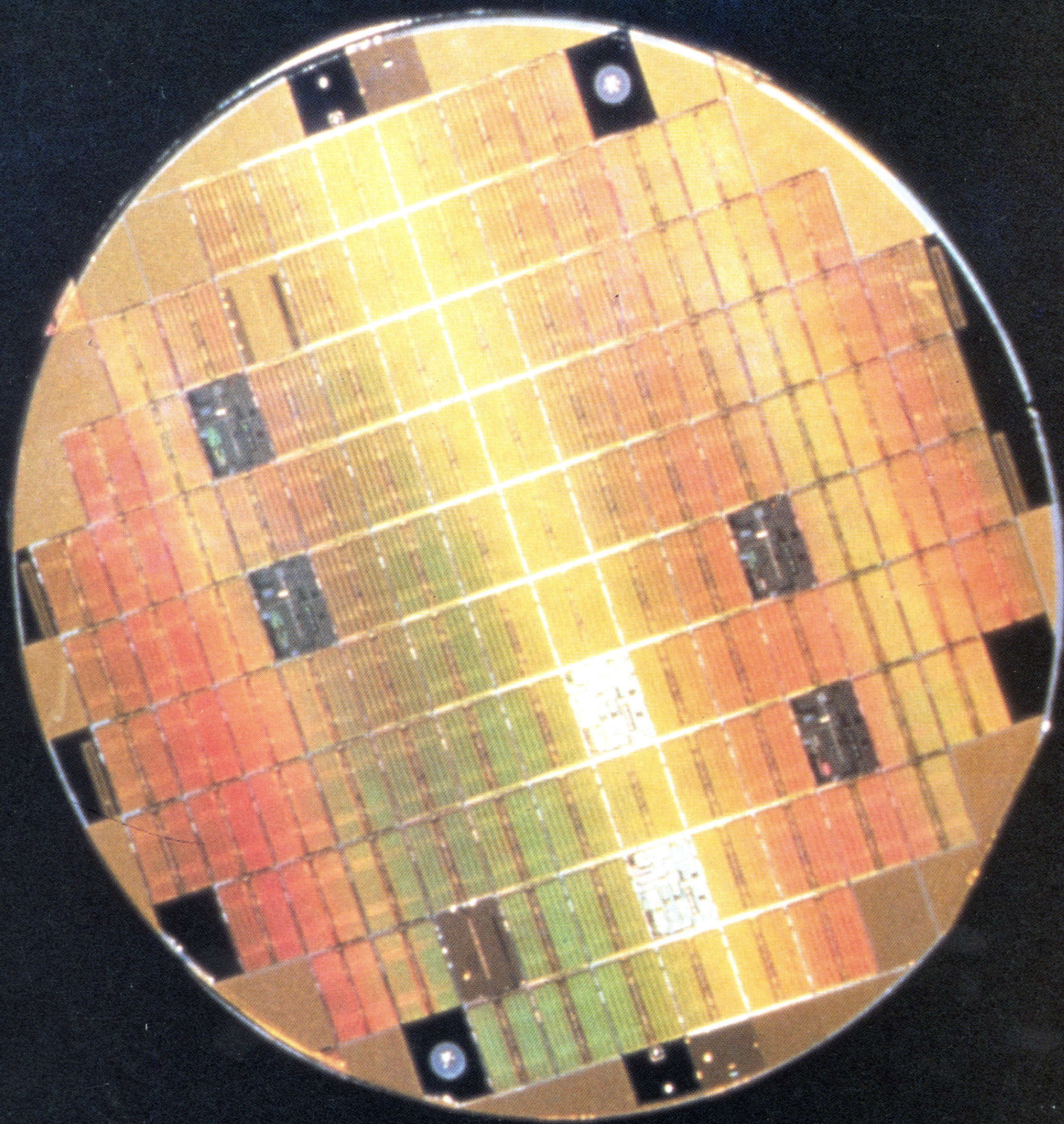


The Courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC - EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Published every two months

No 113 - JANUARY-FEBRUARY 1989



**INFORMATICS
AND DEVELOPMENT**

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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

General Secretariat
 of the ACP Group
 of States

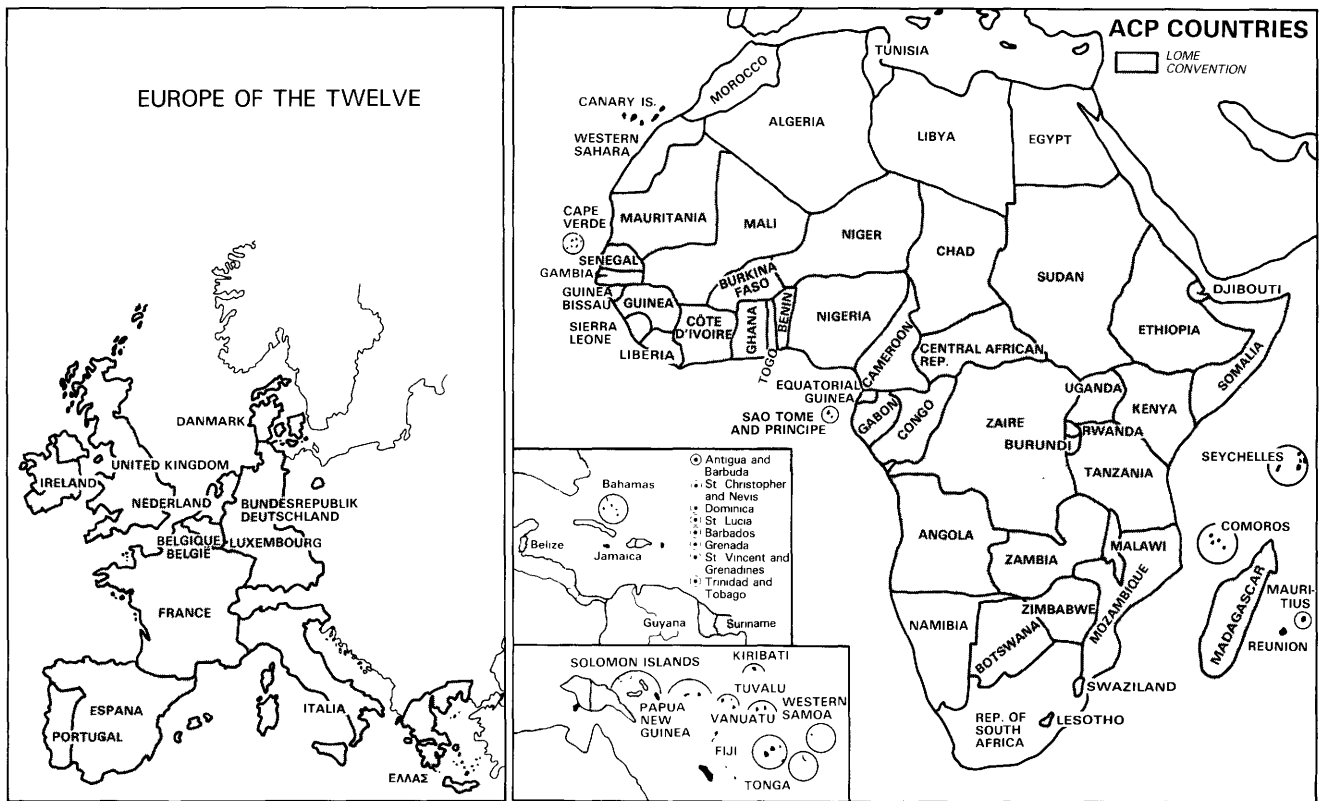
Avenue Georges Henri, 451
 1200 Brussels
 Belgium
 Tel.: 733 96 00

THE 66 ACP STATES

ANGOLA
ANTIGUA & BARBUDA
BAHAMAS
BARBADOS
BELIZE
BENIN
BOTSWANA
BURKINA FASO
BURUNDI
CAMEROON
CAPE VERDE
CENTRAL AFRICAN
REPUBLIC
CHAD
COMOROS
CONGO
CÔTE D'IVOIRE
DJIBOUTI
DOMINICA
EQUATORIAL GUINEA
ETHIOPIA
FIJI
GABON

GAMBIA
GHANA
GRENADA
GUINEA
GUINEA BISSAU
GUYANA
JAMAICA
KENYA
KIRIBATI
LESOTHO
LIBERIA
MADAGASCAR
MALAWI
MALI
MAURITANIA
MAURITIUS
MOZAMBIQUE
NIGER
NIGERIA
PAPUA NEW GUINEA
RWANDA
ST. CHRISTOPHER & NEVIS
ST. LUCIA

ST. VINCENT & THE
GRENADINES
SAO TOME & PRINCIPE
SENEGAL
SEYCHELLES
SIERRA LEONE
SOLOMON ISLANDS
SOMALIA
SUDAN
SURINAME
SWAZILAND
TANZANIA
TOGO
TONGA
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO
TUVALU
UGANDA
WESTERN SAMOA
VANUATU
ZAIRE
ZAMBIA
ZIMBABWE



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.

Cover page: This layer of silicium (real diameter: 200 mm) contains powerful 4-megabytes chips (an essential component of a computer); such a chip has a storage capacity equivalent to 400 double-space typed pages (which is about the content of *The Courier*!); its 4 194 304 "bytes" are "read" by the computer in a mere quarter of a second (photo IBM).

Happy New Year 1989!

MEETING POINT: François Roelants du Vivier

Over the past few months the ACP States, and the world at large, discovered to their dismay that a number of African states had received deliveries of toxic wastes on their territories—or were about to do so. The man who revealed these “deals”, the MEP François Roelants du Vivier, spoke to us of his battle to ensure that such scandals never recur. **Pages 2 to 5.**



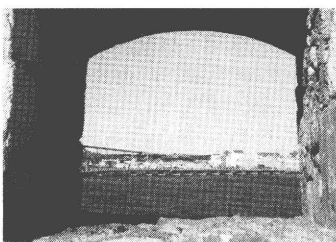
COUNTRY REPORTS



VANUATU: The Republic of Vanuatu—the former Condominium of the New Hebrides—would seem to be an exception amongst the ACP Pacific island states, in that it is rich in land and sparsely populated. But, as elsewhere, its economic development is marked by the opposition of traditionalism and modernism. In striving for balanced economic and social progress, the government is trying to blend the two, while at the same time giving high priority to the safeguarding of the Melanesian culture as the basis of the country's development. **Pages 18 to 30.**

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES:

made up of five islands—Curaçao, Bonaire, Sint Maarten, Saba and Sint Eustatius—the Netherlands Antilles is an autonomous, self-governing region within the Kingdom of the Netherlands. In the 1980s the islands faced major economic difficulties and now appear to be in a transitional phase, looking for new equilibria in both the political and the economic spheres. **Pages 31 to 46.**



DOSSIER: Informatics and development



Informatics and development have, in fact, been linked since the 1960s, when computers first started to be used in Third World countries. What is the present state of the art, what assistance can informatics bring, within what parameters, what constraints, what sectors and for what kinds of work? These are some of the questions which, by using examples, this Dossier attempts to answer. **Pages 50 to 82.**

The Courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC – EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

No 113 – JANUARY-FEBRUARY 1989

CONTENTS

MEETING POINT

2. François Roelants du Vivier, MEP and President of the European Environment Alliance

ACP-EEC

6. 1992 and the Caribbean
9. The sound of trouble
10. What to expect from Lomé? Neither the best nor the worst!

ACP

14. Support for grass roots initiative – The case of Niamfunké, Mali

COUNTRY REPORTS

18. **VANUATU:** An economy caught between culture and modernism
23. Interview with Prime Minister Walter Lini
27. Profile
28. EEC-Vanuatu cooperation
31. **NETHERLANDS ANTILLES:** Living apart... together
40. Interview with Prime Minister Maria Liberia-Peters
44. Profile
45. EEC-Netherlands Antilles cooperation

EUROPE

47. Social policy: looking ahead to 1992
49. **Eurostat:** Tanzania and Niger in figures

DOSSIER: Informatics and development

50. Informatics and development
56. Computers and the Third World today
63. Computer boom in Côte d'Ivoire
67. What is the good of computing in Mozambique?
67. Computerised databases: ENVIRON, IDEAS
69. U-SP – A new tool for processing survey data
72. Computerisation of tax administration in Jamaica
74. The Sahel's AGRHYMET programme
76. Micro-informatics and statistical enquiry
79. A newspaper... thanks to the computer
80. Training in informatics

CLOSE-UP

83. Aid for refugees under Lomé III
86. Sectoral import programmes: a Zambian example

DEVELOPING WORLD

88. Coordinating aid – problems and perspectives
91. South Korea, model for development?

CULTURE AND THE ARTS

94. African art: its role and major functions

CTA-BULLETIN

97. Fighting manioc mosaic virus
99. THE COURIER'S MAILBAG
100. ANALYTICAL INDEX (1988)
102. BOOKS

NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)

CDI – Industrial cooperation

OPERATIONAL SUMMARY (blue pages)



**François Roelants du Vivier,
MEP:**

“THE SOUTH MUSTN'T BE THE RUBBISH TIP OF THE NORTH”

Over the past two years, the ecological organisation, Greenpeace claims, more than 3 656 000 tons of waste has been taken from the industrialised countries to the developing world. But every year, the 140 firms involved in this very special kind of trade vainly try and dump 17 490 000 tons of Western European and American waste in the countries of the South. This includes highly toxic chemical, non-biodegradable substances such as incinerator ash and industrial sludge, pesticides, old medicines and polymer waste that can contaminate plant life, soil and the water table for decades, if not centuries.

► *You often say that what you revealed in April was only the tip of the iceberg. Do you think that toxic waste that has escaped all investigation could now be in Africa?*

— Yes, I think it would be wrong to forget that, alongside everything we revealed, plenty of other things have happened and it's getting to be an ordinary event, if you like, for toxic waste produced in the industrialised countries—Europe is the case in point—to be exported to Africa. But I think—and this is exactly what I wanted to draw the Europeans' attention to—that there is nothing ordinary about exports of this kind. And by ordinary I mean that these aren't ex-

ports of toxic waste such as go on inside the European Community—where of course there are exports that are intolerable and unacceptable because the conditions aren't right or there is fraud or something... although of course these are countries which are in a position to defend themselves.

If toxic waste is exported say from the Netherlands to France, France has authorities, technicians and laboratories. It has a whole series of means it can use.

What you have to realise here—and this is why it is such a scandal—is that there are no such means at all when toxic waste is exported to Africa. The traffic is particularly nasty between North and South because it is based on a structural weakness in the matter of technology and technicians. And particularly on exploitation of the

Antigua & Barbuda, Peru, Suriname, Benin and Guinea Bissau have all rejected suggestions about accepting more than 1 million tons of waste per annum in their territories, the last two and Congo after a vigorous denunciation campaign, with supporting evidence, by François Roelants du Vivier, Belgian MEP and President of the European Environment Alliance. Du Vivier has just brought out a book () on North-South toxic waste movements. The Courier met him recently in Brussels.*

economic situation of the countries in question.

“... We have to stay on our guard, because it is still very tempting to some African leaders to collect large sums of money”.

► *But now that the OAU has officially taken a stand and the contracts have been denounced and lots of countries have brought in laws purely and simply banning waste imports, isn't the problem solved?*

— Obviously you could think that it had all been sorted out. But I think we have to stay on our guard, because it is still very tempting to some African leaders to collect large sums of money in exchange for what seem like imports that don't pose any major

(*) *Les Vaisseaux du poison — La route des déchets toxiques (Poison Vessels — The Toxic Waste Route) — Editions Sang de la Terre, 30, rue Chapital, 75009, Paris, France.*

problems. We have to be careful, which is why I think the best weapon for both North and South is information. And I think that once, as you emphasised, bodies as important as the Organisation of African Unity adopt very firm resolutions on the subject, anyone who fails to apply them is going to be frowned upon in Africa. And if they think there are maybe people around them who are ready to make the information public, they will hesitate not once, but twice. Conditions like this make the waste traffic more and more difficult—although that doesn't mean it will stop. So we have to stay on our guard.

► *So you recommend just banning waste exports to the South?*

— That's right! After due consideration of all the possibilities offered by an international convention regulating the transfer of waste from North to South, I decided that, whatever the conditions, there is no guarantee that they would be met in the South when you know how difficult it is to meet them in the North. Any such convention could easily just be hypocritical, because it contained conditions which could never be fulfilled in practice. So it's better to be clear—and to respond to the wishes of the OAU which said it wanted no more of this waste in Africa. We have to respect that. That's the first thing. And then we have to be realistic—which is to say we have to adapt to reality, which means that we mustn't forget that 99% of the toxic waste on our planet is produced by the industrialised world. So the problem is ours and it is up to us to find the answer. So if Italy, say, takes a unilateral decision to ban toxic waste exports to countries other than those in the OECD, I think that is a step forward—and a big one.

► *But you yourself have written that it isn't politically very realistic to imagine that this ban would actually be adopted, as things stand in the countries of the Community at the moment...*

— You are right. At the moment, in the countries of the Community, in the Council of Ministers—not the European Parliament, since, as you know, it has already taken up position on this—there isn't a majority in favour. In the beginning, The Nether-

lands took up a very hard line on the ban, and now they've been joined by Italy and Germany. These are three countries which carry weight in the negotiations. There are others still to be convinced, obviously, and there is still an important campaign to wage in the Community—which is why, even if, basically, I am fighting for a straight ban, I am quite realistic about seeking ways of getting a similar result to a ban without actually calling it a ban. This is why my book⁽¹⁾ suggests various methods and conditions which affect the costs and ensure that there is no longer any point in transferring the North's waste to the South.

► *But what about the Community's reluctance over the ban? Why can't we have a ban, especially when we know full well that there are no facilities for dealing with the waste in Africa? Is it because we know that there isn't a satisfactory answer to the treatment of the half billion tons of toxic waste that's piling up?*

— For the moment, I should say that it is in fact more a question of playing for time. Because all of a sudden, the European Governments realised that this toxic waste production was increasing exponentially—double in 10 years—and they had no facilities, or at least very few, to handle the waste in their own countries. So they are playing for time, so they can adapt. A world convention banning the exploitation of this waste is on the drawing board. But don't forget it still has to be ratified. As we both know, it takes time to get a convention signed and even longer to get it ratified. I just think that there is a transitional period of a few years. It's there and it can be an opportunity for European industry to adapt in two directions—upstream, by organising production that isn't so dirty, cleaner I should say, and downstream, by setting up the relevant elimination structures at production level.

► *Some people say that the Community regulations are sufficient to ensure that waste isn't exported to countries that don't have the facilities to handle them...*

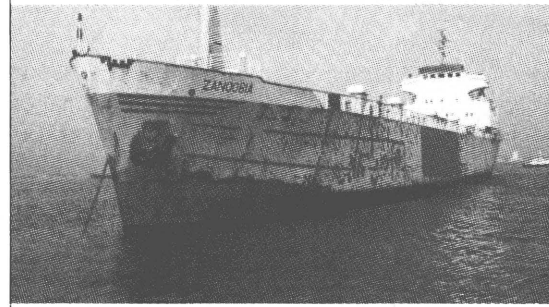
— Experience, I think, has shown the opposite. The idea of the people

(1) Op. cit.

François Roelants du Vivier

Les vaisseaux du poison

La route des déchets toxiques



Préface d'Alain Bombard

◆ *Sang de la terre*

who devised this procedure was that if we have two specific conditions—informed prior consent and adequate technical capacity in the country of import—the problems would be avoided. But it didn't avoid anything, alas. On the contrary, it gave a kind of official rubber stamp, I should say, to the whole thing.

► *Because the Member States didn't ratify the directive...*

— Yes. But even when these precautions are taken... Take an example involving the USA and Congo. The exporter had notified the American Environmental Protection Agency, which used exactly the same procedure as the European Community, completely officially and then the agency made an official request, through its ambassador, to see whether the Republic of Congo was willing to take the waste. It said it was, so the waste was sent off. The procedure wasn't enough to stop the export. Then the Congolese Government said that it wouldn't have given its agreement if it had known what was involved and that it was civil servants in

the administration who had misused their powers and so on. Personally, I don't want to go into details. But there is one thing I can see and that is that, at all events, this waste would certainly have been exported to Congo if there had been no publicity. So I don't think the barrier was strong enough. And as for adequate technical capacity—whatever does that mean?

► *There aren't any incinerators in Africa!*

— Right. None at all. But, apparently, sending rubbish to Africa doesn't raise any eyebrows, although as far as I am concerned, there's no adequate technical capacity there in the literal meaning of the term. What it means is that the condition on paper doesn't apply in fact. That's experience for you. And that's why I think the people who thought they had devised brakes to stop these exports were in good faith and that it was what actually happened that taught us it wasn't enough.

► *You just said that an international agreement was being drawn up in the UN. How can it help?*

— First of all, I don't think this agreement should just cover the transport of waste, because that is the starting point. I know the USA is very keen on sticking just to that, but there are more and more European and ACP voices now calling for a broader convention which ultimately deals with the management of waste and which can be used as the basis for a number of protocols, one on transport and another on the transfer of information, training and technology, for example. So several things could be negotiated and adopted in more detail than the very general convention we are thinking about at the moment. So obviously—there was enough said about it at the seminar here the other day⁽¹⁾—there has to be a convention, but it will be what the Governments make of it! And of course, the political will must be expressed. So particularly at these preliminary discussions, the States which have shown an interest—and I am thinking of the African States here—have to make themselves heard. They have to be involved in the

discussion. That's a fundamental fact. If they aren't, what will happen is that there will be just the industrialised countries trying to clear their consciences, I am afraid, by laying down various conditions which show public opinion that they are in good faith and that they don't want to promote this kind of traffic, but which don't actually stop them from doing so in practice.

"... I think it is absolutely fundamental for there to be a special protocol to the Convention currently under discussion, one that covers the particular problem of waste".

► *You are also suggesting that the Lomé negotiators create a permanent structure to deal with waste issues, aren't you?*

— Absolutely. Because I think that the transfer of waste from the industrialised nations to the non-industrialised ones is a problem. Nonetheless, the problem of toxic waste in general is still very important for the countries of the South too, even though they are currently only producing very small amounts themselves. The important thing is that they have the relevant technical facilities and the technicians—particularly technicians, I should say—to handle this immense problem. It is important, in a spirit of interdependence, for the industrialised countries to provide aid to train technicians so there are not just the actual facilities in the field, but proper control and use of them too.

Then there have to be protocols between the countries in the various major zones. Why can't say, ECOWAS have a regional agreement on the problem of waste in its part of the world? It would be idiotic to imagine that there were a number of sophisticated waste disposal units in each of these countries where waste is still produced in such small quantities, so it is more intelligent to get organised on an international basis. In this particular case, the Secretariat of the Convention would have the job of facilitating this kind of regional agreement and of ensuring that the transfer of waste from one region to another or one country to another was done ac-

ording to a number of very specific rules. I would go so far as to call this secretariat a high authority. That's may be better, because it really has to have authority.

► *So it would be another Lomé institution alongside the CDI, the CTA and the Joint Assembly, Would it?*

— No it wouldn't, because there are two things. I think that there has to be a high authority at international level, as part of the UN environmental programme, that's for sure. And then we have a special framework, we Europeans and the ACPs, and that is the Lomé Convention and, in this framework, I think it is absolutely fundamental for there to be a special protocol to the Convention currently under discussion, one that covers the particular problem of waste and even the industrial environment in general—subjects which Lomé hasn't covered so far. Lomé covers the natural side of the environment, but now there are lots of other problems too, even if only the ACPs' internal problems about their local industry. And there is the whole issue which has just cropped up again, not just of the waste produced in the North but, I should say, the export of polluting industries. Because that's an indirect way of taking toxic waste there.

► *That hasn't happened, has it?*

— It was no accident that Bhopal was in India! You have to realise that some countries—and I mean the countries of Latin America—want to host firms, even if these firms are too polluting to be allowed to set up in Europe, because they bring in foreign currency and work. They may well be tempted to do that with an eye to short-term economic considerations.

► *Are the negotiators keen on this idea? Do you think it will be taken up?*

— In any case, I think this toxic waste issue has suddenly awakened people to the fact that the problem was more serious than they thought. And that led some African governments to say that, well, the environmental problems were not problems of the North alone and not just problems of the birds and the flowers and the plants. What we have now, if you like, is a very rapid change in outlook and

(1) Seminar on the North-South export of dangerous waste which the European Parliament organised on 8 November 1988.

it has to be integrated into the Convention they are negotiating at the moment. It's not all that obvious, but I have reason to hope that it really will be taken up and that positive steps will be taken — that is to say that there really will be an ACP-EEC body to manage the protocol annexed to the Lomé Convention.

