is good pastureland for their animals. But when it is dry, they have to go down into the valley where they of course come up against sedenary farmers. An old story. In the Mentchum valley, all the good cards have been badly dealt. They have the land, the climate and the water. And they have competent men. The Chinese from

Taiwan realized as much 25 years ago when they brought turnkey cooperation to one of the plateaux. Rice paddies for you, they said, with full water control. And it all went well until the Chinese cooperation officers went home 10 years later and production collapsed.

What it means if the Cameroonian peasants worked well for 10 years and the structures, channels, production and marketing collapsed when the cooperation officers went home is that the thinking behind the project was wrong. But why? Because everything was brought in from the outside and the peasant community was not responsible for any of it.

This brings us to the heart of the problem of rural development. And it took 30 years of searching, of mistakes and of waste to reach the conclusion that peasants who are not directly involved in organising their own existence and in managing their economic and social and cultural life—it all goes a long way—loses interest.

Bafut is the ultimate proof that this interest can be revived, that the rural exodus can be stemmed and that a

(*) Film producer and journalist, specialising in Third World issues.



Bafut is the ultimate proof that it is possible to mobilise the peasant world, to stem the rural exodus and to bring a whole region back to life

region can be brought back to life. The Fon of Bafut, the traditional chief of the area, is very positive in his analysis of the situation. Phase One of the experimental project, he says, is a complete success. When it started, back in November 1981, the people of Bafut, he told us, said, in essence, "Well, here's another project, let's wait and see what they're giving us this time". And they were very surprised when, after a lot of explaining (the Fon has something to do with this), they realised that the aim of the scheme was to crystallise and to capitalise on the productive forces of the peasant farmers themselves in the light of their own desires and decisions.

Having established the theory, how was it put into practice? Village communities, groups big enough and homogeneous enough to run projects and programmes of significant common interest, were set up. This was not easy, as the traditional system of administration is highly centralised and any one family's plots of land tend to be scattered. But ultimately, with the total support of the traditional powers—which would have been out of the question without the Fon's help—eight village communities were defined, in the light of ecological, demographic, sociological and economic criteria.

Each community has about 8 000 inhabitants on average, comprising a general assembly which elects an executive committee. It has gradually to turn itself into a structure which is part of a contractual development process and be the sole partner of the various technical services and development operators in its region. One of the problems, right from the start, was the deliberate avoidance of any pre-established technical programme. The theme tune of most development programmes is "Do it like this but don't do it like that", but here the idea was for the village communities themselves to list priorities at their meetings. That this is a workable idea is far from obvious, as these structures have inherited many constraints from the

weight of the past. But a dynamic movement was soon to emerge and six bridges, 12 km of track, six schools, five health posts, two water supply projects and a cultural centre saw the light of day. The average contribution of the local population, in cash and in kind, was put at 30%, which is no mean result. And the people realised, the Fon of Bafut told us with great clear-sightedness, that grouped community effort made for rapid progress in a project and—this is most important—that they had to count on themselves first, the State, the administration and the project, the whole external superstructure that is to say, only



Pig-farming and fish-farming. Improving small-scale livestock production is a key factor in integrated village development

being there to give that extra little bit of help, with, for example, tools or special equipment. Manna must not systematically fall from heaven, he explained. You have to start by rolling up your sleeves and working.

The results are impressive, in spite of the fact that the experimental project (preliminaries eight years ago and start in late 1981) is very recent. After the infrastructure works (which are still going on), rice growing was re-launched in the Mentchum valley. Yields are increasing, the varieties are being improved, drainage has been introduced and a rice husking plant built. Coffee growing has been improved, too, with village plantations being established and young plants being distributed, and the same goes for cocoa and livestock, one of the most interesting aspects of the VCEP.

It was found to be impossible to achieve integrated village develop-

ment in this part of Cameroon without a major programme to improve small animal farming: rabbit raising, modern poultry units and fish farming were an immediate success. Cattle rearing on the high plateaux of Ako-funguba is being improved too. New forage crops (the famous Guatemala grass which is fresh even in the dry season) have been brought in, paddocks are being protected, eucalyptus hedges are being planted, reforestation is under way and barbed-wire fences are being put up to prevent animals from falling down precipices.

And the women! They are tough and they are hard-working and they have taken to draught animals. Here, as elsewhere on the continent, there is the unbelievable sight of women behind the plough, urging on the oxen and opening up new fertile land! With all this, there is a comprehensive village credit scheme (based on an agreement with FON-ADER the National Rural Development Fund), but it is getting under way slowly, as the local peasants, who are not used to the idea of agricultural credit facilities, are likely to be wary of it—or fail to pay back what they borrow.

The project is very positive, overall, because of the cultural and social programme that goes with it. The rural exodus, that latter-day sickness which afflicts all developing societies, cannot be slowed down unless young people can see a point in staying in the country and can borrow money to set themselves up, invest, be looked after and enjoy themselves. The recently-built Bafut community centre where there are film shows, traditional events, judo classes, and sports competitions is a first step in the right direction. The bright lights of the city have got to stop hypnotising youngsters from the country!

The scheme is the key undertaking of the Cameroonian Government so far. Paul Biya's ambitious aim is to create focuses of regional development that are free of the central administration and the attraction of city lights and the Bafut project points the way. ○ C.P.

Zimbabwe success stories (*)

The following "success stories" tell of a few small- to medium-scale projects carried out over the past few years in Zimbabwe and which may be considered exemplary either for their rapidity of execution or for the originality of their approach or, simply, for reaching the people they were intended to reach.

Rural clinics

After independence in April 1980, the Government of Zimbabwe, wishing to improve the living conditions of its rural population, proceeded to expand the health and education infrastructure.

A project was agreed under Non-Associate funding for the construction and equipment of clinics country-wide.

The Ministry of Construction designed a basic clinic, aimed mainly at outpatients, together with two staff houses. A regional tendering system was devised to enable small qualified rural builders to participate in the project.

Forty-seven clinic complexes have now been built. They form part of the first referral level of the "Health Pyramid". They have a staff complement of three trained nurses and a health assistant whose duties are to travel the area covered by the clinic, improve hygiene, and supervise patients under treatment and who may be unable to travel. A doctor from the

nearest hospital visits the clinic regularly.

The clinics are equipped and furnished. Drugs are provided by Government Medical Stores.

A clinic treats an average of 100 patients a day with a variety of ailments, most of which are gastric. Mother and child care is an important function of these clinics.

The average cost of a complex is ECU 55 891 for a gross built-up area of 264.56 m².

Grazing schemes for communal lands

Half of the land in Zimbabwe lies in communal areas, the larger part consisting of marginal soils, unsuitable for crop cultivation. Due to past land allocation policies, but also to insufficient land management and heavy overgrazing, the latter caused by population pressure in the communal lands, there are indications of wide sheet and gully erosion in large regions.

Controlled grazing, beginning with limitations of the size of herds, is the key to the stabilization of the marginal

areas and to the protection of catchment areas. Zimbabwe has adopted an experimental grazing method called "Short Duration Grazing" (SDG) which has given encouraging results in other countries and is now beginning to expand in this country. SDG is a system of rotational grazing which could be likened to the spokes of a bicycle wheel. The grazing area is fenced off into paddocks. Only one paddock is opened at a time, usually for not more than seven days. The animals feed on grass from this paddock, moving there from the hub where the water is. The animals then graze in one paddock only, as all the rest are closed. After the closing of one paddock, another is opened. By the time cattle return to the first paddock, grass will have had time to recover.

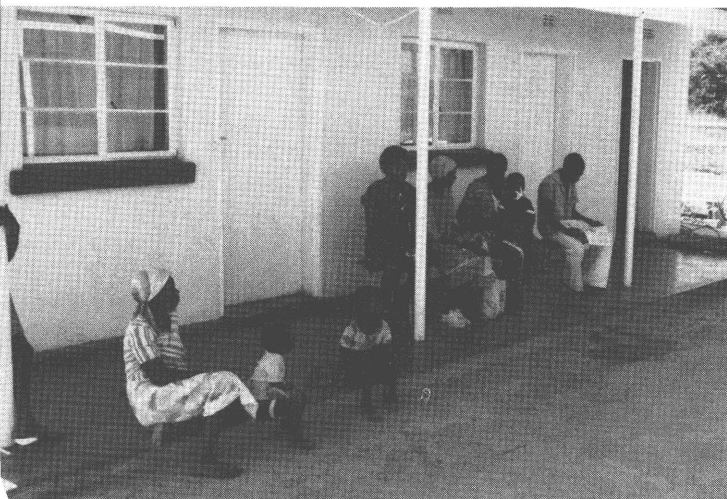
The whole scheme depends on good management. This is the work of the Agricultural Extension Officers of the Department of Agricultural, Technical and Extension Services (AGRITEX). With correct management, once the grass has improved during the rest period, the cattle-carrying capacity increases and the communal farmer gets a better return.

Furthermore, the advantage of the fencing seems to be of benefit to the farmers mainly for savings on labour for herding, especially during the cropping season, as children, as a rule, are at school.

Sets of Land Use and Grazing By-Laws are now being drawn up in a growing number of communities by the Grazing Development Committees

(*) Article provided by the EEC Delegation in Harare, Zimbabwe.

The rural clinic at Nimanowa forms part of the first referral level of the "Health Pyramid". Mother and child care is an important feature of these clinics



The Courier



at grass-roots level with the advice of AGRITEX.

With emphasis on research, government services encourage the widespread adoption of legumes for pasture improvement.

Thirteen pilot grazing schemes have been implemented over the last few years with EDF aid for a total amount of Z\$ 327 000 under the Microprojects Programmes, together with a Pasture Improvement and Legume Seed Production Programme. The schemes cover the different agro-ecological regions of the country. Tripartite financing is applied, with 50% contribution from the EEC Microprojects Fund and the remainder from the local community as a self-help component and the Agricultural Extension Services for supervision.

The EEC co-financed grazing schemes now cover 17 500 ha of paddocks for 11 000 head of cattle—approximately 6 600 livestock units—and are benefitting 4 600 rural families.

The experience of these schemes could, in the years to come, be widely diffused and, in particular, come into use, among other instruments to improve land use, in those areas freed from trypanosomiasis where a danger of uncontrolled increase of livestock husbandry exists.

Accelerated rural water supply

Faced with a second consecutive year of drought the Government of Zimbabwe made an urgent request for a water supply project in Masvingo Province to relieve the difficult conditions faced by the rural population. Within four months of the request, the project was approved and work started on the ground immediately, in September 1983.

The contract for the drilling operation was awarded to Water & Minerals



An EEC borehole with pump near Nizmazuwa. Such pumps are highly valued by the village community, in particular by women, as they considerably lighten their workload

(Botswana) following a restricted tender, and consultancy work was carried out by a Zimbabwe-UK consortium after selective consultation.

The Ministry of Energy, Water Resources and Development was responsible for overall implementation of the project and for providing materials used in the lining of the boreholes and also for the construction of headworks and pump installations.

A universal, simple design for the headworks was adopted and the Government installed the locally developed and manufactured "Bush Pump" which can lift water from a depth of 50 m. It is robust and easy to maintain due to the relatively simple mechanism and small number of moving parts likely to wear.

Within a full working period of nine months 282 successful boreholes (average cost of a borehole ECU 5 000) were drilled and 36 wells dug. A population of 200 000 has benefited from the project, enabling them to have a reliable source of clean water within walking distance.

Food aid counterpart fund operation

In 1985, 52 000 farmers, dispersed throughout Zimbabwe, who after three years of drought (1982-84) had been left without any means of production, nevertheless managed to harvest an estimated 65 000 m tonnes of grain.

Each of the farmers identified by AGRITEX (the Agricultural Extension Service) were given a crop-pack in December 1983, at the start of the rainy season, comprising of either maize, sorghum or millet seeds depending on the agro-climatic region and accompanied by appropriate fertilizer and other chemicals. The cost of the packages varied between Z\$ 33 for the millet package, Z\$ 48.50 for the sorghum package and Z\$ 55.00 for the maize package.

The distribution of 52 000 crop-packs of a total weight of 7 727 metric tonnes took place from Harare by a combination of road and rail services during December 1984 and was organized by AGRITEX and the biggest freight company in Zimbabwe, using their logistic infrastructure.

The total cost of this operation was Z\$ 2.95 million and the funds used were counterpart funds generated from sale of 17 500 m tonnes maize food aid bought by the EEC in Malawi and sold by the Grain Marketing Board of Zimbabwe.

The request for this food aid came in March 1984 after it had been realised that Zimbabwe was facing the third consecutive year of drought. The decision was taken in April 1984. Delivery by road from Malawi through the strife-torn province of Tete in Mozambique took place in August-October 1984. Counterpart funds were paid by the Grain Marketing Board in November 1984, were spent and the crop-packs distributed before the end of 1984.

In April/May 1985, 52 000 farmers were able to play their part in the remarkable restoration of the Zimbabwe agricultural sector which took place and this was thanks to a food aid operation started under grim circumstances only 12 months before. o

Financial situation: (Financing agreement signed on 27.9.1983)	Amounts committed ECU	Amounts disbursed ECU
Drilling operations	1 800 000	1 520 700
Consultancy/supervision	580 000	512 226

The brain drain — stemming the flow?

King Baudouin International Award for Development goes to the IFS

In the March-April edition of *The Courier*, (No 90), we announced that the King Baudouin International Award for Development for 1984 had gone to Dr Walter Plowright, the veterinary surgeon, for his work on a rinderpest vaccine.

The prize, which was instituted in 1980, is awarded every two years to people or organizations of any nationality that have made major contributions to Third World development or to solidarity and good relations between the industrialized and the developing countries and their peoples. Particular stress is laid on activities that will spread and make it possible for the people of the Third World to take over their own development.

The award this year goes to the International Foundation for Science (IFS)⁽¹⁾, an international NGO founded in 1972, with its secretariat in Stockholm. It is for "the originality and efficiency of its support scheme

for young Third World researchers actively involved in developing their countries, particularly on the nutrition side", and it will be presented on 19 November at a ceremony attended by King Baudouin himself.

The IFS aims to foster the development of scientific capital in the developing countries and stop the brain drain to the West.

Encouraging Third World specialists to develop their home nations

Although more and more developing country specialists are being trained at home and abroad, the brain drain attracts many of them away from the development of their own nations. There are sometimes political reasons for their departure — which is a sound reason for running development cooperation financing projects specifically aimed at helping exiled scientists to return to their homelands and settle there. But in all too many cases, specialists and future specialists

have material and intellectual reasons for seeking better working conditions elsewhere.

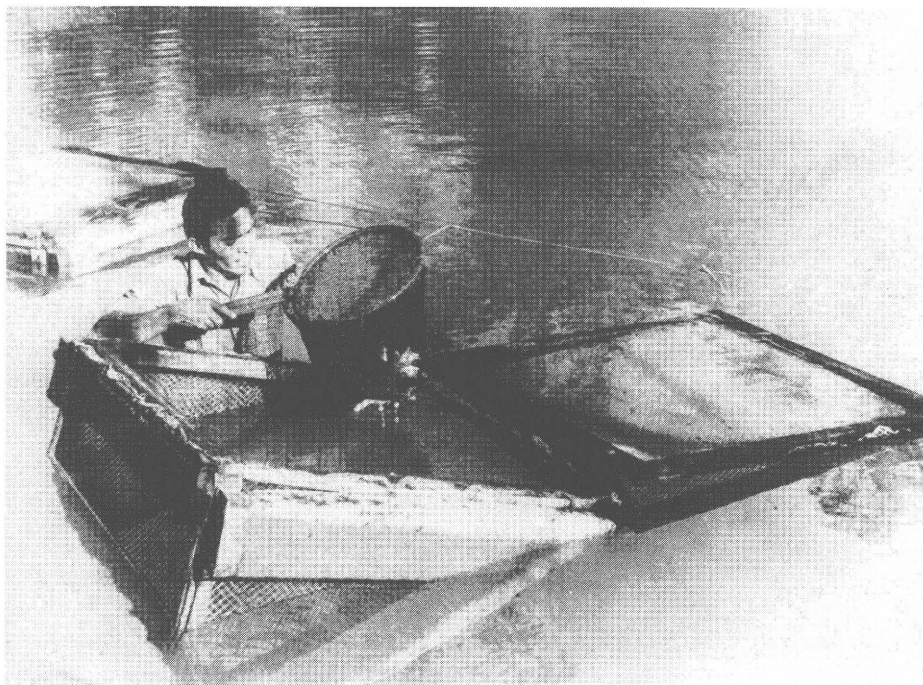
So the IFS deals with individual researchers. They are selected for their ability, for the standard of, and prospects offered by, the research project they propose and for the way this ties in with the country's needs. Candidates must be nationals of developing countries and involved in natural science research (fish farming, animal or vegetable production, tree-planting, applied microbiology, the development of useful natural substances and related technology) at a local institute. This institute then agrees with the IFS to provide the candidate with a salary and whatever premises he or she needs.

The IFS provides a grant of around Belgian francs 400 000 p.a., to cover equipment, supplies, documents etc., for a maximum of three years and scientific backing to break down isolation and consolidate the researcher's practical experience with bibliographical help, travel and contact with other research bodies and individuals working on the same subjects in other parts of the world.

The results are twofold. First, research carried out locally can be put to direct use in developing the country in question. In recent years, for example IFS-backed research has led to practical improvements in fish farming, cattle-, sheep- and goat-rearing, the medicinal plant pharmacopoea and so on. Second, young scientists who complete their projects stay on and work in their countries afterwards but still belong to an international scientific network which is both a support and an outlet for their intellectual contributions.

The IFS has helped train more than 900 scientists so far, many of them from the ACP countries and in fact 44 of the Group appear on the lists of former grant-holders. ○

Marie-Hélène BIRINDELLI



An IFS researcher has come up with a system of cages for Tilapia fish farming

(1) IFS, Grevturegatan 19, S-114 38 Stockholm, Sweden.

Optimum use of water

by R. GRÉGOIRE (*)

Experts from the EEC Member States and the Commission met to discuss the optimum use of water in Brussels on 11 and 12 June this year. The meeting was part of the drive to combat desertification and thus intentionally concentrated on one part of the tree-water-cattle trilogy that is the cornerstone of an anti-desertification strategy that will meet the aims of Lomé III (Chapter 2 of Title II of the second part, i.e. the campaign against drought and desertification). Another element of the trilogy, the tree, was discussed at a similar meeting on 16 and 17 April 1985. Detailed documents on these meetings can be obtained from the Commission of the European Communities⁽¹⁾ and we outline the water meeting below.

The issues

The meeting took water in the broadest meaning of the term—i.e. any surface and underground water that can be used to meet the needs of man and his domestic animals and controlled, to a greater or lesser extent, through small and large hydro-agricultural works; and rainwater used, with very variable degrees of efficiency, to grow crops.

More precisely, the meeting covered all the countries of Africa south of the Sahara with rainfall roughly between 250 and 1200 mm, i.e. regions where rain, which only falls for a few months of the year, is one of the decisive factors in agricultural production—if not the only one, as becomes the case the closer the land is to the Sahel proper.

Man has always adapted to this, as the long fallow periods of the grain-growing areas of the Sudan, the crops of the flood plains in the valleys of the Niger and the Nile and the nomadic way of life of the herdsmen of the Sahel and the Horn of Africa are there to show.

Prolonged drought over the past few decades, combined with a population explosion, exaggerated growth of domestic herds, encouragement to get nomads to settle and the all-too-sudden application of imported production techniques have completely upset the already-fragile balance between traditional production methods and the weather.

The serious consequences for both man and nature are there for all to see.

And although growing needs mean

that water is increasingly short, patiently resources are being badly used and even wasted.

Discussions are based on general experience, primarily using known techniques in which participants are well-versed, and they concentrate on how to get as many rural dwellers as possible to use these techniques over as wide an area as possible. Only one or two questions of particular concern in the present socio-economic and ecological climate were discussed.

Surface water

How can the need for general valley development and the village plot approach be combined?

How can the obstacles to the proper functioning and rehabilitation of existing hydro-agricultural plots be removed?

How do flood crops help protect the local ecology? Can this low-productivity but virtually cost-free technique be improved? How can it be included in a general modernization of production?

Rainwater

How can as many peasant farmers as possible be made to apply the techniques that will improve water retention by soil on which major crops are grown over as large an area as possible?

What techniques should be encouraged to concentrate water on arable land in zones where rainfall is inadequate?

How can the support of the peasant farmers be obtained?

On what scale should small schemes be run to secure a significant effect on desertification?

How can the production potential of the rural areas round the towns be used given land speculation?



The problem of water supply must be treated in a comprehensive manner, both in analysing the needs and in meeting them

(*) Principal Administrator, Directorate-General for Development.

(1) Directorate-General for Development (Division VIII/A/2), 200, rue de la Loi, 1049 Brussels, Belgium.

Underground water

What do we know about underground water resources? At what rate can they be tapped without depleting them? How can underground water be used for irrigation and/or supplementary irrigation? What human, technical and financial constraints are attached to the various uses of water thus made available (management, water catchment, land ownership etc.)? How can intensive agriculture be introduced and made to coexist permanently with traditional rain-fed agriculture in the village context?

Where do domestic animals and trees stand in this potential intensification of agriculture and how can they contribute to protecting the natural heritage?

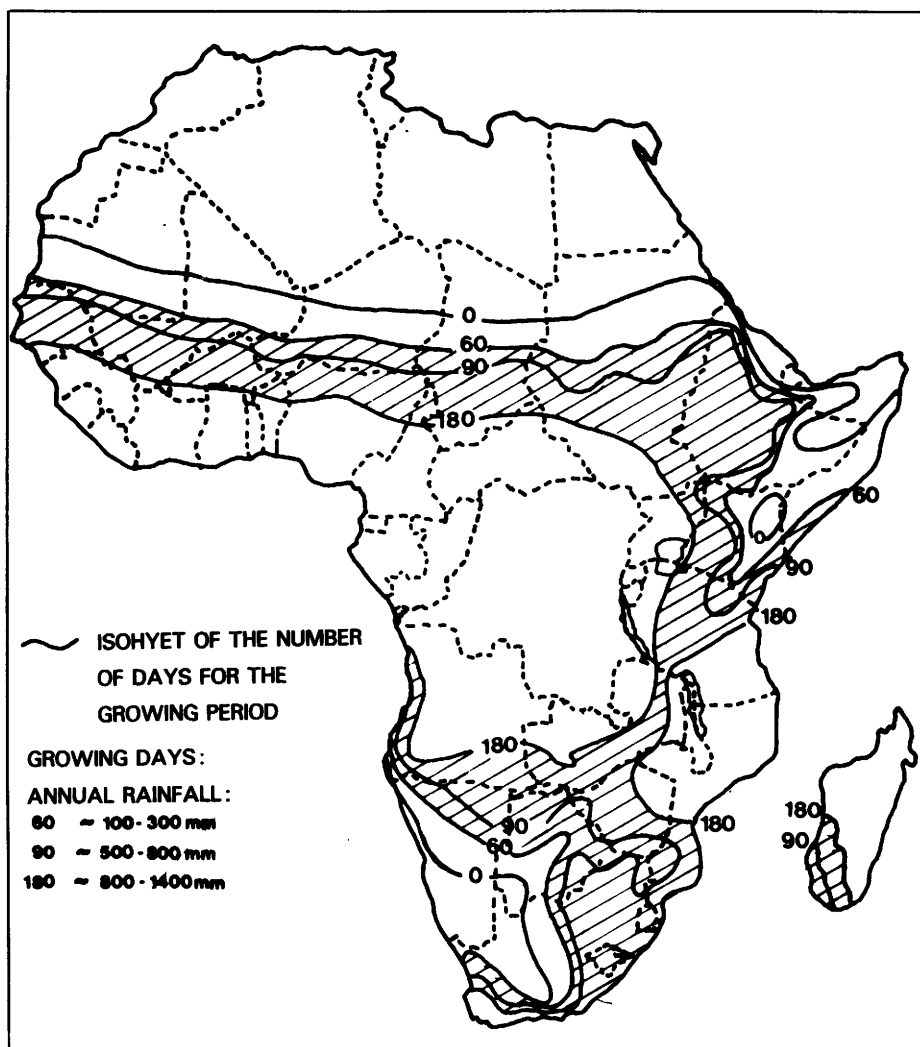
Projected answers

A summary of the discussions reveals that the different sources of water have a number of things in common. The water problem both requirements and how to meet them, must be treated as a whole. The notions of using water and needing water are one and the same to the user, whether he is fulfilling his own needs, watering his own or passing herds, using it in craft activities, growing off-season vegetables and so on and whether he is a farmer or a herdsman.

So technicians assessing water supplies in a given area must do so on a unitary basis, regardless of possible origin (underground, surface or rain-water) and whether it is temporary or permanent. The same goes for the programming of the different uses—the approach must be a global one and not, as often happens, a sectoral one divided according to whether the water is to be used for cattle, domestic purposes, migration and so on.

This, however, means organising the territory—the only way of making optimum use of a given stretch of land and protecting the essential balance of the forests, the pastures, the arable land and the waters, the domestic animals, the fauna and the microclimate.

This idea of territorial development can be used in a master plan for a whole river valley as easily as in a scheme to prevent speculation around



Priority geographical area for exploitation of available water resources (FAO, 1978)

towns or in village lands or pastures to make the best of available land and water.

Traditional achievements and external know-how

Basic information on rainfall, river-flow and so on, which is often unreliable, must at all costs be improved, even if this means using highly sophisticated techniques for the collection and transmission of data. Their effect on the standard of project specification and, ultimately, results can be enormous. However, more must be made of what are often very considerable traditional achievements—in spite of the fact that their geographical impact is limited. The essential thing is to convince the scientists of the point of these achievements and get the peasant farmer or the herdsman to pass on what he knows. At all events,

it is a question of confidence—which takes time. The NGOs which are in the field and tend to be integrated with the traditional environment seem to be effective here.

This rising information from grassroots level should very much improve the way research fits into the local context, particularly though a better grasp of the socio-economic structures that are so important in the delicate business of solving the problems of land ownership that every working party has shown to be vital to success or failure.