► *What happened to the people in Europe who negotiated the Guinea and Nigeria contracts, for example? We know that those responsible in Africa were arrested, at least that's what people say.*

— Those arrested in Africa were the ones who were on the spot. You know how it goes. A local firm in the importing country does the dirty work — if that's the way to put it — and collects the waste at the port and, in the best cases, tips it somewhere in an unknown place. But there are other companies up the line who protect each other. The heads of the so-called umbrella companies, which are usually based in tax havens like Lichtenstein and Gibraltar and the Isle of Man, are well out of it and, where the contracts have worked, they have made a lot of money. These are the people who escape justice because, as you know, there is nothing illegal about the exports. I am the first to regret it, but there is nothing they can be charged with. If you can manage to prove that products found in the South come from, say, industries in my country, Belgium, well, we have a law that says that whoever produces the waste is responsible for it from the manufacturing stage right through to elimination. So you could close down the business which was responsible. But of course the guarantees of secrecy and the lack of any transparency between these companies is considerable and, so far, although we have been able to work out which the umbrella companies were — and they are often set up just for one transaction and then dissolved and another one formed — we have never been able to find out which chemical firms they were. Journalists have been investigating it for months, but they haven't come up with anything yet. I hope they will, because it is essentially the chemical sector which is to blame here, which is behind this traffic and producing the waste.

► *In the case of the Seveso waste discovered in France in 1983, Hoffman-Laroche paid, didn't it, because it couldn't deny that it had produced it. Isn't there anyone who could pay for the decontamination in the case of Nigeria and Guinea, where serious, long-lasting pollution occurred?*

— Indeed it did and the African leaders should realise that in exchange for a few million dollars, they've got a problem which will be there for generations to solve, because, obviously, the people who brought the waste have



The Courier

“African leaders should realise that, in exchange for a few million dollars, they've got a problem which will be there for generations to solve”

disappeared and, even with a lot of good will, it will be very difficult to get any international arbitration whereby the countries in question can get compensation. There's no point pretending it isn't difficult to find out who is responsible. With these cases where things have been discovered, well, you know what is happening. The firms which exported the waste are saying that they didn't produce it, so they aren't responsible and, what's more, that when people send the waste back — and there are lawsuits going on in Italy about this — they aren't even sure it is the waste they sent in the first place. There's been a mix-up, maybe, as their drums were one colour and there's one of another colour, they say. So there's lots of quibbling and the court cases can go on forever. There'll never be any compensation, because the system is so well organ-

ised that you can never find the person ultimately responsible.

“... the right way of getting rid of waste is to deal with it as near as possible to the place where it was produced”.

► *The European Environment Alliance, the association whose spokesman you are, shouldn't find it difficult to make itself heard by the European Governments, because some of your founder members are in very important posts, aren't they? One of them is Minister of the Environment in the French Government even...*

— Absolutely... And I'm delighted that someone said recently that, ultimately, the best way, the right way, of getting rid of waste is to deal with it as near as possible to the place where it was produced. That's plain common sense, I think, for even inside a country, whichever one it is, transporting waste always means an extra risk over and above the risk of production and elimination. So the more we can treat waste right near where it is produced, the better it is. It's obvious. And this means that any transport is an extra risk, whether it's 2 km or 10 000 km. That's wisdom. And I think that Brice Lalonde, to give him his name, hopes — and I entirely agree with him — that his country and the European countries indeed, will join in a kind of general agreement with the African countries, in particular to transfer technology and training in this field. Because you have to be able to provide your own defence. That's often where the problem lies. All the contracts we have denounced contain things like “samples of the waste shall be examined by recognised laboratories...”. That's a laugh. Who's going to do the checking? Which labs in the host countries have got the facilities to investigate? That all has to be provided too, so that every African country that is likely to have, say, fraudulent exports to cope with — you mustn't forget that, even if there is a ban, there will always be people to try and get round it — can defend itself and take action against the guilty parties in full knowledge of the facts. ◦

Interview by
Amadou TRAORET.



1992 and the Caribbean

by Tony FAIRCLOUGH(*)

Less than two weeks before the formal opening of the negotiations for a successor Convention to Lomé III, the West India Committee hosted a conference in London, attended by Ministers and senior officials from the Caribbean, the Commission, the UK and the Commonwealth Secretariat, on the theme "1992 and the Caribbean". The Single European Market represents a challenge and an opportunity, not only in terms of economic potential, but in bargaining positions for the Convention itself, and the Caribbean ACPs were determined not to let the opportunity slip. Mr Fairclough, Deputy Director General for Development, was present and wrote this report on the often stormy meeting for The Courier.

The West India Committee which is incorporated by Royal Charter, has a 280-year history of interest in, and concern for, the Caribbean. It seeks to improve and develop relations between the United Kingdom and all the countries of the Caribbean and to encourage UK/European participation in the development of the region through investment, joint ventures and two-way trade. It works closely with the private sector in Europe and the Caribbean and with Governments and government agencies to stimulate and develop programmes that encourage economic growth.

It was thus entirely in line with its remit that, given current concern about the external effects of the completion in 1992 of the Community's internal market, the Committee decided to take advantage of the presence in Europe on other business of a considerable number of Commonwealth Caribbean Prime Ministers and Ministers to invite them, and a distinguished group of over 200 people, to take part in intensive discussions on the opportunities and problems that 1992 might bring for Caribbean ACP countries.

The purpose of the Conference held on 30 September and 1 October 1988 was to examine the implications of 1992 for the Caribbean region, to identify specific problem areas, and, having formed a consensus on issues of common concern, to investigate in depth practical ways in which problems could be resolved. From the outset the Conference focussed very much—perhaps understandably—on potential problems related to specific commodities of importance to the Caribbean and to such matters as rules of origin. But it was encouraging that, in addition, a good deal of effort was devoted to examining the opportunities for the Caribbean which the com-



Lancaster House in London, the venue of the conference

pletion of the Community's internal market might create and to considering the scope that would exist for expanding the transformation of primary products, for the development of manufacturing and services, and for the expansion of tourism.

If 1992 was the principal theme of the Conference, a related theme of equal importance was that of the Lomé Convention. The fact that negotiations for renewal of the present Convention were about to start was in everyone's mind and was much referred to during the Conference. In this connection it was of particular importance that both Carl Greenidge, Guyana's Minister of Finance and President of the ACP side at the formal opening, a few days later in Luxembourg, of the negotiations for the renewal of the Convention, and Mr Edwin Carrington, the ACP Secretary-General, both participated in the Conference and both gave major addresses to it.

Mr Suratgar, Chairman of the West India Committee, placed great emphasis on the need for the Caribbean region to find means of generating high growth rates and rapid progress in export performance and, in this context, to approach 1992 as an "enormous window of opportunity" to be seized. Mr Eggar, Britain's Parliamentary Under Secretary of State at the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, having set out, in very strong terms, Britain's commitment to the Community and to 1992, was equally firm in stressing her commitment also to support for Caribbean interests.

Mr Carrington laid stress on the fact that 25 years of preferential treatment from the EEC had not enabled a single ACP State to climb into the league of newly industrialising countries. "The word 'manufactures' is alien to the Lomé Convention" he alleged, claiming that aid had gone largely to agriculture and infrastructure in the past, and that it seemed to be more linked to structural adjustment for the future. And he went on to express his concern that the current Uruguay Round of GATT negotiations would further erode even that margin which the ACPs did have. He viewed with foreboding the Commission's optimistic stance that what the ACPs would lose in preferential margins with Europe

(*) Deputy Director-General for Development.

would be compensated for by freer trade with other parts of the world, and he lamented the ACPs' scant room for manoeuvre in poetic terms: "We are caught somewhere in between — between a rock and a hard place".

I for my part underlined the fact that the completion of the single market will not lead to a closing of doors against the outside world and that it

will not lead the Community to question its international obligations: the single market of 1992 will remain an open market and the Community will remain a reliable partner for the developing countries.

Moreover the vigour of the single market will benefit the Community's international partners. It will not only facilitate their access to an enlarged market, but also make a decisive con-

tribution towards the growth of international trade and thus play an important role in stimulating the world economy as a whole.

However, it has to be recognised that the completion of the single market could lead to certain difficulties especially for developing countries, and that there are undoubtedly fears — for example, that the operation of the internal market itself might disturb traditional trade flows or that a tightening up of European standards might make access to the Community market more difficult.

The Community is fully aware, in approaching 1992, of its international obligations, including Lomé, and will fully respect them. Furthermore, the Community will remain attentive to the problems which might arise for ACP countries from the completion of the internal market, it will inform them if any specific problem should arise and it will consult the ACPs, if necessary, in accordance with the relevant provisions of the Lomé Convention.

These points have all been strongly reinforced subsequently: the Commission's announcement in mid-October of the principles which will determine its approach to 1992 so far as the external impacts are concerned makes clear that it will be founded on the commitment that 1992 Europe will be a "Europe World Partner" — open to other countries; expecting, however, an equal openness by its partners, but conscious also of the differences between partner countries and committed not to "ask the developing countries to make concessions which are beyond their means"; and in particular committed to the principles of the Lomé Convention in this respect.

Reassured—or not—by the rather imprecise assurances that we were able to give, the Conference then went on to discuss the more specific trade matters of concern to the Caribbean countries — bananas, sugar, rice, rum, rules of origin. Here we were able to be more precise — so far as sugar and rice are concerned they are both already covered by Community regimes within the framework of the Lomé Convention, which are fully compatible with the internal market; thus 1992, as such, will have no effect on existing arrangements. The question is

An action plan

A broad consensus developed among the participants on the principles involved.

(1) The single European market offered dynamic opportunities as well as dangers. Fear of change should not be a deterrent to exploiting the opportunities or negotiating acceptable adjustments.

(2) EEC assistance was needed in a number of fields to help the Caribbean to realise those opportunities.

(3) Agricultural products remained of vital interest and the *status quo* must be preserved whilst positive consultations took place with the EEC on how existing benefits should remain unimpaired or bettered.

For their part the Caribbean states represented could take the following steps:

- cooperate with the European Commission in consultations aimed at finding an acceptable arrangements for bananas, especially from the Windward Islands, within the single market whilst retaining the *status quo* until a better solution is found;
- whilst seeking to safeguard the position of their traditional exports, to diversify production and, following the example of Dominica, develop new products and add value to agricultural raw materials;
- enable the educational and industrial systems to absorb new technologies;
- press for a change of emphasis in "Lomé IV" from infrastructure to greater support for development of industry, tourism and services through investment, technology, encouragement of the private sector and manpower training;

— encourage the ACP to act as a coherent group within all the forthcoming negotiations;

— facilitate intra-Caribbean cooperation to encourage investment in tourism and transport, in particular through eliminating restrictions on movement generally and through the setting up of CARICOM companies and joint ventures with EEC partners to compete in the new EEC market; and

— pursue the development of financial and professional services offered by increased tourism, industrial, real estate and marketing activities.

The EEC and its Member States should:

— consider a single licensing system for dollar bananas, perhaps coupled with a 20% levy;

— act on air transport agreements to bring down the cost of air freight inhibiting diversification;

— consolidate European marketing information to aid the development of new products;

— act to reduce excess production of beet sugar and export subsidies which depress world prices;

— be prepared to revise the regulations governing Rules of Origin and derogations therefrom;

— accelerate EEC-wide trade mark legislation to cover Caribbean products within the single market;

— give a legal product definition of what constitutes rum;

— provide adequate sources of equity and venture capital, coupled with soft loans through the CDB, which will assist in attracting commercial funds;

— adapt the role of the EIB to this task and enable it to cooperate more fully with more entrepreneurial institutions such as the CDC. ○



Banana production in Dominica.

The focus of the conference was on bananas, not because the other matters were regarded as unimportant, but because the problems were clearest in relation to this product

more complicated so far as bananas and rum are concerned, and rules of origin will certainly be a matter for discussion in the negotiations in the next Convention.

If the focus was on bananas it was not because the other matters were regarded as unimportant, but simply because the problems were clearest in relation to bananas. The Conference in fact devoted a lot of its time to this issue — of key importance for the Windward Islands and for other ACP producers in the Caribbean (and also, let us not forget, for other ACP producers elsewhere in the world).

At all events, on this key commodity, the problem is simply stated even if the solution is anything but simple.

The present regime applied within the Community as regards imports of bananas is certainly *not* compatible with the objectives of the internal market; it is based on divergent national legislation and largely excludes free circulation of bananas within the Community. For example, the UK protects the imports of bananas from the Caribbean against the import of “dollar” bananas; France does the same for her own production in the DOMs and for imports from Côte d’Ivoire and Cameroon; Italy for im-

ports from Somalia, etc. Other Member States also protect their own production (Greece, Portugal) and Spain the production of the Canary Islands. All Member States apply custom duties on the import of bananas from the dollar area, but Germany is benefitting from a duty-free quota which covers its total consumption.

All these disparities and this compartmentalisation of the Community market will have to disappear and it will be necessary, in the context of 1992, to establish a common regime which is applicable without any distinction throughout the Community.

The Commission made quite plain at this Conference that the *objectives* of the Banana Protocol are not necessarily incompatible with the objectives of the internal market — so long as it is understood that the different national markets will be replaced by one single Community market. It will therefore be the task of the Community — and the Community will without any doubt consult the ACPs on this matter — to establish a new regime which is both compatible with the objectives of the internal market and is also in accordance with our international obligations and in particular with our obligations vis-à-vis the ACP countries. And at the Conference, an invitation was extended to Europe’s

Caribbean ACP partners to come up with any ideas that they might have as to how this reconciliation can best be achieved.

From the Caribbean side the response to the banana question was communicated very clearly by Miss Eugenia Charles, the Prime Minister of Dominica. In effect she recognised the fact that the Community would complete its internal market by 1992; and that this would imply many changes. But so far as the Banana Protocol to Lomé III is concerned (and also the other trade arrangements within the framework of the Convention that are beneficial to the ACP countries), she made it quite plain that the ACPs regard them as *acquis* and that they looked to the Community to ensure that the regime after 1992 would be at least as advantageous to the ACP countries as are the present arrangements.

However, she was also quite clear in emphasising that the Caribbean countries could not and should not simply go on relying on the production of their traditional exports, assisted by preferential arrangements; but that there were, for them also, many challenges — a challenge to improve efficiency and quality in these traditional sectors; and a much greater challenge in the fields of diversification; transformation of products; and the promotion of industry, services and tourism.

This double emphasis—on the need for continued protection for traditional exports coupled with a robust determination to expand and diversify the economies of the Caribbean countries—ran throughout the Conference and was, in effect, its central message. Three working groups went into considerable detail as to specific measures needed and these were reflected in the Conclusions (see Box) which the secretariat produced before the Conference dispersed.

ACP countries in the Caribbean will certainly negotiate toughly, both in relation to 1992 and in the context of the successor Convention to Lomé III, to protect traditional exports and advantages. But if the Lancaster House Conference is anything to go by, they will also be open to new possibilities and ready to seize the opportunities that 1992 will generate. ○ A.J.F.

The sound of trouble

by A. ROWLAND and T. GLASER (*)

In the early 1960s, just as the majority of ACP countries were entering their first years of independence, the introduction of commercial jet aircraft created a new source of complaint in the developed world. Jet aircraft proved to be far noisier than their propeller-driven predecessors, and with the explosion of mass tourism in the United States and Europe as the "Golden Sixties" advanced, there were far more jet aircraft in the skies, and most especially, around the airports. The public outcry led to the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) setting up a committee on aircraft noise in 1968, whose recommendations were enshrined in an international agreement in 1970. In 1977 the standards of aeroplane noise were revised to make them even more strict. In 1980, the Community adopted a directive which effectively banned certain categories of aircraft (outlined in the international agreement of 1970) from landing in Europe from a certain date. But what has this to do with ACP countries, it may be asked? Only this—that a majority of ACP coun-



A BAe 146 of Air Zimbabwe, an ultra-modern and ultra-quiet aircraft of the sort Europe is trying to encourage

tries, with so many more pressing calls on State funds, and beset by so many economic problems, tend to fly aircraft whose presence in Europe will not be tolerated after 31 December 1989, putting at risk the fragile foothold which ACP countries have in the field of international aviation.

The Sheep and the Goats

The ICAO's committee on aircraft noise distinguished between three main groups of aircraft. They are as follows:

- **Group 1.** Those without certificates. All the aircraft in this group will have received their Certificate of Airworthiness before 1 January 1969 and comprise many of the "historic" names of civil aviation, such as the Boeings 707, 727 and 737, the DC-8 and DC-9, the Caravelle, the VC-10, Trident and BAC 1-11.

- **Group 2.** Those aircraft whose prototypes received their Certificate of Airworthiness between 1 February 1969 and before 6 October 1977 (when the new, and more stringent, limits on aircraft noise were included in the noise annex of the Convention on International Civil Aviation). This group includes those aircraft of Group 1 which were either manufactured after 1 January 1976 or which have been modified to bring their noise levels down to the accepted

standard of the second group. Aircraft falling into this category include the Boeing 747 (most marks) the DC-10, the Lockheed Tristar and the Airbus A-300.

- **Group 3.** Those aircraft which received Certificates of Airworthiness after 6 October 1977 and which have to meet a higher standard of noiseless flight than those in Group 2. These include the Boeing 757, Boeing 767, the BAe 146 and the Airbus A 320. It happens that the Group 3 standards are also met by the earlier A 300 and A 310 Airbus-buses, the Lockheed Tristar and the Boeing 737-300 series, which although technically in Group 2 (because of their age) can be considered as being in Group 3.

The air fleets of Africa

At a recent meeting in Paris between the European and African Civil Aviation Conferences, it was made clear that an accurate and up-to-date inventory of the air fleets of Africa was not available, and would only be forthcoming during 1989. However, using data available on British Aerospace's "Worfleet"

computer data base, it soon becomes clear that some of Africa's airlines run the risk of being banned from the skies over Europe from 1990 on.

Four examples should suffice here.

1. **Air Afrique.** Air Afrique flies a fleet of aircraft more than half of which will not be affected. It has three Airbus 300s, which meet the requirements of Group 3, and three DC 10s which meet the requirements of Group 2. But its two DC 8s and its Boeing 727 are in Group 1 and would not be allowed.

2. **Kenya Airways.** This airline flies three Airbus 300s (Group 3) and the rest of its fleet is out of the running as far as Europe is concerned, since they are all in Group 1. They include a Boeing 720, a DC-9 and three Boeing 707s.

3. **TAAG-Angola.** This airline will effectively be banned from Europe if it does not re-equip. It flies eight Boeing 707s and five Boeing 737s, all in Group 1.

4. **Ethiopian Airlines.** With three Boeing 767s, Ethiopian Airlines is

(*) Mr Rowland is an official of the Directorate-General for the Environment and Consumer Protection.

safely in Group 3, but it also flies two Boeing 707s, three Boeing 720s, three Boeing 727s and a Boeing 737. These are all in Group 1.

Some implications

The EEC has, since 1980, reacted to the problem of aircraft noise by adopting its own regulations. These effectively ban Group 1 aircraft from European airports after 31 December 1989. The next step, but one which is a very long way away, would be to propose that, as far as Community airlines are concerned, no more Group 2 aircraft should be added to existing fleets. But in no case is the Community ready to abandon the use of its own, very largely Group 2, aircraft.

In practice, the Community must look after the interests of its own citizens, and the banning of Group 1 aircraft will reduce noise levels around Europe's airports. But what will now happen to African fleet operators? Obviously, there is considerable scope for switching the aircraft around—the Group 1 aircraft could fly to destinations where control of noise is not as strictly enforced. But where this cannot be done, African airlines face a dilemma—the cost of new aircraft is prohibitive, something like \$25 million, and air links with Europe are essential.

Countries like Kenya and Côte d'Ivoire have a flourishing export trade in exotic fruits and out-of-season vegetables which are all transported by air. Others have burgeoning tourist industries which require the air links established. One way out is to lease modern aircraft, a method that is low on capital costs and attractive for companies with a high profile. Another method would be to seek out the increasing number of Group 2 aircraft coming onto the market, as competitive pressure forces European companies to invest in the most modern technology. But for Africa's airlines the new Community rules do mean a re-think of their aircraft purchasing policies, a problem with re-routing their older aircraft, and a commercial headache. There are times, thus, when less noise sounds like trouble. ○

A.R. & T.G.

What to expect from Lomé? Neither the best nor the worst!

by Paule BOUVIER (*)

The Lomé Conventions are glorified by some as models for North-South relations or markers along the road to a new international economic order, and decried by others as tools of western imperialism and instruments of the *status quo*. But we feel that neither the indignity of the one nor the excessive honour of the other is right.

The ambitious aims of the Conventions

Formulating an objective judgment on the Conventions and their results means first emphasising that the aims of the agreement must form the frame of reference in which such a judgment is to be made. The first thing to say is that the aims of the Conventions are extremely ambitious. Take Lomé III. The preamble indeed stresses that the signatories are: "Resolved to step up their common efforts to contribute towards international co-operation and to the solution of international problems of economic, social, intellectual and humanitarian nature, in conformity with the aspirations of the international community towards the establishment of a new, more just and more balanced economic order... (and) to make, through their co-operation, a significant contribution to the economic development and social progress of the ACP States and to the greater well-being of their populations".

Article 1 states that the Contracting Parties have concluded the agreement "in order to promote and expedite the economic, cultural and social development of the ACP States and to consolidate and diversify their relations in a spirit of solidarity and mutual interest".

These declarations of intent lead us to a second remark — that the crisis in many ACP countries at the moment is

adequate proof that the Conventions have been neither a driving force of their development nor a catalyst of their trade expansion. Which, of course, reinforces the most negative criticisms levelled against them.

But these remarks trigger questions and, first of all, are such aims compatible with the functions the Conventions in fact perform in the ACP States?

This is where we have to remember that the Conventions have, on a number of occasions, stressed that the ACPs are exclusively responsible for determining and implementing their own development strategies. So the cooperation schemes the Conventions run in many sectors of activity have to be seen, essentially, as back-up and support policies, as Ghebray Berhane⁽¹⁾ said. In this, they are no different from any other cooperation policy, but, as support machinery, they are obviously contingent upon the substratum on which they have been grafted. So they are primarily complements. Some observers and a number of the articles of principle on which the Conventions are based have exaggerated their scope and potential for action and altered the image offered to outside opinion, thereby opening the door to abuse — which further emphasises the discrepancy between the actual potential of the Conventions and the glorified picture all-too-often painted of them.

Backing, not substitution

This brings us to a second question. What field of action can the Conventions hope to cover? In terms of trade, the non-reciprocal free trade system only constitutes a possibility, as has often been pointed out. Withdrawal of customs duties, taxes of equivalent effect and quotas, even accompanied by the projected trade promotion schemes, is only a market access facility. It does not, as such, trigger a proc-

(*) Paule Bouvier, who teaches at the Free University of Brussels, is the author of: "L'Europe et la coopération au développement — Un bilan, la Convention de Lomé", Institut d'Études Européennes et Institut de Sociologie, Editions de l'Université, Brussels, 1980, 191 pages.

(1) Interview with Ghebray Berhane, Ethiopian Ambassador, in the Courier, No 105, September-October 1987, p. 11.

ess of trade expansion — which very much depends on national economic policies and the ability to corner parts of the market. So it is the political will and the know-how of the economic operators which control the game. The Conventions can back them up in this, certainly. It is even their job to do so, but there is no way they can substitute for them. All they do is offer a potential on which the ACPs have to capitalise.

When it comes to technical and financial cooperation, the Conventions offer the ACPs a range of means which are allocated by special procedures. There is particular emphasis on exchanges of views between ACP and EEC representatives, although, as Article 215(1) makes clear: "The operations financed by the Community, which are complementary to the efforts of the ACP States, shall be integrated into the economic and social development plans and programmes of the said States and shall tie in with the objectives and priorities which they set at both national and regional level". EDF- and EIB-financed projects and programmes are, and can only be, ways of consolidating, diversifying, amplifying and accelerating the development strategies run by the national Governments. It is they who have to channel the funds and use all or part of them. By 31 December 1985, the combined decisions under the 5th EDF were for something like ECU 3 600 million of a total of ECU 4 700 m — so ECU 1 100 m was still available⁽²⁾. It therefore seems reasonable to conclude that, even as a back-up system, Lomé's potential is under-utilised. And the capacity of the GSP is not fully used either, rates of utilisation (in the OECD system) having always been lower than 50%⁽³⁾.

Limited nature of Stabex

Stabex is further illustration of the limited nature of Convention machinery. Although the claims the Group of 77 has made at the various UNC-

(2) Commission communication to the Court of Auditors, the European Parliament and the Council. Balance sheets and accounts of the 3rd, 4th and 5th EDFs for 1985, Commission of the European Communities, COM(86)177 final, Brussels, 26 March 1986, p. 76.

(3) "Les préférences tarifaires généralisées des pays de l'OCDE; un impact limité et concentré" Problèmes économiques, la Documentation Française, No 1839, 14 September 1983, p. 18.

Table 1
Commitments by multilateral organisations (1986) —
Concessional and non-concessional contributions *
(\$ million)

Organisations	Concessional contributions	Non-concessional contributions
IBRD	—	13 469
IDA	3 373	—
IFC	—	641
Inter-American Development Bank	296	2 676
African Development Bank	—	1 034
African Development Fund	586	—
Asian Development Bank	633	1 368
Caribbean Development Bank	37	17
Council of Europe	6	330
EDF	1 877	376
UN	3 052	—
IFAD	156	—
Arab Funds (OPEC)	427	861
Total	10 443	20 772

Source: Cooperation for Development, 1987 report, OECD, Paris 1988, p. 233.
* For all developing countries — Ed.

TADs relate to the market commodity price indexing, the system in fact comes in neither upstream of the market, nor on the market, but downstream of it. And maybe they would like it, but the European partners, bound by the rules of international trade, are unable to affect those operating standards on their own or within the framework of their relations with the ACPs. The aims of the Uruguay Round when it comes to liberalising and expanding trade for all countries, particularly the least developed of them, are confirmation of this. Some people already complain that the Community is failing to abide by these rules when it discriminates in favour of the ACPs and against other third countries on the developing nations list. The financial transfers which Stabex makes when export earnings drop only work *a posteriori*, when the full round of commercial operations has been completed. Although the philosophy of the system indeed is, as Article 147(1) says, to help safeguard the purchasing power of the local people, the ACPs are not, thanks to paragraph 2 of that Article, bound to channel Stabex resources into the sector showing the export earnings drop. A

(4) Adrian P. Hewitt, Summary report on the overall impact of Stabex operations in the ACPs from 1975 to 1979, based on 10 case studies, final report, February 1982, Overseas Development Institute, London, pp. 40-42 & P. 97.

Commission survey of 10 ACPs which had received 42 transfers showed that the vast majority of the funds obtained through the system were used outside the sector on which the application was based. In only one case had the whole lot gone to the affected sector.

The report concluded that Stabex's implicit aim of financing a policy of sectoral stability or recovery has almost never been achieved and that, practically speaking, transfers have never been made to the producers of the agricultural product behind the application. Although in Lomé III, the information on how Stabex transfers are used which the ACPs have to provide are part of a more stringent procedure than before, there are no really strict obligations here.

So there is a conclusion to be drawn. As insurance against drops in export earnings, Stabex has no real corrective function. It cannot provide answers for the structural or cyclical imbalance of ACP trade, any more than health insurance can cure the disease or accident insurance help avoid accidents. And, to the extent that Adrian Hewitt's remarks⁽⁴⁾ are borne out, the insurance cover is in many cases for the State and not the actual producers.

Detractors of the system thus have the way open to point to the perverse

effects which Stabex, to their mind, is likely to produce — putting a brake on processing, delaying industrialisation, interfering with trade between the ACPs and so on. Without wishing to go into this any further, it is reasonable to suggest that additional machinery specifically designed to diversify

production or change crops for which the market prospects are poor would no doubt help avoid some of the risks inherent in the system. However, and without even considering the financial restrictions of the system (it must be remembered that there was not enough money to cover all the eligible

applications in 1978, '80, '81 or '87), it seems obvious that Stabex, as it stands, is no stimulus when it comes to diversifying agricultural activity.

Financial means to be relativised

In addition to these traits of the Convention, there are the limits with-in which the Lomé system functions attendant on the safeguard clauses, the Common Agricultural Policy and the protective measures authorised on grounds of morality, order, security or health (Article 132) including the size of the amounts allocated to the EDF and the EIB, the derogations to free trade arrangements, the impediments to the system tied to the rules of origin, the Stabex application arrangements (restricted list of products, low level of processing of these products, exclusive consideration, barring derogation, of ACP-EEC trade and so on).

Compare the means at the EDF's disposal with those from other multilateral sources and it also emerges that its possibilities of action have to be relativised, too. The OECD suggests that multilateral aid in 1986 broke down as set out in Table I.

These data suggest that the EDF commitments represent less than one fifth of the total concessional contributions and less than one tenth of total concessional plus non-concessional contributions. The commitments from the World Bank and the International Development Association between them come to more than seven times the EDF contribution. The European contributions are largely in the form of grants (\$ 1 787 million out of \$ 1 877 million in 1986), of course, a factor which has to be taken into account, and they go mainly to the ACPs. However, take official aid payments to sub-Saharan Africa the same year and the conclusions are no different. The OECD has provided the details in Table II.

The table shows that, as far as multilateral aid is concerned, EDF payments to Sub-Saharan Africa represent less than a quarter of the total and 52% of its own aid programmes and that these same amounts do not even come to a fifth of total bilateral commitments from the eight European countries considered. The same source also suggests that, for the same year,

Table II
Net official development aid payments
to sub-Saharan Africa
Breakdown by donor, 1986

Donor country	£ million at 1985 exchange rates and prices	As a % of the donor's programme
Bilateral ODA from DAC countries⁽¹⁾		
Australia	25	5
Austria	9	9
Belgium	181	70
Canada	288	28
Denmark	147	56
Finland	78	54
France	1 436	47
Germany	551	29
Ireland	10	55
Italy	682	64
Japan	313	12
Netherlands	322	39
New Zealand	0	1
Norway	235	56
Sweden	300	50
Switzerland	112	49
United Kingdom	267	31
United States	860	12
Total	5 818	29
inc. EEC nations	3 596	
Multilateral organisations⁽²⁾		
IBRD	1	28
IDA	1 119	41
African Development Fund	213	96
EDF	704	52
UNDP	209	19
UNTA	39	34
UNICEF	91	35
WFP	183	47
HCR	147	19
UNFPA	16	19
Other UN bodies	30	—
IFAD	77	33
Total	2 869	38
Organisations financed by the Arab countries & OECD members⁽²⁾	416	13
Grand total	9 103	29

(1) Adjusted in the light of the price index for each DAC country.

(2) Adjusted in the light of the DAC general price index.

Source: Cooperation for development, op. cit., p. 242.

total net official development assistance (bilateral and multilateral sources—DAC countries) amounted to almost \$ 40 billion—\$ 11.5 billion for sub-Saharan Africa (about 14 300 million for the whole of the continent) and just short of \$ 15 500 million for Asia⁽⁵⁾.

Different advantages for different countries...

Not all the ACPs have derived the same advantages from the Conventions, far from it—which confirms what was said earlier. In the field of financial cooperation, for example, seven countries (Ethiopia, Cameroon, Sudan, Zambia, Côte d'Ivoire, Kenya and Senegal—in descending order) accounted for almost a third of the 5th EDF and EIB commitments (ECU 1 841 769 000 of a total of ECU 2 836 837 000, not including regional schemes, on 31 March 1986). Add Zaïre, Tanzania, Ghana, PNG, Niger and Mali (in descending order) and we have 13 countries (of the 64 recipient States) which have absorbed slightly more than half the commitments⁽⁶⁾. A look at the World Bank classification shows, by way of illustration, that three countries (Mali, Burkina Faso and Malawi) have very similar popu-

lations and per capita GNPs, although Mali alone is on the above list. Madagascar and Uganda, with bigger populations and smaller per capita GNP than Niger are not, and neither is Guinea, which has a slightly smaller population and lower per capita GDP than Senegal. And with only minimal differences, the same goes for Rwanda and Somalia. Lastly—and this may seem surprising, bearing in mind the privileged treatment granted to the least developed, landlocked and island countries—Cameroon and Côte d'Ivoire are up front, though they are in the category of intermediate income nations⁽⁷⁾.

As far as implementation of the various projected EDF and EIB schemes is concerned (i.e. commitments actually paid over), more than half the ACPs are below the 60% mark (cumulative results for the 5th EDF, 31 March 1986⁽⁸⁾).

The same sort of difference is found between one country and another with Stabex payments too. Records of the first two Stabexes show that, of the 48 nations eligible, Senegal and Côte d'Ivoire between them received more than a quarter of the transfers (i.e. ECU 264 106 739 of a total of ECU 1 059 173 588) and six countries, the two last-named plus Ghana, Sudan, PNG and Kenya, got more than half⁽⁹⁾.

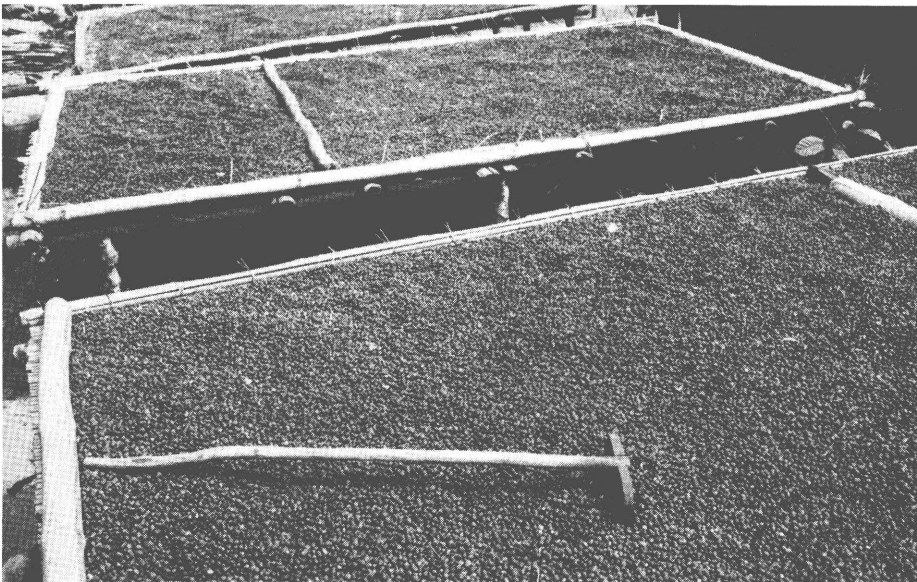
(5) Cooperation for development, op. cit., pp. 240-241.

(6) Financial details of the EDFs (document attached to the preliminary draft budget for 1987, COM(86)200, Annex 2a 1-3.

(7) Report on World Development, 1988, World Bank, Washington DC, 1988, p. 256.

(8) Financial details of the EDFs, op. cit., Annex 2a 1-3.

(9) News Round-Up — Stabex, the Courier No 103, May-June 1987, p.V.



Drying coffee, one of the main STABEX products. "It seems obvious that Stabex, as it stands, is no stimulus when it comes to diversifying agricultural activity"

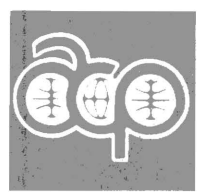
... but an exceptional instrument

Nevertheless, although the results to be expected of the Conventions are more limited than is often—mistakenly—suggested and they are considerably smaller than it would be right to hope, they do constitute an exceptional instrument of cooperation.

They are exceptional because they offer the ACPs: a framework of joint, legal relations; a trading system based on non-reciprocity of the preferences the EEC accords; specific intervention machinery to cope with situations that are particularly prejudicial to the ACP economies (Stabex, Sysmin and the Sugar Protocol, for example); technical and financial cooperation to cover the different aspects of development strategy (usually concessional contributions, free of conditions), a type of intervention which, since Lomé III, has gone beyond the context of projects to become thematic; regional activity; a set of measures for the least developed, landlocked and island countries; a network of institutions representing the partners and aimed at keeping the system turning over on the basis of permanent negotiation, and the provision of information and data, making ACP-EEC collaboration more open than most other cooperation policies. But the unusual nature of the Conventions does not alter the scope of the interventions, which are back-up activities, as was mentioned earlier.

And what about the future? Like the previous negotiations, the negotiations for Lomé IV will no doubt lead to some improvements to the system. Procedures will be more flexible, the consultation machinery will be better, the capacity of the system will be greater, the monitoring of operations in the field will be improved, some of the ill effects of the machinery will be corrected, the ACP debt burden will be lightened and the drive for structural adaptation will be pursued. And more. But whatever the extent and scope of the progress made tomorrow, the nature of the future Convention will not be so different and its effectiveness will still depend on the ACPs' ability to capitalise on its potential. ○

P.B.



Support for grass roots initiatives — the case of Niafunké, Mali —

by Anne-Marie HOCHET (*)

The Niafunké project emerged from a research scheme run in the Niafunké circle, Mali's 6th region and one badly hit by drought.

The project was begun in an emergency situation. It was not a conventional, stringently programmed operation with aims laid down at national level, but based on local initiative in the villages. It was run with bilateral Swiss cooperation.

Research action

This was the subject of a paper produced by the Ministry of Planning in 1984 and it enabled the sociologist in charge of running the project to investigate throughout the Niafunké circle. Practically speaking, this meant: in both flood and semi-desert areas with villages and groups of nomads in the process of settling, with Bambaras, Songhays, Peuls, Kel Tamacheqs and Bozos, fishermen from various tribes and some minority groups (Marka, Maures, etc.).

The common denominator of all these otherwise heterogeneous elements was drought—which was increasing, although at an irregular rate which ruled out predictions about whether it would continue or stop—and had brought four years of unreliable harvests in its wake.

Although the research action followed the two paths of research and action, it was run in an emergency situation and had to take this into account. It was aimed at working adult villagers—men of 45+ and women of all ages—who had not been caught up in the rural exodus. There was the genuine advantage here of having male contacts who were recognised as having decision-making powers and were now being offered the opportunity to use them, to positive effect, in a context of development.

The wave of migrants, often whole families of them, left *en masse* in 1984 then slowed down because of action taken by the elders and the unreliability of earnings after departure. Young

people were contacted during the research work when they were there and were talked to in groups when they came as such, with the permission of the village chiefs, for specific schemes.

The movement began in 1987. It did not prevent the young people from playing a part in the schemes run by the village for the village. In some villages, they even left later or came home sooner to help the older people with the work.

The method used was as follows:
— when the enquiry team arrived in another village, a meeting was held to explain the point of the visit. Then there was a tour of the territory and, on return, a further meeting to take stock of the situation. This was an opportunity to see what schemes the vil-

lagers had already run on their own. It was also the occasion for a village's leading lights to suggest solutions to the others.

— The first test action was borne out. An analysis of the request for aid, the use made of it and the initial failures and successes meant that the various parts of the future project could be listed. They were:

- support for and improvement of traditional development;
- seed stores;
- wells in villages and grazing land;
- equipment — tools and draft equipment;
- support for market gardening;
- small irrigated village plots;
- equipment for fishermen;
- a pirogue construction workshop;
- aid for women's production groups;
- aid for herding;
- village stores;
- reafforestation;
- special aid for nomads founding villages.

A (three-year) budget estimate was produced for each part. Funding was kept flexible so the project could be fully adapted to the needs, and above all to the initiatives, of the villages.

Origin and method of the various schemes

The project only backed up schemes which had been decided on by the village or professional groupings and were being run by the applicant — who had to put his project to the area development committee if the undertaking was a new one. The National Cooperation Department was also involved in all the decisions, particularly those requiring community fund management.

Support for traditional development

This was a response to the profound motivation of villages which had always made their dykes out of assembled fish grids. Supply and drainage channels were also used — and made even more useful both by the drought and by heavy (albeit rare) rainfall. Aid came in the form of technical advice, together with any improvements



The project had nothing to do with the choice of site

(*) The author, a sociologist with SACED in Clichy, France, took part in the Niafunké project from 1983-88 and wrote "Paysanneries en attente — Guinée Bissau" (ENDA, Dakar, 1983) and "Paysans, ces 'ignorants' efficaces" which was reviewed in The Courier No 109.

needed to the compaction and shape of the dyke. An iron fish grid made by Niafunké blacksmiths was also included. In most cases, there was food aid in the form of cash instalments, calculated (to the extent that this was possible) in the light of the number of workers and the hours they put in.

The food aid, handed over in the form of cash, enabled the recipients to get their supplies on the best terms instead of just buying from the nearest outlets. This avoided the competition created by imported food when food production in the south was adequate to supply the north. A second advantage was that this constituted an exercise in management for a profoundly motivated village. Practical monitoring of this was an opportunity to teach the village leaders about administration.

Seed purchasing loans

These, and those to set up the village community store, were also vital in this region of unreliable harvests. The village appointees received the funds and organised the purchasing and the stocks thus obtained went into a common store, to be loaned to the village grouping just before sowing. The groupings paid them back after harvesting, with a 25% increase if their results were good. We noted a tendency to reconstitute bigger stocks in case of success. However, where they failed—and this, alas, happened frequently—the peasants decided to pay their contribution before asking for any further loans. These reactions showed the interest generated by operations of this kind.

Wells in villages and in the nomadic environment

These were for emergent villages and their limited livestock. The scheme began with the emergencies—most of them in the nomadic territories—and was then considerably extended. Since the water tables were on a regular decline, the villages renewed their interest in the wells. The project agreed to provide materials and any food aid needed for the people working on them. The village chose its own well sinker and entered into a contract with him and the project either asked the village itself to pay his wages or undertook to hand over the amount

the village needed to pay him in regular instalments.

Both villagers and sinkers had to be taught. The latter proved demanding about their wages and unconcerned about the rate at which water flowed in the well — which they thought was finished as soon as they reached the upper water table. This indeed ensured the peasants would apply again the following year. The villagers had to be taught to pay the wages in instalments and never in advance, however bad the family problems the sinker gave as grounds for having the whole lot before completing the work. It was also important for the people in charge to forget the importance of their position when discussing the contract with the well sinker. Unwritten rules gradually emerged and the project withheld aid if they were not respected. A knowledge of the relative worth of the different sinkers was also useful when it came to deciding who should build a given type of well and telling the village about it. The project had no say in the siting of the well, leaving information to go from sinker to village leaders and *vice versa*. This sort of shouldering of responsibility will, we feel, lead the villagers to maintain their wells in future and maybe even build their own, without applying for aid, once the harvests are better.

Support for market gardening

There were far more problems here. There was no market gardening in the area before and garden produce—other than the cow-peas and sweet potatoes, already grown at low water level in villages with big enough ponds—was not thought to be worth eating. The Ministry of Agriculture took note, but did little in the way of monitoring or advising. Blowing sand was a serious handicap, as was the extreme heat which began in March. The project helped with the supply of vegetable seeds, which were sold, following a decision from the Niafunké development committee, at less than cost. It also helped with the products needed to treat the crops, which were sold on the same terms, and provided food aid for any group wanting to build a brick wall (ultimately replaced by a hedge grown just inside) to protect its garden from the wind. The project also helped consolidate garden wells and it cemented them where the crop outlook

was promising. The most visible results were those of the Niafunké women's groupings which took up market gardening and the Saraféré market gardeners' cooperative. Lastly, young people in Soumpi, under their UNJM leader, went in for vegetable growing in the hope of limiting the rural exodus.

Small irrigated village plots

There was no incentive from the project here, as this was a field reserved for IFAD intervention. However, the village of Difana, followed by In-Asrakan and Doua, asked for the project engineer's advice on the work they were already doing off their own bat.

The authorities then got a plot going on the road out of Niafunké, after using the usual Party and Administration methods of enlightening the farmers. The CAC asked for a cooperative of these farmers to be set up and the project subsequently helped it in the same way as the others, supplying food aid for the manual development work, materials (iron and cement for the catchment basins and the side-piling built by the masons in the workers' cooperative) and the motor pump. At the beginning, irrigated crops posed no problems to the peasant farmers and offered them every guarantee. But advice about methods and, above all, timetabling, often went unheeded and the project often reacted by letting the farmers make mistakes so they could be corrected once and for all. So the first yields were poor (2-5 t per ha) and the cost of production high when depreciation of the equipment was taken into account. However, the improvements cost less than CFAF 300 000 per hectare and the peasants who had made them knew how to maintain them too.

Fishing equipment

The aid provided to fit out groups of fishermen was no doubt the most satisfactory. After the survey, a basic set of fishing equipment was defined, with the fishermen. The drop in fish output attendant on the poor high water level (the fish lay their eggs in ponds which are flooded at the now rarer high water) prevented the groups from borrowing money to buy the big seines they needed for large collective catches. These nets are traditional and

it was very hard for the fishermen to do without them, but the project was adamant on this point and it facilitated the gradual acquisition of equipment in the following way.

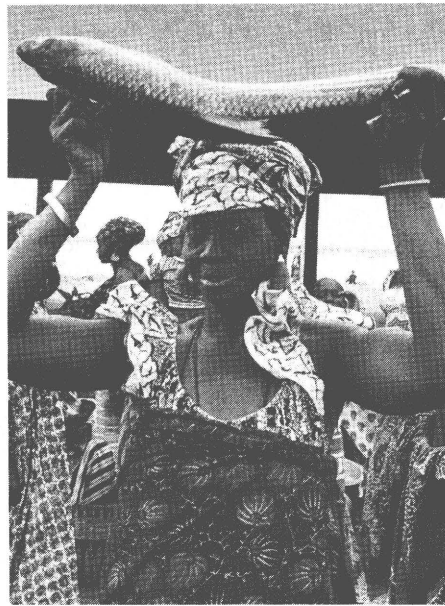
The loan was a fund for the whole group to fit itself out and the material was purchased in bulk by the leaders, while the individuals paid back what they had, together with the interest fixed when the loan was taken out, at a time decided by the group. A loan document, setting out all the provisions, was drawn up with the group and countersigned by both the leaders and the project. A copy of the document was handed over to the CAC, the national cooperation body officially in charge of monitoring the group's financial operations. Where repayments were made according to plan, the amount thus accruing was put at the disposal of the group — often with an increase, at the group's request, if the operation proved a profitable one. The group then loaned to its members again, on the same terms, and presented the new fund to the project, after reimbursement, on the same terms as provided for on the loan contract.

This method, which some people will find cumbersome, nonetheless made it possible for the fishermen to equip on reasonable terms, without getting any further into debt than they could afford. Borrowing was rapidly stemmed if management was bad. When, after four loan renewals, a group had capital of 1-1.5 million, the loan was continued, but without any increases so as not to encourage the group to over-equip with facilities (seine-type nets) which were not profitable.

To complete this scheme, a boat-building workshop—using local skills and no investment other than timber, nails and other small items—was set up. The craftsman's traditional tools were all he needed, so the project helped by supplying the raw materials and the first orders. Some pirogues were placed in the villages, either as public transport or to keep the village store better supplied. After that the idea was for the workshop to build fishing pirogues and the groups to be in a position to buy them with their equipment fund (plus their own contribution).

Aid for women's production groups

Groups had to apply for aid, with the authorisation of the village chief and a survey was then made of the returns on the activity for which aid was being requested. A loan paper was drawn up, as for all village grouping aid schemes. The work these groups did varied from running collective fields to craft workshops through gardens. Commercial loans were given, particularly to the wives of fishermen in the reliable trade of dried fish selling.



Commercial loans, especially for fish sellers whose management had proven to be sound

We had no problems of irregular management with the women's groups, although we sometimes noted investments which had poor returns but were an opportunity for socialising. And profits were reinvested several times over before the women thought about using them for themselves, their children or their families.

Aid for herding

This was provided at various levels:

- food aid for people working on rehabilitating the bourgou plantations — often done by villages with only a few head of cattle;

- aid for cattle destockage via funds for four nomad villages, in 1984, to enable them to buy their own animals and turn them into dried meat to sell. They were left to do this themselves

and thus could keep the 5th quarter for their own consumption. Only gradually did the people in charge dare to discuss prices with men in the camp-cum-village, but they got there in the end. The operation, which circumstances forced upon them, was not repeated in 1985 — when there was less justification for destockage and the dried meat market was poor;

- the placement of funds to buy community livestock in the former nomads' villages and in the villages of the herdsman-farmers and farmer-herdsmen (drought had encouraged everyone to do more than one thing). Camel herds contained about 10 female animals and goat herds about 20. The village bought the animals, looked after them, had them checked by the livestock service, took them for vaccination and sold the milk for benefit of the group. Males were also produced. In the future, if the grazing land improves and there is a big increase in the herd, the group will be allowed to place breeding animals in families.

There was also a considerable increase in poultry rearing by groups of nomadic women — all that had to be done was allocate a few pairs of breeding fowl to women working on a voluntary basis.

Village stores

These were built round cereal supply funds and involved villages which had not applied for assistance from the project. Many of the groupings which were felt not to have sufficient training for this type of management did nevertheless manage to build their premises and put one or two sacks inside so as to be able to be considered for the scheme. Officers of the national cooperation authorities made a good contribution to monitoring the stores, controlling the stock and auditing the accounts. The rare irregularities tended to arise from inopportune loans being made during the season before the harvest. The big problem was that grain prices fluctuated sometimes dropping shortly after purchase, while the grouping stuck to its usual method of price calculation (cost price plus an increase making for a small profit). Once the situation has improved, the stores will work well, because they genuinely are what these isolated villages need.