In spite of a considerable discrepancy between knowledge and the possible contribution of research and the present level of discrimination of this knowledge, there are still many research topics to be investigated and perhaps even to be launched with the dual aim of better adapting the details of the main means of production

Main African dams built or under construction	
Source CML (1985)	
Name	Country
Diama Dam	Senegal
Manantali Dam	Mali
Sélingué Dam	Mali
Markala Dam	Mali
Akosombo (Lake Volta)	Ghana
Kainji Dam	Nigeria
Sokoto Dam	Nigeria
Tiga Dam	Nigeria
Maga Lake	Cameroon
Lagdo Lake	Cameroon
M'Bakaou Reservoir	Cameroon
Lake Nasser/Nubia	Egypt Sudan
Jebel Auliya Reservoir	Sudan
Khashm el Girba	Sudan
Sennar Reservoir	Sudan
Roseires Reservoir	Sudan
Koka Reservoir	Ethiopia
Tana River Development Project	Kenya
Owen Falls	Uganda
Cabora Bassa Dam	Mozambique
Kariba Lake	Zambia
Kafue Groge Dam	Zambia
Itezhi-teshi Dam	Zambia

Main flood plains in Africa		
Source CML (1985)		
Name	Country	Maximum area flooded (in km ²)
Senegal Delta	Senegal	7 970
Senegalmiddle valley	Senegal	5 000
Niger central delta	Mali	30 000
Niger Plains	Nigeria	4 800
Niger Delta	Nigeria	35 260
Volta River	Ghana	8 532
Bénoué River	Cameroon	1 000
Bénoué River	Nigeria	3 100
Logone alluvial plain	Cameroon	1 000
Chari and Logone		
Water network	Chad	63 000
Zaire alluvial plain	Zaire	?
Barotse Plain	Zambia	10 752
Kafoué Flats	Zambia	4 340
Okavango Delta	Botswana	17 000
Shire River	Malawi	1 030
Kifakula Depression	Zaire	1 500
Kaúlondo Depression	Zaire	11 840
Sudd (Nile)	Sudan	92 000
Tana Delta	Kenya	800
Total area:		303 924

growth to local conditions, which differ very considerably from one place to the next; in seeking a lower performance but more indigenous form of agriculture that is more likely to adapt to environmental conditions, which are often unfavourable and vary from one agricultural year to the next.

Special features of water projects

- They have to last a long time—eight-ten years at least.
- Slow-pace investments at the beginning of a project must be preceded by a period of contact between the back-up staff and the local population to create the confidence that will ensure the latter really take the project to heart. Questions of land and allocation of investments should also be dealt with at this stage.
- Targets and means should be flexible enough for the results of continuous assessment to be readily assimilated.
- The extension workers should both provide a technical answer to the producers' problems, and help with

professional organisation and management assistance.

Training

A project of any size must have an information unit as an integral part of the support system. This unit will maintain constant contact with the extension services, any experimental units and the farmers themselves. Information, whether to or from grass-roots level, must transit through the unit.

Role of the NGOs

The importance of a thorough grasp of the technological, economic and human background in obtaining proper local involvement, which is considered to be a major contribution to success, means that the NGOs have an important part to play.

NGOs are often deeply rooted in the local environment and can be a very useful means of transferring information up and down the chain. This means they are also very helpful when it comes to training.

However, without losing any freedom of movement, they ought to be

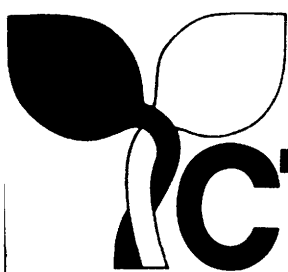
more informed about general government programmes being run in their areas and they should bring the idea of territorial development into their activities, regardless of the particular sector in which they may be working.

* * *

In conclusion, let us not forget the various studies (to be run or continued) that the working parties set up during the meeting suggested as a means of improving efficiency in the rural water sector. They are:

1. The privatisation of water management (users and service companies)
2. Tariffs for well and borehole water usage and definition of headings for the expenditure involved here.
3. A thorough understanding of farming systems.
4. The continued NGO role in ensuring coherence between traditional know-how and modern science.
5. Simple and pragmatic ways of developing the land of the basic community of production (or the smallest ecological unit). The possible roles of the NGOs. o

R.G.



The small farmer and the CTA

By R. DELLERÉ (*)

What does the CTA do for the small farmer? Is that the question? I don't know. But it is a question and it has been asked more than once, so I shall try and answer it.

First of all, we have to define our attitude to the rural world as this is what determines the success of our enterprise. We have to avoid arrogance, recognize the know-how of the peasant and realize just what all the experience he has acquired from years of working to tame hostile nature is worth. This is the basis for devising farming techniques and enriching them with the fruits of research and adapting schemes run successfully elsewhere. A rapid increase in food production means mobilizing the ability of the peasant farmers and this cannot be done by making a clean sweep. What is needed is a combination of experience and innovation, what Sheik Amadou Khane calls a "rural cross-breed".

What does the CTA do for the small farmer? The people who ask this question are well aware that the Centre's audience is so vast that contact with individuals is the exception. It does exist, of course, but on a small scale. The question-answer service⁽¹⁾ answers individual queries and SPORE, the CTA's two-monthly bulletin (15 000 copies every issue) forges a personal link between editor and reader, as do the other CTA-assisted periodicals such as Caribbean Farm News and RISED and as will, of course, the rural radio programmes it is planning to produce with a view to reaching a much wider public.

Overall, however, CTA intervention should stop at the rural motivation level. It is through the agricultural extension workers and the heads of producers associations that knowhow

should be transmitted and consequently the information and documentation should be geared to them.

It is no doubt the CTA's choice of topics—which must get priority in the selection and dissemination of information—which provides the best answer to our question.

Priority to food production

The Centre's prime aim is to help the ACPs to achieve the highest degree of self-sufficiency in food and preserve their natural resources. Hence the vital importance of food production, essentially by the small farmer, the small fisherman and the traditional herdsman.

Let us look at one or two examples. In most Central African countries, manioc makes the biggest contribution to glucide and calorie intake, but production is threatened not just by the chronically endemic mosaic disease but by recently imported predators and afflictions (vascular bacteriosis, green ticks and caterpillars). Attention should be drawn to waging an integrated campaign, as manioc is a poor crop scattered over a large number of tiny plots throughout the whole continent. Chemicals are out of the question, so research has to be geared to resistant and tolerant strains, biological work and the application of growing methods and plant health techniques.

Maize and rice are now level with common wheat as the world's main crops. They are the traditional staple cereals of the tropics. Maize has also become the main source of grain for monogastric animals, pigs and poultry, and is now being grown in the temperate zones too. This geographical expansion has gone hand-in-hand with a great improvement in agricultural knowhow and people in the tropics must be helped to get the best and most useful information from experi-

ence in the temperate parts of the world.

Rainfed rice is exactly right for Africa's itinerant farmers and pioneers, as it can be grown to improve ground that has lain fallow before being used for pasture and it can be grown on young fruit plantations. It is also useful in permanent systems that use fertilizer as an anti-erosive, in rotation with leguminous plants.

Plantains, which are one of the cheapest sources of starch there is, are vital to many tropical countries. People very often grow them in their gardens and they are nearly always to be found in the creole gardens of the Caribbean. Plantains make a decisive contribution to food supplies in the major urban centres of Africa and are an integral part of the diet of millions of people, like potatoes in Europe, but production is threatened by the development of a serious leaf disease, cercosporiosis.

Farmers in the hot countries have to store their harvests (mainly cereals and leguminosae) for several months. This poses problems because various things spoil the stores and there is loss as a result. But how can food products be stored properly, what systems should be used, what precautions need to be taken and what mistakes need to be avoided to prevent seed and buffer stocks from being spoiled or lost?

The CTA tries to provide the answers

Improved seed is one of the essentials in boosting agricultural output in the developing countries. Performances must be improved and the techniques mastered by and made familiar to the small farmers who make 80% of the people working in agriculture in the ACPs. It is wrong to impose costly new techniques, which are often unsuitable for local conditions. People must be encouraged to popularize the sort of technological equipment that will enable the small producers really to be involved in the seed programmes. Experience has shown that decentralizing production to the level of the peasant farmer,

(*) Senior Technical Adviser, CTA.

(1) See Courier No 98 (July-August 1986), pp. 98-100.

even with basic seed, is the simplest, cheapest, most efficient and suitable way for the developing countries.

Everything must be done to improve our knowledge of the relations between the weather and the sporadic return of harmful animals and epidemics. This will mean that spraying can be reduced and money and time will be saved as a result.

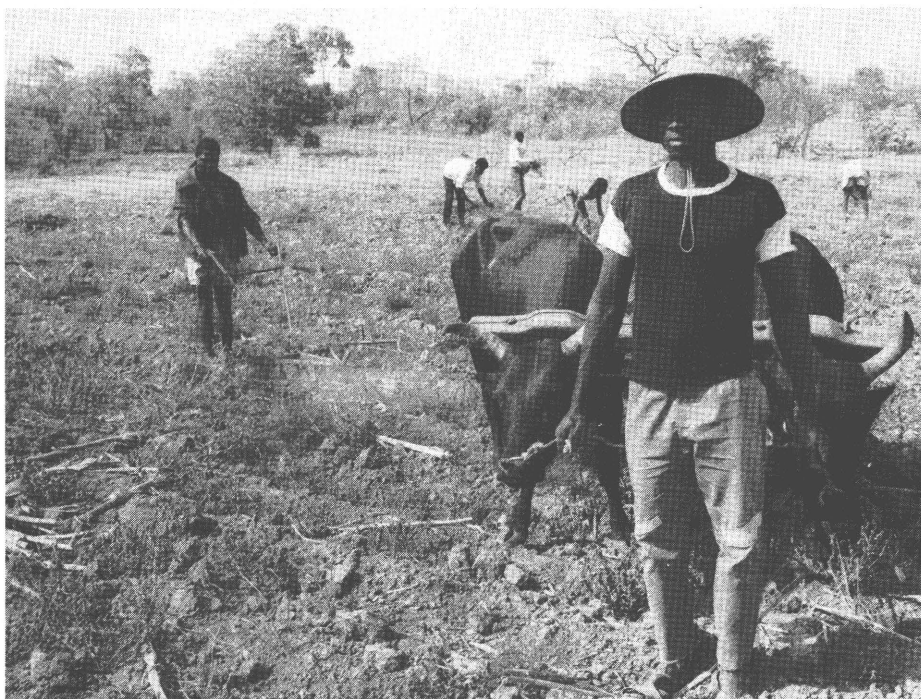
Research has concentrated on improving output per hectare — with disappointing results. Very little has been done to improve the African peasant's results and his production has been stagnating for years. In particular, more attention should be paid to hand tools and developing the use of draught animals.

One essential condition for progress is grouping farmers together to make it easier for them to obtain credit and use machinery, but these associations should be created by the members themselves and not forced on them from above.

New herding strategies need to be found that highlight requirements and identify potential and available local resources, and herding methods should then be brought into line with them. Technical innovations among small farmers in the livestock production sector cannot be made without a thorough grasp of religious and other taboos and the customs and social make-up of the village communities. The small herdsmen and small farmers who live by rationally exploiting natural resources must start by ensuring that their families are supplied with food.

Technical innovations should also take socio-economic considerations into account. They should be simple and in harmony with normal farming activity such as planting and harvesting. Risks must be kept to a minimum and benefits should not be left to chance. All efforts must be geared to the poorest inhabitants of the rural world — which will also help reduce the move to the towns.

The herding service structures must be adapted to the herdsmen's requirements and encouragement must be



One essential condition for progress is grouping farmers together to make it easier for them to obtain credit to use machinery

given for the creation of basic animal health services that use herding auxiliaries to maintain contact between the national structures and the individual herdsmen. Their job should be to sell basic drugs and give first aid and they should also be able to diagnose and treat parasitic infections, vaccinate against any local contagious diseases and take part in national vaccination campaigns.

Individual farmers can improve their incomes without any major investment by keeping bees.

The processing and conservation of fish landed by small fishermen is a major problem in many of the countries of Africa. In western Africa, for example, an estimated 80 000 tonnes of fish worth CFAF 16 billion (US \$ 50 million) is lost and ways of preventing this must therefore be found.

These are just some of the examples of messages that need broadcasting and of the topics which the CTA has isolated and is working on — and the small farmer, the small herdsman and the small fisherman are the main ones to benefit.

How are the topics covered? In technical information meetings and in publications, both activities on which prior studies are run. The CTA is concerned, in particular, with publishing simple works along the lines of *The Tropical Agricultural Technician* and those brought out by *Terres et Vie*.

Another question sometimes asked is what we do to motivate the peasant farmers. The English have an answer for this—you can take a horse to water but you cannot make it drink—and, wisdom being universal, a Beninois friend of mine tells me that they have the same saying in his country, although this time with a man instead of a horse and a girl instead of a river. It is up to the national authorities in the countries concerned to take steps to encourage the peasants to produce. It is not up to the CTA. What the CTA has to do is spread information where it is needed. And this it is doing. But it is willing to do more if demand expands, although demand depends on what incentives are offered to get the peasant farmer to produce more... ○

R.D.

VIth SADCC SUMMIT

“Apartheid... the sole obstacle to the realisation of the SADCC objectives”

declares SADCC Chairman Quett Masire

On 22 August 1986, Jose Eduardo dos Santos, President of the People's Republic of Angola, hosted the VIth Summit of the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) in Luanda. Chaired by Botswana President Quett Masire, the Heads of State or Government — or their representatives in the case of Malawi and Swaziland — of the SADCC Member States (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe) reviewed the 1985-86 Annual Progress Report, presented to them by SADCC Executive Secretary Simba Makoni. The recently-elected Chairman of the Organisation for African Unity, President Denis Sassou-Nguesso of the People's Republic of Congo also delivered an address to the Summit which was also attended by OAU Secretary General Ide Oumarou and by the Chairmen of the major Southern African liberation movements, Oliver Tambo of the ANC, Sam Nujoma of SWAPO and Johnson Mlambo of the PAC.

Apartheid: the crucial factor

During the public part of the Summit a number of Heads of State or Government delivered statements on the current situation in Southern Africa and on SADCC's progress. Already in his welcome speech, Angolan President Jose Eduardo dos Santos had stressed “the credibility earned by our organisation (SADCC), which offers the business world a reliable potential



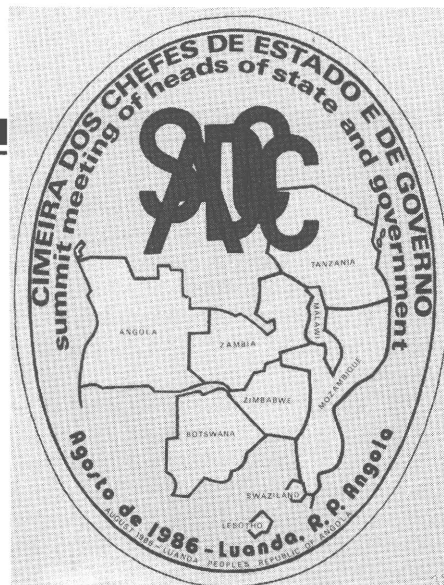
Angolan President Jose Eduardo dos Santos:

“SADCC projects itself in the future, the post-apartheid period, as an example of successful South-South cooperation”

economic alternative to the apartheid regime”. For him it was clear that SADCC is not just limited to “eliminating economic dependence on racist South Africa” but also “projects itself in the future, the post-apartheid period, as an example of successful South-South cooperation”. “The political evolution of events in this region lead us, unfortunately, to conclude that a definitive and universally acceptable solution of the Namibian question is increasingly dependent on the outcome of the social and political conflict inside South Africa itself” he stated further, accusing apartheid of “jeopardising our economic development and the progress and welfare of our people”.

SADCC Chairman Quett Masire couldn't have agreed more: “A crucial factor which sets Southern Africa apart from the rest of the continent, is apartheid... Apartheid represents the sole obstacle to the realisation of SADCC objectives and the full economic potential of Southern Africa”. However, for him it was quite clear that... “the intransigence and brutal repression of the South African authorities may delay but cannot stop the inevitable outcome of majority rule to South Africa and Namibia”.

For OAU Chairman Congolese President Denis Sassou-Nguesso the crea-



tion of SADCC as a regional grouping clearly fell within the scope of 1979 Monrovia strategy and the subsequent Lagos Plan of Action; in view of the severe economic crisis that is presently hitting the African continent, he also felt that SADCC definitely has a role to play in an active follow-up of the African Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) adopted at the UN Special Session on Africa held in May. Yet for the countries of the region to develop he felt “they are obliged to keep one hand on the hoe and the other on the rifle to restore peace and to resist South-African aggressions”.

President Ali Hassan Mwinyi, attending his first SADCC Summit since his election as Tanzania's Head of State, reiterated his country's “commitment to the strengthening of cooperation among SADCC Member States”. “The demand for comprehensive and mandatory sanctions against South Africa is gaining increasing momentum. We as SADCC mem-



SADCC Chairman Quett Masire, President of Botswana:

“Apartheid is the root cause of instability and violence in the region”

ber states can do no less than support the call for sanctions against South Africa", he stated, stressing at the same time the need "to devise a contingency plan aimed at alleviating the impact of sanctions on some of our member states". He also called upon the donors as "our ability to withstand effectively the full impact of mandatory sanctions against South Africa, or South Africa's sanctions against some of our member states will depend on the degree of support we will be able to receive from the international community".

Major General J. Lekhanya, Chairman of Lesotho's Military Council and Council of Ministers, briefed participants on the events that led to the

recent military take-over in his country "which was not due to any external factor" but was caused by the "complete failure of the previous government". He stressed that Lesotho will continue to assume fully its regional SADCC responsibilities (tourism, soil and water conservation, land utilisation and environment) and underlined Lesotho's vulnerability, given its geographical situation, dependent as it is on South Africa in terms of trade, employment and government revenue.

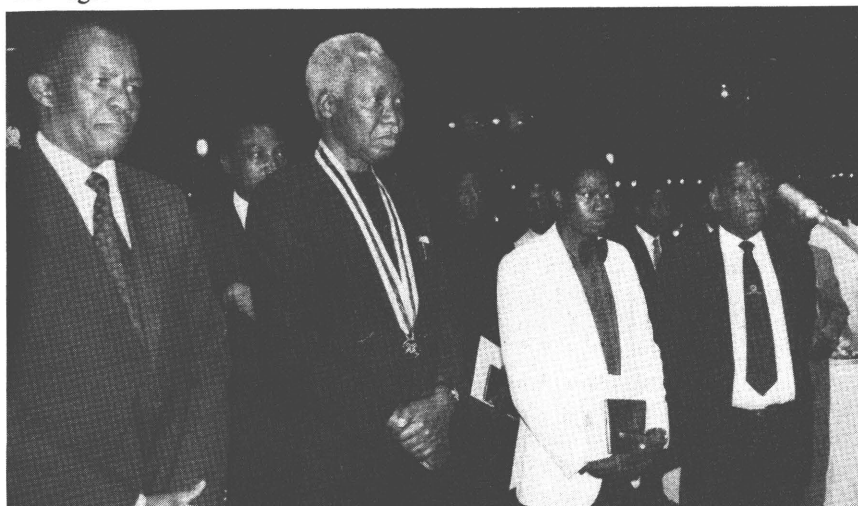
Closing the public session Zambia President Kenneth Kaunda stressed the importance of this Luanda meeting" at a time when the political and economic situation in Southern Africa

has reached a very critical stage". Referring to South Africa's retaliation, he stressed that "the public announcement of trade restrictions on Zambia and Zimbabwe is only aimed at dividing us..." and that his and Prime Minister Mugabe's country are being "isolated as ringleaders in the international call for sanctions". He also pointed out the two crucial factors in order to succeed in SADCC's efforts: an intensified mobilisation of own resources combined with a "continued flow of external goodwill and material and practical support". And he concluded: "Ours is a mission that must succeed. We have no choice in the matter. Our national integrity and survival depend on what we do in these meetings. If we fail, South Africa will make us bleed. If we succeed, as we must, our freedom and pride will be enhanced".

First Seretse Khama SADCC Medal awarded to Julius Nyerere

Prior to the VIth SADCC Summit, Mwalimu Julius Kambarege Nyerere was awarded the first Sir Seretse Khama SADCC Medal during a reception at the presidential compound in Futungo de Belas, near Luanda. The Medal was established to commemorate Sir Seretse Khama, the President of Botswana who died in 1980, and who inspired the creation of SADCC. It is awarded to those "who shall be considered to have made outstanding contributions towards the formation and development of SADCC as well as in the struggle for the economic liberation of the region".

What better choice could there have been than the Mwalimu? President of Tanzania from 1961 to 1985, and since his stepping down as Head of State, still Chairman of Tanzania's ruling party, the Chama Cha Mapinduzi, his services to SADCC's cause are considerable. Warmly congratulated by all SADCC Heads of State and Government, he maintained his usual humility — "I have ... done no more than my duty to Africa and thus to Tanzania as a part of Southern Africa" — and committed himself "to continuing support to our common struggle". ◊



The Courier

From l. to r. SADCC Chairman Quett Masire, former President Mwalimu Julius Nyerere wearing the first Sir Seretse Khama SADCC Medal, SADCC Executive Secretary Simba Makoni and Peter Mmusi, Vice-President of Botswana and Chairman of the SADCC Council of Ministers

Progress in the SADCC programme of action

President Kaunda had already referred to the fact that during the 1985/86 period under review (August to August) "certain noble objectives have not been realised due to South Africa's destabilising tactics". Apart from the retaliation measures it has already embarked upon — "the last kicks of a dying horse" as President Masire called them — South Africa has indeed stepped up its direct aggression and destabilisation activities. Total damage within SADCC, since its creation, is conservatively estimated at over US\$ 10 billion, without counting for the loss in human lives. The host country, Angola, calculated that since its dependence in 1975, South Africa and its "puppets" (UNITA) have caused damage worth over US\$ 20 billion to its economy.

Generally speaking, only Zimbabwe and Botswana achieved real economic growth, while most other SADCC suffered from a number of setbacks though it is certainly noteworthy that the overall food position of the region improved considerably. Overall regional external debt is estimated by the IMF and OAU to top US\$ 16.5 billion (including arrears), or more than 60% of the GDP of the region. Besides this mounting debt, many SADCC states faced the collapse of the prices of their raw materials, saw their terms of trade deteriorate and encountered severe balance of payments problems.

Despite these macro-economic difficulties, SADCC succeeded in maintaining its momentum and achieved steady progress in carrying out its Programme of Action. Most emphasis was put on the development and rehabilitation of the region's physical infrastructure, mainly transport and communications, a sector for which Mozambique is responsible.

How important transport and communications are in the total SADCC projects package is explained by a look at the figures. To carry out all projects in this sector, would require US\$ 2.962 billion (of which US\$ 2.534 billion on foreign financing and US\$ 428 million on local financing). Today for this key sector funding for a total of US\$ 1.033 billion is secured, while funding for US\$ 256 million is being negotiated, which leaves a financing gap of US\$ 1.624 billion.

All projects currently in the SADCC portfolio represent US\$ 5.364 billion (86% foreign — 14% local resources); funding is so far secured for over US\$ 1.837 billion (34% of total); negotiations on US\$ 349 million (6.5%) of funding are going on and the total financing gap stands at US\$ 3.176 billion (59%).

Whatever improvements have been made in transport and communications, they need to be underpinned by increased flows of goods and services and in fact SADCC seems now to be turning more towards the promotion of more directly productive sectors. The next Annual Consultative Conference planned to be held in Gaborone in February 1987 will concentrate on the theme "Investment in production". On the other hand, a new sectoral programme of cooperation in trade has been launched; Tanzania, already responsible for industry, will also assume the role of regional coordinator for this new SADCC venture. Covering the expansion of production of complementary products taking into account comparative advantages, and looking towards an equitable distribution of benefits, the intra-SADCC trade programme covers four sub-sectors:

- i) a system of direct trade measures and bilateral trade agreements such as multi-annual purchase agreements, counter purchase, preferential import licencing etc;
- ii) the exchange of trade preferences among member States, which will take

into account their existing obligations;

iii) supplementary financial mechanisms for intra-SADCC trade in order to ease the constraints arising from foreign exchange difficulties. In this regard consideration is being given to the establishment of a Regional Export Credit Facility and national Export Refinancing Revolving Funds in those member States where they are needed;

iv) a trade promotion programme.

Besides the formulation of five-year sectoral strategies and the undertaking of a first regional macro-economic



The Courier

Guest of honour, Congolese President Denis Sassou-Nguesso, Chairman of the OAU: for SADCC countries to develop "they are obliged to keep one hand on the hoe and the other on the rifle to restore peace and to resist South African aggressions"

survey — the publication of a regional economic bulletin has been decided upon in principle — the Summit also welcomed two "landmark agreements" which were reached last year with two major donor groupings. With the Nordic countries a Joint Declaration was signed on expanded economic and cultural cooperation and with the EEC, a Memorandum of Understanding was agreed for the programming of regional cooperation funds under the Lomé III Convention for the ACP States of Southern Africa. This agreement, covering some ECU 110 million earmarked for regional cooperation between SADCC member States, was the first of its kind within the framework of ACP-EEC relations (see also The Courier n° 96, pages 18 to 20).

While condemning South Africa's acts of aggression and destabilisation (the most recent of which are the January 1986 blockade in Lesotho; the attacks last May on Gaborone, Harare, Lusaka and Namibe; the disruption of Zimbabwe's and Zambia's trade) the SADCC Summit also reiterated its position on the issue of sanctions for-

mulated as follows:

— although individual SADCC member States may not themselves be in a position to impose sanctions, SADCC members States' vulnerability should not be used as an excuse by others for not imposing sanctions;

— SADCC member States will do nothing to undermine the effectiveness of sanctions imposed on South Africa by the international community;

— SADCC member States will cooperate closely with each other to lessen the adverse impact of sanctions on their own economies, and in this respect, will expect the international community to render them maximum assistance.

Given the ever-increasing tensions in the region caused by the gradual disintegration of the apartheid system — "the root cause of instability and violence in the region" (President Masire) — outside observers wondered about SADCC's preparedness in the event of a possible violent blow-up of the situation. At some stage there was talk of an ad-hoc working group composed of Ministers of three countries, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, to prepare contingency measures. Chairman Masire declared on this issue: "Some of our friends in the international community have been asking us whether we have a contingency plan to counteract the effects of sanctions and South Africa's retaliatory measures on our economies and how they can assist us. The SADCC Programme of Action constitutes a contingency plan. This programme comprises high priority projects whose implementation and effective operation and management will free our economies from the current state of dependence on, and vulnerability to, South Africa. Our appeal to our cooperating partners is that they expedite the release of resources needed for the implementation of projects in the programme".

Whilst closing the meeting, he once more renewed his appeal to donors to substantially increase their flow of aid to SADCC, though adding that "the financing and implementation of projects is not enough; the essence of SADCC is the integration of our perceived national interests so that the benefit is greater than the sum of our individual benefits".

The next SADCC Summit will be held in Lusaka, Zambia, in August 1987. ○

Roger DE BACKER

Frontline Summit in Luanda



The Courier

From l. to r.: Prime Minister Robert Mugabe (Zimbabwe), President Quett Masire (Botswana), President Denis Sassou-Nguesso (Congo) — Chairman of the OAU — President Kenneth Kaunda (Zambia) — Chairman of the Frontline States, President Jose Eduardo dos Santos (Angola), President Samora Machel (Mozambique) and President Ali Hassan Mwinyi (Tanzania)

Taking advantage of their presence in Luanda for the SADCC annual Summit, Chairman Kenneth Kaunda, President of Zambia, called for a meeting on 21st August of the Heads of State and Government of the Frontline States. Together with Presidents Jose Eduardo dos Santos (Angola), Quett Masire (Botswana), Samora Machel (Mozambique), Ali Hassan Mwinyi (Tanzania) and Prime Minister Mugabe (Zimbabwe), he reviewed the current situation in Southern Africa. Also present were OAU Chairman Denis Sassou-Nguesso (Congo), OAU Secretary-General Ide Oumarou, Julius Nyerere, Chairman of Tanzania's Chama Cha Mapinduzi Party, as well as Oliver Tambo of the ANC and SWAPO's Sam Nujoma.