Reafforestation

Support for reafforestation, carried out thanks to the sinking of village wells, was mainly in the form of food aid. The Department of Waterways and Forests covered the technical side and the project frequently met its cadres to discuss planting local forage plants as well as introducing new ones on a trial basis. The attempted dissemination of fruit trees is still difficult to manage successfully as the time between the young plants arriving and planted out is still far too long. And a microclimate, often wanting in village and even family gardens, is also required. If the gardens improve with the latest techniques adopted, then success is not out of the question.

Special aid for nomads founding villages (or parts of villages)

This was one of the most important parts of the project, although it only actually involved 22 emergent villages.

The nomad chiefs took the decision to settle after losing too many animals to be able to go on the move with their families in view of the many risks attendant on dry wells and the fact that they were short of livestock to sell or swap for grain. So we were dealing with people who were exhausted, but at the same time determined to change their way of life. Although the aid supplied covered the same areas as for the sedentary population (including the irrigated plot for two villages), deep wells (usually far deeper than in the villages) had to be sunk and family homes built. The drama of these villages was the effect that they involuntarily produced on relations in difficulty and some of them had social problems not catered for in the programme when "old-style" nomads came, as "strangers", to be welcomed and fed in the traditional way — with the food aid destined for specific items of work. But people gradually learnt.

Of course, before the villages were taken over by the project, the villagers had to get their choice of site accepted by the authorities. The project also ran its own survey before acceptance so as to be sure that the new village would have enough room for crops and the remaining herd. However, although

the area used for transhumance herding was often much smaller, cattle, looked after just by one or two cowherds, still had to be moved. Nomads built their wells in the same way as the sedentary population. This was a difficult hurdle and one which served as a test and villages tended to grow fast once they were over it.

The project, which was rather difficult to get accepted by the national authorities locally, really began in March 1984. By December 1987, 221 villages had their seed store, 174 were getting food aid for a development activity, 85 wells in villages and on grazing land had been sunk, 10 had been restored and 29 were under construction, 22 ex-nomads' villages had been set up, 24 fishermen's groupings had working capital, 76 women's production groups had received help from the project and 64 village stores were working. And there was the pirogue construction workshop, which had already turned out four canoes by the end of 1987.

The village groupings gradually become independent

Groupings never received aid for any activity before a check had been made to see that long-standing activities had been properly managed and things for which the group had already received aid had actually been completed. So collective activities and fund management were learnt gradually. The most advanced groupings combined a number of different activities — this was in fact integrated development involving such things as building seed storage facilities and a village store, sinking wells, developing the land, having a common herd, managing the village pirogue and running economic activities (this was done by women's groups and sometimes by a group of fishermen). Unreliable, inadequate or non-existent harvests still continued to keep these villages dependent on aid. But by way of compensation, they learnt to manage the aid themselves and will go on having communal development activities even when they can do without them.

Another positive sign was that the villages began to use development

committees and put their annual programmes to them. Each committee comprised the head of the administrative district and the heads of the official technical departments. The situation, in which there was a little conflict to begin with, got better. The influence of a go-ahead leader who was in favour of projects of the kind enabled the villages both to benefit and progress.

Such projects, which require that flexible funding be found and flexibly managed, is easy neither for the funder nor the host country, nor the project team. However, it is the formula which gets closest to the people actually doing the development — villages which get themselves organised, with no outside pressure, and thereby mobilise their manpower in their own way. The village groupings were set up by the recipients and were under the control of the department of National Cooperation, which performed its monitoring and counselling in such a way as always to leave them the initiative for choosing the people in charge themselves.

The cost of the various operations is well below that of similar schemes run with other methods — which may be more sophisticated, but take away all the peasant's initiative and responsibility. The emergency aid which would in any case have been given for humanitarian reasons was transformed into food for work managed by the recipients. What remains to be found are techniques appropriate to some schemes which are becoming vital — protection against erosion by blowing sand, faster, more intensive reafforestation and so on. If innovation is well founded, it will be easier understood and accepted by people who now have the habit of communal methods of using and managing the traditional techniques which the project has by no means sought to overturn.

And there remains also to continue with the training in management and the shouldering of responsibility for a number of villages. This was begun at training seminars for peasant delegates, in the hope of one day seeing village groupings that were sound enough to manage the project funds themselves. This region, tormented by its history and by drought, must be given the time it needs. ○ A.-M. H.

VANUATU

An economy caught between culture and modernism

Development has not followed the same path in all the countries of the world. Far from it. And although there are parallels, no two examples are alike. The ACP Group is made up of 66 States from three continents. This is its originality and its strength... or its weakness.

It has a common aim, which is the economic and social development of each of its members, with the help of the European Community. But, a look at each region in the Group reveals a strong difference in the conditions in which this aim is achieved, and one of these conditions is culture. There is no doubt that, in the Pacific, the cultural dimension is of considerable importance when it comes to defining development models—particularly remarkable in view of the fact that, in Africa, cultural considerations tend to follow economic choices rather than precede them, doubtless because the foundations do not yet seem to have been shaken. And that, in spite of a search for its roots, the Caribbean is still living practically in a sort of cultural vacuum in which the islands are mere appendages of the North American socio-economic model.

Vanuatu (the former Franco-British condominium of the New Hebrides) or Kiribati (the former Gilbert Islands) are, as we shall see in the next issue, good examples of countries where cultural considerations go a long way to shaping economic and political activity.

Constitutional protection for Melanesian culture and lands

On 5 October 1988*, Vanuatu celebrated the 9th anniversary of its Constitution—which is characterised by the procedures used to create it (a synthesis of consultations of the people) and the stress it puts on customs and the land. "The most significant thing about it



was that we wanted a basic law which would diminish the links with the colonial past as far as possible", said George Ati Sokomanu, the President of the Republic. "The constitution had to re-establish and guarantee the place of our culture and our traditions as the basis of our nation and our economic and social development", he went on. But while recognising the predominance of Melanesian customs over the legal system left behind by the European (French and British) authorities posed no problem to the Government, it was harder to re-establish the traditional laws of land ownership. The whole social system of Vanuatu (it means "our land") is based on land ownership and this is particularly important since, in spite of the cultural diversity of the population (160 000 people speaking about 100 dialects), the Government cannot undertake any development projects without the agreement of the traditional landowners—"not even building a road" in the words of President Sokomanu.

Why is this? Because, he said, "since we had been dispossessed of most of our land, the system of land ownership became the main source of dispute between the political parties fighting for independence, as they wanted to make sure that the land went back to its traditional owners on independence". The Constitution alone could guarantee protection for the traditional land rights. Yet a few years ago, under the pressure of the need to develop and the impossibility of going back on all the "modern" structures of the State, the Government was forced to bring in new constitutional provisions so it could easily obtain land in the public interest. The system of long-term land rental is also an opportunity to obtain land for economic and other activities.

Neither the interest in Vanuatu's system of land ownership nor the clashes it caused before independence mean that land is in short supply—more that it plays a vital part in the

The Courier

* This report was carried out in October 1988.



(Preceding page) A tree fern statue, one of the best-known symbols of Melanesian culture in the whole Pacific.
Above. Port Vila — just like any city in a developing country

country's whole economic system, both traditional and modern. In fact, compared to the population, the land reserves are considerable. So the land ownership system constitutes the main obstacle to development, particularly in the rural areas. The authorities are aware of the problems attendant on the traditional system of land ownership, certainly, which is why in Port Vila they insist on the advantages of the Government's system of rental. At the same time, they also realise that the ownership arrangements will have to change. As the President of the Republic puts it: "Agriculture is the backbone of our economy, which is why we have to ensure that the various sectors benefit from agricultural progress. The people of Vanuatu have to have the sort of social wellbeing that cannot be achieved by traditional farming methods alone". So one day, they will have to take another look at the adage whereby things should be done Pacific-style, the President said, as this is an approach which, even if it does not slow things down, at least considerably lengthens the time it takes to run economic projects because of all the opinions that have to be sought at grass roots level before a decision can be taken on building an industry or a school or setting up livestock schemes on traditional land.

Development is imperative

So the Government has to take cultural constraints and the attendant

land ownership issues into account when tackling the vital task of economic development. There are other constraints too, of course, particularly the fact that the country's 80 islands are scattered and that there is a general labour shortage (the population being too small for the size of the country), skilled workers being in particularly short supply.

However, Vanuatu has one asset which other similar nations in the region do not have—natural resources, starting with fertile land. About 42% (5000 km²) of the national territory is arable land which is suitable for a large number of food and export products.

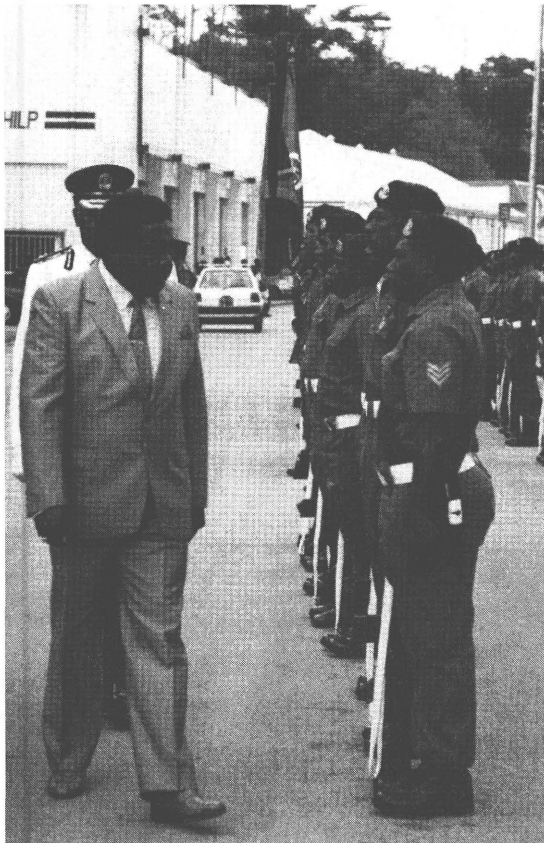
Copra

This is the main export product, which, together with coconut oil, makes up almost 80% of the total value of exports and is produced by 80% of the rural population. The coconut plantations are mostly on Aoba, Ambrym, Malakula, Paama and—most important—Santo, and they cover about 69 000 km², with 68% being in the hands of the Melanesians. In 1986, copra production was 21% up on the previous year, in spite of being 9% down on the 47 000 tonnes of 1984, and there was another drop in 1987, largely because of natural disasters such as Hurricane Uma.

As in most areas of agricultural activity, it is the village smallholdings which produce most of the copra. But

in spite of the sound ecological conditions (a very favourable climate throughout the archipelago, excellent and well-distributed rainfall and minimal shortage, together with plentiful sunshine), there are two big problems in the coconut industry—the palms are ageing and the export price is dropping. And there is a labour shortage.

The deterioration of more than 60% of the coconut palms is behind the dwindling output, particularly on the big plantations where the stock is about 50 years old. This, and the fact that the village plantations are younger, has triggered a major programme to improve and replace the palms and get copra production up again. This is being run by the IRHO, the French Institute for Research into Oilseeds. Research at the Saraoutou Station, on Santo, is on the plant stock and is of interest to the whole of the Pacific. The ultimate aim of the research programme is to come up with an early-fruited coconut palm which has a high yield in the climatic and ecological conditions of the country, so as to supply smallholders with young plants which are resistant to most of the coconut diseases in Vanuatu and this part of the Pacific. IRHO's research, covering an area of 500 hectares, 250 ha of which are plantations, has made it possible to produce many varieties of palm by crossing local species with each other and with other imported species. This has given varieties such as the Grand Vanuatu



President Sokomanu reviews Vanuatu troops on 5 October 1988—both the expression and the feeling of being an independent country on the anniversary of the proclamation of the Vanuatu Constitution

(GVT), the Vanuatu dwarf red and various hybrids obtained with African species such as the Cameroonian dwarf red, a very good producer, which gives yields of 2.5-3.5 tonnes of fruit (70-90% copra) per hectare. Another advantage of the IRHO work is that the young coconut plant is sold to the peasant for about vatu 60 instead of the real price of vatu 160, a reduction which means that the villagers can buy plants more easily and increase the areas under cultivation in the hope of reaching an average 2000 ha p.a. This average performance over 20 years would make the copra and coconut oil sector a profitable one for the islands' economy in the long term.

Other countries and organisations—the European Community, for example—are also involved in getting Vanuatu's copra production off the ground again (see the article EEC-Vanuatu co-operation).

The coconut sector improvement drive and the increase in the area un-

der crop suggest that copra exports should be better in 1988 (at about 43 000 tonnes) after the 24% drop in 1987 when only 32 000 tonnes were exported. This increase in both production and export should be maintained, the estimates say, reaching almost 45 000 tonnes by 1991 (although this would only be a 1.3% production increase over 1989).

The other major problems in the copra industry are the price paid to the producer and the price obtained on the international market. Mr Meto Nganga, head of the Vanuatu Commodities Marketing Board, which markets both copra and cocoa, says that the price is fixed under an equalisation system. But the Board tries not to be over-dependent on State subsidies. The so-called beach price (buying price plus cost of transport), is the same for all producers, so Vanuatu's export copra is very expensive because of the distance both between the islands which produce it and between them and the places of export. It can cost US \$ 65 per t to Europe and as much as US \$ 76 per t to Singapore. So with the world price at \$ 214 per tonne in 1988 (and less in 1987), Vanuatu's copra exports only brought in vatu 719 million in 1987 with about vatu 878 million expected for 1988.

Lastly, for the past three years now, there has been another problem on top of all this — aflatoxin, which, as Mr Nganga says, penalises the islands' exports, particularly those destined for the EEC. Three years ago, in fact, the European Community decided to "put a heavy tax on copra with a high aflatoxin content". As with groundnuts, aflatoxins in copra are the result of poor drying and storage—which is why the Vanuatu Marketing Board intends making a big effort with this from now on, as with stimulating production by offering better prices to the peasant farmers.

Various factors, especially the dwindling raw material prices, mean that the export figures do not necessarily reflect an increase in what the producers actually earn — 40 000 tonnes copra exported in 1978, for example, brought in vatu 1100 million as against about vatu 879 million for 43 000 tonnes in 1988.

The copra-dominated agricultural sector accounts for about 25% of GNP



Every ceremony includes the ritual Kava, a traditional drink indicating the importance of the event. The President of the Republic drinks his draught of Kava

and services make up the rest. Total GNP was an estimated vatu 13 billion in 1987.

Unstable world copra prices and the current decline in the tourist trade have forced the Government to focus on the diversification of export agriculture. A big project to revive cocoa and coffee growing has been started, in particular with EEC help, and cocoa exports went from 1200 tonnes in 1986 to 1300 tonnes in 1987, bringing in vatu 196 million and 208 million respectively, while the coffee figures are 22 tonnes (vatu 7 million) for 1986 and 44 tonnes (vatu 8 million) for 1987.

The wellbeing of the people over the coming years will depend on growth in the agricultural sector—crucial when it comes to producing enough income to cope with rapidly climbing social spending. This is why the Government intends giving greater support to both village smallholders and big commercial plantations under the second national development plan.

Livestock

Traditionally, the Melanesians in Vanuatu, as elsewhere in the Pacific, raise pigs and poultry, and pork, particularly, plays an important cultural part in Melanesian society. Pork is a highly-prized meat served at all festivities and roast pork is the *pièce de résistance* in all hotels and at every

festival and cultural event for tourists. And pig's teeth—which are very different in shape to the teeth of African or European pigs—are used to make what can often be expensive jewellery, especially bracelets.

But animal rearing in Vanuatu has developed in much the same way as the other sectors of the economy, becoming diversified under the influence of colonisation and the constraints of the open economy.

Cattle rearing, which has come to expand the livestock sector, has increased a lot, with 100 000 head in 1982 rising to almost 109 000 head in 1986. Small herdsmen owned 33 000 head in 1982 and 38 000 in 1986 and big concerns the rest. One of the reasons for the expanding cattle sector is that cows have been introduced in association with coconut plantations. And Japanese cooperation has taken over from some European rearers on a contractual basis with the Government of Vanuatu. The Japanese have in fact set up large cattle concerns, working for export, on Santo. The animals graze on special forage imported from Japan, which means they can be geared to the taste of Asian importers. But it is the Charolais herds raised under the coconut palms which supply the country's main slaughterhouse (on Santo), the building of which has proved an important incentive to cattle rearing. The weight of carcasses rose from 1900 tonnes in 1982 to 2300 tonnes in 1985 and 780 tonnes (worth a total vatu 184 million) and 1100 tonnes (vatu 200 million) respectively were exported.

Vanuatu's cattle rearing potential is large, although considerable investments are still called for. The one major handicap is the labour shortage—in spite of the fact that most of the 3500 young people reaching 16 every year

(only 25% of whom complete their six-year primary course) go back to the land. Only an estimated 100 of these 3500 youngsters coming onto the job market find employment as wage-earners.

But pig and cattle rearing is still a promising export sector, particularly when it comes to the regional markets currently dominated by New Zealand and Australia.

Fishing

Fishing, like animal rearing, is a time-honoured activity in Vanuatu. But it is deep-water fishing, where equipment and weather conditions have to be right, and the traditional canoes and nets tend to be unsuitable for the high seas, so catches are poor and the activity is very much a subsistence one.

However, over the past few years, industrial fishing has been developed, in particular with help from the European Community and bilateral Japanese and Korean cooperation. A centre has been opened on Santo to spread new fishing methods to the people from this and neighbouring islands and to offer full and part-time training courses for fishermen. The importance of the project is that the fishermen should now be able to catch fish from the open sea instead of the surface species of the region which

have the fatal disease called Ciguatera (in which the fish are rendered inedible by feeding on a kind of plankton).

In addition to the European Community's ECU 4 million contribution to this project, there is direct financing, equipment and expert advice for it from the United Kingdom, Denmark, Australia and New Zealand.

The fisheries sector should develop further and the Government was planning to channel vatu 241 million into it from the national budget in 1988.

Transport and communication

These are vital to all islands, but particularly for archipelagos such as Vanuatu, which has 100 islands, only 14 of which are more than 100 km². So sea, land and air transport is needed.

The most important, nationally speaking, is maritime transport and the Government is planning to spend about vatu 2 billion on it—about 80% of it on building and improving mooring and berthing facilities. A programme to modernise the national fleet and buy new equipment for the ports is also on the drawing board, one of the most important projects being the rebuilding of the Luganville wharf (Santo), expected to cost nearly vatu 700 million.

A big effort is needed with overland transport, too, so as to facilitate com-



High-yield coconut palms are the result of crossing a local variety with an African variety, the NRC (or Cameroonian dwarf red)



The Saraoutou IRHO has excellent results, as this coconut-laden palm shows



Coconut nursery at Saraoutou



Herding is a great success on Santo. These are Charolais cattle

munications on each island and, most important, to make it easier to shift the export products and bring in goods for local consumption, bringing down the costs.

Developing air transport is one of the priorities of the communications programme, as flying is the only efficient way of getting from the island to another—and above all, of course, it is the best way of encouraging more tourists, who cannot just stay in Port Vila, the capital. The Government intends making rapid improvements to the international airfields such as Bauerfield (Port Vila), for example, which needs a longer landing strip. It will be spending almost 75% of the vatu 740 million earmarked for the transport sector on air facilities—particularly since Vanuatu could soon have a national airline of its own, with the help of Australia, which may be leasing aircraft for the opening of the first international flights.

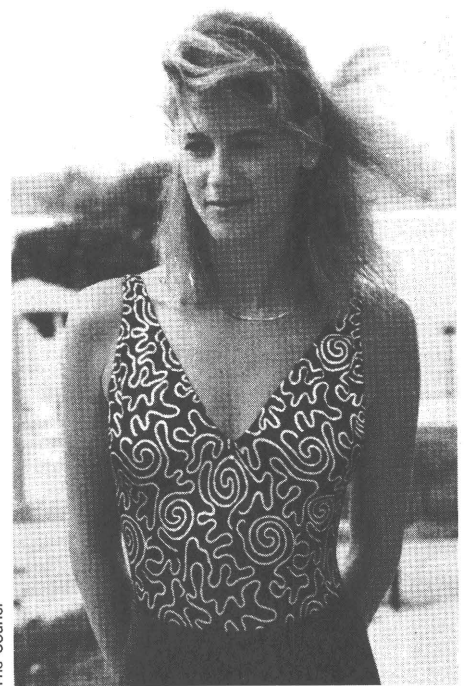
National and international telecommunications are also a major Government concern in the general transport and telecommunications development programme.

Tourism and industry

Industry currently plays only a very small, virtually non-existent, part in Vanuatu's economy, which is why the Government is only planning to spend 1% of its budget on this and on tou-

rism. But the minimal State contribution to these two sectors is partly dictated by the policy choices of the authorities, which want to leave industrial and tourist activity entirely to the private sector.

The Government only wishes to give these sectors support in the form of services, in particular seeking tech-



The Courier

An Australian tourist visits Port Vila. The Government is anxious to develop the tourist trade — but with more involvement by the people of Vanuatu themselves

nical assistance to help the people develop tourism and the manufacturing and processing of local products, especially on Santo.

And what about Vanuatu women?

Women are in the majority in the Pacific islands—as they are elsewhere. But both the leaders and, paradoxically, the women themselves, have failed so far to recognise the role they play in the modern political and economic life of the nation—as they have failed elsewhere.

There is a reason for this, Grace Mera Molisa, a poetess and the only Vanuatu woman in the upper echelons of the country's administration, explained: "Women haven't been given enough opportunity to make their intellectual mark in the economic and social development process", she said, although, "in Vanuatu at least, they were fully involved in the fight for independence".

But Mrs Molisa still thinks that women will change this, although "they need information and educa-



Grace Mera Molisa

tion to do so". If they had information and education, she maintains, "the change would come about naturally... There would be no point in trying to rush things, because recognition of the notion of modern development isn't yet rooted in people's minds".

L.P.

Outside these major sectors of the economy, Vanuatu has other trump cards for its development, including forestry products and, most important, the financial centre of Port Vila, the capital.

A tax haven

Few people in Europe know that Vanuatu is a tax haven. But it is. The original thing about it is that the situation is not the result of a legal move, but of empiricism. No-one pays any personal or corporate taxes, so off-shore banks can receive capital and place it on any financial market they like without paying anything to the Vanuatu Government. The authorities only collect on patents (about vatu 10 million p.a.) and on the very high customs duties.

Vanuatu is a tax haven for Australia and the whole of the Pacific and it is this financial policy which has kept the national currency at more or less the same level in relation to the SDR, to which it was attached when it came into being. Between 1980 (when it was created) and February 1988, for example, the vatu was devalued three times and revalued once, going from vatu 102 to about 142 to the SDR.

Paradox

Vanuatu is the *enfant terrible* of the region. It is often criticised for its position on nuclear issues, non-alignment and its commitment to liberation movements in the Pacific and even in Africa, but PM Walter Lini denies he is anti-democratic or—even less—left-wing. If he is, Lini wonders, how come the country is so economically open and how come it is a tax haven (see interview with *The Courier*). Another striking thing, and much more so than the country's economic and political debates, is the attachment of both the 20 000-strong population and the Government to the cultural and traditional values on which the economic decisions very largely depend. Although the development of a modern economy has to bring a new kind of wellbeing in its wake, it does involve what one writer has called "a return to the lost golden age of customs"—an economy torn between born-again culture and an overwhelming desire for modernism.

Lucien PAGNI

"We are an open democratic country"

says Prime Minister Walter LINI



The Courier

Prime Minister Walter Lini says: "I believe that the future of every little island State will very much depend on our awareness of the importance of our trade in the region"

In an interview with *The Courier* the Prime Minister outlines his economic and international policy.

► *Prime Minister, you have been at the head of Vanuatu's government since independence in July 1980. What do you consider to be your main political achievement so far?*

— I think that our main political achievement in the last eight years has been to have made the people of Vanuatu accept a constitution, and a system of government, which was also a totally foreign concept. We have also made the people accept the need for a constitution, and for an executive to protect and administer it. We have made them accept the most important part of an independent country, the parliament, which was also a foreign,

not a Melanesian, concept. And a judicial system, which is also new.

So I would say that the achievement that we have made is to get the people of Vanuatu to accept what an independent state needs to be able to provide the kind of democratic system which people talk about in the West. Even though this existed in our own society, at village and at island level, we have made it of national importance to make a democratic system for the whole nation. At the same time we have also achieved a degree of decentralisation from the central government to the 11 local governments which we have established in the last eight years.

So I think that, on the whole, I am satisfied — everyone is satisfied that we have been able to do all those things, both at national level and at regional level, in terms of local governments that exist in the country today.