The Summit took stock of the results of the August Commonwealth mini-Summit as well as of the outcome of the debate on Southern Africa in the July OAU Summit in Addis

Ababa. This OAU Summit decided among other, the creation of an ad-hoc permanent committee of Heads of State to monitor the crisis in Southern Africa. This Committee is composed of the leaders of the six Frontline States, plus those of Congo, Algeria, Ethiopia, Cape Verde and Senegal.

On the Commonwealth meeting they "expressed satisfaction with the outcome of the meeting while expressing disappointment and dismay at the uncooperative attitude of the British Government in maintaining its opposition to economic sanctions against the Pretoria regime". In fact, during his opening statement, Chairman Kaunda warned British Prime Minister Margeret Thatcher "for the third time" that "investments (in South Africa) will go up in flames" should the UK and the USA continue to oppose sanctions. Still on the Commonwealth mini-Summit, the Frontline States also noted that its outcome

"had given new impetus to the world campaign against apartheid as well as for sanctions against the regime that practices it".

As far as the OAU meeting is concerned, whilst stressing "the need for mandatory comprehensive economic sanctions against racist South Africa", they "commended" the resolution on sanctions adapted at that 22nd OAU Summit, for adoption by the Summit of the Non-Aligned Movement of late August — early September, held in Harare and chaired by Prime Minister Mugabe.

Chairman Kaunda further declared that sanctions "must be put into action, otherwise they are not worth the paper they are written on".

The Frontline States also condemned South Africa's retaliatory trade measures and appealed to the international community for support against them. Having noted "with grave concern that the situation inside South Africa had continued to deteriorate as a result of stepped-up state terrorism and daily wanton killings...", they also condemned the illegal occupation of Namibia (1986 marked the 20th anniversary of the end of South Africa's mandate over Namibia) and called for support for the liberation movements of Namibia and South Africa.

It is now expected that the 101 members of the Non-Aligned Movement gathered on the doorstep of the apartheid regime will also take a strong stand against it. ○ R.D.B.

"The issue in South Africa is no longer whether South Africa will be free, but when"

Jesse Jackson, with an American point of view on the "complex issue" of sanctions

Reverend Jesse Jackson, former US presidential candidate for the Democratic party, is a major opinion-maker and lobbyist for a better understanding of Southern African issues among the US public. From mid-August to early September he toured the Frontline States — with an aircraft put at his disposal by Nigerian President Babangida. Following in the footsteps of Atlanta mayor Andrew Young, his trip may be considered as a counterbalance to the welcome UNITA leader Jonas Savimbi received in the US earlier this year, and the subsequent military support he obtained. In Angola, Jackson attended a press conference with the South African prisoner Captain du Toit — who failed in a raid in May 1985 to destroy Angola's Cabinda oil installations, (mostly American investments) — and visited the war-stricken southern region of Lubango, which has suffered from bandit attacks and South African invasions. He was also received by President dos Santos who confirmed his willingness to establish full diplomatic relations with the US. During the flight down to Lubango, he gave this brief interview to The Courier.



The Courier

NEWS ROUND-UP

► *In the debate presently going on in the US Congress you are a major pro-sanctions opinion-maker. If such sanctions were applied, what sort of influence could you then have on US opinion to provide bigger US support to both black South Africans as well as to the population of the Frontline States to relieve their suffering?*

— Well, sanctions are one strategy, but there is in fact a multiple set of strategies to settle the problems of South Africa. Sanctions would be a disincentive for economic apartheid in South Africa and would be designed to get the blacks, whites, Asians and others around the table to negotiate a new power-sharing relationship. So the issue is much more complex than that. South Africa is in control of this region, South African troops are in Angola, in Mozambique, occupy Namibia and so several things must happen. One, the US establishes diplomatic ties with Angola, and it should, because the US is Angola's number one trading partner: 60% of Angola's oil goes to America and Angola seeks to expand trade ties with the US, and private investment ties. So if the US recognises Angola diplomatically, it would have the impact of further driving South African troops out of Angola as well as diminishing Savimbi. That would be a major step towards the independence of Namibia. Those strategies must be seen, as well as just sanctions against Pretoria. Also, America must be willing to defend the territorial integrity of Southern African Frontline States as it is willing to defend Western European Frontline States. This would stop South Africa from its raids into Frontline States.

► *Is it a mere coincidence that the first two major American opinion-makers that come to visit Angola are blacks?*

— African Americans put some real perspective and assume more responsibility to help and shape American foreign policy. US foreign policy throughout is preoccupied with East-West relations, basically between the USA and the Soviet Union, but is very weak on North-South relations; the South where 7/8 of the human race live. I've put a lot of focus on North and South, because in addition to the historical dimension, there is the heritage factor: I am of African ancestry, and so, not only do I have an interest in Africa, but I have a level of trust

among African leaders, and that's a key factor in good relations.

► *So it's a further revival of black American interest in African affairs?*

— Well in some senses pan-Africanism, in some sense Africans have been under the diaspora, in separation for 400 years, and many Africans who have been dispersed are now reviving their relationship — in a sense, world pan-Africanism is coming together, much as other ethnic groups torn asunder have re-connected, and this re-connection really is a key factor for world peace, and could become the real standard for world justice.

► *The EEC has committed itself over the next three to four years to spend \$ 100 million on development aid in Angola, and has already spent \$ 20 million in emergency aid and food aid; also, Angola now has free access for its trade to Europe. Could you foresee a change in American policy, that would be more forthcoming in furthering the actual development process in Angola?*

— As I see it, you need five dimensions to that policy. The first one is respect for African people, as there is respect for European people, and there should be for all people. Secondly, adequate aid, based upon the need, and based upon the numbers of people. Three, free trade. Four, a long-term commitment to development — just as the European Marshall Plan was a long-term commitment. And fifth, defence, a commitment to defend friends from foreign invasion — what does it matter if you give the aid to build railroads, and hospitals, if South Africa exercises its power to bomb railroads and hospitals? You see, you really must look at respect, and aid, and trade, long-term development and defence: suppose America had given a commitment for the European Marshall Plan, but didn't have the NATO Alliance to defend those countries from invasion from the East...

► *You were confronted with the South African Captain du Toit who is detained in Angola after he attempted, and failed in, a raid on the oil installations in Cabinda. In what perspective do you put this, given the fact that the US has so far applied its so-called policy of constructive engagement?*

— First of all, the US must define South Africa's expansionist thrust and bombings as state-sponsored terro-

rism. We must demand that South Africa does not engage in state-sponsored terrorism, and in the case of Libya, we use economic sanctions, and military invasion to stop that. Secondly, in his testimony du Toit revealed several things: last week Mr Reagan said that the difference between Nicaragua and South Africa, was that Nicaragua would be on his borders, while South Africa is contained within South Africa. But the South African soldiers were 3000 miles from home, that's as far as from New York to California, the Atlantic to the Pacific. Secondly, he said that there are South African troops in Southern Angola, he said that Namibia belongs to South Africa, he said that if South African troops blow up the Gulf and Chevron installations and kill American citizens, that they will attribute it to Savimbi, and that Savimbi will accept the blame as a part of his deal, that Savimbi works with South Africa, Savimbi works with America. These are very revealing facts that he gave, in that press conference.

► *How optimistic are you that your present trip will contribute to the shift that is going on right now in the US Congress?*

— Well since we have been here, the US Senate has passed a version of sanctions against South Africa which is another step in the opposite direction from what President Reagan's policies have been. President Reagan is going in one direction in his kinship with both Mrs Thatcher and the American public, the House and the Senate are going in another direction. — The chances are the American public is not going to change its mind about embracing apartheid, so Reagan is going to have to make the adjustment — the American public is not going to make the adjustment. The issue in South Africa is no longer whether South Africa will be free, but when. What we must do on this trip, the reason why we're touring the Frontline States is to deal with the Southern African equation, not just South Africa. We are honoured that General Babangida from Nigeria has afforded us a plane which makes this trip possible, and that there is a reasonable chance that President dos Santos is going to be making some announcements and gestures toward America that would be very positive — it could make a real difference. ○

Interview by R.D.B.

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

Lomé III programming in Mauritania

An EEC Delegation led by deputy Director for Development Maurice Foley and including Jean-Louis Biancarelli from the European Investment Bank went out to Mauritania on 17-22 July, when it met a delegation led by Mohamed Salem Ould Lekhal, the Minister for Economic Affairs and Finance.

The aim was to draw up the indicative programme of Community aid to Mauritania for the coming five years, in accordance with Lomé III.

The amount of aid allocated to Mauritania for the programme, ECU 61 million (equal to UM 4.4 billion), comprises ECU 54.5 million in grants and ECU 6.5 million in the form of risk capital managed by the EIB.

This does not include any resources

Mauritania might get from the non-programmable funds the Commission manages such as Stabex, Sysmin and emergency food aid.

The EIB may also contribute some of the resources it manages to financing productive investment projects that meet the criteria and statutory rules of the Bank and the provisions of Lomé III.

Both delegations agreed that Community support should be concentrated on achieving as much self sufficiency in food as possible.

They then exchanged views on the possibility of increasing regional cooperation in western Africa, something for which ECU 210 million (UM 15.8 billion) have been earmarked. ○

EMERGENCY AID

The Commission has just decided on the following emergency aid in pursuance of Article 137 of Lomé II.

Sierra Leone: ECU 100 000

The aid is in answer to the appeal of the Government which is confronted with a cholera epidemic in Freetown where 40 to 50 cases are reported daily. The grant will enable the pursuit of the fight against this epidemic in the capital by the Belgian branch of the "Médecins sans Frontières" which is already carrying out similar campaign in the western and northern regions of the country.

Ethiopia: ECU 500 000

The aid is aimed at financing an aerial bridge between Asmara and Tigre to bring relief to drought victims. This has become necessary because of the difficulty in organising road convoys. The operation will be managed by the Ethiopian Catholic Secretariat (ECS).

Uganda: ECU 500 000

The assistance will finance the programme of the U.N. High Commission for Refugees for Ugandans repatriated from southern Sudan. These are at the moment put at more than 56 000. The programme foresees the provision of shelters and basic necessities. ○

EDF

Following a favourable opinion of the EDF Committee, the Commission has decided to finance the following projects:

Mali

Help to create firms and get qualified young people working

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 400 000

Special loan: ECU 1 400 000

The aim here is to back up the human resources mobilisation programme the Government has brought in alongside its economic reorganisation policy. This should encourage promoters to open businesses by offering them help with planning, financing and implementing undertakings in the Ségou and Sikasso areas. The idea is

Also in the yellow pages

The Convention at work

VI. Lomé III programming in Mauritania
EDF financing

VIII. Stabex transfers

General Information

XI. A new International Cocoa Agreement

XII. The new round of GATT

Food Aid

XIII. A new 1986 Food aid Convention
The Commission proposes reforming food aid management

also to make it easier for the newly qualified to get jobs by helping them with placement and by monitoring their careers in Malian firms.

The project involves a system of intervention in the employment creation structures and a line of credit to finance projects to open businesses.

Chad

Reorganise the Technical Commercial High School in N'Djamena

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 350 000

The idea here is to rehabilitate and fit out the buildings at this high school (the LTC) in N'Djamena, with the ultimate aim of getting it off the ground again after the serious damage done to it during the civil war.

Sierra Leone

Public health improvements in rural areas

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 500 000

The aim of this project is to raise public health standards in a number of rural communities by giving them the basic facilities for preventive and primary care in the villages. It includes:

- improving, renovating and fitting out six of the existing health units (including staff housing);
- building and fitting out three further health centres (including staff housing) to replace existing centres;
- fitting out three health centres built under microproject programmes financed by the EDF;
- providing limited quantities of drugs for the above 6 health centres (for two years).

Project to develop fishing in the Kambia district
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 650 000

The EDF-financed pilot project (an ECU 900 000 grant was made) to develop fishing in the Kambia district of Sierra Leone began in September 1983. The main aim was to find ways of cutting the energy costs of the village fishermen. Various attempts are being made to come up with conclusive results on the introduction of diesel motors.

A recent evaluation suggested that the idea is a very good one, but that a year's extension (July 86-June 87) was needed to complete the tests.

The cost of the extension is an estimated ECU 650 000, most of which will be used for technical assistance (50 men/months) — this is a pilot project and the investment expenditure of the past three years has to be covered.

Djibouti

Phase II of the Djibouti water supply project
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 800 000

The aim here is to improve the production of drinking water in the town of Djibouti by doubling the size of the pipes bringing supplies from the Damerjog Atar region where they are tapped.

This complements phase I of the scheme, when part of the Ø 350 mm conduit, between the Ambouli pumping station and the E 14 borehole (a distance of 3 300 m), was replaced by Ø 500 mm.

Botswana

Geophysical prospection in the Nojane and Nosop basins
Fifth EDF
Special loan: ECU 1 600 000

This project involves gathering enough basic data on western Botswana to be able to detect hydrocarbon production potential and improve the country's energy prospects.

An integrated geophysical study of both basins (a gravimetric survey, electromagnetic prospection and reprocessing of existing aeromagnetic data) should yield information on their extent and structure and make it possible to decide which areas are right for the exploitation of hydrocarbons.

Initial measures to protect the eco-system in the Kalahari

Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 2 000 000

This project has been produced as a rapid answer to the most urgent needs with a view to helping the Government with its policy to protect natural resources, particularly in areas that have been turned into national parks and game reserves and have the most delicate and most important eco-systems. Particular emphasis has been placed on the central Kalahari game reserve. In view of the emergency situation proclaimed now the fifth consecutive year of drought is about to commence, immediate action is called for to preserve these eco-systems from worse damage — which is likely to prove irreversible.

Malawi

Blantyre-Lirangwe road
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 11 500 000
Special loan: ECU 10 000 000

The idea here is to build two sections of surfaced road from Blantyre to Lirangwe and from a point 20 km east of Lirangwe through Mwanza to the Mozambique frontier. This road is currently being pushed northwards to meet the present M1 7 km north-west of Balaka.

These two stretches are the vital links between north and south, joining the international highway to the present domestic network and establishing a new, direct road that can be used through the year between Blantyre and Lilongwe.

Small tobacco holdings (phase II)
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 4 680 000

The project that deals with small hot-air dried tobacco holdings in north western Mzimba is an agricultural one aimed at settling qualified tobacco planters in an underprivileged area in northern Malawi over a five-year period. The main aim is to boost the incomes of the farmers and the country's foreign exchange earnings.

It follows on from a pilot project which began, with EDF help, in 1978, with a view to setting up 200 tobacco smallholders and developing part of the essential infrastructure and management services (this was a great success).

The main job is to produce Virginia tobacco on the 400 ha earmarked for this purpose by the end of the project. Maize and other domestic crops will also be developed.

Rwanda

Technical assistance to the Tea Board
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 300 000

The Tea Board is a public organisation which controls and improves production, processing, packing and marketing and deals with the running and management of the tea factories.

In view of the problems which the Board is encountering, particularly with accounting and managing the budget, financing to cover two technical assistants for two years was granted in 1984.

This project involves extending the assistance for a further 12 months to consolidate achievements so far and especially to continue and intensify the training provided for the Rwandan cadres who will gradually be replacing the two experts.

Lesotho

Hydraulic developments in the highlands
Sixth EDF
Special loan: ECU 9 500 000

The aim here is to capitalise on the country's only plentiful natural resources — the water that is currently running away into South Africa without having been used. If the water is channelled to the north, it can be sold to the Republic of South Africa as laid down in the water agreement to be signed in 1986. Lesotho will also get a considerable advantage from HE production, as it will reduce its energy dependence on South Africa, which is almost total at the present time.

There will be various phases to the project. Phase I involves permanently channelling the water (17 m³ per second) at an estimated cost of ECU 650 million and building an HE station (70-110 Mw) at an estimated cost of ECU 140 million.

This financing is to cover equipment and technical assistance for the Lesotho Highland Development Authority and the joint standing technical committee, to form a detailed social and ecological programme and run a development study of the Lesotho Electricity Company (LEC).

Papua-New Guinea

Kimbé-Talasea road
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 3 230 000
Special loan: ECU 3 770 000

The aim here is to improve and surface part of the Kimbé-Talasea road in the province of West New Britain in

Papua-New Guinea. Kimbé, the provincial capital, has a deep water port and facilities for vessels. Talasea is north of Kimbé on the Williaumez Peninsula. The areas east and west of Kimbé and south of Talasea are important palm oil producing zones.

Fiji, Kiribati, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu

Pacific air link

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 4 600 000

This is further to studies on eight airports in Pacific ACPs and the Bauer Field airport on Vanuatu.

The project aims to modernise five of these airports to bring safety and efficiency up to acceptable standards. They are Nausori (Fiji), Bonriki (Kiribati), Fua'amato (Tonga), Funafuti (Tuvalu) and Bauer Field (Vanuatu), all of which belong to the regional network of the island states in question.

The landing strips at Bonriki and Funafuti have to be relaid, as they are in very bad repair and dangerous as a result. Improvements to the three other airports involve supplying communications, aerial navigation and fire-fighting equipment.

Trinidad & Tobago

Goat rearing

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 750 000

The main idea behind this project is to boost the total production of goat-meat and beef and veal by improving the genetic qualities of the herds and making it possible for the farmers themselves to reproduce animals. A second aim is to increase milk output. The nation's 1000 goats will be the direct beneficiaries of this operation.

New facilities for the State goat re-production centre will be provided at the Centerio rearing centre. Enclosures will be built so the animals can be permanently housed and fed there. Their diet will mainly consist of the *pennisetum purpureum* which has already been planted over an 8 ha area at the raising centre.

Grenada

Eastern National Road (ENR)

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 3 500 000

The inadequacy of the road infrastructure is a major obstacle to the country's economic development and, in accordance with what Grenada has requested, EDF aid is going, in priori-

ty, to the relaying of the Eastern National Road.

The ENR is one of the three main highways between the capital, St George's, on the west coast and the northern and eastern parts of the island.

The idea is to repair the northern stretch of the ENR (17.6 km) between Grenville and Sauteurs (phase III) by strengthening the basis of the road and adding a 7.5 cm layer (a coal mix) and improving the drainage.

All ACPs and OCTs

Microproject programme

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 15 000 000

This is a global commitment authorisation whereby the Principal Authorising Officer of the EDF can use the accelerated procedure for microproject programmes for the ACPs and OCTs.

Short-term training programme

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 300 000

This involves short training sessions for ACP students and cadres undergoing training in Europe and advanced training sessions in specific subjects for ACP civil servants and cadres. These latter sessions will take place either in Europe or one of the ACP countries.

Technical cooperation

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 30 000 000

This is a global commitment authorisation for the Principal Authorising Officer of the EDF to provide financing, by accelerated procedure, for:

- technical cooperation schemes linked to other projects;
- general technical cooperation schemes (other than training);

— commercial and service development schemes (including the tourist trade).

Technical cooperation with training

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 10 000 000

This is a global commitment for financing (accelerated procedure) for general technical cooperation schemes.

ACPs and OCTs receiving refugees

Relief schemes for refugees and repatriates

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 10 000 000

Article 204 of the Lomé Convention and Article 137 of the OCT Decision fill a gap in the range of instruments of cooperation which have so far made no special provisions for refugees. In view both of the considerable number of refugees, in many parts of Africa especially, and of the seriousness of their situation, these new Articles are extremely important and should be implemented without delay.

The Commission has laid down one or two guidelines to enable these Articles to be implemented in accordance with the wishes of the negotiators of Lomé III. It has done this within the framework of Lomé and in such a way as to take account of the conclusions of the second international conference for relief for refugees in Africa (1984) and the European Parliament's recommendations on Community assistance for refugees.

Two kinds of scheme are planned — short-term emergency aid and long-term technical assistance and training to boost the refugees' potential when it goes to producing, storing and distributing foodstuffs. This includes herding, fish farming, crops, bee-raising etc. o

STABEX TRANSFERS

Lomé III

Under the systems of Stabilisation of Export Receipts, the Commission has received for the 1985 application year, 38 requests for transfers. Twenty of these had been examined by 9 July 1986. Nine of them were found eligible and 11 were rejected.

The total amount to be transferred is ECU67 634 130 but Senegal and Gambia have already received advances of ECU 15 million and ECU 1 million respectively.

The countries and products concerned in this decision are:

NEWS ROUND-UP

Comoros	Cloves	ECU	2 058 262
Gambia	Groundnut products		3 721 625
Gambia	Oil cakes		20 525
Niger	Beans		5 875 613
Western Samoa	Raw wood		59 208
Senegal	Groundnut products		12 567 437
Sudan	Oil cakes		13 697 302
Tanzania	Cashew nuts and almonds		4 321 555
Togo	Cocoa		9 314 603
Total			51 634 130

Second tranche

On 1 August 1986 the Commission decided on a second tranche of Stabex transfers.

The decisions are on eight requests and concern the following countries and products.

Beneficiary ACP States	Products	in ECU
Ethiopia	Beans	6 968 238
Fiji	Cocoa oil	263 918
Guinea Bissau	Palm nuts and almonds	198 712
Mozambique	Tea	6 617 256
Mozambique	Cashew nuts and almonds	2 232 855
Mozambique	Cotton	97 166
Sudan	Groundnut products	28 873 394
Tonga	Copra products	501 720
Total		45 753 259

EIB loans

Côte d'Ivoire: ECU 19.7 million

Following entry into force of the third Lomé Convention on 1 May 1986, the European Investment Bank has granted two loans totalling ECU 19.7 m (approx. CFAF 6.6 billion)⁽¹⁾ for rehabilitating and reinforcing the national and international telecommunications system in Côte d'Ivoire and constructing a cotton ginnery in the country. Both operations carry an interest subsidy funded from European Development Fund resources as provided for under the Convention.

Telecommunications

An amount of ECU 10 million (more than CFAF 3.3 billion) has been made available to the State for 17 years at a subsidised rate of 5% for on-lending to the Office National des Télécommunications with a view to upgrading the telephone system which currently comprises 55 000 lines, including 42 000 in Abidjan.

The scheme backed by the EIB is designed to guarantee optimum use of

(1) The conversion rates used for statistical purposes by the EIB during the current quarter are those obtaining on 27 March 1986, when 1 ECU = £0.63, IR£0.72, US\$0.94, CFAF 335.24.

existing capacities, mainly by employing digital technology for both switching and transmission. The works cover acquisition of telephone exchanges, particularly at Abidjan, teleprinters, microwave radio links and multiplex facilities, telex equipment and computerised invoicing facilities as well as restoration of the cable networks in the capital and 14 provincial centres.

The programme, costed at a total of around ECU 60 million, will span the period up to 1989 and should boost telephone traffic by 30%; it is also being financed by the World Bank and the Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique, Paris.

Cotton ginning

A loan for ECU 9.7 million (almost CFAF 3.3 billion) has been channelled to the State for 15 years at a subsidised rate of 5% for crediting to Compagnie Ivoirienne pour le Développement des Textiles (CIDT), in which the State has a majority holding. The entire apparatus of agriculture in the country's savanna region is in the hands of CIDT which also handles both cotton processing and marketing of the product (collection, export and sales to local industries).

The company, which runs six ginning mills spread around the growing area in the north of Côte d'Ivoire, is currently completing construction work on a seventh plant and planning to build an eighth, at Seguela in the western central part of the country

(270 km from Bouaké), drawing on the proceeds of the EIB loan.

The mill will handle production from an area with an average radius of 88 km and when fully on stream will be able to process 33 000 tonnes of seed cotton per season. The plant will comprise four saw gins, two generating sets and metal-framed buildings. At the same time, CIDT is also intending to construct additional storage capacity and improve operating conditions with an eye to stepping up productivity at the six existing ginneries.

The Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique is participating with the EIB in financing this programme.

Between 1981 and 1986, under the Second Lomé Convention, the EIB advanced ECU 58.6 million for investment in Côte d'Ivoire, including 2.4 million from risk capital resources.

Jamaica: ECU 10 million

Under the Third Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has made a ECU 10 million global loan available in Jamaica for the financing of capital investment by small and medium-sized enterprises in the industrial, agro-industrial and tourism sectors.

The borrower is the National Development Bank of Jamaica Ltd (NDB) which will on-lend the funds to support the implementation of projects selected in agreement with the EIB. The loan has been advanced for 15 years at a rate of 5%, allowing for an interest subsidy financed from the European Development Fund.

NDB is the country's leading institution for financing investment in the industrial, agro-industrial and tourism sectors. The EIB helped to finance its establishment through a conditional loan for ECU 5 million granted to the State from risk capital resources in December 1982, under the Second Lomé Convention. This loan covered half of the State's subscription to NDB's initial share capital.

Zaire: ECU 50 million

The European Investment Bank has approved a loan for ECU 50 m, under the Third Lomé Convention, to Gécamines-Exploitation (Générale des Carrières et des Mines) for part-financing rehabilitation and consolidation of production capacities at Shaba in the Zaire-Zambia copper belt area, which contains about 12% of total world copper reserves and more than half the world's cobalt.

The overall project, due to be phased over five years, encompasses acquisition of more efficient equip-

ment and replacement of old machinery used for ore extraction and concentration and metal production, an electro-refining unit and a technical and management training programme, as well as exploratory mining work and technical surveys on long-term development.

The proceeds of the EIB loan, made available for 15 years at 5%, after deducting an interest subsidy financed from European Development Fund resources, will be earmarked for rehabilitation of the concentrators at Kolwezi and Kamoto-Dima, treatment of slag and fumes from the fire-refining plant at Lubumbashi plus various investment schemes for the metallurgical plants with a view to boosting metal recovery rates.

The entire programme is costed at ECU 790 million and will benefit the bulk of Gécamines-Exploitation production units, improving the company's profitability against the background of trends in copper and cobalt prices. The scheme is also being financed by the World Bank, Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique (CCCE, Paris) and the African Development Bank, while European Community support has also been sought in conjunction with Sysmin.

In 1971 and 1974, Gécamines attracted loans from the EIB worth ECU 32.4 million at the time for previous stages of work on developing copper and cobalt deposits. ○

MEETING

EEC delegates in the ACP states in Brussels

Some 50 Commission delegates in the ACP countries met in Brussels from 23 June to 4 July with the directors of DG VIII and the EIB participating. Vice-President Natali closely followed the discussions, taking part personally in some of them.