VANUATU

“To live outside the market system which exists today, especially with the West, it would be very difficult to survive economically”

► *The economy of Vanuatu is still anchored to a few agricultural products and to tourism, as it was before independence. You have expressed your dissatisfaction with the functioning of world markets and commodity prices. Would you seek to change the present economic pattern of Vanuatu?*

— The population of Vanuatu is small and we have a lot of land, a lot of resources. Up to now we have depended heavily on agriculture and on tourism. I believe that if we can identify the best possible way to make money in Vanuatu—apart from through agriculture and tourism—we can change. Whatever money we make will go to only a handful of people, not to many thousands like in other countries. In terms of the economic pattern of Vanuatu, we haven't made any change. We have continued to develop the way that the British and the French had done before. I don't think that we have made any turn to different directions for economic development. So, in so far as that is concerned, they have also directed us to view our market with the outside world to be very important. And to live outside the market system which exists today, especially with the West, it would be very difficult to survive economically.

The Ni-Vanuatu to get involved

Personally, I believe that it is possible to develop other commodities or other areas which we have not developed up to now. Over the last eight years, we have concentrated too much on agriculture and on tourism. But I think there are a number of areas we should also concentrate on today. Tourism, as much as agriculture, requires a lot of people to work in it, which we do not have. So I think that if there is going to be any change in direction of developing the economy in Vanuatu, we must begin to look at areas where we can make the most money out of what we are.



The Courier

Vanuatu, a young and sparsely populated country — regardless of the impression this street scene may give

► *Which areas do you have in mind?*

— If we take the tourism sector, it is believed to be based very much on the number of people who come from outside to Vanuatu to spend their money, which is good. And then it also depends on the transportation system which carries those people to and from the country. It depends also on accommodation we provide for the people who come to Vanuatu.

So far, I would say that as far as transportation is concerned, it is still in the hands of expatriates and foreigners who charter tourists here, and take them out. The same with the accommodation system; it is still under the control of foreigners — not Ni-Vanuatu. My own view is that if we want to make tourism more profitable to the economy of Vanuatu in the long run, the government and the people and others who want to help us should begin to look at the ways by which this can help Ni-Vanuatu to be able to participate in the transportation and accommodation system as well as other things that are connected. The more we can participate and own the facilities for tourists' use, the more it helps Vanuatu. And I think that would be the long-lasting benefit which comes not just to Vanuatu as a country but also to Ni-Vanuatu as a people. And if that can be done with our friends from the EEC, I think it would be the most satisfactory solution to our economy in the long run. Today tourism is run by foreigners and brings less money to

the Vanuatu people. Only those who work in hotels and serve tourists make money out of tourism.

A vast regional market

► *You have suggested the creation of a common regional market, a sort of South Pacific Commonwealth. Would such a grouping be viable, given the political divergences and economic weaknesses of the islands concerned?*

— I have suggested this possibility, to be concerned mainly with countries in the region who want to do this. I do not think that we should force all the countries in the region to have a common marketing system. I believe that, more and more, the world is moving towards considering the importance of regional markets. I believe, for example, that if New Zealand, Australia, Papua-New Guinea, Solomons, Vanuatu, New Caledonia and Fiji decide that they should create a marketing system to be able to help their own people and to improve the standard of living of their own people, it would be a good thing. And I think it is possible. But I wouldn't force the idea on countries who do not believe that it is important.

I believe that for us specifically in the region—especially in Australia, New Zealand, Papua-New Guinea, Solomons, Vanuatu, New Caledonia and Fiji—it is possible, because we have the number of people. If we put the people of these countries together it runs into millions; not like Africa, but enough for there to be able to be the



Tourist facilities entirely fill this peninsula south of Port Vila

The Courier

support for the internal market that is needed.

We in Vanuatu, for example, for the last hundred years have been exporting copra to Europe, and we have been buying things from Europe, which is good. It has helped us up to now, but perhaps in the near future the whole situation will change. I am convinced that the future of each small island state and the different states in the region depends very much on how we can see the importance of trading with each other. For example, New Zealand and Australia have a lot of sheep and a lot of cattle. We have some cattle too. But less than they have. But they are having problems in selling. So we should actually find a way by which it will be possible to make the things that we have provide for our needs and try to help the standard of living of our people to develop in the future.

► *What do you consider as the basic political conditions needed to initiate and to achieve this kind of goal?*

— It is very difficult but I believe that it has to start somewhere. This is in fact the basis of our forming of this group — we call it a “spearhead” group. Because we believe that before we take any move in any direction, three Melanesian states like Papua-New Guinea, Solomons and Vanuatu need to get together to really know what their people want. Culturally we

are one people; our aspirations are not different from each other. So we have set up this “spearhead” group, which has been working for almost three years now. In February we will have the next meeting, in Papua-New Guinea, and we hope that it is a small beginning. But we are going to work for a long long time to try and achieve some of these goals.

► *Prime Minister, what are the advantages and the shortcomings of international economic cooperation with Vanuatu?*

— I think the advantages of international cooperation with Vanuatu is that we get the services of personnel who come to Vanuatu, who have the know-how and can show us how to do whatever we cannot do. We have the financial assistance which comes to a country like Vanuatu, which also can provide for our needs, but very much in the long term. But cooperation can also provide short-term solutions...

► *Such as?*

— Aid in any form is good provided that we do not depend solely on it. But in certain areas, if we take something totally outside of government, for example, assistance to people who have been affected by hurricanes or volcanoes, this aid is good. It helps people in the short term. But it has also created expectations from these people to get the Government or

other friendly countries in the world to provide for them when they are affected. In fact, when we did that for the first time, everyone began to say: “Oh good, the Government is actually doing something”. But in the long term it created expectations which we won’t be able to sustain in future. These are the kind of shortcomings I can see in some aid we receive from abroad. It makes people of the country expect more assistance from friendly and neighbouring countries, and does not motivate them to work enough on their land to be able to support themselves.

► *Do you feel that the European Community has contributed to the development of Vanuatu and, if so, how?*

— Yes. The European Community has contributed very much in the area of agriculture and very much, too, in different aspects of our economy in Vanuatu. I think that on the whole we can say that the European Community has contributed to our development. In the Lomé Convention, Stabex, for example, is one of the best ways of cooperating with the ACP States because the EEC has also benefited from what we have been able to do in the last hundred years. So I think that on the whole the European Community has contributed, but at the same time, I think the Member States should recognise that we have also contributed

VANUATU



The Courier

Vanuatu's guests and its Prime Minister take part in the Kava ritual on the 9th anniversary of the Constitution

to their economic development in Europe.

► *Negotiations for a successor to the Lomé Convention started last October and should be completed by the end of 1989. How do the Pacific countries see their fellow African and Caribbean partners of the Convention and what improvement would you wish to see in the next ACP-EEC Convention?*

— I think that it is a very good thing for ACP countries to be involved together in Lomé negotiations. I think that Lomé to us in Vanuatu has been helpful and we are very thankful for the way in which that has helped us already. We will certainly want to see our African, Caribbean and European partners continue to see what better ways we can cooperate through the Lomé Convention. One concern that I have at the moment is that, perhaps it will be easier for us Pacific Island states to lessen the number of conferences that we attend. It might be different for the African or the Caribbean countries. Perhaps it might also be different for some other Pacific Island partners. But for us in Vanuatu, for the last eight years and this year, and for the next 10 years yet, one of the problems that we have is that we do not have enough people and we do not have even enough money to be able to get our people to these different conferences, and negotiations and discussions at conferences for Lomé Conventions and other

agencies. So I would consider that perhaps one conference a year would be enough.

► *The duration of the Convention is now being discussed. Some would see a Convention lasting more than five years with re-negotiation terms for certain provisions. Others suggest a ten-year term. What is your opinion?*

— I have no particular feeling about it. I think five years is more practical. My own view at the moment is, if it is too long, it wouldn't be very important to each government or member state. If it is too short we do not have enough people to follow-up the implementation of the Agreement and we spend a lot of money that we don't have. But if it is worked out carefully, I think that it will satisfy everybody's wish.

Vanuatu's options

► *Coming back to domestic affairs, what are the causes of the international press describing a turn in your government policy towards a certain radical left-wing one-party system?*

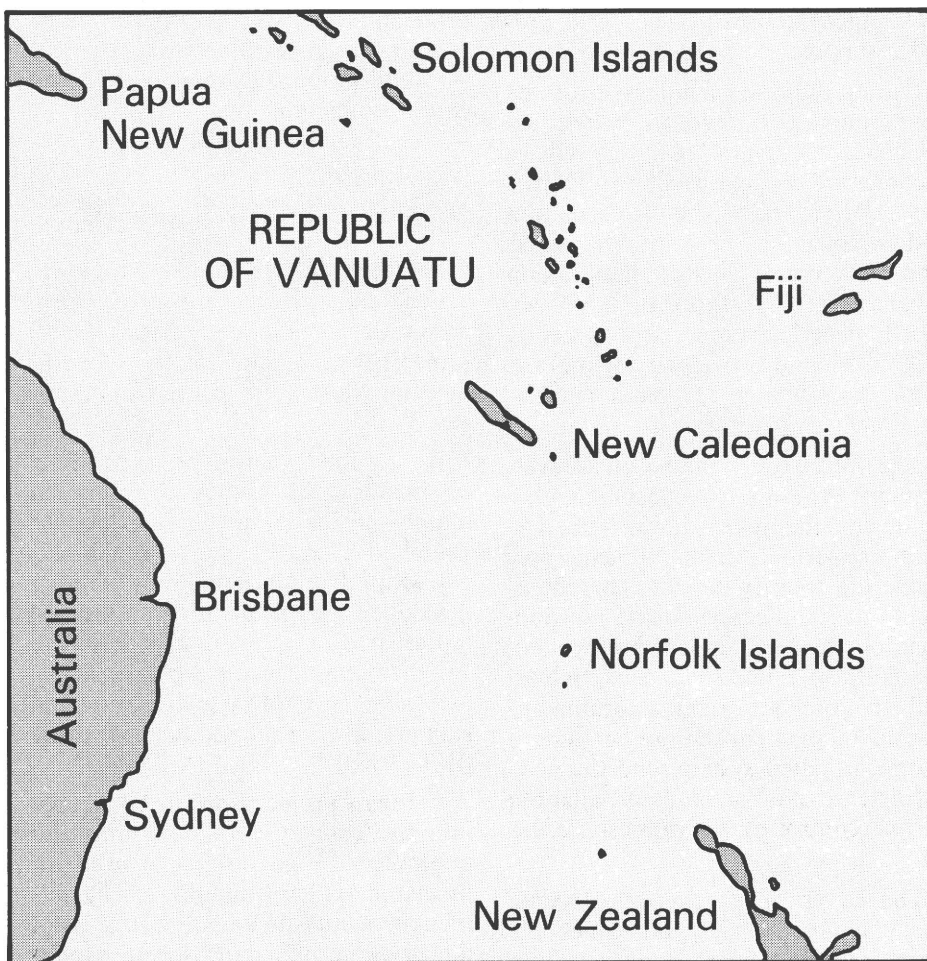
— It's obvious, Vanuatu has been regarded to be 'an odd nation' in the South Pacific, mainly because we have a very clear policy with regard to nuclear testing. We are totally against nuclear testing, and declared Vanuatu as a nuclear-free nation. We have also, of course, become a member of the Non-Aligned Movement. Every coun-

try in this region is wondering why we have decided to do so. So that in terms of our relationship with each country in the region, we are looked upon as an odd-nation-out anyway. To say that we are more left-wing than right-wing... it's quite obvious that the press who have made those comments do not really understand how we work, and have tried just to compare us with every other nation in the South Pacific. To me they are very narrow minded, because I think we are one of the most democratic countries in the region. We are the nearest thing to the Westminster parliamentary system which exists in this region.

The other thing which has made us seem to be left-wing is our land policy. We are the only country in this region to have declared all lands in the Republic belonging to the customary owners, and that is completely against every other land policy which exists in the world. We do not think that we are left-wing because of that. We think that that is an alternative way — freehold is not the only way. We think that leasehold system to the customary owner is also possible. And how can we be left-wing if we have a financial centre? How can we be left-wing and have a shipping registry and how can we be left-wing and try to cooperate with France, with Britain, with the United States, with everyone else? I don't really see the factual basis of that kind of argument. ◦

Interview by L.P.

PROFILE



The Courier

Cocoa drying on Santo island.

The Government is encouraging farmers to diversify their export crops to boost income in the rural areas

Vanuatu is an archipelago in the south west Pacific, between New Caledonia, the Solomon Islands and Fiji. It consists of more than 100 islands and islets, only 14 of which are bigger than 100 km². Vanuatu, a Melanesian country, has been independent since 30 July 1980.

Total area: 122 280 km².

Population: 120 000 inhabitants, 50% of them in the 15-35 age bracket.

Growth rate: 3.3% p.a.

Capital: Port Vila (on Efate island), with a population of about 15 000).

Luganville (Espiritu Santo) is the country's second biggest town.

Main islands: Efate, Espiritu Santo, Pentecote, Ambryn, Malakula, Aoba, Vanua Lava and Epi.

Main exports: Copra, cocoa, beef and veal and timber.

Tourism: The potential is considerable, but Port Vila is the only place with much hotel capacity so far. Most tourists to Vanuatu come from Australia, New Zealand and New Caledonia.

Main trading partners: Australia, France (which is important in banking), New Caledonia, New Zealand and, more recently, Japan. Trade with Fiji is developing.

Currency: The vatu. This was created just after independence and has remained fairly stable as compared to the currencies of some other developing countries. Vatu 1 = US\$ 0.008.

Working languages: English, French and a Melanesian pidgin (which is written and spoken throughout the islands, even by foreigners).

EEC — Vanuatu cooperation

by Edwin VOS (*)

The Republic of Vanuatu, a group of 80 islands in a "Y" shape, counts 12 important islands. The archipelago is about 850 kilometers long and the climate varies from tropical in the North to subtropical in the South, with average annual rainfalls of 2 360 mm per annum. With a total of 12 200 square kilometers, about 45% of the land resources are arable, of which only 15% is actually under cultivation. These soils, often of volcanic origin, are well suited to intensive crop utilisation or livestock development.

The population of the country is 140 200 (1987 estimate). The GDP per capita, according to the unofficial and preliminary estimates for 1987 of the National Planning and Statistics Office is US \$ 375 in 1983 constant prices, making Vanuatu among the least developed countries.

The vast majority (80%) of Vanuatu's population lives in rural areas and is wholly or partly dependent on farming. Coconut production forms the major source of income for the smallholder sector which produces 70% of the country's copra.

The world market prospects for copra are rather uncertain. Coconut production forms the basis of the rural economy. The country is confronted with the choice of rejuvenating the existing coconut stands by the planting of newly developed, more productive cultivars, or of introducing important diversification programmes to prevent a decline in rural income of the majority of the population.

With the Second Five Year National Development Plan (1987-91) the government is committed to the continued growth of the mixed economy, and both the private and public sectors make their own particular contributions to national development. The government plays a very important role in the implementation of development programmes and projects in the sector of agriculture. In other sectors like manufacturing and tourism, the

government adopts policies, and provides support services.

During the first planning period the government had tried to reduce dependence on copra, both for village income and foreign exchange. During the last five years a major cocoa and coffee project has been established, as well as a major copra rehabilitation programme (EDF-funded), a village-based fisheries programme (mainly EDF, U.K. and New Zealand), and the further expansion of tourism infrastructure.

The objectives of the Second Development Plan are to consolidate the achievements made during the first planning period. Major problems now facing the country include: the potential for a significant increase in youth unemployment or under-employment, the need to establish a decentralised and development-oriented administration to supplement the present central control-oriented system, and the need to increase Ni-Vanuatu participation in, and control of, the domestic economy.

The government revenues depend, above all, on foreign aid. Since the country is a tax haven, there is still no solid project for ensuring the provision of finances for the Public Treasury. The country's exports cover one quarter of the cost of its imports.

The EEC ranks among the important donors to Vanuatu, and is financing important projects in the agricultural and rural sector of the country: coconut production, smallholder cattle development, village fisheries, forestry development, infrastructural development and training programmes. Progress is recorded in most of these activities and the projects are in general on schedule.

Vanuatu participates actively in the regional organisations of SPEC and SPC.

Development aid

In eight years of cooperation with the Community, Vanuatu has ob-

tained financing of about ECU 45 million (± 5 billion Vatu) of which almost 35% served for Stabex transfers.

The aid programme focussed mainly on:

- the development of agricultural production
- infrastructural development
- stabilisation of farmgate prices for copra production,
- relief aid for cyclone damage.

Lomé I and Lomé II

Programme schemes

For these two indicative programmes development of agricultural projects were central for the Government of Vanuatu, and the Community.

Development activities in the field of smallholder livestock, concentrated mainly in the north of the country, benefited a large group of smallholders. More than 100 small projects were developed within this programme and represented an active participation of 1 000 smallholders in the agricultural extension and training activities and support for the marketing of cattle (ECU 900 000).

A micro-project introduced pepper into the country as a new crop and reinforced the government's need for diversification by building cocoa fermentaries, and organising coffee plant nurseries, local supply forest plantations in close contact with the village communities and the development of fisheries activities as well as new infrastructure of rural roads and water supplies (ECU 470 000).

A large scale Public Works Heavy Plant Project permitted the government to renew the equipment necessary for road construction and maintenance (ECU 890 000).

Studies have been run for a road on South Malekula, for utilisation of the hydro-potential on Efate and for the establishment of rice cultivation projects in the country (for a total of ECU 505 935).

During the second Lomé Convention more projects were started and were addressed mainly to the target group of smallholders.

One of the basic limitations for smallholder development in the country is the limited number of small-

(*) Resident Adviser in Vanuatu.

holders. They can be estimated at 16 000. A very important part of this target group for development activities in the agricultural sector of the country came in contact with the EDF development programmes. Estimation is about 40%.

A coconut development project has been set up to help the government to renew old and non-productive coconut stands with newly planted more productive planting material. The IHRO station (F) on Santo served as an im-

considerably with this activity (ECU 160 000).

The government's Vanuatu Development Bank received EDF funds for the necessary technical assistance. Micro-loans (less than ECU 10 000) were financed with EDF funds, mainly in the agricultural and fisheries sector (ECU 750 000).

A second micro-project was developed to strengthen the diversification attempts in the agricultural sector. Coffee development, rural water sup-

A Public Works Heavy Plant Project financed new equipment to the Public Works Department necessary for road construction and maintenance (ECU 310 000).

Non-programme schemes

Stabex. These transfers took place in 1975 and 1976 under the Lomé I Convention and were set up to compensate for falls in prices for copra and cocoa. These transfers totalled ECU 3.35 m. No other Stabex transfers took place until 1986.

Emergency aid. Vanuatu is exposed to three major natural hazards: cyclones, earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. Following the tropical cyclones of Eric and Nigel who passed the northern part of Vanuatu in January 1985, ECU 200 000 was granted by the Commission to assist the government in its relief operations.

Risk capital from the European Investment Bank. The EIB financed in 1982 a credit line of ECU 1 m to assist the Vanuatu Development Bank for the refinancing of small and medium sized projects in the industrial, agro-industrial, energy, transport and tourism sector. At the end of 1986 a new funding of ECU 2 m was agreed upon by the EIB as a global loan to the same Vanuatu Development Bank.



This scheme to replace old coconut palms on Santo is just one of the many Community projects in Vanuatu

portant infrastructure for the delivery of the new planting material.

Awareness of about 5 000 smallholders was developed for the purchase of improved higher yielding seednuts and improved planting material, representing 5% of the area under coconuts in the country. The demand for improved coconuts increased during project implementation. The price of the coconut seeds and seedlings remained heavily subsidised by the project and a gradual increase of the farmer price for this planting material will be envisaged in the new programmes for coconut development (ECU 2 150 000).

A micro-project for the construction of 2 300 improved smoke copra driers obtained positive results in the country and the copra quality improved

ply and local supply forestry plantations were developed (ECU 260 000).

Fishing activities started under the first Lomé Convention and were further developed in the country. About 100 fishing projects all over the country organised more than 500 fishermen for specialising in deep sea fishing. Management assistance was obtained from the U.K. and volunteer organisations like CUSO, VSO and SNV (ECU 600 000).

A multiannual training programme enabled local training expenses to be financed, together with the provision of study awards in ACP countries and Europe (ECU 180 000).

A study has been developed to determine the possibilities of starting an Industrial Forest Plantation programme on Santo island (ECU 90 000).

Lomé III

The indicative programme within the Lomé III Convention will focus on the Rural Development sector as the concentration sector for projects and programmes. When the indicative programme was being allocated, the country had to cope with a substantial decline in world market copra prices; in addition, cyclones meant that the normal production of 50 000 tons of copra had fallen to 40 000 tons.

The projects developed under Lomé III concentrate either on the improvement of coconut plantations or diversification of agricultural activities such as to promote the smallholder livestock sector, to promote small-scale

Programmes	ECU	TOTAL ECUS
LOME I		
Smallholder Livestock Development	900 000	
South Malekula Road Study	229 000	
Rice Study	87 000	
Hydrological Study	190 000	
First Micro-Project	470 000	
PWD Heavy Plant Project	890 000	2 766 000
Stabex	1 431 000	4 197 000
LOME II		
Multiannual Training Programme	180 000	
Coconut Development Project	2 150 000	
First Micro-Project	160 000	
Assistance to Vanuatu Development Bank	750 000	
Second Micro-Project	260 000	
Artisanal Fisheries Development	600 000	
Forestry Development Study	90 000	
Public Works Heavy Plant Project	310 000	8 697 000
Risk Capital EIB	3 000 000	
Stabex	8 932 000	
Emergency Relief Aid	200 000	20 829 000
LOME III		
Preparation Study Coconut Development Project	40 000	
TA Fisheries Training Centre	40 000	
Fisheries Development Programme	1 700 000	
Smallholder Cattle Project	228 000	
Coconut Development Project	1 800 000	24 637 000
Forest Sector Project	(1 770 000)*	
Rural Road Project	(700 000)*	
Manpower Training Project	(250 000)	
Intercropping Project	(50 000)	
Risk Capital EIB	1 000 000	
Stabex copra 1986	11 438 000	
Stabex copra 1987	5 003 000	
Emergency relief aid (cyclone UMA)	100 000	
Emergency food aid (cyclone UMA)	360 000	42 538 000
(*) Projects in preparation.		

Training for management and administrative skills in the agricultural sector is important for the country. Shortage of qualified staff is a basic aspect of the under-development of the country. The government places high priority on localisation of expatriate-held posts in the administration and the preparation for taking over these posts is considered important in the manpower training programme to be further developed under the indicative programme and to be funded by the EDF (ECU 250 000).

Non-programme schemes

Exceptional Aid. Relief aid had been given up to ECU 460 000 for the cyclone damage early this year. Vanuatu has been affected by three cyclones within a short space of time. The damage was considered very considerable and the country is still recovering from these natural disasters.

Stabex. Two Stabex transfers took place during 1986 and 1987 for the price losses of copra. A total sum of ECU 16 440 815 has been disbursed to permit the government to compensate for price losses on the world market.

EIB. For the Convention of Lomé III a risk capital loan of ECU 1 m has been proposed to the government. Feasibility studies are being undertaken in the energy sector.

Regional cooperation under Lomé III

Various areas of cooperation are developed in the regional programmes, including

— Agricultural projects: coconut improvement, sustainable food production.

— Chamber of commerce project: improvement of training and information.

Funds have been allocated to the region for these projects. SPEC is the coordinating agency for these programmes. The Vanuatu government considers that these regional programmes are useful to strengthen the national development programmes at present being undertaken in the same sectors of intervention. ○ E.V.

fisheries, to promote forestry activities and to create new infrastructure in order to open up new land for agricultural activities.

The project in the field of fisheries (ECU 1.7 m) and livestock (ECU 228 000) production has started up already, and the participation of fishermen and smallholders in the execution of the project is very much stimulated by important training facilities all over the country. A UK-funded staff is responsible for project implementation and organisation.

An major project to start up during this year is the second phase of the Coconut Development Programme. About 5 000 new smallholders will participate in project activities. An important infrastructure of regional nurseries and demonstration plots will

operate in order to facilitate the renewal of old and senile coconut stands (ECU 1.8 m).

An important forest sector programme is foreseen on the island of Santo Espiritu where a pilot project phase will start planting of 100 ha on an industrial scale. Important intercropping experiments will be developed in order to analyse the possibilities of an early cash income (ECU 1.77 m).

Rural road programmes have great priority in the country to permit island populations to transport their export commodities to central points for marketing. On six islands a rural road programme (60 km) will be developed with the active participation of the local population and the Public Works Department (ECU 0.7 m)

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Curaçao Tourist Bureau

Santa Anna Bay splits Willemstad, the capital, in two: behind the pontoon bridge is its famous "Dutch" waterfront

Living apart ... together

Writing an economic country report on the Netherlands Antilles is easier said than done. The travelling alone leaves you somewhat baffled: one really has to visit all five of the Netherlands Antilles islands—Curaçao, Bonaire, Sint Maarten, Saba and Sint Eustatius—to get a grasp of the country, which means constantly hopping on and off aircraft of widely varying types, sizes ... and comfort. But the time and effort of getting around is more than compensated for by the discovery of each island's peculiarities, its physical features and, above all, its people. Each island is very different from the other, whether in size, the make-up of its population, the structure and development of its economy, or in its prosperity.

History has brought them and wrought them to-

gether as a single political entity: the Netherlands Antilles today constitute an autonomous, self-governing region within the Kingdom of the Netherlands, with only defence and foreign affairs remaining the responsibility of the Government of the Kingdom. Mind you, there used to be six islands, but as of 1 January 1986, Aruba, under its Status Aparte⁽¹⁾, went its own way. The inter-island struggle over this political separation was not the only difficulty the Netherlands Antilles had to face in the 1980s: for a variety of reasons it had to cope with what have been termed "unprecedented problems for the Antillean economy". The Netherlands Antilles now appear to be in a transitional phase, looking for new equilibria both in the political and in the economic spheres.

An intricate structure

A simple physical description serves to give a fairly good idea of the difficulties that arise in dealing with five such different islands. Curaçao and Bonaire lie 60 and 80 km respectively north of the Venezuelan coast, some 60 km apart; together they are referred to as the *Benedenwindse* (downwind) Islands and lie outside the hurricane belt. These two, together with Aruba, to the west of Curaçao, are also often referred to as the ABC islands. About 880 km to the north are Sint Maarten, Saba and Sint Eustatius—the *Bovenwindse* (upwind) Islands, those lying

within the hurricane belt. The "3 S's" are part of the smaller Eastern Caribbean islands chain, which also includes such islands as nearby Anguilla, Saint Christopher and Nevis and Saint Barthélémy. Sint Maarten is the odd-man-out, as the island is half Dutch, half French, though no customs barrier but only a signpost signals the borders.

In size, the five parts of the Netherlands Antilles range from the largest island, Curaçao (444 km²), to the smallest, Saba (13 km²), with Bonaire as the second biggest (288 km²), Sint Maarten (34 km² for the Dutch part) and Sint Eustatius (21 km²) being more of the average size in their particular area. The "3 S" group are vol-

canic: their terrain is more rugged and vegetation more luxuriant. Curaçao and Bonaire on the other hand are fairly flat, with only a few minor elevations and both are more arid. The latter two have small, uninhabited sister islands: Lesser Curaçao (1 km²) and Lesser Bonaire (7 km²).

The population and population densities are as varied, ranging from some 153 000 inhabitants on Curaçao, almost 11 000 on Bonaire, 25 000 (at least those who are registered...) on Sint Maarten, about 1 700 on Sint Eustatius and about 1 000 on Saba. Their ethnic composition, given the twists of history, is also varied and is reflected, to some extent, in the use of a different *lingua franca* in both

(1) See the country report on Aruba which appeared in our previous issue.

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

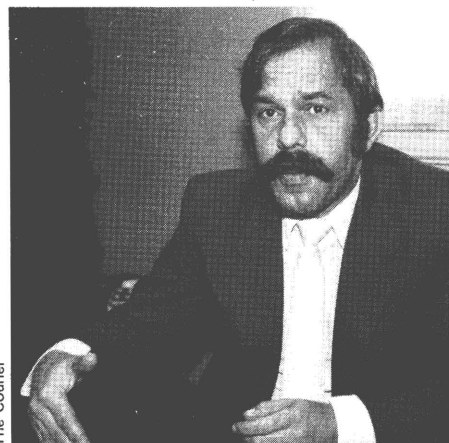
groups. While Dutch is still the official language for all five, Papiamentu is the vernacular on Curaçao and Bonaire, whereas in the three others, English is the lingua franca. In the southern islands, Spanish—given the vicinity of the Latin American mainland—is also often heard, while on the Dutch half of Sint Maarten, the odd French expression from “across the border” is also *bon ton*. Papiamentu is a mixture of Spanish, Dutch, Portuguese, English, Arawak Indian and a dash of some African languages.

None of the islands is rich in natural resources; their geographical position and their topography has made most of them fit to develop a services- and tourism-oriented economy, something they have all launched into, though with varying degrees of success. Each of these five small economies is also characterised by fairly high operating costs: virtually everything is imported over considerable distances and economies of scale, for instance in the field of facilities and infrastructure are virtually impossible, as each island needs its own harbour, telecommunications network, airport, etc... All are vulnerable, because highly dependent on external influences.

But even the complexity of the physical data is exceeded by the intricacy of the political structures, which are marked essentially by a dual layer of decision-making and bureaucracy. Since the 1954 Kingdom Charter, the Netherlands Antilles have enjoyed a large measure of autonomy within the Kingdom of the Netherlands, which remains responsible only for matters relating to defence and foreign affairs. The country is represented in The Netherlands by a Plenipotentiary Minister, while the Dutch Queen is represented in Curaçao by a Governor. Politically speaking, the country is a parliamentary democracy with a 22-member “Staten” (Parliament) elected, in principle, every four years; the Governor, in consultation with the “Staten”, nominates a Council of Ministers—the Central Government of the Netherlands Antilles—on a majority basis. There are no “national” political parties, common to all five islands, though some parties of different islands, of course, think along the same lines. Of the 22 Staten-members, 14 come from Curaçao, 3 from Bonaire and 3 from Sint Maarten, and

one each from Saba and Sint Eustatius. However, each island has a considerable degree of internal autonomy, with another political/administrative layer and far-reaching powers: every four years (not necessarily at the same time as the Staten elections) each island chooses its own Island Council (Curaçao 21 members, Bonaire 9, Sint Maarten, Saba and Sint Eustatius 5 each) which cannot be dissolved prior to the end of its term; the Island Government, (which has its own administration) and which in turn is composed of a number of Commissioners (the equivalent of aldermen) stemming from an Island Council majority, and chaired by a *Gezaghebber* or Governor, who is a kind of burgomaster on the Netherlands model (i.e. an official appointed for a specific period by the Queen).

This whole set-up can easily lead—and in fact *has* led—to conflicts of interest between the Central Government, based in Curaçao, and some or all of the Island Governments which stand by their prerogatives. It means that a given party can be in the majority at Central Government level, but in the minority on Island Government level or vice versa... It also strikes an outside observer that some major sectors, such as tourism, have no overall national approach—no portfolio—but are dealt with on a strictly island-by-island basis. (Admittedly the tourism product on each island is quite different in its characteristics, its level of development and its marketing). This dual layer in the quintuple approach to most social and economic issues was, incidentally, one of the major



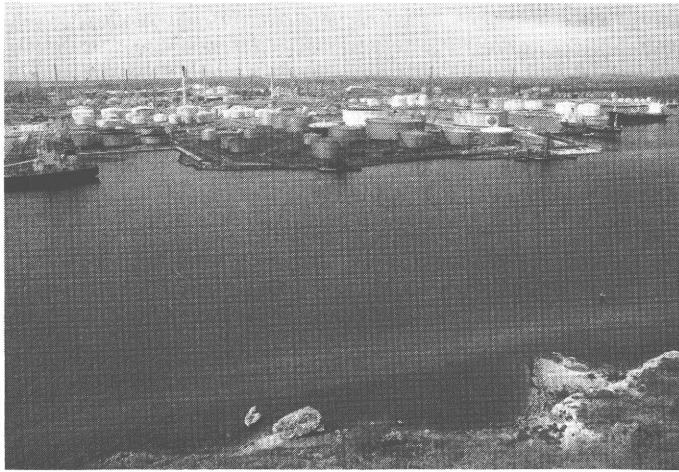
Cornelis Smits, Minister for Trade, Industry and Employment
“On a national level, most problems relate to the stagnation in Curaçao”

reasons why Aruba was so keen to acquire *Status Aparte*.

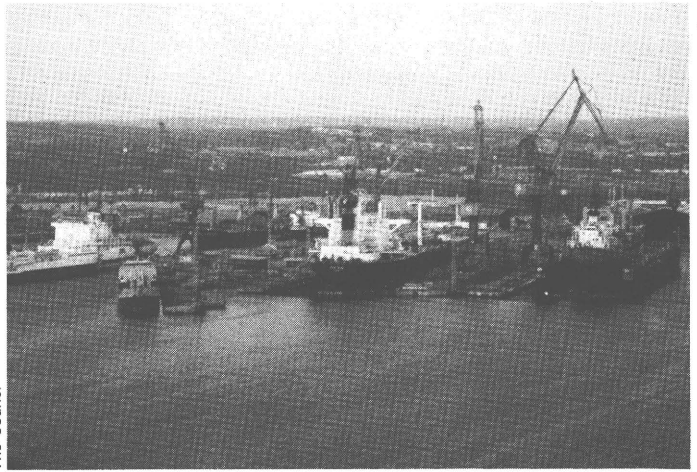
Which economy in the doldrums?

If the structure and development of each island's economy is very different so, often, are its policies. Take Curaçao and Sint Maarten. Curaçao is fairly diversified, with many activities centred around its principal natural asset, a well-protected deep-sea harbour, which has attracted a major oil refinery, oil trans-shipment facilities and a well-known dry dock company. In addition it has highly developed off-shore financial activities, some tourism and some small and medium-sized enterprises, the latter working mostly in a protectionist environment. Sint Maarten has virtually a one-sector economy thriving on tourism and tourism-related activities, and is a completely duty-free island devoid of any protectionism. This contrast should make it clear that the Netherlands Antilles' economy is not a homogeneous entity. However, the impact of economic developments in Curaçao on the national economy, given its prominence in the overall picture, is such that it is usually—though wrongly one will hear here and there—considered as representative of the economic pulse of the Netherlands Antilles. By that standard, it is undoubtedly true that the 1980s have not been good to the Netherlands Antilles, producing “unprecedented problems: the decline in tourism, the change in ownership and management of the oil refinery, the decline in the activities of the dry dock and the national carrier, the repeal of the US withholding tax and the partial termination of the tax treaty with the USA”. (This summary was the private view of Dr. E. Tromp, Head of Studies at the Bank of the Netherlands Antilles, in a speech in July 1988 before the Curaçao Trade and Industry Association).

At Central Government level, the shadow which is cast over recent economic performance obviously springs from the heavy clouds over the Curaçao sky. Both at Central and Curaçao Government levels, public finances have shown increasingly widening deficits. Narrowing the gap and, eventually, cutting the deficits has, here too, brought into the politicians' jargon the



The Courier



The Courier

Both Curaçao's refinery and Dry Dock Company had to undergo major restructuring in the wake of the world recession

notions of austerity and structural adjustment. The IMF-World Bank tandem had suggested a mixture of rationalisation, savings in public spending and the raising of certain taxes to bring budgets back into balance by 1992, a target year for the Netherlands Antilles, too. Yet, when pleading this year with the Dutch authorities for budgetary support, the current Central Government (in charge only since May 1988) had developed its own package of measures and conditions which it felt were more suitable to the Antillean situation. The bargaining with the Dutch Government over that budgetary support to allow for the structural adjustment—the Netherlands Antilles were asking for HFL 285 million, to come on top of its usual development aid—finally resulted in a Dutch commitment of HFL 170 million.

Cornelis Smits, Minister for Trade, Industry and Employment, agreed that: "on a national level, most problems relate to the stagnation on Curaçao". "Sint Maarten" he explained "is still experiencing a boom in tourism; Saba and Sint Eustatius will always remain dependent on support from the Central Government and Bonaire is doing nicely with its specialised diving tourism. But Curaçao is facing major problems, with a particularly high rate of unemployment and little real prospect of change for the better in the next couple of years" he continued. In his view, decentralisation towards the islands is the key word for the rest of his period of office (due to expire in March 1990): "By then I should have made myself superfluous. As a Minister I have no territo-

ry, so to speak, I can only provide the legal framework. But investors know our economic reality, or better realities come into play on each island individually".

Curaçao: "big brother" in trouble

Talking economics, even with national politicians or civil servants, unavoidably brings one to the economic headaches of the biggest island. Curaçao has, indeed, been particularly severely hit by the turbulence in the world economy this decade. For instance, 1981 was the last year its real GDP (then NAF 1 172.5 million) grew (by 2.4. %); since then it has been on a downward trend, reaching only NAF 921.7 million in 1986. The 1987 aggregated budget figures for the Island Government showed a deficit on the overall balance of almost NAF 80 million, rising probably to over NAF 100 million in 1988, while unemployment has reached a peak of some 30%. "Virtually every pillar of our economy has been hit by adverse conditions", explained Ralph James, Director at the Department of Development Cooperation and NAO.

Most of its development in the past—and let it be said here that in spite of its current problems Curaçao has reached a level which is the envy of most other Caribbean islands—is due to a combination of its strategic geographic position at the crossroads of continents and its main natural asset, the well-protected Schottegat harbour, accessible by the Santa Anna Bay. The latter splits the capital, Willemstad, in two, and has offered many

a tourist the possibility of taking spectacular shots of large cruiseships, cargo carriers and oil tankers in particular, sailing past the world-famous "Dutch" waterfront annex floating market—after the pontoon bridge has been pulled away—under the impressive span of the Queen Juliana bridge. The harbour is responsible for most of Curaçao's wealth today—and for some of its problems—making Curaçao a major trading centre, bringing ship repair work to it (from as far back as 1635) and, above all, attracting oil refining, trans-shipment and storage.

Once upon a time—alas no more—the Netherlands Antilles in their old form (the current five together with Aruba), was the fourth biggest oil refining centre in the world. The drop in oil prices and the changing patterns in world oil trade have put an end to this. In Aruba, Exxon's subsidiary, the Lago refinery, was shut down completely in 1985 with dire economic consequences; in Curaçao things fortunately worked out differently. Shell, which had come to Curaçao in 1918, also felt by 1985 that its refinery in Schottegat harbour no longer fitted well into its overall commercial strategy. It was no longer profitable enough, so they chose to leave. The Island Government took the refinery over on highly advantageous terms and succeeded in leasing it to the Venezuelan oil company, PDVSA, until 1990, an agreement which has now been extended to October 1994. Oil refining continues to be the main industrial activity, with major direct effects on employment and indirect effects in terms of local expenditure and investment. Though less rewarding now, for the

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Island Government as for refinery employees (their salaries went down by an average 40%), a catastrophe was thus avoided. If things had come to the worst, the consequences of a full-scale shutdown would have been as devastating as in Aruba. And PDVSA has, in fact, succeeded meanwhile in reversing the downward trend in oil refining. The setback in the oil business was of course also reflected in the harbour activities in general. In the field of ship repairs and maintenance, the Curaçao Dry Dock Company (CDM) began in 1982 to be hit by the worldwide recession and seriously increased international competition. Root and branch restructuring in 1986, involving major cost savings, has meant that CDM will probably break even in 1988, allowing for a certain optimism for the years to come.

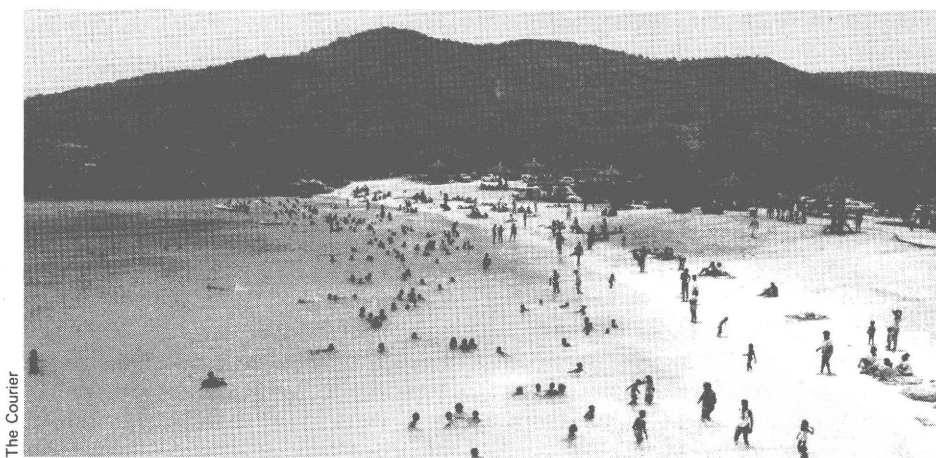
As in Aruba, tourism in Curaçao suffered a very serious blow in 1983 in the form of the devaluation of the Venezuelan Bolivar. It was a move that drastically cut back the spending power of the hitherto omnipresent Venezuelan tourists, their numbers dropping by no less than 70%. Hotels and retail trade suffered greatly and Curaçao's gross foreign exchange tourism receipts in one year went down by NA Florin 102 million to reach only 138.9 million in 1983. For a few years Curaçao's tourism reeled under the shock of the blow, and only since about mid-1987 or so has it experienced renewed growth. In the lean years a lot of attention has gone into the refurbishing of hotels, often taken over by the Island Government in order to preserve employment. Some have now been privatised again, or

will be in the near future. Minister Cornelis Smits felt that "despite its potential and its good overall infrastructure, Curaçao's tourism, in the eyes of many an investor, is still virtually virgin territory". The frequent change of Commissioner for Tourism in recent years has done little to help give the sector the push it deserves, given Curaçao's special Dutch-Caribbean appeal for both stay-over and cruise-ship tourists. Rafaelito Hato, Director of the Curaçao Tourist Bureau is confident that "a more aggressive marketing approach in the main markets of Northern America, as well as tapping the increasingly growing interest in Europe, offer good prospects for continued development". Europeans find the area more accessible and, above all, cheaper since the NA Florin is linked to the US dollar which is depreciating vis-à-vis most European currencies. The slackening promotion of Curaçao's image in the US and Canada between 1986 and mid-1987, has now, thanks to greater political will and more financial backing, been considerably tuned up. Overall tourism infrastructure receives more attention now, while further hotel expansion is also on the drawing board. This new thrust stems from the conviction that labour-intensive tourism may provide part of the answer to what Minister Smits describes as "the biggest challenge for Curaçao: providing 10 000 jobs by 1992". If tourism is to play a leading role in this, then it will be necessary for Curaçao to become more service-minded, with every inhabitant fully motivated and aware of the need for a professional approach.

Industrial activities on Curaçao

have not really lived up to expectations. In the view of Minister Smits, the main reason is they were not working in the proper environment: "Local industry was heavily protected here, and geared towards import substitution; this unrealistic approach has proved to be a failure. Now we need a major change in attitudes, dropping the idea of a guaranteed local market, forgetting that protectionism is synonymous with industrialisation, as we used to think, and making entrepreneurs more export-oriented. We will carefully examine protectionism in all its aspects and reduce it where legally possible". This liberalisation of the economy will be accompanied by a more aggressive approach to market what Minister Smits calls "Curaçao Incorporated": "In close cooperation with the harbour and free zone authorities, as well as the recently opened International Trade Center, we will position ourselves on the world scene to show people the potential of trading and producing here, putting forward our main assets such as our skilled labour, our extensive infrastructure and obviously our strategic position at the crossroads of continents".

A major setback has been the unfortunate development in what was once a regular bonus for the Netherlands Antilles, and for Curaçao in particular: off-shore financial activities. Ever heard of the Antilles Route? No, not a yacht race, but rather the flow of masses of Euro-dollars, merely transiting through the Antilles for tax reasons. The gist of the mechanism is the following: American companies who wanted to raise loans in the Euro-dollar market (dollar funds raised on the European capital market) were facing in the US a 30% withholding tax on the interest, a mechanism primarily designed to prevent capital import into the US; to avoid this they used to create finance companies incorporated in Curaçao as wholly-owned subsidiaries, which merely served to on-lend the funds to the mother company (at a marginally higher interest rate) thereby profiting from a US-Netherlands Antilles tax treaty whereby interest paid by the US parent companies to their finance subsidiaries was exempt from the US withholding tax on interest payments to non-residents. Such off-shore finance companies proliferated and constituted the core of the



The Courier

Putting aside the economic headaches of Curaçao, its inhabitants still make the most of their leisure time



The Courier

Bonaire is not only "Divers' Paradise", it is also a mecca for nature-lovers

Antilles's off-shore financial activities, providing the bulk (over 80%) of the profit tax received by Curaçao from this sector. A few other tax loopholes and advantages attract the remainder of operations in this area, mostly for so-called trust companies (sometimes referred to as "letter box companies" ...). Curaçao's profit tax for instance is very "appealing" to pay dividends via holding companies based there: only 2.4% on the first NAF 100 000, and only 3% beyond that level (against the 40% or so average in Europe...).

On 18 July 1984, the US, under pressure from its own Internal Revenue Service and also in need of more supple arrangements to attract funds, given its huge budget deficit, pulled the carpet from under this very rewarding scheme for the Antilles. The administration repealed its withholding tax, thus considerably reducing the advantages of channelling Euro-dollar loans through Curaçao. For both Curaçao and the Central NA Government this had a devastating effect on public finances: payments of profit tax by the off-shore sector, which had peaked in 1986 at NAF 420 million (almost 60% of Curaçao's income!), are now dropping at the rate of some NAF 80-90 million per year. (The drop was only felt as of 1987, as bonds issued prior to the American move were not affected). On 1 January 1988 the US cancelled its Tax Treaty with the Netherlands Antilles, while Dutch measures affecting the taxation of dividends flowing through their overseas territory made matters even worse. Gloom and doom in the sector? "Not really", explained Henk

Schutte, General Manager of the Nederlandse Middenstandsbank in Curaçao. "The Government's income may be suffering quite a cut, but the sector is actively gearing itself to preserving and expanding the remaining business. Of course, there is pressure against the "letter-box" companies, so we have to prove increasingly that there is enough substance—meaning a fixed establishment allowing for autonomous decisions at management level here in Curaçao itself. Our sector is by no means condemned, though! Our main former appeal was based on a mechanism—the US withholding tax—that was perhaps too simple to go on forever. We now need to promote actively, with Government's full support, our financial know-how and expertise as well as our strategic position. We have a clean record as to the origin of capital—mostly of European and Arab origin now—flowing through here and our off-shore banks and trust companies have built up a very solid reputation".

While there is at least moderate optimism noticeable now in Willemstad, in both the private and public sectors, this somewhat lengthy overview—though proportionate to the weight of Curaçao's economy in the overall picture of the Netherlands Antilles—perhaps explains the concerns over the main island's prospects. But how are matters in the other four islands?

Bonaire: fortunes gently rising

The smaller of the two *Benedenwindse* Islands is also the least densely populated of all five, with only 38 in-

habitants per km². This means there is lots of space, including a major natural park which offers nature-lovers and bird-watchers in particular, a feast for the eye. Who wouldn't marvel over flocks of pink flamingoes, for example?

Bonaire has a fairly diversified economy: there is salt mining, oil trans-shipment, a textile factory, a rice mill, and, highly visible through a forest of high-rising antennas, two major radio stations, one a relay station belonging to the Nederlandse Wereldomroep, the other being Trans World Radio, the world's biggest medium wave broadcaster run by a US religious organisation.

Most of all, however, there is tourism of a rather specialised kind. Bonaire now goes under the name of "Divers' Paradise": the world scuba diving community—and more people dive than one would imagine—has put Bonaire on the map, and it is really one of *the* meccas in those circles. As a number of Bonairians pointed out, the EEC has played a very constructive role in this venture. "The identification and consistent marketing approach of this specialised market is, for a substantial part, due to the EEC's cooperation" stressed Governor George Soliana. Charles Ellis, the island's Director of Tourism—and also MP for Bonaire—couldn't agree more: "First the EEC helped us with our main infrastructure, the airport, and then pushed the use of it by stimulating our tourism". In the past few years growth has been significant, as the number of visitors rose from 24 000 in 1985 to over 30 400 in 1987. Bonaire's

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Marine Park is a marvel in itself, but the richness of its underwater life is also tightly protected by environmental laws. The gist of it is basically "see-and-admire but don't touch!" No harpooning, no removal of coral or shells, no mooring by throwing anchors just anywhere with possibly devastating effects. Confronted with ever-increasing numbers of scuba-divers, the authorities feel that conservationist legislation to preserve the marine environment must be stepped up even more; it is, after all, the main tourist asset.

Representatives of the divers' operations like Don Stewart and Mory Rosseau couldn't agree more, but also stressed the control the diving community itself exercises. "Of course we want to keep our product intact", Don Stewart emphasised. "It is inconceivable for us not to tell divers not to destroy the reef. Any sinner here gets expelled by the divers themselves". Mory Rosseau stressed the potential of the diving business for further growth: "Diving has lost its original cheap image and has in fact now reached a public beyond the so-called yuppies: divers now have an average yearly income of some US 40 000 and it has expanded up to the level of whole families plunging down. A continued steady growth will go on as the future market is assured: in the US, 400 000 new divers are identified every year and another 50 000 in Europe".