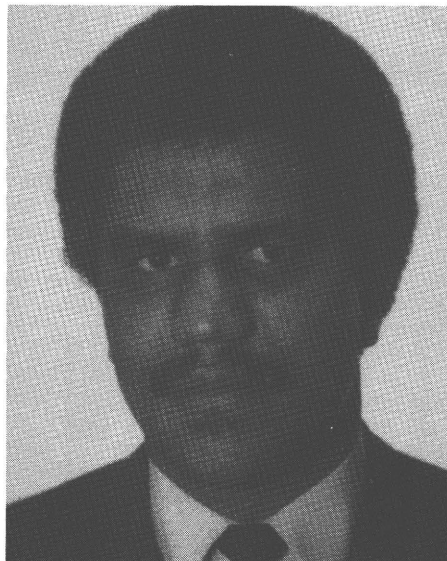
This meeting was devoted essentially to the management of Community aid and to the implementation of Lomé III-implementation henceforth possible as the indicative programmes have been signed with almost all ACP states. ○

ACP EMBASSIES

The new Ambassadors of Sao Tomé & Príncipe, Malawi and Tan-

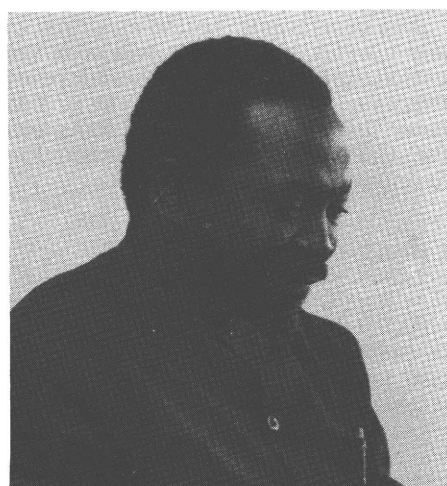
zania have presented their credentials to the Presidents of the Council and the Commission of the European Communities.

Sao Tomé & Príncipe



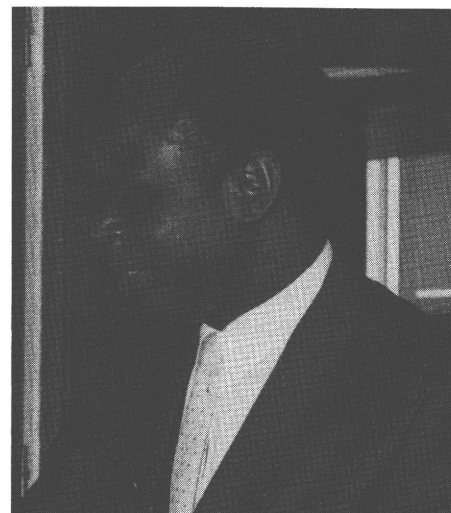
Mr. Guilherme Possier da Costa read law at the University of Coimbra, Portugal, and has worked in several capacities in the justice and civil service departments. His last post was Secretary of State in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs before being appointed ambassador to Brussels. He is 33 years old, married and has three children.

Tanzania



Professor Simon Mhelema Nbilinyi holds a doctorate in Production Economics from the University of East Africa/Michigan State University and has held several posts in the academic world and in the civil service. One time personal assistant (economic affairs) to former President Julius Nyerere, he was a senior Foreign Service Officer before being appointed ambassador to Brussels. He is 57 years old, married with three children.

Malawi



Mr. Stevens Erasmus Mapunda holds a masters degree in Economics from the University of Gutenberg (West Germany). He has held several government posts and was, until his posting to Brussels, Counsellor at the Malawi Embassy in Bonn. He is 49 years old, married and has four children. ○

EEC/THIRD COUNTRIES

Claude Cheysson in the Philippines

ASEAN's annual meeting with its six industrialised partners, held in Manila this year on 25-27 June, was an opportunity for a meeting between Claude Cheysson and Philippines President Corazon Aquino.

During their discussions Mr Cheysson said, among other things, that in addition to more than ECU 4.5 million-worth of food aid this year (including emergency aid for cane sugar workers on the island of Negros), the Community was planning on further assistance to the Philippines in the form of both dairy products and cereals.

Rural development projects that have been frozen for the past two or three years could be started up again very soon and a further rural micro-project operation (rapid payment) could get under way before the end of the year. All in all, the Community could be giving the Philippines ECU 40-50 million by the end of 1986, thus making up for the time lost in recent years. ○

GENERAL INFORMATION

A new International Cocoa Agreement

A new generation of international commodity agreements saw the light in Geneva on the night of 26 July when a new International Cocoa Agreement was concluded. This agreement will succeed the one concluded in 1980 and which expires on 30 September this year. This is an event for both producers and consumers as, in spite of a series of difficulties during the negotiations of the past two years, the negotiators have managed to come up with an Agreement with a set of economic clauses which should, because they are realistic, help stabilise the cocoa market in the coming years.

The agreement respects the usual practices of the cocoa market as far as possible and contains adjustment machinery to ensure the least possible interference with the proper running of the market. There will be buffer stocks and an additional withdrawal system instead of the quotas that have proved to be so delicate in the past.

The negotiations were by no means easy to conclude, but things were made easier by the fact that the partners had managed to start by agreeing on seeking a consensus on price levels and structures and on the price adjustment machinery. It is probably the first time in the history of commodity agreements that this problem was at the top of the agenda of the last round and not left to the last night. Once the political will to reach agreement on economic matters had materialised, it was vital to overcome any problems that arose—and which continued to arise even during the last phase of the negotiations. This new tactic, which the Community backed on the basis of detailed proposals from the Commission, meant that outstanding problems could be tackled in a better environment.

And it paid off, as did the spirit of understanding which was a constant feature of the producers, particularly the ACPs (Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Cameroon especially) and Brazil and the Community spokesman, the Commission. The many consultations between the two major parties throughout these negotiations gave additional meaning to the Lomé III rules on this subject.

Lastly, note that the reference currency of the new Agreement is not just a single currency (say the US dollar),

but Special Drawing Rights (SDRs), another step along the path to getting the ECU accepted as a reference currency.

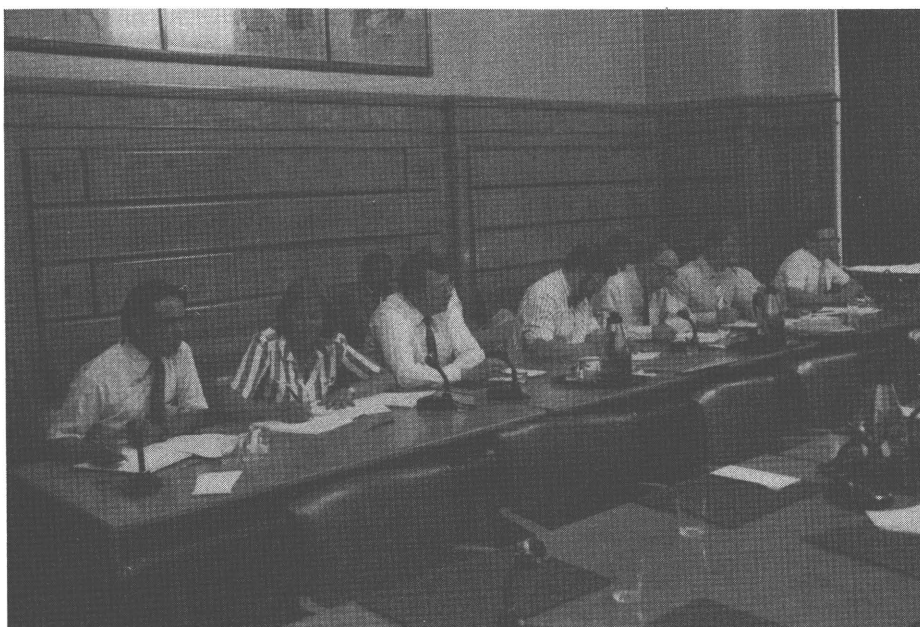
However, the new generation of agreements is more important than cocoa alone. The conclusion of this Agreement should help do away with the bitter after-taste left by the recent

difficulties of the Coffee Agreement and even more by the Tin Agreement. So the new Cocoa Agreement should create a climate that is more conducive to discussion of all the problems of commodities at UNCTAD 87. Now the Community and the ACP countries have played such an active part in the cocoa negotiations, they must both see that the new Agreement takes effect as soon as possible so as to avoid any legal void between old and new that might be prejudicial for all concerned. ○

F. J. VAN HOEK,
Director of Development Schemes
at the EEC Commission



During the negotiation. Above, the producers' side. Below, the consumers' side. M. Van Hoek of the Commission of the European Communities is third from right



The new round of GATT

The Punta del Este Ministerial Meeting

On 15 September 1986 Ministers from the 92 countries which are contracting parties of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) will meet in Punta del Este (Uruguay) to decide on the subject matter and modalities of a new round of multilateral trade negotiations. Half the ACP States (33) are GATT contracting parties and a further 24 apply the GATT de facto. The GATT is therefore of importance to ACPs States' trade policies and the ACP are of numerical importance in the GATT, since they represent over one-third of contracting parties.

A Preparatory Committee meeting in Geneva spent seven months reviewing the subject matter and modalities of the proposed new round, and, while complete agreement was not reached in this Committee, substantial progress towards consensus had been achieved by the end of July when it completed its work.

Position of the European Community

The Community has been pressing for a new round for a number of reasons. During the seven years which have elapsed since the end of the Tokyo Round, the growth of the world economy has slowed down considerably; rising unemployment, exchange rate instability and the high level of debt have produced considerable strains on the world trading system; and, at the same time, the structure of world trade has undergone a profound change, so that some aspects of the GATT, which was drawn up 40 years ago, are no longer wholly suited to the increasing complexities of the international environment. The GATT therefore needs to be strengthened and modernised in order to cope with both the strains on the multilateral system and the structural changes affecting world trade. The Community therefore sees the launching of a new round as a matter less of choice than of necessity.

The objectives set for the new round must be realistic; trade negotiations cannot be expected to solve problems whose origins lie outside the trade field, such as debt or exchange rate

instability, and work must therefore go on simultaneously in other fields, particularly on the monetary and financial side. The success of the new round will also depend on various key factors such as the conduct of the negotiations as a single operation, a firm commitment by the participants to resist fresh protectionist pressures during the negotiations, and a better balance of rights, obligations and benefits among contracting parties. It is already possible to state the broad outlines of the Community's overall objectives for the negotiations: strengthening of the multilateral GATT disciplines and structures, their extension to new areas of international trade, and the creation of the conditions for further liberalisation of trade to the benefit of all, and of the developing countries in particular.

Diversities among developing countries

The Community is well aware of how much is at stake in the new round for the developing countries, and of the need to improve access for their exports to the markets of the industrialised countries. It remains committed to the principle of differential and more favourable treatment for developing countries on which Part IV of the General Agreement is based. But given the increasing diversity among developing countries, the latter must be expected to participate in the new round in different ways; in particular, developing countries which have made sufficient progress on the economic, financial and trade fronts should make an appropriate contribution to the multilateral trade system.

Services

Among the topics for negotiation the question of services, a new subject for GATT, is at the heart of the discussions about the subject matter of the new round. There is still a considerable gulf between those who want to see GATT extended to cover a field in which there is little in the way of multilateral regulation and those who feel all efforts should be concentrated on trying to improve the existing disciplines governing trade in goods. This dichotomy may be largely artificial and misleading. GATT has to respond to the changing context of world trade

in order to remain relevant to future needs. A multilateral agreement providing for the gradual liberalisation of trade in services would provide a new stimulus to the growth of the world economy which would be of benefit to all countries, including those not deriving an immediate profit from an increase in their service exports. This is not to say that the new topics should take precedence over the conventional GATT subject matter. On the contrary, the consensus necessary for the launching of the new round and the success of the negotiations themselves depend on a balance being struck between the various topics for negotiation so that all parties can benefit. ◊

Meeting in Rome on migratory locusts

Representatives of countries and regional organisations concerned about the invasion of migratory locusts in Africa (Sudan, Ethiopia, Botswana, DLCO, IRLCO, ...) as well as those of donor countries that have already intervened or are prepared to intervene (EEC, Germany, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Netherland, United Kingdom, US, Sweden, Finland...) met in Rome on 7 July 1986 to discuss the situation. Chaired by Mr Saouma, the Director General of FAO, the meeting was also attended by OAU Secretary-General and the Executive Secretary of SADCC.

Under control in the Sahel

The situation in the Sahelian countries is reported to be practically under control, thanks to the swift and effective response of several donors, notably the EEC; it remains serious in eastern, central and southern Africa, much more so as, for the first time in twenty years, the regions are threatened by four different types of acridian. The FAO estimates at more than \$ 23 million the amount that is needed to combat against the locusts during the period 1986-88.

It should be noted in passing that the European Commission launched an emergency study in mid-May, got the results at the end of June and, as a result, made available over ECU 2 million for Sahelian countries in West Africa; an additional sum of ECU 1 million was being mobilised in August for Sudan.

FOOD AID

A new 1986 food aid Convention

At its 51st (Special) Session in March 1986, the Food Aid Committee successfully concluded negotiations for a new 1986 Food Aid Convention along the lines of the 1980 Convention, which has proved in practice to be a most effective instrument of international food assistance.

The objective of the Convention remains to secure, through a joint effort by the international community, the achievement of the World Food Conference target of at least 10 m tons annually of grain suitable for human consumption as food aid to developing countries. It should be noted that members of the Convention exceeded this target in 1983/84 and, by an even greater margin, in 1984/85 when their shipments reached almost 12 m tons, partly in response to the food emergency in Africa.

Although the final commitments of a few members are still to be confirmed by their Governments, it is anticipated that total minimum annual contributions will closely follow the level of the 1980 Convention. It should be emphasized, however, that, as in recent years, shipments can again be expected to be considerably in excess of obligations.

Members may give their contributions either in grain or in cash to be used to purchase grain. The Committee reaffirmed that it was the members' aim that the major part of such purchases should be made from developing countries, with priority to those developing countries which are members of the Food Aid Convention.

The Convention encourages members to bear, over and above their grain donations, the costs of transporting the aid beyond the f.o.b. stage, especially in emergency situations, or in the case of shipments to low-income food-deficit countries.

The special emergency needs provision, whereby the Committee may recommend to members to increase the amount of food aid available has now been broadened to take account of the need to respond to food production shortfalls in particular regions, e.g. Sub-Saharan Africa or South Asia.

The Food Aid Committee will keep under review operations under the Convention and the food situation in developing countries. In this latter re-

spect, it has increased powers to seek information on questions such as production in, and requirements of, low-income food-deficit developing coun-

tries, surpluses of grain that developing countries might be able to make available for purchase with cash contributions, and the possible effects of food aid on grain production and consumption in recipient countries.

The 1986 Food Aid Convention will remain in effect for three years, but may be extended by the Food Aid Committee for successive two-year periods. ○

Commission proposes reforming food aid management

Devising a policy of food aid supply to the developing countries is one of the Commission's priority targets. It would be based on two things—providing food aid and exporting food products.

The Commission has just taken another overall look at the way Community food aid is managed with a view to making things more rational and efficient. The other aim, exporting agricultural products, will be reached, as the Green Paper suggests, via the commercial arrangements in the developing country supply policy. The relevant proposals for this will be put forward in the autumn.

Food aid management has been the target of recent criticism that cannot be ignored. Food aid has indeed become an increasingly important instrument of the Community's development assistance policy.

The success of such policies depends on the aid being properly managed.

Aims and content

Food aid is an integral part of the development policy. Although in the early days the idea was to give the developing countries the benefit of the EEC's surplus agricultural production, increasing use is now being made of products grown locally or available in the region. These are better suited to the recipient's eating habits and this is an improvement on just supplying Community products, some of which are likely to create a dependence on imported goods in the longer term.

Lastly, the possibility of replacing food aid by credit where there is a risk of upsetting the recipients' markets (this was decided in 1984) means that food aid is now a genuine instrument of development.

In 1986, the Community gave 927 000 t to the Food Aid Convention and the Member States 742 000 t. However, in addition to these commitments, the Community is also providing an extra 232 000 t cereals, 94 100 t milk powder, 27 300 t butter, 3 900 t sugar, 8 600 t vegetable oil plus other products such as beans and fish (ECU 10 million).

A special cereal reserve of 366 700 t of cereal equivalent has also been set up in 1986 to cope with any exceptional food shortages. The global volume of food aid this year is worth ECU 550 million—one third of the global effort the Community makes every year for the developing countries.

About 60 countries and organisations benefit from EEC food aid every year.

This aid is divided into more than 400 lots each year and a further 500 lots are delivered through non-governmental organisations.

The large increase in volume and the diversification of both products and aims, however, has not been always directly followed by adaptation or revision of the relevant legal provisions and procedures.

Shortcomings of the present regulations

Implementation. — The large number of people involved and the fact that responsibility is spread between them makes food aid pointlessly complicated to administer and it increases the time it takes for aid to arrive once it has been requested.

Food aid policy. — In spite of all that has been done over the past few years, it has to be admitted that the instru-

ment is not yet sufficiently flexible to respond to the needs of the recipient countries, particularly when it comes to supplying needy developing countries with certain vital products from what is available in other countries (in the same region) that have quantities they can export.

Relations between the Community institutions

The spread of responsibility attendant on the present rules and procedure is neither precise nor compatible with proper respect for the budgetary powers of the European Parliament or the administrative powers of the Commission.

Note too that, in the present system, the Commission has all the political responsibility (vis-à-vis the beneficiaries and public opinion) and financial responsibility for food aid operations, although it has no legal responsibility because there is no direct contractual link with the operators appointed by the CAP intervention bodies.

The proposed reform

The Commission has made a thorough examination of the present situation and now considers that it is vital to revise the provisions in the outline regulation on food aid, in the light of experience, with the threefold aim of:

- better integrating food aid into the development aid policy;
- removing certain ambiguities from the present text, which regularly give rise to problems and conflict between the Community institutions;
- avoiding dispersal and therefore dilution of responsibility for managing aid by boosting the Commission's powers of implementation, in accordance with the spirit of the Single Act which the European Council adopted in December last year.

1. With a view to food aid being a more integrated part of the development aid policy, the Council stressed in its resolution of November 1983 the importance of triangular operations involving purchasing food products in the developing countries and feels these should be encouraged.

But the present outline regulation makes no provision for triangular operations other than where products needed urgently are not available on the Community market.

So the Commission is proposing new arrangements involving greater recourse to purchases of food products in the developing countries — without affecting the basic principle of Community preference.

2. The way the powers of decision are spread amongst the various institutions regularly gives rise to conflict in that Parliament decides on the credits for all food aid products (milk powder, butteroil, vegetable oil, sugar etc), with the exception of the cereal supplied under the Food Aid Convention. Alongside this, the Council decides on the global quantities for each product — but does not have to respect budgetary availability. The changes proposed in the new draft make a clearer distinction between:

- on the one hand conventional aid, of which the Council decides quantities in accordance with the international commitments which the Community and the Member States have made;
- and on the other non-conventional aid, of which the budget authority decides the amount (value) available for each product. The Commission will translate the amounts in the budget into an indication of the quantities of the various products that can be mobilised.

3. Lastly, the Commission feels that the provisions on the mobilisation of products should be altered. The current procedures prevent the Commission from monitoring the delivery of food aid properly and this often leads to considerable delay. The new measures the Commission is envisaging should both cut down on waiting time

and reduce the cost of transporting aid, as well as make for more flexible delivery arrangements. o

AID

The Commission, within the framework of the 1986 food aid programme, has just decided to make the following allocations:

(Tonnes)

	Cereals	Milk powder	Butter-oil	Vegetables
Djibouti	4 000			200
Guyana		300	100	
Jamaica		500	100	
Madagascar	20 000			
Sri Lanka	40 000			

The budgetary value of this aid is estimated at ECU 13.78 million, Of the ECU 521.14 million earmarked in the budget for food aid in 1986 decisions taken so far have committed about ECU 291 million. o

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Parliament demands immediate sanctions against South Africa

By a large majority, the European Parliament has adopted a resolution calling for immediate sanctions against South Africa, including a ban on investments in the country, on imports of its agricultural products, coal, iron, steel, uranium, gold and diamonds. The Parliament thus has dissociated itself from the recent European Council in the Hague, which postponed taking a decision on sanctions for three months. It expressed "grave concern at the lack of political will expressed at the summit meeting of The Hague, which not only failed to respond to the crisis in South Africa but also deferred once more the selection of economic sanctions and represents a climb-down even compared with the inadequate declaration of 10 September 1985".

In this resolution the European Parliament once again categorically condemns the system of apartheid as a "crime against humanity" and very strongly criticises the South African Government and the various measures it has announced, since they "do not affect the main features of the apartheid system; on the contrary they camouflage them and are designed to preserve the status quo". Finally, alarmed at "the rapid deterioration of the situation recently" with the reimposition of the state of emergency, which it condemns, the European Parliament emphasizes that "only a non-racial approach to South Africa's problems can lead to permanent and peaceful solutions enabling the various communities and ethnic groups to live together". o



INDUSTRIAL OPPORTUNITIES

PUBLISHED EVERY TWO MONTHS

No. 51 : SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 1986

CDI AND WALLOON REGION

AGREEMENT TO INTENSIFY ROLE OF BELGIAN INDUSTRIALISTS IN ACP COUNTRIES

Industrial cooperation between ACP entrepreneurs and Belgian firms should be intensified by an agreement signed on 17 June between CDI and the Walloon (french-speaking) Region of Belgium.

At the signing ceremony the Minister-President of the Walloon Region, Mr. Melchior Wathelet, said that the agreement is intended to "support practical activities aimed at the implementation of projects which—seen in isolation—are small or medium sized but which potentially may be repeated, thereby contributing significantly to the creation of an industrial and agro-industrial infrastructure in under-equipped countries".

Dr. Isaac Akinrele, Director of CDI, remarked that the content of the agreement is "pertinently aligned to the new global spirit of identification with the economic rehabilitation of the less developed countries".

TERMS OF AGREEMENT

The agreement includes the following provisions:

- **Industrial Projects.** The Government of the Walloon Region will undertake its own research to identify Walloon industrialists who are willing to engage in joint investment with ACP entrepreneurs, for industrial projects that would contribute to the development of ACP countries; it will also assess the ability of such Walloon industrialists to provide training and technical assistance.
- **Information.** There will be an exchange of information for diffusion, as required, to ACP entrepreneurs or Walloon industrialists concerning technologies, projects and opportunities.
- **Finance.** CDI and the Government of the Walloon Region will co-finance feasibility studies, the establishment of pi-



A happy moment for Minister-President Mr. Melchior Wathelet (right) and CDI Director Dr. Isaac A. Akinrele, following the signing of the agreement between CDI and Belgium's Walloon Region.

lot plants (for new/appropriate technologies), business trips for negotiations, assistance to new productions (start-up assistance, training, management, maintenance) and assistance for the rehabilitation, diversification or expansion of existing ACP industries (diagnostic studies, technical know-how, promotion).

For such activities the Walloon Region will set aside about Ecu 0.114 million a year; and the foreign exchange costs of a particular activity will be shared equally between CDI, the Government of the Walloon Region and the Walloon firm concerned. The local costs will be met by the ACP entrepreneur.

- **Coordination.** A trimestrial meeting will be held to coordinate the implementation and follow-up of jointly sponsored projects. The Walloon Region's Ministry

for External Relations and New Technologies, has designated two people to be responsible for examining the practical applications of the agreement with CDI.

The agreement will allow CDI to extend the financial assistance given to certain projects, beyond what its own limited budget would allow. It will also widen CDI's access to Belgian technology and investment, especially in the SME sector, for the benefit of ACP countries.

TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER

Minister-President Melchior Wathelet said that the agreement reflects the desire of his Region to "participate in the European effort to aid the development of African, Caribbean and Pacific countries". It will also enable new or appropriate technologies, de-

Continued on next page

Continued from page 1

veloped by Walloon firms, to be installed in these countries. He gave the following examples of the technologies he has in mind:

- construction processes using stabilised local raw materials
- energy produced from vegetable waste and wood carbonisation processes
- water supply and pumping systems using fluid mechanics
- water distillation using solar energy
- biotechnology (in which Walloon research has flourished)
- genetic engineering

- seed improvement
- vaccines for conservation and herd improvement
- solar energy.

Dr. Akinrele stated that CDI had already assisted with the installation in 20 ACP countries of a successful appropriate technology from the Walloon Region, for the manufacture of cement-based tiles. He also spoke of the "active if not dominant" involvement of Belgian industrialists in CDI-sponsored projects over the last 9 years.

In 1985 for instance, Belgian companies and consultants collaborated with CDI in providing 22 feasibility studies, start-up assistance for 11 new projects, 5 diagnos-

tic studies (for plant rehabilitation) and training for 4 projects. These activities by Belgian companies covered 25 ACP states in 1985.

Dr. Akinrele said that ACP states offer a vast and very much under-exploited industrial potential. Their natural resources, he added, complement the transformational capabilities of the EEC and that is why industrial cooperation between the two sides should be promoted. The agreement with the Walloon Region, he continued, should stimulate and intensify joint activities to this end. "It is my hope, he concluded, that by this symbolic gesture, we will be able to persuade others to emulate our example".

PROVISIONAL COUNTRY PROGRAMMES FOR LOMÉ III

Here we list most of the projects in the provisional programmes already agreed for CDI's initial assistance to Kenya and Madagascar, under Lomé III. These projects are based on the industrial potential surveys (and subsequent project verification missions) which have been undertaken in both countries.

KENYA

- **Ceramic tiles and sanitary ware.** An expert was provided to implement the recommendations of a CDI-sponsored rehabilitation study.
- **Fruit processing for export.** CDI is to sponsor an in-depth evaluation of the project.
- **Charcoal production.** CDI is to finance an in-depth feasibility study following UNDP and World Bank appraisals.
- **Imitation leather.** CDI is to sponsor an appraisal of an existing PVC-coating plant, with a view to rationalisation and modernisation.
- **Lubrication oil recycling.** This project has received assistance from CDI right from its inception in 1980. To help with implementation CDI is to finance training in Europe for two technicians.
- **Melamine plates and trays.** CDI is to provide marketing assistance for the expansion of sales to African (PTA) countries and the EEC.
- **Rubber teats and feeding bottles.** CDI is to provide marketing assistance to help an existing company to export its high quality products to African (PTA) countries and the EEC.
- **T-shirts.** CDI is to provide assistance to enable an existing company to improve design, increase output and win export markets.

MADAGASCAR

- **Anti-rodent products.** CDI will provide financial assistance for a feasibility study and product testing. This is a priority project aimed at reducing heavy annual food losses caused by rats. An EEC joint venture partner has been identified.
- **Piggery and porc products.** CDI will co-finance a feasibility study. This project has export potential and has the support of the local development bank (FNI). An EEC joint venture partner has been identified.
- **Solar water heaters.** A feasibility study is to be co-financed by CDI and the Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération Française (FAC). This follows an earlier CDI study on new sources of energy, carried out for the Malagasy government. It is an import-substitution project which provides an alternative to high-cost electricity. An EEC joint venture partner has been identified.
- **Wooden furniture.** CDI is to sponsor a diagnostic study of production methods to increase output and improve quality, with an eye to export markets.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL SURVEYS OF ACP STATES

In the last issue of "Industrial Opportunities", we published summaries of industrial potential surveys undertaken for CDI in two West African States. In this issue we carry articles summarising similar surveys of two

East African countries — Kenya and Madagascar.

All ACP countries have now been surveyed. The surveys are a form of assistance to ACP States and include recom-

mendations for each country on how best to stimulate industrial development. Each survey also proposes industrial projects, suited to the local economic situation, which may benefit from CDI's assistance.

Madagascar: regional market offers best prospects

Madagascar's industrial priorities focus on the promotion of exporting industries, the encouragement of SMEs and the manufacture of intermediate goods.

However, an industrial potential survey carried out by CDI points out that, because of the lack of foreign exchange, only exporting industries, oriented towards the EEC and above all to neighbouring Indian Ocean countries, have a reasonable chance of succeeding.

In any case much remains to be done, despite the recent adoption of an Investment Code, to create a favourable climate for foreign investors.

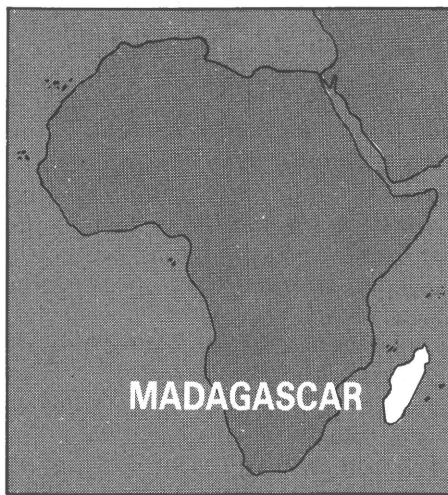
SEVERE LACK OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE

Madagascar is one of the poorest countries in the world and the size of her foreign debt (Ecu 2000 million* in 1984) is the main obstacle to her industrial development. Without the extensive foreign aid (from the IMF, the World Bank, the EIB, etc.), which has been granted since the government altered its economic policy in 1982, it would not have been possible during the past two years, to halt the fall in the real rate of growth which had been taking place since 1976.

If the decline in industrial output has been reversed (+7% in real added value in 1985 after a decrease of 20% between 1970 and '84), production remains seriously hampered by the lack of foreign exchange. Indeed as exports (which mainly consist of agricultural products) are stagnating, the government has been obliged to curb imports (-29% between '81 and '85) in order to ensure the servicing of the foreign debt. This has resulted in serious shortages which particularly affect the urban population (rice) and industry (raw materials, spare parts, etc.).

MAJOR RESOURCES

Although the Malagasy economy is still in



a precarious position, its industrial potential is nevertheless very considerable.

Indeed the island has no shortage of resources: agriculture (rice, coffee, vanilla, cotton, etc.), minerals (graphite, chrome, bauxite, nickel and little-exploited semi-precious stones), energy (hydro-power, charcoal, lignite, shale oil and asphaltic sands) and finally human resources (10 million inhabitants, "excellent workers" and highly qualified technicians).

Thus, industry is not surprisingly specialised in the processing of local raw materials. At the top of the table are the food, textile and leather industries. However, the largest enterprises are too big in relation to the local availability of raw materials.

Consequently, these industries are all dependent on imports and were "condemned to a low utilization of their capacities once imports were reduced".

Therefore, the textile industry, the largest and soundest industry on the island (in tandem with the wood industry which is in full expansion), suffers from the long delays—up to one or two years—required for the importation of vital inputs. Government approval is in fact necessary both to import and to export.

The development of other industries, in the edible oils sector for instance, was curtailed by the imposition of very low selling prices, which also contributed to a decline

in the production of the local raw materials and a recourse to imported oils.

GRADUAL LIBERALIZATION

The State's role in industry is vital, as it controls two thirds of the country's industrial enterprises. Since 1982, a series of measures have been taken to liberalize the economy. The most important of these are:

- liberalization of 70% of industrial prices, (while the prices of basic consumer products remain under control).
- abolition of taxes on exports and industrial inputs
- suppression of import quotas for products for which there is an assured demand
- authorization to keep foreign exchange for importing raw materials and spare parts
- adoption of an Investment Code which puts public and private enterprises, national and foreign, on an equal footing with fiscal and customs benefits (but foreign exchange transfers will still be controlled)
- privatization of a certain number of public enterprises.

(For financing investments, Madagascar has credit lines, notably from the World Bank. However these are primarily earmarked for agriculture).

Madagascar's "Banque Nationale pour le Développement Industriel (BNDI) grants loans with an interest rate of over 10%.

It remains to be seen whether these policy changes will encourage foreign investment which has been so lacking up to now.

If the government's priority is the rehabilitation of the most successful enterprises that use agricultural raw materials, the best development prospects are to be found in exports, in particular to countries in the Indian Ocean. To this end, there is yet much to be done: exporters claim that despite numerous devaluations the Malagasy franc is still overvalued and freight costs are too high.

* For the value of the Ecu see page 8.

Kenya: a booming industrial economy

Kenya has the most industrially advanced economy in East Africa, but in recent years it has suffered as a result of import controls, tariffs on imported inputs, inflation and generally rising domestic costs. Nevertheless, the country's banking system and transport infrastructure are well-developed, its industrial relations record is "excellent", labour productivity is relatively high, and the government has consistently encouraged free enterprise and foreign investment. These are the main conclusions of an in-depth survey of Kenya's industrial potential carried out by CDI.

The survey points out that since the country's developed and diversified industrial sector is based mainly on locally available raw materials and agricultural products, growth in the manufacturing sector in recent years has by and large been concentrated in agro-industry, particularly food processing and the cultivation and processing of oil seeds.

POLICY OPTIONS

It notes that these and other sectors— notably in the electrical/electronic fields— are ripe for development, but suggests some steps which the government could take to facilitate progress in this direction. These include:

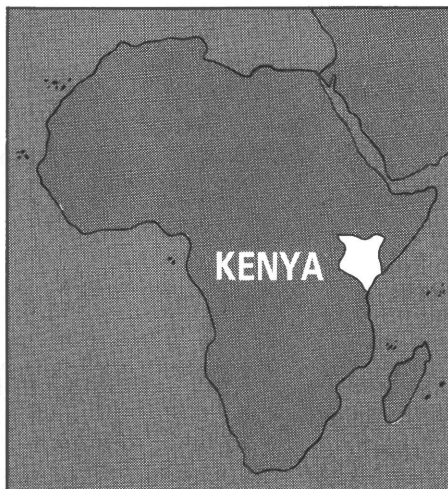
- the establishment of Export Processing Zones free of import restrictions
- improved fiscal incentives
- eliminating the disincentive to the establishment of import-substituting industries, stemming from the levying of import duties which are often as high on raw materials and components as they are on finished goods.

It observes that there is serious overcapacity in the manufacturing sector, maintaining that this is not only the result of the difficulties companies experience breaking into the Tanzanian and Ugandan markets following the 1977 collapse of the East African Community in 1977, but that it is also due to the fact that entry into the market is relatively unregulated. Kenyan entrepreneurs currently look for export markets inside the Preferential Trade Area (PTA), which is now taking off.

Manufacturers also report "a severe lack of local liquidity". Noting the existence of a number of non-banking industrial development institutions, the survey concludes that "the current requirement in Kenya is not so much for technical or managerial assistance but rather for creative financing".

FIFTH DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The 1984-88 Development Plan, "com-



mits the government to ensuring that the scope for private sector activity in the economy is protected and expanded, and that access to credit and foreign exchange is sufficient to sustain the private sector growth foreseen".

According to the Plan, development incentives will be provided for:

- export-orientated industries based on domestic resources
- export-orientated industries based on imported raw materials
- the modernisation/expansion of existing manufacturing companies
- industry needed to support development in other economic sectors, particularly agriculture
- import-reducing producer goods industries
- import-substitution industries based on domestic inputs
- assembly industries based on knock-down kits with 10% or more local content.

FOREIGN OWNERSHIP

While maintaining that "there are no legal limitations on the percentage of foreign ownership in companies", the survey does point out that "the Kenyan Government is currently pursuing a policy of increasing Kenyan participation". It adds that it is also difficult to obtain approval for foreign ventures in the agricultural, distributive trades and retail sectors.

On the other hand, the Foreign Investment Protection Act guarantees against expropriation, and provides for the issuing of a Certificate of Approved Enterprise, which affords holders protection in the area of profit repatriation.

CORPORATE ENVIRONMENT

The following fiscal provisions are outlined in the survey: Corporation tax is levied

at a rate of 45% of net profits for resident companies and 52.5% for non-residents through a permanent establishment in Kenya; tax breaks are granted to newly-established companies; attractive deductions for capital expenditure apply; double taxation agreements exist with the UK, Denmark, Italy, while negotiations to this end with West Germany are under way; a 15% *ad valorem* sales tax is levied on most—except luxury—goods; while the existing export incentive/tax refund scheme is being extended.

CALL TO EEC INDUSTRIALISTS

Use your production know-how to expand via an ACP country.

Let CDI promote your production proposals.

CDI encourages EEC firms to come forward with proposals for setting up production in any of 66 African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries.

CDI can promote suitable proposals from EEC countries, free of charge, through its many lines of communication to the ACP business world. This can have the following advantages for EEC companies:

- Entry to new markets, which may otherwise be closed to them
- Access to local sources of raw materials
- Relocation of labour-intensive operations and/or existing plant to an ACP country
- Access to additional fiscal and other incentives, through an ACP partner.

The investment required of EEC firms in such joint ventures can be low in relation to the total financial input. An EEC firm may also include good second hand equipment as a contribution to the overall investment.

EEC companies who want CDI to promote their proposals should, ideally, be small or medium-sized. They should also be willing to take a minor share of the equity in a joint venture with an ACP partner, or to enter into franchising or licencing arrangements.

REQUEST A PRODUCTION PROPOSAL FORM FROM CDI NOW

NEWS IN BRIEF

ITALIAN EXPERTISE FOR JAMAICA MARBLE COMPANY



CDI-sponsored Italian marble expert, Mr. Faini, cuts the first boulder with the new slabbing machine in the Jamaican plant.

Jamaica has its own seams of a distinctive rose coloured marble and in recent years these have been exploited for the manufacture of facing slabs and other components for some of the newer commercial and official buildings in Kingston and the other principal towns.

A major new development at Hellshire Bay, a few miles from the capital, has led to an increased demand for marble products, not only for the building industry but for smaller household and domestic items which can be sold to the country's substantial annual influx of tourists.

The existence of good quality marble deposits in identified quarries has provided an opportunity not only to meet the increasing local demand, but to save on foreign currency by reducing imports of equivalent material.

The Hellshire Bay Development Company asked CDI to assist in the modernization and expansion of a small marble-cutting and polishing workshop which had been established as part of the development. CDI was able to obtain the services of two experts from an Italian company, International Technical Services, the history of which extends back more than two hundred years to the zenith of the marble industry in Italy.

The development work in Jamaica has covered three aspects, advice on the workings of the marble quarries and the selection of suitable stone, the installation and commissioning of modern stone cutting equipment, and the training of local Jamaican workers in the correct handling and

working of the marble in the various stages from quarrying rock to finished product.

After the first phases of this programme had been successfully carried out, the Hellshire Bay Development Company asked for further technical assistance which CDI was able to provide, again with the same Italian experts.

Production of Jamaican marble is now firmly established and the workshop is providing an increasing output of finished tiles, building slabs and consumer items for the local market. Future plans envisage the creation of an export business throughout the Caribbean region.

MISSIONS TO EEC COUNTRIES

CDI's Deputy-Director, Mr. Jens Mosgard, recently led CDI delegations for high-level meetings in two EEC countries.

- **Germany.** A meeting was held with the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Representatives of the German Ministry for Cooperation, DEG (the development finance organisation), Africa Verein, DIHT, BDI and BfAI, also participated in the meeting.

The object of the discussion was to improve CDI's contact with German industries, and especially to encourage more of them to register as potential joint venture partners. A September meeting is planned for Brussels, to finalise discussions that will lead to a stronger CDI presence in Germany.

- **Netherlands.** A meeting was held with leading figures of the Netherlands Foreign Trade Agency (Ministry of Economic Affairs) the Industrial Development Programme (Ministry of Foreign Affairs) and FMO (the development finance organisation). Mr. Wilhelm A. de Jonge, CDI's Joint Governing Board member for the Netherlands, also participated in the meeting.

The Netherlands Foreign Trade Agency agreed to distribute project details, received from CDI, to 600 Dutch exporting companies. It was said that Netherlands firms are now showing greater interest in Africa because of the diminishing number of possibilities in the Far East.

The Ministry of Development Cooperation has created a fund to help Dutch companies to restructure by the redeployment of industries to developing countries. CDI has long advocated this kind of restructuring and could cooperate with Dutch efforts.

Ways of improving Dutch cooperation with CDI are now under investigation.

PROCESSED FOODS IN MAURITIUS

A letter from the Managing Director of Fast Food Limited, in Mauritius, thanks CDI for co-financing technical assistance for the introduction of its new product lines of beef sausages, salami and meat burgers.

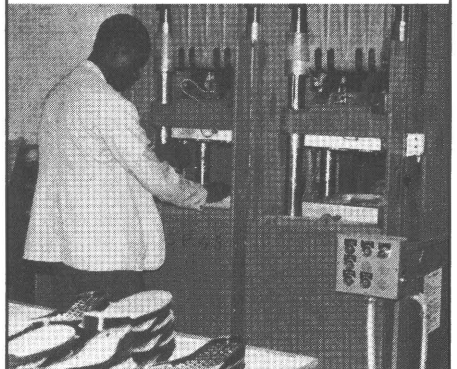
The products carry the trademark of a UK company and are produced under licence.

CDI provided an expert from the UK licensor's company, for a six-week stay in Mauritius. During this period he helped with the installation of processing machinery and ensured that production lines were correctly set up. He supervised the initial production and trained local personnel in the operation and maintenance of machinery and equipment.

The expert adapted the products to cater

Continued on next page

SHOE PRODUCTION IN MAURITANIA



Following start-up assistance provided by CDI, a shoe factory has gone into production in Mauritania with an initial output of about 2000 pairs of shoes per (8-hour) day. Our photo depicts one of the factory's operators making PVC soles by using the injection process.

for the local market and also set up quality control measures..

In thanking CDI, the letter from Fast Foods Ltd. says: "The factory is now running to our satisfaction and we are most pleased with the work accomplished by the expert".

NEW ANTENNA IN TRINIDAD

The Caribbean Industrial Research Institute (CARIRI), was recently appointed as CDI's antenna or field representative, for Trinidad and Tobago.

Mr. George Braithwaite, Manager of CARIRI's Commercial Development Division, will be responsible for the institute's CDI desk. He recently visited CDI to familiarise himself with the organisation and to discuss CDI-assisted projects in his country.

During his visit, Mr. Braithwaite explained that CARIRI, which was set up by UNIDO, is now funded by the Government of Trini-

dad and Tobago and by income earned on projects (sometimes undertaken for other Caribbean countries).

GUYANESE PRIORITIES

During a recent mission to Guyana, CDI Director, Dr. I.A. Akinrele, held meetings with (among others) the Head of the Department of International Economic Cooperation, representatives of several "umbrella" organisations for industry and CDI's own antenna, GUYMIDA (the Guyana Manufacturing and Industrial Development Agency).

Dr. Akinrele was told that Guyana is giving priority in its recovery programme to the development of forestry, mining (gold), fisheries, sugar (rationalisation) and rice. It was suggested that CDI's assistance would be welcome for the following activities:

- a study of export marketing opportunities for forestry and wood products;
- technical assistance for the rehabilitation of existing industries;

- identification of extra-regional markets for Guyanese manufactures;
- resuscitation of the garment industry;
- in-plant training of industrial workers, especially in tooling and plant maintenance.

NEW CDI PUBLICATIONS

CDI has just brought the following two publications:

● **Library Catalogue 1984-1985.** This gives a complete list of all the papers and publications held by CDI's documentation service, as well as a list of the daily and periodical publications received. The last major acquisition was the complete series of Eurostat microfiches (analytical tables showing the foreign trade of every EEC countries).

● **Inventory of Adapted Technologies (Vol. 2).** There will be an article on this in the next issue of "Industrial Opportunities".

Relevant institutions and individuals may write to CDI for copies of either publication.

"DAKAR FORUM"



7TH WEST AFRICA INDUSTRIAL FORUM



The next West Africa Industrial Forum will take place from 1 to 4 December in Dakar, Senegal. Once again CDI is co-sponsoring the Forum (along with the European Commission, UNIDO and the West African Federation of Chambers of Commerce).

CDI itself intends to bring to the Forum up to 25 private West African sponsors of industrial projects; but it is expected that the Forum will be attended by a total of about 200 African entrepreneurs from the 16 countries comprising the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS).

It should also be attended by as many European industrialists.

We list opposite some of the project ideas and substantiated projects so far identified for the Forum.

If any of these are of interest to EEC industrialists they may write to CDI for further details. (Information on projects in the remaining ECOWAS countries was not yet available when going to press).

CDI staff will be present in Dakar to assist with negotiations and to help ACP and EEC partners to reach preliminary agreements; and of course CDI will be offering further assistance towards project implementation, such as cofinancing feasibility studies for committed partners, or providing free implementation assistance.

COUNTRY	PROJECT IDEAS	SUBSTANTIATED PROJECTS
BURKINA FASO	Brick-making • Paper and cardboard manufacturing.	Poultry production and slaughtering.
COTE D'IVOIRE	Synthetic sanitary ware • Combustible briquettes from coffee husks • Waste oil recycling • Metal coating (nickel, chrome) • Preventive maintenance of industrial and automobile engines • Organic fertilizers from agricultural and animal wastes • Cassava processing (attieke) • Marketing of sawn tropical timbers.	Manufacture of paper products (writing paper, typing paper, chemical paper) • Drink produced from cane juice • Manufacture of printing and textile inks • Pharmaceutical products.
GAMBIA	Biscuit manufacturing.	Groundnut packaging and peanut butter • Juices and jams from local fruits.
LIBERIA	Rubber extraction and processing.	Production of welding electrodes • Manufacture of dry cell batteries.
MALI	Air conditioners.	Exhaust pipes • Assembly of refrigerators • Paper manufacturing • Garment making (children's clothes, uniforms, shopcoats, overalls, etc.) • Tea (infusion) sachets produced from kinkeliba.
MAURITANIA	Production of dry cell batteries • Manufacture of luxury toilet soaps.	Mechanical maintenance workshop.
NIGER	Licking stones (with minerals) for cattle • Salt mining • Mineral water bottling.	Jams and canned fruits • Garment making (shirts, trousers, jackets, etc.).
TOGO	Production of instant coffee • Pineapple canning • Pharmaceutical products • Fertilizer from household waste • Production of yam flakes (for fufu) • Manufacture of metal boxes, casks and barrels • Manufacture of paper and cardboard packaging materials.	

OFFERS FROM ACP SPONSORS EEC INDUSTRIAL PARTNERS WANTED



EEC industrialists are invited to contact CDI, quoting the reference number, in response to any offer outlined in this section. However, CDI will reply to enquiries only if EEC industrialists give brief descriptions of their current operations and are prepared to provide the kinds of cooperation requested by the ACP sponsors.

Organisations reprinting these offers in their own publications, are asked ALWAYS to include the corresponding CDI reference numbers.

SHEEPSKIN TANNERY

ETHIOPIA

660.ETH.3.RUB.

The Ethiopian National Leather and Shoe Corporation has decided to establish a sheepskin tannery, in the Addis Ababa area, with a daily processing capacity of 4,000 pieces.

The production mix is 30% crust and 70% finished leather. All the crust and about 90% of the finished leather is for export (i.e. 10% of the finished leather will be for the domestic market.

Raw skins (1.2 million a year) are available locally. The total investment required is estimated to be Ecu 11 million.

A feasibility study was carried out by a Swedish development cooperation authority (Swedfund) and a German firm. Both will be shareholders in the project.

Swedfund and the German firm require an additional shareholder to increase the amount of equity, this partner would also bring his know-how and undertake marketing jointly with the German firm.

RADIO AND TV MANUFACTURING

ETHIOPIA

662.ETH.1.ELC.

The Ethiopian National Metalworks Corporation, following a feasibility study conducted in 1985, wants to set up a plant for the combined production of:

- radios (30,000 a year)
- black and white television sets (20,000 a year)
- colour television sets (5,000 a year)
- printed circuit boards (for the above products).

The entire output will be absorbed by the domestic market.

In 1984, 90,000 radios and 5,000 television sets were imported in spite of the high import duty (69%) on these items.

The project has been given a high priority by the Ministry of Industry.

A joint venture partner is required who will provide know-how and a share of the equity.

COTTON T-SHIRTS FOR EXPORT

KENYA

610.KEN.3.TEX.

An existing company employing over 100 workers wishes to export high quality T-shirts, in addition to supplying the local market with other knitted cotton products.

The plant, operating at full capacity could produce 2.4 million pieces a year.

The company has an experienced management and is supported by local and international financial institutions. It seeks technical assistance (especially for designs) and, if possible, arrangements with foreign companies for the export marketing of T-shirts.

ELECTRICAL COMPONENTS AND HOUSEHOLD EQUIPMENT

MAURITIUS

660.MUS.2.MEC.

A Mauritian company trading in household equipment and electrical components (circuit breakers, switchboards, etc.), wishes to manufacture such products for export, under joint venture, sub-contracting or franchising arrangements, with an EEC partner.

A prefeasibility study on switch gears and detailed information on attractive Mauritian incentives for exporting industries, are available on request.

BONE MEAL, BONE FAT AND BLOOD MEAL

SOMALIA

662.SOM.1.FOO.

Private sponsors, supported by the local development bank, plan to set up a bone meal project using wastes from the slaughter house in Mogadishu.

The expected capacity is 2 to 3 tons per hour.

The bone meal (2,499 tons a year) and blood meal (480 tons a year), will be mainly for export.

The local sponsors are already experienced in the exporting of bones, especially to East Africa. They are seeking an EEC joint venture partner who will provide know-how, assistance with marketing and a share of the equity.

HOW CDI CAN ASSIST ACP-EEC INDUSTRIAL VENTURES

CDI can help ACP and EEC partners to set up their joint industrial projects by providing the following assistance:

- financing in-depth evaluations of industrial proposals;
- co-financing feasibility studies and market studies;
- acting as an honest broker during negotiations;
- obtaining independent evaluations of the value and suitability of second-hand plant;
- locating sources of finance;
- contributing to the cost of business trips to allow prospective partners to meet;
- helping to draft legal agreements using standard models;
- providing funds for training and short-term expertise during commissioning and start-up.



INDUSTRIAL PROPOSALS FROM EEC FIRMS ACP ENTREPRENEURS, PLEASE REPLY

The proposals outlined below have been put forward by EEC firms interested in setting up production in ACP countries, under joint venture or franchising or licencing arrangements with local businessmen.

ACP entrepreneurs interested in any proposal are invited to write to CDI quoting the reference number.

CDI will not be in a position to act upon letters received unless ACP entrepreneurs provide all the information requested in the box at the bottom of the page. It would also be useful if they enclosed complementary information, including the latest balance sheet.

Please ALWAYS mention the CDI reference numbers when reproducing these proposals.

All equipment costs are quoted in Ecus (European currency units). The value of the Ecu may easily be ascertained from its relationship to other European currencies. Thus, on 1st July 1986: 1 Ecu = £ 0.638795, or FF 6.854999, or DM 2.14674.

MULTI-PLY WOOD-CORE PANELS

FRENCH PROPOSAL

86/17

A French company wishes to produce multi-ply wood-core panels in partnership with an ACP entrepreneur.

The minimum production capacity is 3,000 m³ per year. Such an output would require around 6,000 m³ a year, of wood for peeling.

The envisaged investment in equipment is about Ecu 1.75 million.

The company is open to a joint venture agreement and can provide assistance with studies, training and know-how.

PRODUCTION OF STARCH FROM CASSAVA

BELGIAN PROPOSAL

86/18

A Belgian company, a leader in its sector, is interested in producing starch in ACP countries from cassava, sorghum or maize. Starch is particularly important to the textile, glue, cardboard and packaging industries.

The minimum plant capacity for the production of starch from cassava, is 6.5 tons of starch a day. This corresponds to a daily input of some 30 tons of tubers.

The Belgian company is primarily interested in participating in existing projects where the desire is to develop production and to improve operating conditions, especially by increasing output, improving quality and reducing energy costs.

The company is open to all forms of cooperation (diagnosis, technical assistance, management, and marketing advice).

It will also consider participating in equity.

IRRIGATION EQUIPMENT FOR AGRICULTURE

FRENCH PROPOSAL

86/19

A French manufacturer is interested in producing plastic sprinklers and mobile couplings, for irrigation purposes.

The production capacity should be at least 100,000 sprinklers per year, to make the operation financially worthwhile and to produce at prices that can compete with imports.

The assembly operation for the sprinklers would account for approximately 20% of the production costs.

For assembly only, the investment required would be marginal; but about Ecu 1 million would be required for a fully integrated manufacturing operation.

The French company is open to joint venture agreements, through which it would provide know-how.

WATER CONDITIONING

FRENCH PROPOSAL

86/20

A French company wishes to develop the manufacture of anti-bacteria water filters. The products have been tested by the Pasteur Institute, Paris, which concluded that under the test conditions the filters permitted the provision of water "without any trace of germs".

The filters are intended for institutional or domestic use or for public water supply systems.

The minimum production capacity is 20,000 units per year, for an investment in equipment of Ecu 150,000.

The basic raw materials required are aluminium and PVC.

The French company is open to joint venture and technical assistance agreements.

Information required of ACP entrepreneurs when replying

- Show why it would be worth-while to manufacture the products in question in your country, e.g. give market data, indicate that raw materials or components are available locally, etc.
- Describe your present activities plus your industrial and/or commercial experience.
- State how much capital you yourself could contribute.
- State the maximum portion of the equity your country legally allows to an EEC partner.
- Can you obtain finance and if so from where?
- If you need a foreign loan or supplier's credit, can you obtain a local guarantee?
- Is your project a national priority?
- Outline the incentives your country offers to foreign investors.

OPERATIONAL SUMMARY

No. 35 — September 1986

(position as at 22 August 1986)



EEC-financed development schemes

The following information 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), Lomé II (31 October 1979) and Lomé III (8 December 1984), 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 ALA 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 beneficiary 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

Resp. Auth.: Responsible Authority
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
mECU: Million European currency units

Correspondence about this operational summary can be sent directly to:

Mr. Franco Cupini
Directorate-General for Development
Commission of the European Communities
(ARCH.25/1-2)
200, rue de la Loi
B-1049 Brussels

Please cover only one subject at a time.