The growth in tourism has obviously brought about an expansion of hotel

capacity and related activities; additional or new rooms and condominium units are under construction or in the pipeline, some involving multi-million dollar investments for the up-market luxury client. Numbers are expected to rise in the next 2-3 years from about 600 double rooms in 1988 to around 1000. Finding the necessary skilled labour and trained management may be a problem, as well as keeping infrastructure in pace with growth. People like Hugo Gerharts, Managing Director of the Bonaire Hotel and Tourist Association, but also in control of wide-ranging business interests, stressed the need of keeping Bonaire for the Bonairians. "The key should be the training and education of our own people first, not so much the attraction of outsiders. Our overall development is going to depend on the way our tourism goes, and it still has a long way to go. But we feel it has to go at a pace we can afford and keep up with ourselves, without too much speculation or buildings rising all over the place" He also added that "without neglecting the diving business, we still have to diversify our tourism, on land particularly—not forgetting tight controls on our marine environment and, if necessary, sanctions to prevent things going wrong—and in fact our economy at large".

Despite its upswing in tourism, Bonaire hasn't escaped the need for austerity and adjustment: "In July 1987 we had to sack 231 of some 900 people employed in our public ser-

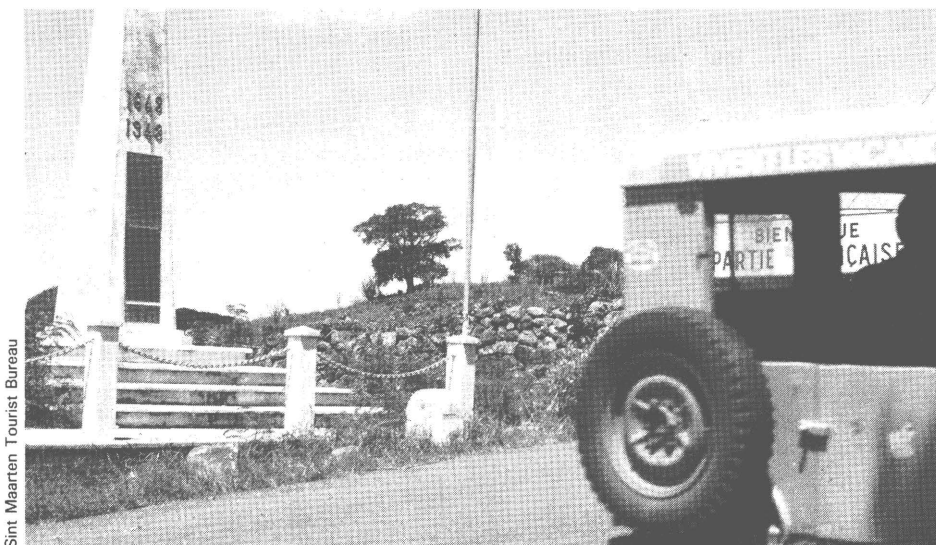
vices, which were streamlined for the sake of higher efficiency. Most were in fact absorbed by the private sector. We also had to raise a number of taxes, all this in order to keep budget deficits within reasonable limits", explained Mr Ellis.

Bonairians may have a reputation for being perhaps rather timid, but their cautious approach so far has certainly done them no harm. Rather it has set them on the path of the steadily growing development which they obviously want to keep genuinely local. And who could blame them for that?

Sint Maarten: coping with the boom

If one leaves Bonaire with the distinct impression that it wants to keep its tourism growth in hand and within reason, Sint Maarten is another ballgame altogether: here the tourist boom seems to have overtaken everything and everybody. Within the Netherlands Antilles, the largest of the three *Bovenwindse* Islands stands for a philosophy of no-nonsense *laissez faire* combined with a "time-is-money" approach. Some refer to the problems this may cause, such as the stress it has laid on infrastructure trying—and often failing—to keep in tune with tourism growth. Many on the other hand envy it for the same reason because if the boom is there, alive and well, it is mostly due to that particular approach and to the islanders' aversion to losing time or opportunities through bureaucratic hassle. Both Joe and René Richardson, Commissioners of the Sint Maarten Government, agreed that Sint Maarten's success story is largely explained by the absence of red tape. "We don't suffer from the so-called Dutch disease, i.e. wasting a lot of time with talking things over; our approach is pragmatic, to-the-point and time-oriented" felt Joe Richardson. And his colleague René added: "This absence of bureaucracy is topped by the confidence in our Island Government: ever since the first Island Council elections in 1951, the same Democratic Party has been in power, and this stability has had a major impact in attracting investors".

The Government's general attitude towards investors, facilitating the ex-



Sint Maarten Tourist Bureau

The signpost signalling the border between Sint Maarten and Saint Martin: this island offers an opportunity to get to know two major European cultures, Dutch and French, with a typical Caribbean touch

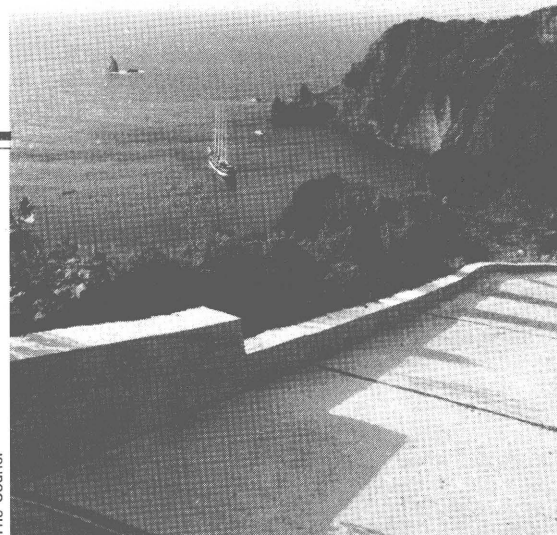
pedient granting of the necessary licences, combined with tax holidays on investment, has certainly proved successful: between 1980 and 1987, the number of hotel rooms has doubled to reach just over 3 300. All this was in response, of course, to the rapidly rising number of visitors arriving at the airport (the bulk of whom stay on the Dutch side of the island); over the same period they rose from about 180 000 to nearly 500 000. To those stay-over tourists, mostly from the US, should be added the huge numbers of cruise-ship passengers: in 1987, 452 such floating luxury resorts landed almost 390 000 short-stay spenders. These sheer numbers and their growth, the envy of many a competing Caribbean neighbour, have put a heavy strain on infrastructure and basic services, struggling to keep pace with demand. The EEC has already contributed, during the first half of this decade, to relieving the once heavily congested airport and related services (still continuing, though, at peak times), but travel on the island itself can be time-consuming. The luxurious shopping areas of the capital Philipsburg, for instance, are notorious for their massive traffic jams. The road network, sewerage systems and low-cost housing facilities are still greatly overstretched by demand.

The housing shortage has to do with what some call the biggest problem for the island: the shortage of labour.

Finding unskilled and skilled labour, and in fact the whole range of hotel and restaurant staff at all levels, has been difficult. The tourism boom has necessitated a large influx of labour, coming mostly from neighbouring islands. The registered population may be standing at around 25 000 (of whom only some 8 000 "genuinely" from Sint Maarten), politicians estimate, however, that the number of actual inhabitants on the Dutch side is much closer to 50 000.

Known as "The Friendly Island", Sint Maarten wants to keep that reputation alive. The awareness of the need for it is certainly there, as Charles Vlaun, Acting Governor, explained: "We have to preserve that asset and in fact closely monitor it, given the presence of so many foreigners, as tourism is a very sensitive industry from that point of view". On the investors' side, confidence remains in the future of tourism here: within the next four years some US\$ 750 million will flow in to add another 3 000 rooms. The boom goes on ... and the upswing now noticeable on the French side too—with which relations locally are considered to be very good—can only sustain it.

Sint Maarten is certainly well placed for visits to neighbouring islands, and the opportunity to do just that is seized by many day-trippers—a bonus given the fact that the island itself offers them every opportunity to get to know two major European cultures,



The Courier

Saba, a volcanic cone, has some of the steepest roads... and a very varied vegetation

Dutch and French, with a typical Caribbean touch. Some, however, call Sint Maarten an "American" country, and it must be admitted that virtually everything is geared to satisfy its mostly American tourists... and, yes, there is no accounting for taste...

Saba: something special

After the hustle and bustle of Sint Maarten, Saba comes to most visitors as a kind of a relief. Here there is no frenzy, no casino or five-star luxury resorts, but an island that is so individual that it really stands out as something unique. "The Unspoiled Queen" it is baptised in the tourist brochures. And, for once, seeing is believing. This cone-shaped, volcanic outcrop, a rock of a mere 13 km, boasts a surprising variety of tropical vegetation. Experts identify about eight different types, according to altitude, and varying from banana trees to Nordic pines. This is, after all, the highest point of the entire Kingdom of the Netherlands! Mount Scenery rises up to 884 m above sea level (a mere 1064 steps for those who feel like climbing it...) The swirling mists often surrounding the peak make one forget sometimes that this is the Caribbean. Getting there, particularly by plane (the most common way after the regular speedboat link with Sint Maarten, 45 km away) is quite spectacular. The airstrip is only 400 m long (not recognised by international air regulations!), covering about the only flattish area on the island, ends sharply at a cliff rising 30 or 40 metres from the sea. Only WINAIR is authorised to use this "airport" and flies Twin Otters of the STOL or short-take-off-and-land-



The Courier

Sint Maarten is enjoying a lasting tourism boom

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

ing type. Passengers tend to voice their relief after take-off or landing...

The inhabitants, barely 1 000 of them, many of Irish or Scottish descent, are concentrated in four villages, two up and two down; there are two schools, two police stations and four churches. Getting from one place to the other takes you over some of the steepest and most winding roads to be found (hoping all the time the brakes don't give out...). One particularly steep road features a sign reading "The road that couldn't be built"; Dutch engineers from the mainland considered that the engineering was impossible until a local man proved the contrary.

Saba does, however, feel somewhat neglected, though of all the islands it is perhaps the most "Dutch-feeling". "We do not feel that what is happening here is very much in the minds of the Central Government in Curaçao; our problems in their eyes are minor", stressed Governor Wycliffe Smith. Saba really suffers from "diseconomies" of scale, yet its services and infrastructure—much more expensive because of the topography—have to be similar to those on other islands. In 1987 it faced a budget deficit of NAF 4.6 million, to be seen against only NAF 1.2 million in revenues. There is some small scale fishing and farming, but Government is the biggest employer providing a livelihood for 50-60% of the active population. Tourism is now on the way up: "This sector has picked up nicely, and in particular our diving tourism has grown considerably", Commissioner Peter Granger explained. Tourist arrivals have indeed gone up from "only" 12 800 in 1985 to just over

20 000 on average for 1986 and '87. According to Tourism Director Glenn Holm, "the EEC-sponsored tourism promotion project has proved very effective", an opinion shared by Governor Smith who stressed the pilot function of the EEC's project. Apart from the spill-over of day-trippers from Sint Maarten in particular, and the rise in small cruise-ships calling at Saba's rocky shores, the island now has its own Marine Park, too, and aims at the profitable scuba diver market. So that it is divers who now fill up most of the 60-odd hotel beds on the island. Access will be improved: a new harbour will be opened at Well's Bay with EEC aid and, with Dutch aid, a master plan of harbour improvement is being worked out. "With Dutch aid, too, we are also considering the building of a new runway, 600 m long, which will improve both access and safety", Governor Smith pointed out.

Saba surely wants to reap the benefits of tourists' increased interest for it, but within limits: "We want to keep our own identity" said Commissioner Granger, and Governor Smith added: "We want to keep Saba as it is".

For those connoisseurs looking for peace and quiet in the Caribbean, Saba may be *the* place.

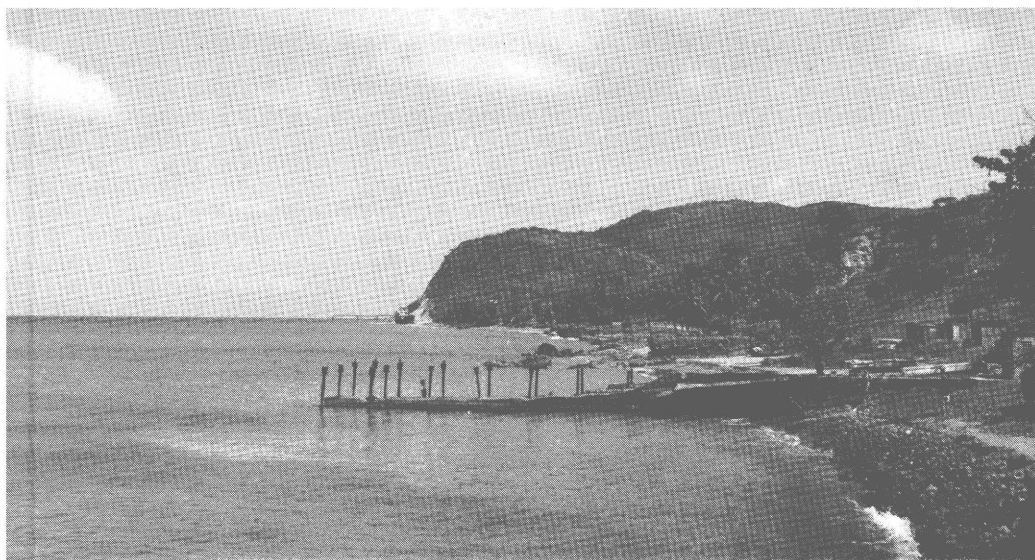
Sint Eustatius: glories of the past

Commonly known as "Statia", Sint Eustatius is the smallest island, after Saba, and the two islands have much in common: a small scale economy, with the Government as biggest employer; St Eustatius also faces structu-

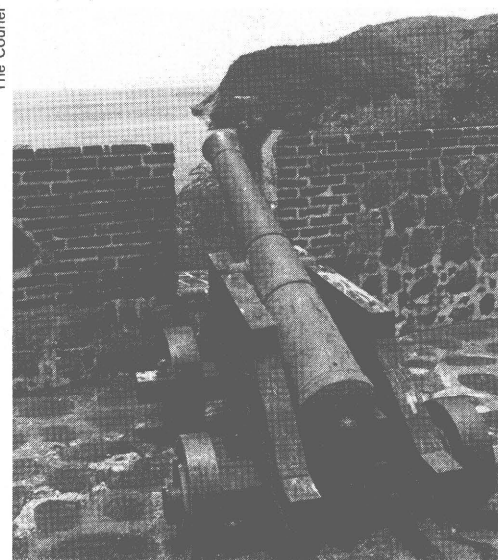
ral budget deficits (NAF 5.7 million in 1987, with only NAF 1 million in revenues). As in Saba, funds from the Central Authorities to cover the gap are insufficient. "Statia" has had a very complex history, and reminders of its past are to be found everywhere. Some sites have already been restored to their former glory, others still being excavated and explored. The island was at its zenith in the 18th century, when it served as a very wealthy entrepot in the West Indies and counted nearly 20 000 inhabitants (as against the present 1 700 or so). Then called the Golden Rock, it is often dubbed "America's childhood friend", as it then served as a trans-shipment base for supplies to the rebels who fought the British Crown in the War of Independence. Statia paid dearly for having been the first to recognise the young American nation in 1776 by firing a salute from Fort Oranje for the American warship *Andrew Gloria*, which was flying the new nation's flag. Five years later, the British Admiral Rodney took revenge for this breach of British sovereignty by bombarding and ransacking the island. The abolition of the slave trade and the changing patterns in sea trade set Statia further on the path of decline.

In the view of its present Acting Governor, Jan Lens, "Statia, in economic terms, is on the way up". Farming and fishing are receiving backing, and a new fisheries company is about to start up. There is also, of course, the Statia Terminal, a US company involved in oil trans-shipment. It is the largest private enterprise on the island, employing some 65 people.

Sint Eustatius was at its zenith in, the 18th century but paid dearly for having been the first, in 1776, to recognise the young American nation by firing a salute from Fort Oranje (right) for the American warship Andrew Gloria, which was flying the new nation's flag



The Courier



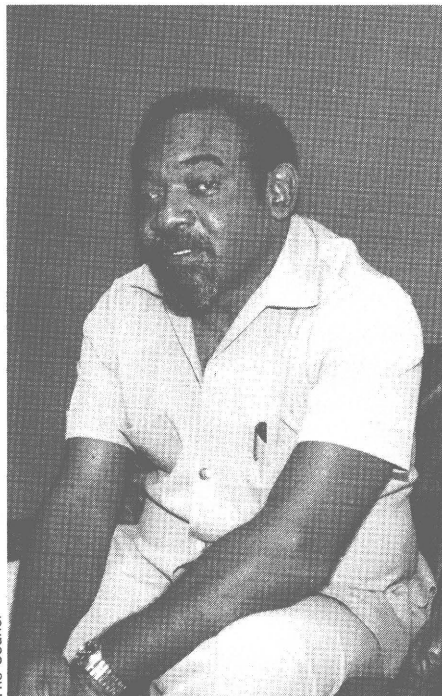
In terms of tourism, the EEC's promotion project has, for a variety of reasons, had less of an impact so far than that in Saba. "Tourism has not yet reached its full potential", Mr. Lens commented. Commissioner Julian Woodley pointed out the interest of some investors to create new resorts: "An American group is working out a condominium project involving some 73 units, while a Dutch group is considering a 20 to 40 room investment". Such expansion would come on top of the existing 119 rooms, though only some 60 of those are considered operational, the remainder being in need of refurbishment. Directly related to tourism, but also important for a further diversification of the economy, will be the expansion of the airport now in the pipeline. Under an EEC-Netherlands cofinancing scheme, the current runway, 600 m long, will be extended to 1 300 m, allowing bigger aircraft to land. "This extension, plus the additional works at the airport, will all contribute to improve access to Statia for a larger number of companies than up to now", felt Airport Manager Ellis Schmidt.

The forests surrounding the extinct volcano Quill, the general mood of the island and the countless reminders of Statia's rich past, both on land and under water (not just shipwrecks but also sunken warehouses and taverns) definitely have a special appeal.

Contemplating the future

A tour of all the islands is not only useful to observe the different economic patterns but is also revealing of the widespread support for a new political *modus vivendi*. Virtually every island voices, with varying intensity, its desire for a new set of inter-island relations. It is a process which really started with Aruba's struggle for its *Status Aparte*. When it finally came into force on 1 January 1986, the other islands had two years to come up with a modified political and constitutional structure in addition to economic adjustment. Talks have been going on between the Central Government and the authorities of each island territory, but have not yet been conclusive on a new structure. The ideas on the decentralisation process vary from island to island: some are more committed than others, for some the need to solve

their economic troubles is more pressing. Whereas, for instance, on Sint Maarten, politically influential figures have been calling for independence, others have a more cautious approach. Take the smallest ones, Saba and Statia, reflecting on this issue together: "We are studying the decentralisation proposals of the Central Government. In the past we had little influence on the course of events; now we don't want this to be thrown upon us. We want to know how, and at what cost, and we want to look at our own strengths and weaknesses to get a clear picture of what it would involve for us to decentralise", declared Saba Governor Smith on this issue. The Bonaire Member of Parliament Charles Ellis



The Courier

Franklin Crestian, Minister for Development Cooperation

"The more we decentralise, the more it benefits the nation as a whole"

stressed "the need for sufficient means and qualified staff to decentralise, but in any case we need a bigger say in our own future. We want cooperation from the Dutch and Central Governments to become less dependent on them, more able to support ourselves, but in the knowledge that we are not going to be totally independent".

The current Central Government is certainly convinced of the need for achieving, quickly, a more streamlined political decision-making process, which could also contribute to a more

open business and investment climate and therefore relieve some of the economic worries. Many in the Antilles would agree that the real power base lies in the islands themselves, so that it really comes down to organising the power *de jure* where it already is *de facto*. Concerns for the future are perhaps most serious on Curaçao, compared by some to "an aircraft that taxis along the runway but doesn't get off the ground..."; the same sources blame "the frequent change of pilot, hampering continuity and consistency". These "some" have constituted a think tank, the Kousa Komun Foundation, to reflect constructively on a new democratic model for both Curaçao and for the nation as whole. The former chairman of KK, George Curiel—ex-Director at the Department of Development Cooperation now running his own consultancy—explained that "the dual layer of decision-making, combined with the instability of coalition governments, against the background of the economic crisis, has undermined the credibility of our democratic system". KK's current Chairman, Oscar Castillo, a history teacher, felt that "all factors leading to a possible breakdown of our democracy are present". Kousa Komun, in order to prepare a valid alternative, commissioned some studies on the functioning of the political system: Douglas Roe, Professor at Yale, came to the conclusion that "the Antilles possess one of the most fractionalised party systems in the world". This may sound alarming but the almost countless changes of coalition in Curaçao since 1971 are ample proof of this blunt statement. The need for streamlining democratic power and the electoral process through which it is expressed, at both Central and Island levels, is beyond doubt. If it is not done, the break-up of the Netherlands Antilles, which started with Aruba's departure, may well not have come to an end yet.

As the Minister for Development Cooperation, Franklin Crestian, noted "the more we decentralise, the more it benefits the nation as a whole". It can only be hoped, therefore, that in due course—and in not too distant a future—the Netherlands Antilles comes up with a new *modus vivendi*, a new way of living apart ... together. o

Roger DE BACKER

“We have all the necessary ingredients for getting out of this difficult situation”

declares Prime Minister Maria Liberia-Peters

“This is the second time in four years that a cabinet led by myself has been called upon to take on the responsibility of government. On both occasions this has happened half way through the term of office of another cabinet and both occasions have been times when our country was experiencing serious financial, economic and social difficulties.”

This quote taken from the government policy statement that Mrs Liberia-Peters read out in the “Staten” (Parliament) on 9 June provides a rough picture of both the personality and the situation. On the one hand, Mrs Liberia-Peters is not one to shun a challenge, whilst on the other hand the economic situation in the Netherlands Antilles looks none too bright. She took office as Prime Minister on 18 May 1988 after a long government crisis and leading a coalition government here is no easy option: the Netherlands Antilles has no national political parties common to all five islands, which means that national governments are all based on coalitions in which the individual traits of each island are reflected. Thus the Central Government often has to compete with different majorities within all, or some, island administrations, which themselves have wide-ranging powers on their respective islands. Prime Minister Liberia-Peters talks to “The Courier” about her views on the duality inherent in national unity and the insular mentality, and about the the Netherlands Antilles’ economic situation.



The Courier

► Prime Minister, the Netherlands Antilles appear to be in a state of transition. On the one hand there is political transition, a search for new structures and a desire to decentralise in favour of the five different islands, and on the other hand there is economic transition, in which there are evidently fairly large differences in the economic policies of the five islands. What is your view of this?

— Transition is indeed the right word. After the 1983 Round Table Conference and the grant of special status (“Status Aparte”) to Aruba from 1 January 1986, it was agreed that the five remaining islands should consider the direction in which they wished to go in the future. Originally, this process was expected to take two years — in other words, until January 1988; seven months later we

are still looking for the answer. And why? If you think about it, this single country, the Netherlands Antilles, has one central organ: the Government of the Netherlands Antilles and the Parliament of the Netherlands Antilles, but politically the Antilles have always functioned as five (it used to be six) mini-states, each with its own local government. This does not necessarily make us unique; in the Netherlands, for example, there are local authorities (“Gemeentebestuur”), town councils (Gemeenteraad), the Provincial Council (“Provinciale Staten”) and a Parliament. However, here in the Antilles other factors contribute to the way in which the different islands function, as it were, as separate entities, namely the natural barriers: the distance separating the *Bovenwindse* Islands from the *Benedenwindse* Islands, and the language question, with

English spoken on the *Bovenwindse* Islands and Papiamentu on the *Benedenwindse* Islands. Consequently, the political parties have always been, and continue to be, very insular. I, for example, am Prime Minister of the Antilles, but my grass-roots political support comes from Curaçao; my voters are from my island. All this can make it much more difficult sometimes to reach agreements quickly on certain matters, as we have no national parties. This is why we are still grappling with the wishes of the different islands.

Personally, I am very optimistic because our government is championing a new approach. Until now, proposals have been prepared centrally and then sent to the islands, which could not equate them with their interests; the islands felt that too many centralist structures were being imposed on

them. Our approach begins with the islands. In my view, it is up to each of the five islands that make up the Antilles to formulate for themselves, with central backing and support of course, the way in which they envisage future cooperation between the islands, which responsibilities they are prepared to assume and in which areas they would appreciate assistance from the larger islands. Once the islands have made their wishes known we will have to analyse the situation, and I think that we will then be able to reach an agreement which reflects all our interests.