Sectoral Index

AGRICULTURE	
Irrigation and soil development, infrastructures, improvement	Burundi, St. Lucia, Cameroun, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Equatorial Guinea, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Niger, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Tunisia, Syria, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Nepal, India, Bhutan, Mozambique, Thailand, Pakistan, Philippines, Dominican Republic, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, Honduras
Coffee, tea, tobacco, cereals, coconuts, ground-nut, maize, sugar, cotton, palm-nuts, rice, rubber, potatoes, citrus fruit	Côte d'Ivoire, Chad, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Jamaica, Malawi, P.N.G., Rwanda, Solomon Islands, Somalia, Suriname, Zimbabwe, CILSS, Tunisia, Bangladesh, Thailand, China (People's Rep.)
Seed and crop protection, environment	Botswana, Burundi, Central African Republic, Mali, Rwanda, Somalia, Tanzania, Niger Basin Authority, CILSS, Egypt, Tunisia, Jordan, Bangladesh, Nepal, China (People's Rep.), Yemen, Panama, Costa Rica, Honduras, El Salvador, Guatemala
Agro-industry	Liberia, Rwanda, Solomon Islands, Togo, Zambia, Thailand
Forestry	Burundi, Chad, Guinea Bissau, Nigeria, Togo, New Caledonia, Niger Basin Authority
STOCK FARMING-FISHING-PISCICULTURE	
Improvement	Antigua and Barbuda, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Central African Rep., Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Ghana, Kiribati, Jamaica, Malawi, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Trinidad and Tobago, Somalia, Zaire, Congo, Gabon, Sao Tomé & Principe, Equatorial Guinea, Angola, Indian Ocean ACP Countries
Veterinary projects	Kenya, Zambia, Suriname, African Countries, Eastern Africa, ICIPE, Malawi-Zambia-Zimbabwe, Egypt, Mozambique
Processing industry	Guinea, Tonga, French Polynesia, Angola
RURAL HYDRAULICS	
Wells, bores, pumps, pipes, small dams	Botswana, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Guinea, Mauritania, Niger, Lesotho, Liberia, Senegal, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Montserrat, Egypt, Tunisia, Syria, Bhutan, China (People's Rep.)
TOWN WATER SUPPLY AND SEWERAGE	
Water supply, pipes, drinking water	Djibouti, Tanzania, Zimbabwe
Sewerage, waste water, collectors, pumping stations, treatment	Cyprus
SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONS	
Houses, schools, hospitals, buildings, laboratories	Belize, Benin, Burundi, Chad, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Fiji, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Suriname, Swaziland, Tanzania, Falkland Islands, CEAO, Maritime Transport Conference, UDEAC, MRU, Eastern Africa, Egypt, Syria, Jordan, Colombia, Mexico, Nepal
TRANSPORTS AND COMMUNICATIONS	
Roads, bridges, airports, railways, ports	Belize, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Chad, Dominica, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Grenada, Jamaica, Liberia, Malawi, Mozambique, P.N.G., Somalia, Suriname, Tanzania, Tonga, Uganda, Zambia, Zaire, Guyana-Suriname, Niger-Nigeria, Equatorial Guinea-Sao Tomé Principe, Eastern African Countries, Indian Ocean ACP Countries, Pakistan, Pacific ACP Countries, Tanzania-Zambia
TELECOMMUNICATIONS	
Radio, telephone, satellites, hertzian	UAPT, Sierra Leone
ENERGY	
Power stations, dams, electrification	Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Mauritania, P.N.G., Somalia, Suriname, Zaire, Zambia, Western Samoa, O.M.V.G.
NEW AND RENEWABLE ENERGY	
Solar, wind-wills, biomass, gas, geothermics	Guinea, Senegal, Suriname, Pacific OCT
MINING	
Soil survey, research, geophysical survey,	Botswana, Nigeria
Infrastructure, production, processing plants	Ghana, Rwanda, Zaire, Zambia
MAPPING	
Soil-Air	
INDUSTRY	
Plants, productions	Guinea, Malawi
TRADE, INDUSTRY, TOURISM, INVESTMENT PROMOTION - MANAGEMENT - MARKETING - S.M.E. TRAINING	
	Chad, Dominica, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Niger, Rwanda, Somalia, Sierra Leone, St. Lucia, Swaziland, Trinidad and Tobago, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana-Swaziland, Neth. Antilles, Pacific ACP Countries, Algeria, Tunisia, Banco Centro-Americano, Andean Pact., China (People's Rep.), Thailand, Costa Rica, El Salvador



PABLI – Blue page informatics

Direct access to the blue pages via on-line terminal or telex

As from January 1986 the blue pages will be on computer and available either directly via a terminal or micro-computer.

In addition they will be available by telex.

The subscription to PABLI is temporarily free of charge.

To obtain further information for access to PABLI please write, specifying the option chosen (terminal or telex) to:

M. A. BOLDRIN

“Data base Section” – B9/69

Directorate-General for Development
Commission of the European Communities
200, rue de la Loi
1049 Brussels
Belgium

ACP STATES

★ Denotes new projects

ANGOLA

Assistance to the fishing and fish-processing industry in the Namibe Province. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio das Pescas. EEC 4.250 MECU. Supply of equipment and T.A. 5 Int. tenders launched in July 86. Project in execution.

ALA ANG 8415 A3d

Rural Water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie et des Ressources Naturelles. HYDROMINA. Parallel cofinancing with UNICEF. EEC contribution 2.250 MECU. Study, T.A. and supply of hand-pumps, tubes, drilling equipment, vehicles. Project in execution.

ALA ANG 8425 A2b

ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA

Livestock development – Phase I. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 1.8 MECU. Works, supplies, T.A. T.A.: Darudec (DK). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 5th EDF.

EDF AB 5003 A3a

BELIZE

★ **Belize City Hospital. Phase I.** Estimated cost 7.494 MECU. Work constructions and supply of equipment. 4th and 5th EDF. Project stage: identification.

EDF BEL 4007, 5002 A7a

★ **Hummingbird highway.** Estimated cost 5.6 MECU. Road reconstruction. Study to be done: design plan and bridge and int. tender dossier. Short-list not yet drawn up. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.

EDF BEL 6001 A2d

BENIN

Upgrading of health service infrastructure in Porto Novo Hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Estimated cost 10 MECU: renovation and construction of the hospital building and equipment. Project on appraisal. Works: Int. tender with prequalification, launched (conditional) in August 84. 4th and 5th EDF.

EDF BEN 5010 A7a

Parakou polytechnical complex. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Enseignement Moyen, Général, Technique et Professionnel. Total estimated cost 6.9 MECU. Construction of 8 000 m² of pedagogical and administrative buildings and hostels. Supplies and equipment. Technical and architectural study: Arch. VINOUE (Local). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 4th EDF.

EDF BEN 4011 A6b

BOTSWANA

Village water supplies. Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Mineral Resources and Water Affairs. Planning Study: DECON-FLOTO (D). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EDF BT 5017 A2b

Services to livestock owners in communal areas (SLOCA), Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 4.100 MECU. Works by acc. tender, supply of vehicles and equipment by int. tender. T.A. T.A.: B.M.B. (NL). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF BT 5003 A3a

Wildlife tourism environment. T.A. in the area of Tourism and Wildlife. 2.1 MECU. Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF BT 5019 A8f

Geophysical exploration of the Ncojane and Nosop sedimentary basins. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Mineral Resources and Water Affairs. 1.6 MECU. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.

EDF BT 5020 A2b

Initial measures for the conservation of the Kalahari ecosystem. T.A. and supply of equipment. Monitoring and protection of the natural reserves. 2 MECU. Date financing decision July 86. 6th EDF.

EDF BT 6001 A8f

BURKINA FASO

Drinking water supply in the Yatenga region. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Eau. 5 MECU. Boreholes and wells. Sup-

plies. All by int. tenders. T.A.: BURGEAP (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF BK 5016 A2b

Improvement of halieutic production in Burkina Faso. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Environnement et du Tourisme. Estimated total cost 3.850 MECU. EDF 2.850 MECU, local 1 MECU. Infrastructural works, buildings, supply of equipment and vehicles, T.A. and training. Works by direct labour, supplies by int. tender, T.A.: restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF BK 5018 A3a

Ouagadougou-Kaya railways. Resp. Auth.: Ministère Promotion Economique. 5.5 MECU. Supply of rails, equipment and ballast. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EDF BK 5019 A2d

BURUNDI

Institut Universitaire de Sciences de l'Education (IUSE). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Education Nationale – 0.7 MECU. Construction and equipping of educational buildings (general teaching classes, laboratories, workshops). Int. tender dossier: TETRA Consultants (Lux). Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

EDF BU 4124 A6b

Faculty of agronomy. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Education Nationale. Estimated cost 5 MECU. Supervision of works. BRUSA-PASQUE (I). Works: int. tender (conditional) launched in December 85. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF BU 5017 A6b

Social-economic development of the Kirundo Province. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Elevage. 15.5 MECU. Works: springwales catchment, wells boring, buildings, feeder roads. Supply of agricultural inputs, equipments, vehicles, T.A. and training. Works by acc. tender, supplies by int. tender or direct agreement. T.A. and training by restr. tender. Short-list done. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF BU 5005 A3a

Support to “Département des Eaux et Forêts”. Resp. Auth.: Département des

Eaux et Forêts. Estimated cost 3.350 mECU. Reafforestation works, supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF BU 5020 A3c

CAMEROON

Yaoundé — Ayos Road — Technical study. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Transports. Estimated cost 0.860 mECU. Technical study for the execution and preparation of the tender dossier. Restr. tender. Short-list drawn up. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF CM 5019 A2d

Community rural development in the BAFUT region. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Gouverneur de la Province du Nord-Ouest. 1.5 mECU. Rural inputs, drought farming, hydro-agricultural rehabilitation. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by direct agreement. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF CM 5020 A3a

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

National Livestock Programme. Supply of agricultural inputs, monitoring training, T.A. Feeder roads. EDF part estimated 5.543 mECU. Cofinancing with France, EIB, local, IFAD. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF CA 6001 A3a

★ **Conservation programme for the ecosystem in the North.** National games and natural reserves. Supervision for protected areas. Monitoring, management. Supply of infrastructures. Estimated total cost 16.9 mECU. EDF 15.6 mECU. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF CA 6002 A3a

CHAD

Priority actions programme in the educational field. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de la Reconstruction. Estimated cost 5.2 mECU. Works, supplies, scholarships and T.A. T.A.: short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5003 A6a

Agricultural programme in the Sudan zone. Estimated cost 5.5 mECU. Various actions for: organizing the peasantry, stocking and marketing, utilization of improved seeds and production techniques. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5010 A3b

Rehabilitation of hospital and health sector. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Travaux Publics, de la Santé et Médecins sans Frontières (MSF-B). Estimated total cost 5.590 mECU. EDF 4.560 mECU, MSF(B) 0.505 mECU, Aviation sans Frontière (F) 0.100 mECU, local 0.425 mECU. Works by direct agreement or direct labour. Supply of medical equipment, supplies, medicines by int. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5011 A7a

Renovation and equipment of "Lycée Technique Commercial" in Technique de Bangui. N'Djamena. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de la Reconstruction. Works

and supply of equipment by acc. tender. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5015 A6d

Road maintenance brigades. Estimated cost 20 mECU. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF CD 6001 A2d

★ **Support programme for cotton producers.** EDF part estimated 5 mECU. Revolving fund for purchase of seeds. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86.
EDF CD 5017 A3a

COMOROS

Small stock-farming promotion in Anjouan. Estimated cost 0.200 mECU. Supply of equipment. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF COM 5010 A3a

COTE D'IVOIRE

Prawn farming pilot farm. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. Estimated total cost 1.875 mECU. EDF 0.850 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. T.A.: SEPIA Int. (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF IVC 5019 A3d

Rural development of the central region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. 10.5 mECU. Development of irrigated rice-growing. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 5th EDF.
EDF IVC 5021 A3a

★ **Rural oil palm plantations for the 2nd palm plan.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. Total estimated cost 50.370 mECU. EDF 20.850 mECU. Plantation of 22,945 ha in rural areas. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF IVC 6001 A3a

DJIBOUTI

Administrative training centre. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Fonction Publique. Construction of two buildings. Estimated cost 0.560 mECU. Cofinanced by EDF and France. EDF 0.270 mECU. Works and supplies. Works by int. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF DI 5004 A6e

Ranch construction. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Studies and Works. Works by int. tender. 1.030 mECU. Int. tender dossier prepared by Dubois (ACP). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF DI 5005 A3a

Djibouti water supply. Estimated cost 0.800 mECU. Watermain in the region of Damerjog Atar. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.
EDF DI 5001 A2b

DOMINICA

Feeder Roads Project. Estimated cost 3.8 mECU. Improvement of existing feeder roads and construction of new ones. Works by direct labour. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 6th EDF.
EDF DOM 6001 A2d

★ **Tourism development and marketing programme.** Estimated cost 0.620 mECU. Improvement of different tourist sites and their access. Launching of a marketing campaign in Europe and USA. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF DOM 6002 A5c

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

Rural interventions. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF EG A3a

Rural development in the Bata district. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture, de l'Élevage et du Dév. Rural, Ministère de la Santé. 1.350 mECU. Study by BDPA (F). Supervision of works: short-list done. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up for restr. tender. 5th EDF. Project in execution.
EDF EG 5004 A3a

Malabo's electrification (Phase II). 2.7 mECU. Purchase of generator sets, repairing of the power-station and town mains extension. 2 int. tender launched in June 85. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 5th EDF.
EDF EG 5003 A2ai

Cocoa-tree plantations rehabilitation on Bioko island. Estimated total cost 19 mECU. EDF 0.900 mECU. World Bank 11 mECU. OPEC 1.2 mECU, BADEA 3.3 mECU, local 2.6 mECU. EDF part: supply of fertilizers. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF EG 5008 A3a

Assistance to the road maintenance service in Rio Muni. 2nd phase. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 1.1 mECU. T.A., training and purchase of road equipments. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF EG 5009 A2d

ETHIOPIA

Construction and equipment of one agricultural research station in Bale-Arsi. Resp. Auth.: Institute of Agricultural Research (I.A.R.). Special hunger programme. 1.5 mECU. Project in execution.
958-ET 5015 A3c

Rural Water Supply. Resp. Auth.: Ethiopian Water Works Construction Authority. 1.9 mECU. Supply of equipments. T.A.: J. Taylor and Son (UK) and GITEC (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF ET 5016 A2b

GABON

★ **Continuation of the project Fernan Vaz (II).** Estimated total cost 6 mECU. EDF 5 mECU. Improvement and diversification of the rural products, social actions and feeder roads construction. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF GA 6001 A3a

GAMBIA

Brikama College, phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works and Communications. 1.925 mECU. Construction and equipment of academic and residential buildings. Works by mutual agreement. Equipment for phase II: int. tender, 2nd half 1986. 4th EDF.
EDF GM 4005 A6b

GHANA

Central and Accra Regions Rural Integrated Programme (CARRIP). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. Prefeasibility study for potential projects within the two regions, with the aim of improving the food situation in Accra and other coastal towns. Halcrow-U.L.G. (UK). Study: rehabilitation irrigation project: HED-ESELSKABET (DK). 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5025 A3e

Aveyme livestock development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.2 mECU. Works, supply of vehicles and equipment, T.A.: ORYX (I) 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5015 A3a

Second Line of Credit to the National Investment Bank (NIB). Resp. Auth.: Development Service Institute of NIB. 2.9 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. T.A.: P.E. Int. (UK). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5013 B3a

Line of Credit to the Agricultural Development Bank. Resp. Auth.: Agric. Dev. Bank (ADB) 6mECU. Purchase of marine diesel engines, spare parts, fishing nets, and T.A. Int. tender for engines launched in June 86. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5009 A5a

Agricultural Rehabilitation through the Rural Banks Scheme. Phase II. Supply of equipment to small scale farmers and fishermen. T.A. 8.760 mECU. T.A.: short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5004 A5a

Supplementary finance for Twifo Oil Palm Development. Resp. Auth.: Twifo Oil Palm Plantation Ltd. (TOPP). 5.043 mECU. Infrastructure, housing construction by direct labour. Supply of crop inputs, vehicles, tractors and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5003 A3a

Twifo smallholder Oil Palm Project. Resp. Auth.: TOPP. 3,715 m ECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Int. tender for supplies launched in July 86. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5021— STA A3a

Takoradi harbour rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ghana Ports Authority. Estimated total cost 16.7 mECU. EDF 9.7 mECU, World Bank 5 mECU, local 2 mECU. Works and supply of equipment. Prequalification launched in February 86. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5028 A2d

★ **Programme for the improvement of the transport infrastructure in the South-Western part. First actions.** Estimated total cost 15 mECU. Rehabilitation of the Axim-Axim junction road, construction of a road link (including bridges) to Enchi and studies. Feasibility and design study for Wiawso-Awaso-Mim corridor, short-list not yet drawn up. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6001 A2d

GRENADA

Eastern Main Road. Phase III. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Communications and

Works. EDF 3.5 mECU. Strengthening the road base by coal mix surface course and improving drainage structures. Works by direct labour. Supply of equipments by int. tender. Date financing decision July 86. 6th EDF.
EDF GRD 6001 A2d

GUINEA

Land development in Kankan and Labé regions. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et des F.A.P.A. Valuation: MacDonald and Partners (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF GUI 5030 A3a

New energy research and test. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Energie et du Konkouré. Study on hand by A.I.D.R. (B). 5th EDF.
EDF GUI 5006 A2a

Assistance to the «Ecole Nationale des Arts et Métiers-ENAM-Conakry». 2.265 mECU. Building renovation and supply of equipment. T.A.: O.R.T. (U.K) Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GUI 5028 A6d

Go into production for the plastic plant "SOGUIPLAST". Resp. Auth.: Guinea Government. 5.4 mECU. Prequalification launched in April 86 to set up with Guinean authorities a joint-company for plant management and for a T.A. (12 months). Supply of row materials (plastics) by int. tender foreseen in 86. All int. tenders will be conditionals. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF GUI 5022 A2a

Semi-industrial fishery project "SOGUIPECHE". Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de la Coopération Internationale. Secrétariat d'Etat à la pêche. Estimated cost 8 mECU. Rehabilitation and renovation of the existant plants and buildings. Supply of specialized equipment. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF GUI A3d

GUINEA BISSAU

Health infrastructures. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat d'Etat au Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 1.9 mECU. Construction and equipment of 2 district hospitals, 4 health centres and staff housing. Supply of equipment: int. tender launched in June 86. T.A.: Short-list done. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GUB 5006 A7a

North-East forestry development. Resp. Auth.: Commissariat général au développement rural. Study under way by Atlanta (D). 5th EDF.
EDF GUB 5004 A3c

T.A. to the "Direction Général du Plan". Resp. Auth.: Direction général du Plan. Estimated cost 0.910 mECU. To prepare and to implement the national development plan. Training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF GUB 5010 A3a

IVORY COAST

(See Côte d'Ivoire)

JAMAICA

Citrus fruit production improvement. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 3.5 mECU. Equipment, training and T.A. Credit line. T.A.: VAKAKIS (GR). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF JM 5004 A3a

Coffee development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated total cost 3.7 mECU. EDF 3.5 mECU. Local 0.2 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. and credit line. T.A.: Short-list already drawn up for restr. tender. Int. tender for supplies launched in March 86. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF JM 5005 A3a

Bee-keeping Development Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 1.270 mECU. Supply of vehicles, T.A. and line of credit. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF JM 5013 A3a

★ **Rural road and bridge reconstruction.** Estimated cost 7.8 mECU. Rural roads and bridges damaged during heavy flooding during May-June 86. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF JM 6001 A2d

KENYA

Line of credit to the "Small Scale Enterprises Finance Company" (SEFCO). Resp. Auth.: Development Finance Company of Kenya. 0.500 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF KE 5020 A4b

Reinforcement of the medical infrastructure in the district of Machakos. 1.100 mECU. Works and supplies. Date financing decision March 86. 5th EDF.
EDF KE 5022 A7a

KIRIBATI

Fishing-boats. 2.8 mECU. Purchase of 2 boats, 26 m. each. T.A.: Ian Macallan (ACP) Int. tender launched in June 86. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF KI 5002 A3d

LESOTHO

"Highlands Water Scheme" Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water, Energy and Mining. Estimated EDF contribution 9.5 mECU. Final planning study on hydraulics and T.A. to the Lesotho Highlands Development Authority. Date financing decision July 86. 6th EDF.
EDF LSO 6001 A2b

★ **Mphaki area development. Phase II.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.7 mECU. Feeder roads, livestock, veterinary and marketing installations, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 6th EDF.
EDF LSO 6002 A3a

LIBERIA

Rural Water Supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Rural Dev. Estimated cost 2.5 mECU.

Int. tender (conditional) for hand pumps launched in July 86. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 5th EDF.
EDF LBR 5018 A2b

Monrovia Port. Resp. Auth.: National Port Authority. Estimated cost 1.9 mECU. Management assistance. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 5th EDF.
EDF LBR 5019 A2d

★ **Health facilities.** Estimated cost 2 mECU. Provision of services, supplies and equipment (including drugs), T.A. for management and training. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF LBR 5020 A7a

MADAGASCAR

Assistance to the Malagasy handicrafts industry. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie. Estimated cost 1 mECU. Supply of raw materials for handicrafts by int. tender. T.A.: APRODI (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF MAG 5017 A4d

MALAWI

Salima Lakeshore Agricultural Development Division (SLADD) Phase IV. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost: 19.1 mECU. EDF 9.5 mECU. Local 9.6 mECU. Works, Supplies and T.A. Project in execution. T.A.: restr. tender, short-list drawn up. Int. tender for the supply of 6 steel bridges launched in June 86. 5th EDF.
EDF MAI 5001 A3a

Central and northern region fish farming development, training and research. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost: 3 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 5th EDF.
EDF MAI 5019 A3a

Strategic fuel reserve. Resp. Auth.: Office of the President and Cabinet. Contingency Planning Unit. 4.2 mECU. Construction of tanks farm for gasoil, petrol, ethanol. Associated infrastructure and equipment. T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF MAI 5020 A2a

Small Enterprise Development Organization of Malawi (SEDOM) - Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Sedom secretariat. EDF 4.8 mECU. Works by direct labour. Supply of vehicles and equipment by int. tender in '86. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF MAI 5021 A4e

Mwansambo Rural Growth Centre. Resp. Auth.: OPC, Rural Development Division. 0.900 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF MAI 5028 A3a

Blantyre-Lirangwe M1 Road. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 21.5 mECU. Road construction and rehabilitation. Works by int. tender (conditional) launched in February 86. T.A.: Rhein-Rhur (D). Date financing decision July 86. 6th EDF.
EDF MAI 6001 A2d

Mpherembe Smallholder Tobacco Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. EDF 4.680 mECU. Works and supplies. Date financing decision July 86. 6th EDF.
EDF MAI 6002 A3a

MALI

Strengthening of sanitary infrastructure in the Nioro region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé et des Affaires Sociales et Ministère des Transports et T.P. 2.570 mECU. Buildings, equipment, training. Architectural and technical studies: GOUSIER (F). T.A.: Short-list already drawn up. 4th EDF.
EDF MLI 4016 A7a

Support to establish undertakings and to insert young graduates. EDF 2.8 mECU. Supply of T.A. training and line of credit. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.
EDF MLI 5021 A4e

MAURITANIA

Extension of Kaédi regional hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 0.815 mECU. Construction, equipment and TA for Kaédi hospital (100 beds). Works under way. Medical-technical equipment int. tender, foreseen in the 2nd half 86. 3rd, 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF MAU 5018 A7a

Small dams construction in the Hodhs region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement rural. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Study under way: Binnie and Partners (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF MAU 5001 A3a

Aiou El Atrouss hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 1.050 mECU. Renovation and supply of equipment for 3 buildings. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF MAU 5012 A7a

"Centre de Formation Professionnelle Maritime de Nouadhibou (C.F.P.M.). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 2.5 mECU. Construction, supply of equipment and purchase of a wooden-trawler, T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF MAU 5014 A6d

T.A. and training for hospital equipment maintenance. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 0.540 mECU. T.A.: CHEMA (B). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF MAU 5011 A7a

MAURITIUS

Development of Ile Rodrigues. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3 mECU. Development centred on agricultural production. Economical and technical study under way. T.A.: Luxconsult (Lux.). 5th EDF.
EDF IM 5001 A3a

MOZAMBIQUE

Rural development in the Moamba District. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio da Agricultura. Estimated total cost 9.15 mECU. EEC 7.5 mECU. Supply of equipment, rural inputs and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA MOZ 8333 A3a

Fishery development and rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'état pour la

pêche. Total estimated cost 8.885 mECU. EEC 7.4 mECU. Supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA MOZ 8507 A3d

Nacala Railway Rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Government of Mozambique. EDF part 25 mECU. Cofinancing with France, Portugal, Italy, Canada and Finland. Int. tender (conditional) foreseen in September or October 86. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6001 A2d

★ **Rehabilitation of the Port of Beira. Reconstruction of parts of 2 to 5 berths.** National and regional project with Zimbabwe, Malawi and Zambia. Estimated total cost 40 mECU. Resp. Auth.: Beira Corridor Authority. Reconstruction of about 390 m of quay including the construction of the associated container-multi purpose terminal area. Int. tender (conditional) foreseen in December 86. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
MOZ 6003. REG 6401 A2d

NIGER

Air Valley development. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. Estimated cost 2.052 mECU. Hydro-agricultural works. Construction and equipping of wells. Equipping and operation of nurseries. T.A. and training. Works and equipment: int. tender. T.A.: VAKAKIS (GR). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF NIR 5002 A3a

Training for Cooperatives. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. Estimated cost 2.8 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. T.A. by restr. tender short-list done. Supplies by int. tender or direct agreement. 5th EDF.
EDF NIR 5004 A3b

Traditional wells repairing in the Oualam Region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Hydraulique. 3.1 mECU. 100 wells. Works, supervision and training. Supervision of works: M. Botz (F) and M. Motte (B). Project in execution. 5th EDF
EDF NIR 5010 A2b

NIGERIA

Kaduna afforestation project. Resp. Auth.: Federal Department of Forestry. 9.4 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. T.A.: restr. tender, short-list done. 5th EDF.
EDF UNI 5001 A3c

Abakaliki Zinc Feasibility Study. Resp. Auth.: NMC (Nigerian Mining Corporation). 1.220 mECU. T.A. by restr. tender after short-list. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF UNI 5007 A2b

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Magi highway. Resp. Auth.: Department of Transport. 3.5 mECU. Upgrading and sealing of a road section. Works: int. tender foreseen 2nd half '86. 5th EDF.
EDF PNG 5006 A2d

Diesel Power Replacement Programme. Resp. Auth.: Electricity Commission (ELCOM). Estimated cost 4.850 mECU. 4 small hydroelectric power plants with

transmission line extensions from existing grids. 1st int. tender (conditional) launched in October 85. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF PNG 5Q11a A2a

Kimbe-Talasea Road. Resp. Auth.: Departments of Works and Transport. Estimated total cost 9.5 mECU. EDF 7 mECU, local 2.5 mECU. Upgrading of ± 35 km of the road. Works and supervision. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.

EDF PNG 5013 A2d

RWANDA

Development of the small-scale tin industry. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie, des Mines et de l'Artisanat. 2.840 mECU. Sysmin. Works, supplies, training and T.A. T.A.: Short-list done. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF RW 5016 A4a

Support to the: "Centrale Comptable et Organisation". Resp. Auth.: Présidence de la République. 3.1 mECU. T.A. and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF RW 5014 A1b

T.A. to "OCIR-THE". Continuation of the T.A. 0.300 mECU. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.

EDF RW 5024 A1b

ST. LUCIA

★ **Roseau agricultural resettlement and diversification project. Phase II.** Estimated cost 1.4 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and T.A. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.

EDF SLU 6001 A3a

SENEGAL

New energy research and test in rural region. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Recherche Scientifique. 1.5 mECU. Creation of pilot unit for solar energy, biomass and wind energy. Studies, T.A. and equipment. Studies: AGIP-AFOR (I). Equipment: int. tender in 86. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EDF SE 5005 A2a

Consolidation of the livestock development programme. Resp. Auth.: SODESP. Estimated cost 1.6 mECU. Study under way by Bessel Ass. (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EDF SE A3a

Artisanal fishery development in the Casamance Region. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Pêche Maritime. EDF 1.6 mECU. Works, supplies and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SE 5024 A3a

SIERRA LEONE

Kambia Fishery Development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. 0.650 mECU. Construction of 2 buildings and a boatyard, supply of boats, motors, vehicles and T.A. T.A.: MacAlister, Elliot and Partners (UK). Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5019 A3d

Rehabilitation of the Telecommunications Network. Resp. Auth.: Post and Tele-

communications Dept. Estimated cost ± 9.5 mECU. Study to prepare technical specifications and int. tender dossier: short-list done for restr. tender. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5024 A2c

Port Loko rural development programme. 6 mECU. Infrastructures, T.A., training and supplies. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5006 A3a

Support to the Geological Surveys Department. 1.30 mECU. T.A. and training, supply of equipment. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5016 A4a

Creation of regional centres for small enterprises. Estimated cost 1.25 mECU. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5017 A4d

Rural health development programme. Estimated cost 1.5 mECU. Buildings, equipment and training. Works by acc. tender already launched. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5025 A7a

Tourism development project. Estimated cost 0.850 mECU. T.A. for Ministry of Tourism and supply of equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5026 A5c

★ **Bennimix baby food production programme.** Estimated total cost 3.6 mECU. EDF 2.8 mECU. Improvement of the nutrition and health status of children by producing from local raw materials low cost, high quality weaning food, which can be afforded by the low-income groups. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

EDF SL 5028 A7a

SOLOMON ISLANDS

Coconut industry development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Land and Natural Resources. Study under way by Agrar and Hydrotechnik (D). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

EDF SOL 5009 A3a

SOMALIA

Bardheera Dam. Resp. Auth.: Bardheera Dam Authority (BDA). 600 mECU. (Estimated) Dam Project 500 mECU. Powerline to Mogadishu 100 mECU. Funding: EDF, Italy, Germany, France, Saudi Arabia, Abu-Dhabi, Kuwait Funds, FADES, Isl. Dev. Bank. Local. 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 223 000 ha of irrigated agriculture in the Juba Valley, and energy to Mogadishu. Civil works: first int. tender launched in 1984. Transmission lines int. tender in 1986. Equipment: powerhouse main equipment and auxiliary equipment, int. tenders in 1987. Gates, valves, intake equipment, int. tender in 1987. Int. tender with prequalification launched in February 86 for hydraulic tests. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SO 5003 A2a

"Aula Magna" Mogadishu National University. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. ± 2.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.

EDF SO 4015 A6b

Upgrading of the road Afgoi-Shalambot-Goluen. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Works by int. tender in 86. Supervision of works. Studies: AIC. PROGETTI (I). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.

EDF SO 5017 A2d

Grapefruit Development Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.8 mECU. Works supply of vehicles, equipment and rural inputs. T.A.: Agriconsulting (I) and Istituto Sperimentale per l'Agricoltura (I). Int. tender for vehicles launched in March 86. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SO 5009 A3a

Food Early Warning System. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated total cost 4 mECU. EDF ± 3.1 mECU. Supply of meteorological and office equipment and T.A.: Transtec (B). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SO 5015 A8f

North-West agricultural development project. Estimated total cost 36 mECU. EDF: 7.6 mECU, World Bank 14.9 mECU, IFAD 9.9 mECU, local 3.6 mECU. Infrastructural work and supply of equipment and T.A. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SO 5016 A3a

T.A. to the Ministry of Finance, the Central Bank and the Commercial and Savings Bank. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. 1.875 mECU. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SO 5019 A1b

SUDAN

Nuba Mountains Rural Development Project. Interim phase. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 2.200 mECU. Supply of equipment and vehicles by int. tender, T.A. and training. T.A.: Halcrow-ULG (UK). Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SU 5019 A3a

SURINAME

Rice project at Coronie. Resp. Auth.: Ministerie van Landbouw, Veeteelt, Visserij en Bosbouw. 7.650 mECU. Rice production developments. T.A.: EUROCONSULT (NL). Project in execution. 3rd and 5th EDF.

EDF SUR 5002 A3a

Biomass energy project at Wageningen. Resp. Auth.: Government. Installation of an energy generator on the basis of rice husks. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.

EDF SUR 5009 A2a

Artificial Insemination Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries. 0.72 mECU. Building of a new station and provision of equipment and material. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF SUR 5010 A3a

Rehabilitation of the road Burnside-Wageningen. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Planning. Estimated total cost 5.5 mECU. Study to be done: technical methods for the implementation of the pro-

ject: Delft Universteit (NL). Project on appraisal. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF SUR 5011 A2d

SWAZILAND

Rural hydraulics. Resp. Auth.: Rural Water Supply Board. Estimated cost 2.456 m ECU. Study construction, works supervision. 12 villages. Supply of equipment and material. Study and works supervision: Carl Bro (DK). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF SW 5001 A2b

Smallholders Support Project, Credit and Marketing. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.550 mECU. Works, line of credit, T.A. and training. T.A.: Cooper Lybrand (ACP branch). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF SW 5005 A4e

Matsapha Vocational Training College. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education. EDF 3.9 mECU. Construction and equipping of the college. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF SW 5006 A6a

TANZANIA

Mtwara water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals. 5 mECU. Works: drilling of new wells, and constructions. Supply of equipment and T.A. Drilling activities and power supply connections by direct labour. Other works: int. tender in '86. Supplies: int. tender in '86. Supervision of works: G.W.E. (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF TA 5003 A2b

Banana improvement and pest control (Phase 1). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated total cost 3.740 mECU. EDF 3 mECU, local 0.740 mECU. Supply of pesticides, vehicles, equipment by int. tender. T.A. Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF TA 5008 A3a

Ports of Zanzibar and Pemba. Estimated cost 10.17 mECU, T.A. for management, organization, pricing and financial systems, training. Restoration of infrastructure. T.A.: NEDECO (NL). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF TA 5024 A2d

Cooperative Rural Development Bank (CRDB) Project. 3.15 mECU. Provision of equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF TA 5026 A3a

Rehabilitation of Zanzibar Hospitals. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health, Zanzibar. EDF 2.705 mECU. Cofinancing with Italy. Works, supply of equipment and training. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF TA 5017 A7a

TOGO

Enquiry into consumer expenditures. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan, de l'Industrie et de la Réforme Administrative. Estimated total cost 1.3 mECU. EDF 1 mECU, Local 0.3 mECU, T.A. to produce, collect and treat statistical data, training and supply of equipment. T.A.: short-list donc. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF TO 5011 A1e

Rural reafforestation. Estimated cost ± 0.575 mECU. 1.500 ha plantations and 1.500 ha land protection. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 5th EDF.
EDF TO 5014 A3c

★ **Lomé hotel training centre (CFH).** National and regional project (french-speaking countries of the sub-region). 3.450 mECU. Works, training and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 5th Reg. 6th EDF.
EDF TO 6001. REG 5147 A6d

TONGA

Supply of a dredger. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. Estimated cost 0.500 mECU. Technical study: EUROCONSULT (NL). Int. tender foreseen 2nd half '86. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF TG 5002 A2d

Faua Fisheries Harbour. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. Estimated cost 3.3 mECU. Construction of a new fisheries harbour, repair yards, fish market and wholesale store with ice-making equipment. Int. tender for the supply of sheet steel piles launched in November 83 (conditional). Supply of cooling and ice equipment int. tender launched in June 86. Works by direct labour. T.A.: Rhein-Ruhr (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF TG 5001 A3d

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Training programme, health sector. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health and Environment. 1.2 mECU. Training awards, laboratory equipment (sound-meters, chemical chromatographs, spectrometers) by int. tender. Short-term T.A. to coordinate and establish new laboratory. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF TR 5003 A8c

Goat development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 0,750 mECU. Works and supply of equipment. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.
EDF TR 5005 A3a

UGANDA

Kampala-Masaka Road. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. Estimated cost 13 mECU. Reconstruction of 64 km of the road. Int. tender conditional launched in June 86. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF UG 5003 A2d

Karamoja Development Programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. EDF 6 mECU. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF UG 5001 A3a

Support to emergency relief and rehabilitation programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. EDF 5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF UG 5020 B2

WESTERN SAMOA

★ **Afulilo hydro power project.** Estimated total cost 18 mECU. EDF part 7.5 mECU. Construction of a dam, reservoir, penstock, 4 MW power station, 40 km transmission lines, T.A. and training. Cofinancing under discussion with EIB, IDA and Asian Dev. Bank. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF WSO 6001 A2a

ZAIRE

Kalemie port rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Département des Transports et Communications. 6.5 mECU. 2 Int. tenders (conditional) launched in March 84. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. Regional project. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5215 A2d

Butembo-Beni hydro-electrical development. Preliminary study done by Tractionnel (B) on local funds. Detailed economic and technical studies: WLP (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF ZR 5006 A2a

2nd intervention Sysmin. Gecamines Working and SNCZ. EDF part 41 mECU. Supply of mining equipment, machine-tools, engines. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 86. 5th EDF.
EDF ZR-SYS 5001 A4a

ZAMBIA

Animal vaccine unit production. Laboratory construction. Supply of equipment and T.A. Estimated cost 3.79 mECU. EDF 3 mECU, local 0.79 mECU. T.A.: Central Diergeneeskundig (NL). 5th EDF.
EDF ZA 5018 A3a

Mkushi electrification. Estimated cost 6.07 mECU. EDF 3.07 mECU. Cofinancing needed. Study on hand: MERTZ-McLennan (UK). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF ZA 5007 A2a

Animal health improvement. Special hunger programme. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86.
958-ZA 5022 A3a

Rehabilitation of the Zambian Copper & Cobalt Mining Industry. II. Resp. Auth.: Z.C.C.M. Sysmin. 28 mECU, Italy 4.5 mECU. Local 4.9 mECU. EDF part supply of equipment by int. tender. 19 int. tenders launched in the first half 86. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF ZA/SYS/5024 A4a

EEC vehicle repair and transport support programme. Resp. Auth.: ZIMCO. Estimated cost 12.8 mECU. Part supply for trucks and related transport equipment, T.A. control and maintenance services. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF ZA 5025 A2d

Rehabilitation of 3 grain silos. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. NAMBOARD. EDF 7 mECU, Germany F.R. 7 mECU. EDF part works, supplies and work supervision. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF ZA 5026 A3f

ZIMBABWE

Small-holder Coffee and Fruit Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Lands, Resettlement and Rural Development. EDF 4.2 mECU, local 1.65 mECU. T.A.: I.R.F.A. (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF ZIM 5006 A3a

Mashonaland East Smallholder Fruit and Vegetable Programme. Resp. Auth.: Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (ARDA). 2.9 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and materials, T.A. and credit line. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF ZIM 5012 A3a

Rural water supply in South Matabeleland. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Energy, Water Resources and Development. Boring, wells, supply of hand pumps (MEWRD). 4.1 mECU. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF ZIM 5005 A2b

★ **Zimbabwe export development programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Trade and Commerce. Export Promotion Dept. Estimated total cost 6.3 mECU. EDF 4.4 mECU. Sector and market development, human resource development and institutional development and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 6th EDF.
EDF ZIM 6001 A4a

Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT)

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Line of credit to the Aruba Dev. Bank to improve agriculture, livestock and fishery. Resp. Auth.: Departement voor ontwikkelingsamenwerking. Estimated cost 0.3 mECU. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF.
EDF NEA 4003 A5a

Tourism improvement. Curaçao. Phase I. Otrobanda sewerage. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Estimated total cost 5 mECU. EDF 3 mECU, Netherlands 2 mECU. EDF part: sewage, road works, piping. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF NEA 5013 A5c

FALKLAND ISLANDS

Port Stanley Senior School. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Department. 0.364 mECU. Work construction by direct labour, supply of equipment by int. tender. Date financing decision July 86. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF FK 4001-5001 A6d

FRENCH POLYNESIA

Tahiti territorial abattoir. Resp. Auth.: Service de l'Economie Rurale, Papeete (Tahiti). Secrétariat d'Etat des Départements et Territoires d'Outre-Mer, Délégation de la Polynésie Française, Paris. Cofinancing with France. 1.270 mECU. Int. tender launched in July 86. Project in execution. 4th EDF.
EDF POF 4003 A3a

MONTSERAT

Water Supply Project. Resp. Auth.: Montserrat Water Authority and Ministry of Public Works. 1 mECU. Project planning: Short-list already drawn up for restr. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF MON 5001 A2b

PACIFIC OCT

Regional programme rural photovoltaic electrification. Resp. Auth.: SPEC. Estimated total cost 4.365 mECU. EDF 3.184 mECU. T.A.: short-list done for restr. tender. Supplies by int. tender launched in January 85. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5715 A2a

Regional Projects

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CEAO

ESITEX Ségou (Mali). Resp. Auth.: CEAO Secretariat. Management training for textile industry. Complex construction in Ségou. Supply of equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5118 A6d

GUYANA — SURINAME

Guyana — ferry-link. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works and Ministerie van Openbare Werken. Link ferry on Corentine river. 12.1 mECU. Study under way by C.A. Liburd and Ass. + Sescon Group (ACP). Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5602 - 4084 A2d

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF M.R.U. (MANO RIVER UNION)

Telecommunication and Postal Training Institute (TPTI) of the MRU. Resp. Auth.: MRU Secretariat in Freetown. Extensions, supplies and training. Estimated total cost 8.5 mECU. EDF 2.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5104 A6b

NIGER BASIN AUTHORITY

Protection and reforestation in the "Haut Bassin Versant du fleuve Niger en Guinée". Works, supplies and T.A. Estimated total cost 1.5 mECU. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5112 A8f

EQUATORIAL GUINEA — SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE

★ **Improvement of port facilities to develop trade in the Guinea Gulf.** Estimated total cost 2.04 mECU. EDF 0.690 mECU, Germany 1.350 mECU. Works in the port of Bata, T.A. and supply of handling facilities equipment in the port of Sao Tome. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 86. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5222 A2d

ZAIRE — CONGO — GABON — SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE — EQUATORIAL GUINEA — CAMEROON

Fishery development in the Gulf of Guinea. Estimated cost ±5 mECU. T.A. to prepare these projects: Short-list done. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5206 A3d

SENEGAL — MAURITANIA

Establishment of cultivated areas in the Senegal River Valley. Special hunger programme. 2.380 mECU. Project in execution.
958-REG 5140 A3a

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF UDEAC

Sub-Regional Institute for Applied Technology and Planned Economy (ISTA). Resp. Auth.: ISTA Secretariat in Libreville-Gabon. Estimated cost ±6 mECU. Building centre construction and T.A. for 3 actions. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5210 A6b

PACIFIC ACP COUNTRIES

Pacific Regional Tourism Programme. Resp. Auth.: Tourism Council of the South Pacific (TCSP) and SPEC. 3.2 mECU. Study to be done: data base, organization and strategy. Short-list already drawn up for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5714 A5c

Pacific Regional Aircommunications. Stage I. Resp. Auth.: SPEC. 4.6 mECU. Buildings, runways and supply of navigational aids. Date financing decision July 86. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5717 A2d

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CILSS

Provisional survey of natural renewable resources in the Sahel. Resp. Auth.: CILSS Secretariat. Estimated cost 6 mECU. EDF ±2 mECU. Setting up of an observation unit to forecast crop production. Remote sensing by satellite, air survey and ground control. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5116 A8f

Millet, maize, sorghum and niébé project. Resp. Auth.: CILSS Secretariat. Estimated cost 2 mECU. To provide improved varieties for farmers. Local tests. Purchase of vehicles and equipment and to take charge for local tests control staff. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5116 A3a

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF U.A.P.T.

Satellite telecommunications project. Resp. Auth.: U.A.P.T. Secretariat in Brazzaville. R.P.C. Parametric study under way by national organizations of I, UK, F and D. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5307 A2c

INDIAN OCEAN ACP COUNTRIES

Tuna fishing in the Indian Ocean. EDF 7 mECU. Determination of different methods of tuna fishing. Evaluation of resources and T.A. to the countries. Madagascar, Comoros and Mauritius to select models for development. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5504 A3d

★ **Aircraft maintenance centre for indian ocean countries.** Estimated total cost 6.270 mECU. EDF 3.3 mECU. Strengthening of the existing centre in Ivato (Madagascar). Works, supplies and training. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5508 A2d

TANZANIA — ZAMBIA

Tazara Ten Year Development Plan (phase I). Resp. Auth.: Tanzania-Zambia Railway Authority. EDF part 11.7 mECU. Programme to improve maintenance of track and rolling stock, supply of equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5026 A2d

EAST AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Statistical training centre for Eastern Africa in Tanzania. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat of the centre. 2.0 mECU. Widening of the capacity. Construction of class-rooms, offices and housing. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5311 A6b

Kabale-Gatuna Road. Resp. Auth.: Uganda Government. Estimated cost 2.5 mECU. Asphaltting of the road (21 km) up to the Rwanda border. Int. tender with prequalification launched in June 86. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5329 A2d

Kigali-Gatuna-Corridor North. Resp. Auth.: Government of Rwanda. Section road, 22 km at the border between Rwanda and Uganda. Supervision of works: Rhein-Rhur (D). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5332 A2d

CAMEROON — COTE D'IVOIRE — GHANA — MAURITIUS — SENEGAL — ZAIRE

Strengthening of scientific and technical capacities in the field of food and nutrition in Africa. Resp. Auth.: Association des Universités africaines. AUA. 1.5 mECU. T.A., training, supply of equipment, production and diffusion of scientific information. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5054 A3a

AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Campaign against rinderpest in African. Resp. Auth.: OUA and IBAR. Estimated total cost for 2 years 50 mECU. Supply of equipment T.A. vaccines and research. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5007 - 4085 A3a

S.A.D.C.C.

Maseru Container Terminal. Resp. Auth.: Lesotho GOL and SADCC. 1.350 mECU. Construction of container terminal and supply of containers, handling equipment. Study required: detailed design of works. Short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5421 A2d

BOTSWANA — SWAZILAND — ZIMBABWE

Regional Railway Training. Phase II. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5410 A2d

MALAWI — ZAMBIA — ZIMBABWE

Regional Tsetse and Trypanosomiasis Control Programme. Resp. Auth.: Technical and financing responsibility: Zimbabwe national authorizing officer. 19.150 mECU. Works by direct labour. Vehicles, veterinary products, aerial spraying and equipments by int. tender. T.A. by direct agreement. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5420 A3a

CARIBBEAN AND ACP COCOA PRODUCERS

Cocoa Research Unit (CRU), Phase II. Resp. Auth.: CRU in Trinidad. 2.624 mECU. Works, supply of equipments and agricultural inputs, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5043 A3a

MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

EGYPT

Soil improvement programme in Ka-freeel-Sheikh Governorate. Resp. Auth.: Executive Authority for Land Improvement Projects (EALIP). Provisional amount 8 mECU. To reclaim an area of 65 000 acres of saline soil, located in Hamoul district of the Kafre-el-Sheikh Governorate. Short-list already drawn up. Project in execution.
SEM EGT 1001 A3e

Egyptian Renewable Energy Development Organization. EREDO. Resp. Auth.: Egyptian Government. EEC contribution 7.7 mECU. Construction and equipment for the centre. Works and supplies: int. tender with prequalification foreseen in 2nd half 86. T.A.: GET/KFA (D). Int. tender dossier: Phoebus (I).
SEM EGT 1002 A2a

Training Institute for Egyptian Labour Representatives. "Workers University". EEC contribution 1.970 mECU. T.A. and supply of kitchen, cafeteria and laundry equipment by int. tender. Project on appraisal.
SEM EGT A6d

ALGERIA

Training for heavy industry. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie Lourde(MILD). 3.9 mECU. T.A., training, supply of pedagogical equipment. Project in execution.
SEM AL 2003 A6d

Training for Ministry of Public Works. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Direction de la Formation. EEC contribution 2.75 mECU. T.A., training, scholarships and supply of pedagogical equipment. Project in execution.
SEM AL 2002 A6d

Support to the «Ministère de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la recherche scientifique» (MESRS). Resp. Auth.: MESRS. 2.2 mECU. Training and supply of scientific equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal.
SEM AL 2004 A4g

TUNISIA

Date-palm plantations study project in Régime Maatoug. Resp. Auth.: Banque Nationale de Dév. Agricole (B.N.D.A.). 1.9 mECU. Feasibility study, drillings and access roads. Works by direct labour. Study: Short-list done. Project on appraisal.
SEM TUN 2001 A3a

Rural credit project to benefit small holders. Resp. Auth.: B.N.D.A. 17 mECU. Date financing decision July 86.
SEM TUN 2002 A3a

Water resources research and training study. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 1.0 mECU. Supply of soil equipment and data system. T.A. and training. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution.
SEM TUN 2004 A2b

Evaluation of soil resources and their liability to desertification in Southern Tunisia. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 1.2 mECU. EEC 0.400 mECU, local 0.800 mECU. T.A. and training. Supply of specialized equipment. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution.
SEM TUN 2005 A3c

Management improvement in the public irrigated areas in Tunisia. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. EEC contribution 2.5 mECU. Rehabilitation of hydro-electric equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution.
SEM TUN 2006 A3A

T.A. to the "Unités Coopératives de Production Agricole (U.C.P.A.). Resp. Auth.: B.N.D.A. 1.800 mECU. T.A., training and supply of equipment. Project in execution.
SEM TUN 2007 A3a

JORDAN

Faculty of Engineering and Technology, University of Jordan, Phase II. 2 mECU. Supply of equipment, A.T. and training. Int. tender for supplies launched in June 86. Project in execution.
SEM JO 2002 A6a

★ **Sheep improvement project: breeding unit.** Estimated total cost 4.018 mECU. EEC 2.1 mECU. Establishment of a breeding unit to provide improved species of the local breed Awassi to farmers. Project stage: identification.
SEM JO 2004 A3a

SYRIA

ISSAT. Institut Supérieur des Sciences Appliquées et de Technologie. Resp. Auth.: State Planning Commission. Estimated total cost 70.3 mECU. EEC part: supply of teaching and training equipment for the institute and T.A.: 8.250 mECU. Date financing decision July 86.
SEM SYR 2002 A6b

Euphrates drainage and irrigation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Irrigation. General Organization for land development (GOLD). Estimated total cost 134.9 mECU. EEC 10 mECU, EIB 20 mECU, local 104.9 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. 2 int. tenders for supplies and works launched in March 86. Project in execution.
SEM SYR 2003 A3a

Rural Water Supply Suweida Region. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Local Administration and Ministry of Housing and Utilities. Estimated total cost 8.1 mECU. EEC 3.2 mECU, local 4.9 mECU. Project in execution.
SEM SYR 2001 A2b

CYPRUS

Sanitation in Nicosia. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Sewage Board of Nicosia for the south and the Department for Water, Geology and Mining for the north. EEC part 2.4 mECU. Increase of capacity of the treatment plant. For the north by local tender, for the south by int. tender. Date financing decision June 86.
SEM A2b

A.L.A. developing countries ASIA and LATIN AMERICA

BANGLADESH

Small-scale irrigation sector project. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB). Estimated total cost 82 mECU. EEC contribution 12 mECU. Cofinancing with ADB (Asian Dev. Bank). Works, supply of equipment and vehicles, T.A. and supervision. Works: acc. tender. Supplies: int. tender, 2nd half 86.
ALA BD 8112 A3a

Building of storage for fertilizers. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Agricultural Development Corporation (BADC). Cofinancing: EEC and Netherlands. Total cost 4 mECU. EEC 2 mECU Netherlands 2 mECU. EEC part: Works by int. tender. Netherlands part: buildings and T.A.
ALA BD 8201 A3f

Rangpur. Rural Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Central Coordination Committee. (CCC). Total cost 40 mECU. EEC 25.5 mECU, NL 7 mECU, local 6 mECU. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender or direct agreement. Project in execution.
ALA BD A3e

Cotton Development. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Central Coordination Committee (CCC) and Cotton Development Board (CDB). EEC 4.9 mECU. Supply of T.A. training and equipment. Int. tender for supplies launched in May 86. Project in execution.
ALA BD 8504 A3a

CHINA (PEOPLE'S REP.)

Fruit Cultivating and Preservation Techniques. Estimated total cost 4.350 mECU. EEC 1.600 mECU. Cofinancing with Italy. T.A. and transfer of technology. T.A.: Apples: B.D.P.A. (F). Citrus: Media Coop (I). Project in execution.
ALA CHN 8337 A3a

Flood forecasting and management of Beijiing River. Estimated total cost 5.5 mECU. EEC 1.7 mECU T.A. and transfer

of technology. Project in execution. TRACTIONNEL (B).
ALA CHN 8338 A8g

Prawn farming development. Estimated cost 0.700 mECU. Supplies and T.A. T.A.: Fish Farming Int. (UK). Project in execution.
ALA CHN 8341 A3d

Hainan Cashew Development. Resp. Auth.: Prefecture of the Autonomous Department of Li and Miao National Minorities. Estimated total cost 2.350 mECU. EEC 0.800 mECU. Supply of equipment and T.A. T.A.: K.I.T. (NL). Project in execution.
ALA CHN 8340 A3a

Vegetable Seedling Production in Beijing. Estimated cost 1.2 mECU. Supplies and T.A. T.A.: Oranjewoud (NL). Int. tender for supplies launched in July 86. Project in execution.
ALA CHN 8339 A3a

Gansu Sugar Beet Development. Resp. Auth.: Gansu Province Department of Agriculture. EEC contribution 1 mECU. T.A., training and supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 1st half 86.
ALA CHN 8517 A3a

Strengthening of soil and water conservation measures in Sichuan Province. 1.5 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Date financing decision July 86.
ALA CHN 8526 A3a

Improvement of the rubber quality. 0.900 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Date financing decision July 86.
ALA CHN 8527 A3a

INDONESIA

Bali Irrigation Sector Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. DG for Water Resources Development. EEC 12 mECU. ADB ± 37 mECU. Local ± 55 mECU. Rehabilitation and expansion of 50 village-level irrigation schemes, establishment of a water-management training centre, and establishment of climatological stations. T.A. Works: acc. tender. Project in execution.
ALA IND 8114 A3a

INDIA

Development of Water Control Systems for diversification of crops in Maharashtra. Resp. Auth.: Irrigation Department of the Government of Maharashtra. EEC contribution 15 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA IN 8418 A3a

YEMEN

Seed production centre. Estimated cost 5.8 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA YAR A3a

PAKISTAN

Karachi fishing port. Resp. Auth.: Fishery department of the Sind Province. Estimated cost 12 mECU. New facilities: quay, boat repair yard, fish-shed, dredging. Rehabilitation of existing facilities, equipments and TA. TA: Prof. Dr. Lockner & Partners (D). Works and supplies by int. tender launched in June 86. Prequalification.
ALA PAK 8101 A3d

Irrigation project in Palli and Lehri. Resp. Auth.: Department of Irrigation and Agriculture Baluchistan Provincial Government. Estimate ± 10 mECU. Works and infrastructures. Studies for the execution and supervision of works. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86.
ALA PAK 8422 A3a

Rural Electrification. 10 mECU. Date financing decision July 86.
ALA PAK 8522 A2ai

Vocational training. 16 mECU. Date financing decision July 86.
ALA PAK 8518 A6d

NEPAL

Nepal Administrative Staff College. NASC. Resp. Auth. NASC Secretariat. Estimated total cost 6.5 mECU. EEC 5 mECU, U.K. 1.5 mECU. Renovation and construction works, supply of equipment and training. Project in execution.
ALA NEP 8407 A6b

Soil and water conservation in Bagmati Watershed. Special hunger programme. 5.5 mECU. T.A.: I.D.C. (D). Project in execution.
958-NEP 8401 A3a

Arjun Kuhola Irrigation Project. 1.536 mECU. Date financing decision July 86.
ALA NEP 8521 A3e

BHUTAN

Water supply. Resp. Auth.: Inter dep. Commission on water and sanitation. Works by direct labour. 4.5 mECU. Supplies int. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: UNICEF. Project in execution.
ALA BHU A2b

T.A. programme to the Department of Agriculture. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forests. 1.1 mECU. Two experts during 3 years. 1 Rural Development Engineer and 1 agro-economist. Short-list already drawn up for restr. tender. Project in execution.
ALA BHU 8513 A3a

PHILIPPINES

★ **Integrated development project of the Aurora region.** Resp. Auth.: NACIAD. Total estimated cost 12.6 mECU. EEC 10.8 mECU. Irrigation works, feeder roads, reafforestation, supply of equipment and T.A. Project stage: identification.
ALA PHI 8525 A3a

THAILAND

Oilseed crop development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture — Oilseed Project Steering Committee. Total estimated cost 4.2 mECU. EEC 3.3 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. T.A.: Crown Agents (UK).
ALA TH 8203 A3a

Mae Nam Chi River Basin. Water Management Development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. Royal Irrigation Department. Estimated total cost 5 mECU. EEC 4 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Int. tender for supplies launched in July 86. Project in execution.
ALA TH 8412 A3a

Strengthening of planning capacities for diversification and rural development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. 2 mECU. T.A. for coordination, management, training needs, project identification and planning. T.A. for central and peripheral computer system for rural areas. Training and supply of computerized equipment. Short-list done. Project in execution.

ALA TH 8420 A3a

Rural credit and rubber planting. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. 35 mECU. Supply of lines of credit, T.A., training, rural inputs, equipments. Project in execution.

ALA TH 8509 A3a

PACTO ANDINO MEMBER COUNTRIES

Technical cooperation (industry and economic planning). Resp. Auth.: Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena, Lima-Peru. Estimated total Cost: 1.7 mECU. EEC 1.1 mECU. To place experts, equipment and T.A. and training at Junta's disposal. Contracts, T.A. and experts by the Junta and the EEC.

ALA JUN 8107 A4a

Andean Programme for technological development (Rural PADT). Resp. Auth.: Junta del Acuerdo de Cartagena, Lima-Peru. Estimated total Cost: 7.560 mECU. EEC 3.927 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Vehicles purchase: int. tender. T.A.: Short-lists to be drawn up by the EEC and decision by the Junta.

ALA JUN 8108 A3a

Regional programme for technical cooperation: food strategy. Resp. Auth.: JUNAC. EEC contribution 7 mECU for European T.A. and supply of data-computerized equipment by int. tender. Project in execution.

ALA JUN 8406 B1a

Regional programme for technical cooperation: industry and sub-regional exchanges. Resp. Auth.: JUNAC. EEC Contribution 7 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA JUN 8503 A4a

COSTA RICA — HONDURAS — NICARAGUA — PANAMA — DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Latin American qualified nationals reinstatement in 5 Central American coun-

tries. Resp. Auth.: CIM (Comité Intergovernmental pour les migrations). 1.4 mECU. Reinstatement of 75 qualified nationals via CIM. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 86.

ALA CIM 8302 A8b

COLOMBIA

Reconstruction Programme. Resp. Auth.: Corporation de Reconstruction de Cauca. Total cost 5.9 mECU. EEC 3.9 mECU. EEC part: supply of materials and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA CO 8403 A8a

Microprojects programme in the pacific coastal. Line of credit, T.A. and training, EEC contribution 4 mECU and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA CO 8516 A3a

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Integrated rural development pilot project in Western Cibao. 6 mECU. Special hunger programme. Project in execution.

958-DO 8402 A3a

COSTA RICA

Productive projects programme for refugees in Costa Rica. T.A. and line of credit. 3.6 mECU. Project in execution.

ALA CR 8501 A8b

Integrated rural development of the region of OSA/GOLFITO. Total cost 21.635 mECU. EEC 9.95 mECU. Supply of equipment, infrastructural works, maintenance, lines of credit and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA CR 8506 A3a

PANAMA — COSTA RICA — NICARAGUA — HONDURAS — EL SALVADOR — GUATEMALA

Regional programme of technical cooperation for food security. Resp. Auth.: CADESCA (Comité de acción para el desarrollo economico y social de centroamerica — Panama). Total cost 9.07 mECU. EEC 4.82 mECU, France 0.350 mECU, local 3.9 mECU. T.A. training and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA REG 8505 A3a

Regional programme for child survival in Central America. EEC 16.5 mECU, Italy 16 mECU. Supply of T.A., training, equip-

ment, medical equipment and medicines. Date financing decision May 86.

ALA REG 8520 A7a

EL SALVADOR

Rehabilitation Programme. University of El Salvador. Resp. Auth.: U.E.S. Total estimated cost 5 mECU. EEC 3.3 mECU. Italy 1.7 mECU. EEC part: supply of equipment, T.A. and training for Agronomics and partly for Electrotechnology. Italy part: supplies for Electrotechnology, Physics and Mechanics, T.A. and training. Project in execution.

ALA 8519 A6c

ECUADOR

Rural development in the region of the Chambo river. Resp. Auth.: Institut Equatorien des Ressources Hydrauliques (INERHI). EEC 9 mECU. T.A. and training, irrigation works, line of credit, supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA 8508 A3a

BOLIVIA

Flood protection programme. Santa Cruz. EEC 9 mECU, NL 1 mECU. Works, supply of equipment. T.A. for NL. Date financing decision June 86.

ALA 8510 A8g

HONDURAS

Rehabilitation and Maintenance of Feeder Roads in Coffee Producing Areas. Resp. Auth.: Instituto Hondureno de Café (IHCAFE). EEC 2.750 mECU. Supply of T.A. and work construction equipments. Date financing decision July 86.

ALA 8524 A3a

MEXICO

Hospital construction. EEC 5.2 mECU. 144 beds hospital. Works, supplies and supervision. Date financing decision July 86.

ALA 8602 A7a

PERU

Support programme to the agro-pastoral microprojects PAMPA-PUNO. EEC 16 mECU. Supply of T.A., equipments and recurrent expenditures. Int. tender launched in July 86. Project in execution.

ALA 8601 A3a

INTERNATIONAL CALLS FOR TENDER

All international calls for tender (int. tenders) referred to in this Operational Summary are notified in due time in the Official Journal (O.J.) of the European Communities' «S» supplement.

Subscriptions to the O.J. «S» supplement should be addressed to the «Office for Official Publications of the European Communities ». L-2985 Luxembourg. Tel.: 49 00 81.

DELEGATIONS OF THE COMMISSION

In ACP countries

- Angola**
Temporary Adress
Hotel Presidente,
Largo 4 De Favereiro
C.P. 5791 Angola
Tel. 70 005 - 70 336 - 70 490 - 70 312
Telex 3120 HOTANG AN
Attention Mr. O'CUNEEN DELEGATE
- Barbados**
Sunjet House, Fairchild Street
P.O. Box 654 C, Bridgetown.
Tel. 427-4362/429-7103
Telex 2327 DELEGFED WB
BRIDGETOWN
- Benin**
Avenue Roume, Bâtiment administratif
B.P. 910, Cotonou
Tel. 31 26 84/31 26 17
Telex 5257 DELEGFED — COTONOU
- Botswana**
P.O. Box 1253
Gaborone, Botswana
Tel. 4455 - 4456 - 4457
Telex 2403 DECEC GABORONE
- Burkina Faso**
B.P. 352
Ouagadougou
Tel. 336 346/336 348
Telex 5242 DELEGFED UV — OUAGADOUGOU
- Burundi**
Avenue du 13 Octobre
B.P. 103, Bujumbura
Tel. 234 26/238 92
Telex FED BDI 5031 — BUJUMBURA
- Cameroon**
QUARTIER BASTOS
B.P. 847, Yaoundé
Tel. 22 13 87/22 33 67/22 21 49
Telex DELEGFED 8298 KN
YAOUNDE — CAMEROON
- Central African Republic**
Rue de Flandre
B.P. 1298, Bangui
Tel. 61 30 53/61 01 13
Telex 5231 RC DELCOMEU — BANGUI
- Chad**
Concession Caisse Coton. Route de Farcha
BP 552, N'Djamena
Tel. 22 74/22 76
Telex DELEGFED 5245 KD
N'DJAMENA — CHAD
- Congo**
Av. Lyautey
near Hotel Meridien
B.P. 2149, Brazzaville
Tel. 81 38 78/81 37 00
Telex 5257 KG DELEGFED — BRAZZAVILLE
- Côte d'Ivoire**
Immeuble "AZUR" Bd. CROZET, 18
B.P. 1821, Abidjan 01
Tel. 32.24.28 — 33 29 28
Telex 3729 DELCEE — ABIDJAN
- Ethiopia**
Tedla Desta Building
Africa Avenue (Bole Road) 1st Floor
P.O. Box 5570, Addis Ababa
Tel. 15 25 11
Telex 21135 DELEGEUR — ADDIS ABABA
- Gabon**
Quartier Batterie IV
Lotissement des Cocotiers
B.P. 321, Libreville
Tel. 73 22 50
Telex DELEGFED 5511 GO — LIBREVILLE
- Gambia**
10 Cameron Street
P.O. Box 512, Banjul
Tel. 777 — 87 69
Telex 2233 DELCOM GV — BANJUL
- Ghana**
The Round House - 65 Cantonments Road,
Cantonments, Accra
Tél. 774 201 - 774 202
Télex 2069 DELCOM — ACCRA
- Guinea-Bissau**
Rua Eduardo Mandlane 29
Caixa Postal 359, Bissau
Tel. 21 33 60/21 28 78
Telex 264 DELCOM BI
- Guinea**
Commission
Central Mail Department
(Diplomatic Bag Section — B 1/123)
Rue de la Loi 200, 1049 Bruxelles
Tel. 46 13 25/46 13 82
(Conakry/Guinea)
Telex 628 DELEUR CKY
- Guyana**
64 B Middle Street South Cummingsburg
P.O. Box 10847, Georgetown
Tel. 63 963 - 62 615 - 64 004 - 65 424
Telex 2258 DELEG GY — GEORGETOWN
- Jamaica**
Mutual Life Center, 2nd Floor
Oxford Rd/Old Hope Rd
P.O. Box 435, Kingston 5
Tel. 92 - 93030/92 - 93031/92 - 93032
Telex 2391 DELEGEC KINGSTON 5
- Kenya**
National Bank Building
Harambee Avenue
P.O. Box 45119, Nairobi
Tel 33 35 92
Telex 22302 DELEGFED — NAIROBI
- Lesotho**
P.O. Box MS 518
Maseru, 100, Lesotho
Tel. 313 726
Telex 4351 LO DELEGEUR — MASERU
- Liberia**
34 Payne Avenue Sinkor
P.O. Box 3049, Monrovia
Tel. 26 22 78
Telex 44358 DELEGFED LI — MONROVIA
- Madagascar**
Immeuble Ny Havana - 67 hectares
B.P. 746, Antananarivo
Tel. 242 16
Telex 22327 DELFED MG —
ANTANANARIVO
- Malawi**
Lingadzi House
P.O. Box 30102, Capital City
Lilongwe 3
Tel. 73 02 55/73 01 73/73 05 93
Telex 4260 DELEGEUR MI — LILONGWE
- Mali**
Rue Guégau - Badalabougou
B.P. 115 Bamako
Tel. 22 23 56/22 20 65
Telex 526 DELEGFED — BAMAHO
- Mauritania**
Îlot V, Lot 24
B.P. 213, Nouakchott
Tel. 527 24/527 32
Telex 549 DELEG MTN — NOUAKCHOTT
- Mauritius**
61/63 route Floreal Vacoas
P.O. Box 10 Vacoas
Tel. 86 50 61/86 50 62/86 50 63
Telex 4282 DELCEC IW VACOAS
- Mozambique**
C.P. 1306 — MAPUTO
522/533 Avenida do Zimbabwe — MAPUTO
Tel. : 74 44 73 — 74 40 92/93/94
Telex 6-146 CCE MO
Atencao Sr. Antonio Marongiu
Delegado da Comissao da CEE
NA RPM
- Niger**
B.P. 10388, Niamey
Tel. 73 23 60/73 27 73/73 48 32
Telex 5267 NI DELEGFED — NIAMEY
- Nigeria**
4, Idown Taylor Str. Victoria Island
PM Bag 12767, Lagos
Tel. 61 78 52/61 08 57
Telex 21868 DELCOM NG LAGOS — NIGERIA
- Pacific (Fiji, Samoa, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu)**
Dominion House, 3rd Floor
Private Mail Bag, GPO, Suva, Fidji
Tel. 31 36 33
Telex 2311 DELECOM FJ — SUVA
- Papua New Guinea**
Pacific View Appartments
8th Floor
Pruth Street, Korobosea
P.O. Box 1264, BOROKO
Tel. 25 92 22
Telex NE 22307 DELEUR — PORT MORESBY
- Rwanda**
Avenue Député Kamuzinzi, 14
B.P. 515, Kigali
Tel 55 86/55 89
Telex 515 DELCOMEUR RW KIGALI
- Senegal**
Avenue Albert Sarraut 57 (2^e étage)
B.P. 3345, Dakar
Tel. 21 13 24/21 57 77/21 79 75
Telex 440 DELEGSE — DAKAR
- Sierra Leone**
Wesley House
44 George Street
P.O. Box 1399, Freetown
Tel. 239 75 — 230 25
Telex 3203 DELFED SL — FREETOWN
- Somalia**
Via Makka Al Mukarram, n° Z-A6/17
P.O. Box 943, Mogadiscio
Tel. 21 118/21 049/811 18
Telex 628 FED MOG SM — MOGADISCIO
- Sudan**
11, Street No 13, New Extension, Khartoum
Tel. 444 85/445 10/449 10/412 43
Telex 24054 DELSU SD — KHARTOUM
- Suriname**
Dr S. Redmondstraat 239
P.O. Box 484, Paramaribo
Tel. 993 22
Telex 192 DELEGFED SN
- Swaziland**
P.O. Box A.36
Mbabane, Swaziland
Tel 42908/42018
Telex 2133 WD
DELEGFED MBABANE
- Tanzania**
Extelcoms House, 9th Floor
Samora Avenue
P.O. Box 9514, Dar es Salaam
Tel. 311 51/311 52
Telex 41353 DELCOMEUR —
DAR ES SALAAM
- Togo**
Rue de Calais 22
B.P. 1657, Lomé
Tel. 21 36 62/21 08 32
Telex 5267 DELEFEDTO-LOMÉ

Trinidad and Tobago

2, Champs Elysées
Long Circular, Maraval
P.O. Box 1148, Port of Spain
Tel. 62-26628/62-20591
Telex 22421 DELFED WG

Uganda

Uganda Commercial Bank Building,
Plot 12
Kampala Road, 5th Floor
P.O. Box 5244, Kampala
Tel. 33 303/4/5
Telex 61139 DELEUR — UGA —
KAMPALA

Zaire

71, Av. des Trois Z
B.P. 2000, Kinshasa
Tel. 327 18
Telex 21560 DECEKIN ZR KINSHASA

Zambia

P.O. Box 34871
Plot 4899
Brentwood Drive
Lusaka
Tel. 25 09 06 - 25 07 11 - 25 11 40
Telex 40440 DECEC ZA — LUSAKA

Zimbabwe

P.O. Box 4252
Stability House (10th Floor)
65 Samora Machel Ave.
Harare
Tel. 70.7 1.20/39/40/43
Telex 4.811 ZW HARARE — ZIMBABWE

In the OCT

Netherlands Antilles

Mgr Kieckensweg 24
P.O. Box 822
Willemstad, Curaçao
Tel. 6250 84 — 6264 33
Telex 1089 DELEG NA —
WILLEMSTAD

In the Mediterranean Countries

Algeria

36, Rue Arezki Abri
Hydra-16300 Alger
Tel. 59 08 22 — 59 09 25 — 59 09 42
Telex 52246 EURAL DZ — ALGERIE

Egypt

4 Gezira Street, 8th Floor
Cairo-Zamalek
Tel. 340 83 88 - 349 93 93
Telex 94258 EUROP UN CAIRO
EGYPT

Israel

2 rehov ibn gvirol, Eliahu House
10th floor TEL AVIV
Tel. 03-26 62 12/26 62 13
Telex 34 21 08 DELEG — IL

Jordan

Shmeisani Wadi Sagra Circle, Amman
P.O. Box 926 794
Tel. 66 81 91/66 81 92 Amman
Telex 22 260 DELEUR JO AMMAN
JORDAN

Lebanon

Immeuble Duraffourd, Avenue de Paris, Bey-
routh
B.P. 11-4008, Beyrouth
Tel. 36 30 30/31/32
Telex DELEUR 23307 LE BEYROUTH

Morocco

4 Zankat Jaafar As Sadik
B.P. 1302, Rabat-Agdal
Tel. 742 95/739 15
Telex 32620 - RABAT

Syria

73 rue Rachid
P.O. Box 11269, Damascus
Tel. 33 52 91/33 00 01
Telex 412919 DELCOM SY

Tunisia

Avenue Jugurtha 21
B.P. 3, Belvédère - Tunis
Tel. 28 85 35
Telex 13596 — TUNIS

In A.L.A. countries

India (HQ of the Delegation in South Asia)

YMCA Building 5th floor
Jaisingh Road
New Delhi 110001
Tel. 34 42 22 — 35 04 30
Telex 31/61315 EURO-IN

Offices of the Commission

In ACP countries

Antigua & Barbuda

c/o Antigua Commercial Bank
St. Mary's and Thames Streets
St. John's, Antigua W.I.
Tél. (046)22970
Telex 2074 DELCEC AK

Bahamas

Frederick House, 2nd floor
Frederick Str.
P.O. Box N-3246, Nassau
Tel. (32)55850
Telex DELEGEC NS 310

Belize

P.O. Box 907
Bella Vista 85, Belize City

Cape-Verde

Prédio «Galeries»
4° andar,
apartamento D-C.P. 122 - Praia
Tel. 61.37.50
Telex 6071 DELCE CV

Comores

B.P. 559 - Moroni
Tel. 2710 — Telex 212 DELCEC KO

Djibouti

Plateau du Serpent
Boulevard du Maréchal Joffre
B.P. 2477 Djibouti
Tel. 35 2615
Telex 5894 DELCOM DJ

Equatorial Guinea

B.P. 7779 - Malabo
Tel. 2944 - 2945

Grenada

Old Fort
P.O. Box 5, St. George's
Tel. 3561 — Télex 3431 CWBUR GA
(Attn. EEC Delegation)

Solomon Islands

NPF Plaza
P.O. Box 844 — Honiara
Tel. 22 765
Telex 66370 — DELECSI

São Tomé & Príncipe

B.P. 132 - São Tomé
Tel. (239) 21780
Telex (0967) 224

Indonesia

Wisma Metropolitan I, 3rd floor
29, J.P. Jend. Sudirman
P.O. Box 34 KBYMP Jakarta 12 920 B
Tel. 578 24 74/5
Telex 62 788 DAMORE IA

Thailand (HQ of the Delegation in South-East Asia)

Thai Military Bank Bldg,
9th & 10th Flrs
34, Phya Thai Road
Bangkok
Tel. 282 1452
Telex 82764 COMEUBK TH

Venezuela (HQ of the Delegation for Latin America)

Quinta Bienvenida
Valle Arriba, Calle Colibri
Distrito Sucre
Caracas
Tel. 92 50 56/92 39 67/91 47 07
Telex 26336 COMEU VC

Seychelles

P.O. Box 530 - Victoria Mahé
Tel 23 940
Telex 2213 DELCAM SZ

Tonga

Ramanlal Building
Taufa'ahau Road
Nuku Alofa
Tel 21820
Telex 66207 (OFFCEC TS)

Vanuatu

Bougainville House,
Suite no 6, Bougainville Street
P.O. Box 442, Port-Vila
Tel. 2501
Telex 1093

Western Samoa

c/o Private Mail Bag
Chief Post Office, Apia
Tel 20070
Telex 204 CECOF SX

In A.L.A. countries

Pakistan

House n° 13 Masjid Road, F 6/3,
Islamabad
P.O. Box 1608
Tel (051) 82 18 28 - 82 26 04
Telex 54044 COMEU PK

Bangladesh

House CES E 109
Road 128, Gulshan — Dharka - 12
Tel. 60 05 64
Telex 642501, CECO BJ

EEC Information Office

Turkey

15, Kuleli Sokak
Gazi Osman Paça, Ankara
Tél. 27 61 45/27 61 46
Télex 42819 ATBE TR

Jacques GIRI — *L'Afrique en Panne — 25 ans de développement* (African breakdown — 25 years of development) — Editions Karthala, 22-24 Bvd Arago, Paris — 204 pages — 1986

History has proved René Dumont right. He started saying black Africa was off to a bad start back in the 1960s and now, 25 years after independence, every survey of every aspect of Africa points to the fact that farming has failed, the natural environment is deteriorating, there is an industrial development crisis, mining is in decline and there are energy problems. Africa is disappearing from the world trade scene and its debts are such that bankruptcy is only just round the corner.

We all thought that scattering the African landscape with roads and building schools and universities and ministries and sinking wells fitted with solar pumps in the villages was what development was all about. But the magic formula of giving Africa the trappings of development in the hope that development would then actually occur did not work all that well...

Now a lot of people are wondering how the famine and the virtually continent-wide crisis happened. Was it the natural conditions? Was it the international environment or incoherent policies by incompetent governments? Or are the roots of the crisis to be found in the African societies themselves?

This book describes the machinery that has functioned over the past quarter-century. It shows the considerable coherence of policies in agriculture, industry and the public sector with the interests of the ruling classes and the way they have led the continent to deadlock. But he concludes that, although Africa certainly has its misfortunes today, things could be better tomorrow.

Jacques Giri, a polytechnic graduate and mining engineer, has been monitoring African affairs since 1957. As a cooperation officer, a top official in the Cooperation Ministry and a consultant, he has had every opportunity to get to grips with the problems of mining, industry, energy and rural development in Africa and this book relates both his personal experience and 25 years of development.

○○○

Al IMFELD — *La civilisation du sucre* (Sugar civilization). Editions Favren, 29 rue du Bourg, CM-1002, Lausanne, Switzerland — 232 pages — FF 89 — 1985

Sugar is a permanent part of our everyday lives. It is a sweetener and a poisoner at one and the same time. It hides in countless foods from the baby's tea to our breakfast-time cocoa and the children love it. Magically, it fosters the illusion of a peaceful way of life. Yet it makes us fat and ill and it rots our teeth.

Al Imfeld uncovers many hidden implications. The international sugar market is chaotic and implacable. Everyone in the sugar war is against everyone else and they all lose. The consumers lose and the states and nations of the Third World lose too. Sugar is a bomb primed to explode.

○○○

The Challenges of Drought by The Relief and Rehabilitation Commission, Addis Ababa — 280 pages — £9.95 — 1985

Ethiopia, one of the oldest nation states in the world, with a virtually uninterrupted record of independence, has faced natural disasters throughout its long history. It is only in recent years, however, that there has been a fully-organised institutional response to the consequences of droughts and other natural calamities with the establishment of the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission at the onset of the Ethiopian Revolution, just over a decade ago.

Since its inception, the RRC has not only brought relief to millions of people in drought-affected areas of Ethiopia, but has also paid special attention to the rehabilitation of drought victims in order to enable them to become once again fully self-sufficient and productive members of society.

The RRC is publishing this book at a time when the country is again suffering from the effects of a severe drought, and when world attention has been sharply focused on Ethiopia's drought problems and on the country's immediate and longer-term needs in the sectors of relief and rehabilitation. An absorbing account of the history of drought in Ethiopia, and of the activities of the RRC during the last decade, *The Challenges of Drought* will give the reader a new insight into the problems faced by one African country having to deal with the effects of drought, and into some of the successes that have been achieved.

Previous studies of the famine in Ethiopia have tended to emphasize the role of foreign agencies in relief work. This book is the first detailed study of the endeavours of Ethiopia's own indigenous relief agency, the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission — which has been working steadily for more than 10 years to counteract the effects of the recurring drought which the country faces. Because it is written by Ethiopian professionals drawing on unique experience in the field, and because it views the problems from an Ethiopian perspective, it throws a new light on the important subjects of drought and famine.

THE COURIER

AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC
— EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

PUBLISHER

Dieter Frisch

Commission
of the European Communities

200, rue de la Loi
1049-BRUSSELS
(Belgium)

Tel. 235 11 11 (switchboard)
Telex COMEURBRU 21877

EDITOR

Marie-Hélène Birindelli

DEPUTY EDITOR

Lucien Pagni

ASSISTANT EDITORS

Roger De Backer
Amadou Traoré
Augustine Oyowe
Myfanwy van de Velde
Tom Glaser

SECRETARIAT:

Mary Beatty (235 75 87)
Viviane Jacquet (235 27 19)

CIRCULATION

Margriet van der Werf (235 76 39)