The island structures have also helped mould the five different economies. In the days when we had booming oil refineries here—Lago in Aruba and Shell in Curaçao—and a flourishing ship repair industry, our earnings were extremely high and it was easy to look after the smaller islands, too. Curaçao and, in the past, Aruba, took financial and economic care of the four smaller islands. The oil refining crisis and the troubles of the ship repair yard in Curaçao are well known; the local authorities on all five islands were therefore confronted with the major challenge of finding new ways and means to keep their heads above water. The same also applied to the Central Government. Both the Central Government, as a sort of coordinating organ, and the Islands Governments, which were in daily contact with life on the islands, had to face new challenges. The island factor gained more weight and the islands all began to look for their own solutions, even to the extent that they were in danger of having to compete with one another: Curaçao had its own diving industry, Saba had its own diving industry, Bonaire had its own diving industry. I think that was a natural process, but it cannot detract from the fact—I have just returned from another visit to all the islands—that, although each island authority takes the view that it is first and foremost responsible for what happens on its own island, the will is there to find ways of working together, particularly where tourism is concerned, and to find a joint approach. So it is definitely a time of transition, in which we are looking for new solutions in which the island structures will play a role which is sometimes positive and sometimes negative. But

if the island authorities continue to want to arrive together at the best solution for our islands, then I predict that in the not-too-distant future—certainly during the lifetime of this Government—specific agreements on political structures will have been reached, or will at least be well under way, and that our economy and economic structures will have recovered enough for us to see clearly which aspects of the different island economies need to be consolidated or further developed, with the necessary cooperation and co-operation framework.

► *On some of the smaller islands there are whispers to the effect that "Curaçao is having economic problems, and if things get tight there, then we could find ourselves out in the cold". In other words, if Curaçao's economy has to be put in order, that will affect the other islands. What is your view of this?*

— I have been hearing those whispers for some time. Curaçao is the largest island, with the largest population; most of the economic activity was concentrated there, and that activity has now slumped. Here and there on the horizon there are signs of recovery, but they only spur the different islands into saying "let's look for our own solutions, let's not be too dependent". This can have its advantages, because it ensures that all the Island Governments and the Central Government do their utmost to find a solution. It is true that you can hear political catch phrases in Curaçao such as "Now that Aruba is no longer with us, the financial and economic burden of the smaller and economically weaker islands is too much for us to carry alone". On the smaller, weaker islands, they are saying: "Listen, Curaçao's economy isn't looking very healthy, so let us also try to generate as much of our own income as we can by ourselves". The situation has its disadvantages, but it has positive aspects as well.

► *You have just mentioned Aruba (and you have just returned from a visit there). Two and a half years after Aruba was granted special status, how would you describe relations between Aruba and the five other islands?*

— I would describe them as very positive. Before this Government took

office, we have very good contacts with the authorities in Aruba: we are all members of the regional political organisation of Christian Democratic Parties, and had therefore been able to use those channels to establish very close relations. Now that our party is in Government, cooperation between Aruba and the Antilles can only continue to improve. It is showing already. For example, I have just mentioned the search for solutions. Well, we are busy trying to reach agreements with certain consultancy agencies with a view to finding locations for new production units. The Minister of Trade, Industry and Employment has just returned from Aruba, where he held fruitful talks with the authorities and we shall be cooperating more closely in that area. Certain agreements have also been reached on tourism. I think that cooperation can only be enhanced by such agreements.

► *Would it be true to say that you are making the transition from a protectionist economic policy to a more liberal one?*

— Yes, that is what we stand for. Of course, we must take account of certain agreements already reached between the State and the different industrial interests, as well as with the Union of Antilles Industrialists, because we must remember the principle of legal certainty. We can't just turn everything upside down from one day to the next. Nevertheless, we are advocates of free enterprise and a more liberal economic policy.

► *Mr De Koning⁽¹⁾ will be arriving at the end of the week. How would you describe current relations between the Netherlands Antilles and the Netherlands and how do you expect them to develop in future?*

— All I can say is that relations are good. I should explain recent developments concerning the budget support affair, otherwise it might appear to obscure the issue, but I see our relationship as a very positive one. Mr De Koning visits the Antilles every six months and various talks are held. Of course there are occasional differences in opinion regarding what does and

(1) The Dutch Minister for Social Affairs and Employment, also in charge of the KABNAAZ, the Cabinet for Aruban and Antillean Affairs.

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

does not need to be done in the field of development cooperation policy, but differences never reach the scale where one begins to think things are breaking down. As regards our future political structure, there was a distinct feeling here in the Antilles until a few years ago that the Netherlands wanted to push the Antilles in a particular direction. I would say that that feeling has been defused to some extent. As for the current situation, budget support in the form of extra aid has been requested from the Dutch Government to help bridge over this period of economic difficulty. The Dutch Government refused the amount which was initially requested, and we were given HFL 170 million. But any country, organisation or body approaching another country, organisation or body for extra help must bear in mind that sooner or later conditions will be laid down, and must expect sooner or later to have to open up their books to closer inspection. The first thing that we must do now—I do not want to talk first about the conditions which the Netherlands have laid down, since nobody gives extra help without attaching conditions—is look at the conditions we have imposed on ourselves, and to fulfil them.

► *What are those conditions?*

— We have pieced together a particular scenario as regards the reconstruction process over the next four years, until 1992. The government has selected certain areas of concern where cuts will have to be made, so you could call it a “scenario of cuts”.

Where economic recovery is concerned, the main adjustments to be made will be in the laws, because there

has been an about-turn since 1969, with very protectionist laws governing the labour market; however, now that we are in difficult economic straits, those laws are too rigid. There has to be greater flexibility and we have undertaken to make the changes required to increase the flexibility of the labour market. Hopefully a more flexible labour market combined with a more liberal economic policy will enable us to stimulate more economic activity, so that the problem of unemployment in particular can finally be solved, chiefly through the private sector.

► *What is your view on relations with Europe in its broader context? When compared with some of the Member States of the EEC, the NA is a well-off country. Are you a rich developing country?*

— I disagree with your last point, but let us first look at the broader EEC context. Whilst exploring for new possibilities for our economic development, we have been eyeing our closest neighbours, Venezuela, Colombia and the Andean Pact countries. Why? Because we have no raw materials. Our greatest potential resource is our people: our skilled people. So we are hoping that we shall be able to gain more insight into the question of the EEC's rules of origin and that together we can increase our economic productivity, using raw materials from Latin America and also with our sights on the EEC. To date we have not had much success in exporting to Europe. We have recently begun to export some fruit juices, and there is a very small percentage of oil products, small even when Shell was here, and in the past, I believe, there was a bit of rum. Other than that the venture has never

really got off the ground. That is rather a pity, really, because if you compare the Antilles with the great countries of Europe, if you look at what a small part of the Caribbean region — the French islands in the region must also be taken into account — has to offer in the way of potential and opportunities, and if you compare that to the huge European market, I can hardly believe that we will tread on many toes by exporting products to Europe.

Of course, we are more than happy with the financial injections that we get from the EEC, but for me it is just as important, if not more so, for us to improve our economic productivity, even if only in the long term, to solve our employment problem and our hard currency shortage. The ability to export is extremely important to us, it is not only the financial injection that we want; the financial injection could even be reduced as we begin to generate more wealth for ourselves. Therefore I feel we need a better insight into the problems posed by the origin rules and into whether it would be possible for the EEC to adopt a more flexible policy towards this “not rich developing country”.

You spoke of a rich developing country. There are reasons for that, of course, as a very famous Dutch economist told me recently: in most countries where there has been a booming oil industry, the level of welfare has risen so steeply that other possible areas of economic development have never caught up. The country had sufficient income and did not need to do anything else, and of course the oil industry gave things a boost here. I mean, it was extremely difficult for local government to keep its qualified staff because they were all spirited away by Shell. The refinery was the trend-setter for wages and salaries, standard of living, etc.

When Shell arrived here, some of the less adequate housing was cleared away immediately, because Shell built its settlement and lured workers here from all over the Caribbean, from Venezuela, Colombia, etc. That provided a tremendous stimulus as regards the way people lived. Shell had its own supermarket and hospitals. Other establishments, like the ship repair companies and other firms were also more or less obliged to provide



Prime Minister Maria Liberia-Peters with the Commission Delegate Marc Wolff: “We are hoping that we shall be able to gain more insight into the question of the EEC's rules of origin...”

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

similar facilities, because our union movement here is well developed. Shell was the trend-setter. Now, all of a sudden, Shell is no longer here and it is far from easy to achieve the same level of growth now we are "on the way down". It is a slow, painful process which causes some unrest sometimes, but we just have to be aware that those days have gone for good, and keep on adapting to the way down.

Observing us from outside, therefore, I can just about imagine that parallels are drawn, but it depends greatly on whom we are compared with, as a poor country. There are very many nuances and hues on the scale of rich and poor, even among developing countries. But in view of our current reality, our efforts to stimulate the tourist industry more, the fact that we were lucky enough to be able to hold on to our refinery and that things are looking up for the ship repair industry—I think they have seen the worst of the crisis—and our hopes of attracting more industrial activities locally, all these factors helped ensure that we did not take too much of a tumble and will continue to help us attain some kind of growth. But if you look at us from the inside, if you compare our situation now to what it was not so long ago, 10 or 15 years, and you ask the average Antilles citizen where we are on the scale from rich to poor, the average citizen will tell you "We have become very poor".

► *Are the Antilleans still living a little above their means?*

— What do you call living above one's means? I read that in the papers recently and I wonder what they mean by it. If you look at the statistics on basic incomes, which we did recently when preparing the budget, they certainly aren't that high, which shows that much of the talk over means is rather simplistic. Unemployment is running at 30% in Curaçao. That includes a number of unemployed that manage to get work here and there on a day-to-day basis, so they are not all destitute; nevertheless, we have a fairly high level of unemployment even in comparison with various other developing countries in the region. Thanks to the fact that here in the Antilles—and this is normal in the developing countries or in the Caribbean—we are

familiar with the system of taking responsibility for each other in the family in its broader sense, some of the problems are taken care of on a social level. But I do not find it proper to talk simplistically about living above one's means. Whom are you making the comparison with, who pronounced that judgement in the first place? When I know that, we can talk in specific terms about it.

► *We have not yet discussed the Netherlands Antilles as a financial centre: the people working in the financial sector are saying "business as usual", but the new relations with the United States as regards taxes have been a great blow and have meant a large loss of income for the government.*



The Courier

"Our approach begins with the islands. ... It is up to each of the five islands... to formulate for themselves ... the way in which they envisage future cooperation between the islands..."

— Certainly, the termination of the agreement has been a great blow in terms of the loss of income for the country from taxes on profits in the financial sector. The State is now working very closely with the relevant bodies in the private sector to take certain legal measures to make the Antilles attractive also for activities that are not related to the agreement. We are hoping thereby to salvage what we can of the financial sector. Given that our economy has been dependent on a few key sectors and that, on top of that, the budget of Curaçao in particular, where the offshore sector is most developed, depended on that sector

alone to provide more than 50% of its revenue, when that sector slumped it caused an immediate drop in the country's revenue and great problems in the day-to-day running of the economy. That is why we are hoping to consolidate whatever we can and attract new activities through channels that have nothing to do with the agreement. But diversification will be important for the future of the Antilles. In the past it was our port that made us great. It was thanks to the port that we had a Shell refinery here, and that we have a ship repair yard that is the largest in the region and well-known for its top quality work. For the past few years, we have also had a container harbour. Our geographical position, together with the possibilities offered by our infrastructure, both our airport and our harbour, must help Curaçao and the Antilles out of the slump. Attempts are also being made in the private sector to attract economic activities here from South America, in particular Argentina and Brazil. We are hoping to play a bridging role between this part of the world, America and Europe and we shall gear ourselves as far as possible to greater diversification than we have had in the past. The financial sector is good for us as it gives us a direct injection, but it has proved too vulnerable.

► *Are you optimistic about the future of the Netherlands Antilles?*

— Certainly. I have to live here, I shall reach a hundred here, I shall have to die here, I shall have to forge a future for my children here. All economies worldwide have cycles; they have all had ups and downs. We are currently in a trough but, as I said before, that increases the challenge facing us; we shall have to fight harder to achieve greater unity and to think and act together in search of solutions.

In view of our human resources, the people that live here; in view of our infrastructure, our geographical position, our possibilities for communicating with the whole world, our port and our sea harbour; in view of the expertise that local people have developed—Antilleans and the people of Curaçao, who work mainly in the financial sector—I think that we have all the ingredients needed to rise

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

above this difficult situation. We are certainly relying on the constant cooperation of greater nations, such as our neighbours in the Andean region, the Netherlands with whom we share our Queen and the EEC. We are looking to the EEC in particular, in our attempts to produce more for ourselves, but to do that we need markets. We have the potential, we have the infrastructure, and we have the opportunities.

► *One last question: you have just been talking about unity, but are you not afraid that during this period of recession some of the islands might toy with the idea—taking the example of Aruba with its success in tourism—of going it alone?*

— When I mentioned unity, I was thinking of unity among people and my thinking was indeed strongly insular. I may not speak as a member of the National People's Party of Curaçao; I am the Prime Minister of the Netherlands Antilles and I must act accordingly. But this brings us back to what I was saying at the beginning about the barriers which can at a given moment influence events. The politicians to whom the people must turn are island politicians; the administrators who are called upon to help develop the country are very insular. This does indeed mean that when confronted with this difficult economic situation, people have a tendency to turn their gaze inward to examine the situation on their own island. In the case of Curaçao, because of the absence of Aruba as the second largest island, this has meant that many politicians from Curaçao have begun to say "We cannot carry the whole burden. It is hard enough here in Curaçao as it is, so we cannot be held solely responsible for the economically weaker islands. The Netherlands also have a duty to help the weaker islands". They have a point, it is true, but what about the other side? It is particularly true in the case of tourism, that the other islands are saying: how can you help us? The first thing that they say is: let's get to work and try to develop our own island as much as possible, but let's keep one eye open for the ways in which we can rely on the cooperation of the others. In view of those barriers, that is a perfectly natural state of affairs. ○

Interview by RDB



Netherlands Antilles profile^(*)

The Netherlands Antilles are a group of five Caribbean islands, two of which—Curaçao and Bonaire—lie 60 and 80 km respectively north of the Venezuelan coast, some 60 km apart; the three others — Sint Maarten, Saba and Sint Eustatius lie some 880 km to the north-east of Curaçao and Bonaire; Sint Maarten forms part of an island the other half of which is the French Saint Martin.

	Area	Population	Capital
Netherlands Antilles	800 km ²	191 700	Willemstad
— Curaçao	444 km ²	153 000	Willemstad
— Bonaire	288 km ²	11 000	Kralendijk
— Sint Maarten	34 km ²	25 000	Philipsburg
— Saba	13 km ²	1 000	The Bottom
— Sint Eustatius	21 km ²	1 700	Oranjestad

Languages: Dutch (official), Papiamentu, English, Spanish

Currency: Netherlands Antilles Florin

Exchange rate: US\$ 1.00 = NAF 1.79 (fixed rate); ECU 1 = 2.14 (December 1988)

Political system: the Netherlands Antilles are an autonomous, self-governing region within the Kingdom of the Netherlands, which is responsible for defence and foreign affairs. It is a parliamentary democracy with an elected Parliament (22 members) and a Gov-

ernment headed by Mrs Maria Liberia-Peters. Each island has a considerable degree of internal autonomy, with an elected Island Council and a Governor.

GDP per capita (at current prices): US\$ 6 148 (1985) — CBS/World Bank estimate.

(*) The latest available national accounts were published by the Central Bureau of Statistics in 1986 and are for the year 1982. Population and GDP estimates used in this profile—as in the country-report itself—are highly tentative and provide only very broad guidelines as to the order of magnitude involved.

EEC-Netherlands Antilles cooperation

by Marc WOLFF (*)

Ever since the EEC was set up by the Treaty of Rome in 1957, it has had relations with the six islands of the Netherlands Antilles (Aruba, the sixth, got special status in 1986), an integral part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, which was one of the six original Member States of the Community. These relations went through the central Government in the Netherlands until 1967, when an EDF controller's office was opened in Curaçao following the Netherlands' decision to decentralise the administration of cooperation and make the Government of the Netherlands Antilles responsible for it. Even today, it is the only Commission Delegation in an Overseas Territory.

Cooperation with the EEC has benefited from new instruments as the successive ACP-EEC Conventions, which are models for the EEC-OCT Association Decisions, have entered into force.

EDF-financed schemes were initially aimed at developing the islands' infrastructure, but were then diversified to include training (3rd and 4th EDFs) and, with the drive to promote business at trade fairs (5th EDF), tourism too. In the past, there was no massive concentration of aid

on one sector or region (as happened in other countries) because of the country's two-tier system of administrative organisation.

Each island is run by an elected Government and presided over by a Lieutenant-Governor. The Governments are responsible for what happens on the islands, each of which has its own characteristics, problems and successes and its own social and cultural make-up. The Central Gov-

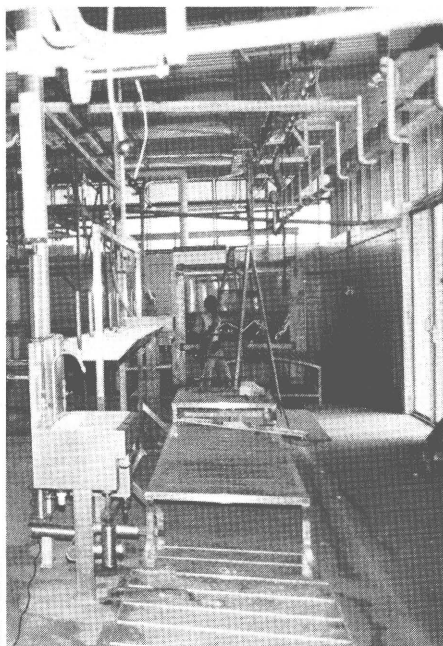
ernment is over them all and has to take all this into account.

The European Community, which had established relations with the Netherlands Government, therefore had to establish a series of relations with the Governments of the individual islands, through the central authorities, so there is nothing surprising about the fact that the funds available have been rather scattered over the different parts of the territory.

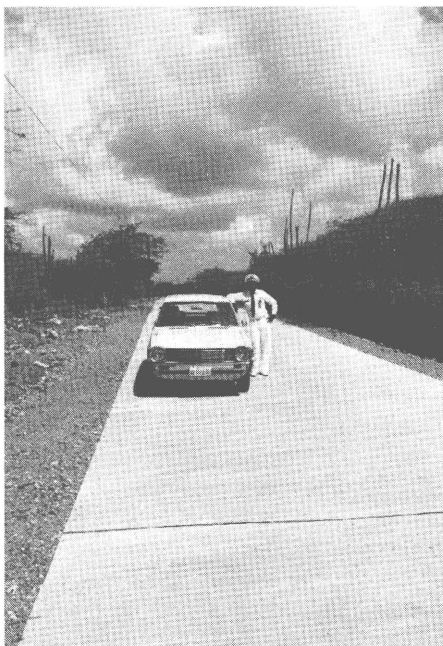
It was the difficulty of living with a two-tier system of government on such small islands with such clear differences that provoked Aruba's breakaway in 1986. Since 1 January that year, Aruba has had separate status within the Kingdom of the Netherlands and the Netherlands Antilles have lost one of their islands.

So it is as a five-member group that the territory is now planning its future and it was as such that it fixed on its 6th EDF indicative programme in March 1987 — ECU 20.69 million in all, about two-thirds grants and a third special loans, focused on the tourist sector (in the broadest sense of the term), involving infrastructure work and equipment as well as technical assistance and trade promotion. Studies

(*) The author is the Commission Delegate for Aruba and the Netherlands Antilles.



Finishing touches to the new slaughterhouse in Curaçao just before the opening ceremony



A tourist road on Bonaire, with Arcadio Cicilia, the island's well-known guide



The EDF-financed tourist promotion of Saba has paid off

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

have already been launched to prepare these schemes.

The other 30% will go outside the focal sector into education schemes, a line of credit to develop agricultural activities or industrial SMEs and national contributions to regional projects.

Since Aruba got its special status, the Netherlands Antilles have embarked on a regional programme with it, something which the 6th EDF indicative programme took into account by allocating ECU 4.1 m to cooperation of this type.

Various schemes of common interest are on the drawing board, including a sea link programme for the islands of Aruba, Bonaire and Curaçao and Venezuela, joint tourist promotion programmes and a range of studies on inter-island flights, fish farming and training.

No financing decisions for large amounts have been taken so far, all projects and programmes still being at the study and assessment stage.

The other instruments of cooperation in Lomé and the Association Decision—Sysmin, Stabex and so on—cannot help the Netherlands Antilles since the islands have no natural resources, although they have benefited from the provisions of the Rum Protocol.

That leaves the trade provisions, but the possibility of exporting originating products duty-free to the EEC is very difficult to make use of because of the rules of origin. And although the GSP could be used, the local processing conditions are rarely met.

In the past, the Netherlands Antilles have had to apply for derogations, as they did with their exports of petroleum products. Lastly, the Netherlands pours massive support into the islands—which are part of the Kingdom—and the money which the EEC has for technical and financial cooperation is very modest (amounting to about a 30th) by comparison.

So the need to work in conjunction with the Government in The Hague is obvious — and imperative given that this is a Member State of the Community. ○ M.W.

Main EDF-financed projects

(ECU million)

Curaçao

Widening of entry to port — (1968) 1st EDF	2.350
Port, dredging and wharf — (1976) 3rd EDF	6.500
Roads — (1975) 3rd EDF	3.300
Airport — control tower, parking space and navigational aids (1971) 3rd EDF	0.665
Airport taxiway — (1980) 3rd EDF	5.200
Central market — (1975) 3rd EDF	2.250
Schools — (1967) 1st EDF	1.500
Reception network for low-cost housing — (1970) 1st EDF	1.580
Slaughterhouse — (1988) 4th EDF	3.130
Drainage, Otrabanda (to be started up) — 5th EDF	6.000

Bonaire

Landing stage — (1972) 2nd EDF	1.276
Airport — terminal — (1976) 3rd EDF	2.150
— runway — (1980) 3rd EDF	3.750
Schools (1970) 1st EDF	0.155
(1972) 3rd EDF	0.158
Kralendijk-Sorobon road — (1967) 1st EDF	0.762
Tourist roads — (1987) 5th EDF	1.000
Tourist promotion — (1988) 5th EDF	0.340

St. Maarten

Water desalination plant — (1970) 2nd EDF	1.900
Airport — extensions to terminal and parking space (1985) 3rd and 4th EDF	8.385
— meteorology building — (1988) 4th EDF	0.633

St. Eustatius

School — (1969) 1st EDF	0.110
Landing stage — (1976) 1st and 3rd EDF	2.200
Tourism promotion (being carried out) — 5th EDF	
Airport extensions (to be started up) — 5th EDF	2.000

Saba

Crane for the port — 5th EDF	0.450
Tourism promotion (being carried out) — 5th EDF	0.100

National schemes

Study grants — 2nd EDF	0.515
Technical assistance — 2nd EDF	0.190
Study grants — 3rd EDF	0.495
Technical assistance — 3rd EDF	0.600
Training — 4th EDF	1.646
Technical assistance — 4th EDF	0.520
Trade promotion — 4th EDF	0.920
Support for the development bank — 4th EDF	1.130
Training — 5th EDF	1.000
SME — 5th EDF	0.583
Technical assistance and studies — 5th EDF	2.296

N.B. — The years are those during which the projects went into operation.



Social policy: looking ahead to 1992^(*)

How is the Community's social policy to develop in the run-up to 1992, the deadline—for those who do not know already—for the completion of the large internal European market? What will be the effect of the lowering of national barriers on the living and working conditions of the Community's 320 million inhabitants? The single market should mean greater freedom for Europeans to move from one Member State to another, and the obvious hope is that greater freedom will be accompanied by *higher* standards both at home and in the workplace.

What has been the history of European social policy? From the very start of the Community, the Treaty of Rome (1957) aimed, explicitly, to improve the living and working conditions of its peoples. It included provisions concerning the equal treatment for men and women (principally in order to avoid social distortions which impede free competition); social security for migrants (a necessary corollary of the free movement of workers instituted by the Treaty); vocational training and the creation of a Social Fund, the function of which was initially limited to reimbursing Member States for part of their expenditure on retraining the unemployed and on the resettlement and income maintenance of those who had to find new employment. In the coal and steel sectors, covered by the ECSC Treaty, European social aid to facilitate restructuring began at the start of the 1950s.

The provisions, as such, hardly amount to the basis for a comprehensive policy, though, and by the early 1970s this, somewhat minimalist, conception of the Community's social role began to look out of date. It was no longer believed that economic mechanisms automatically generated social progress and full employment. In

October 1972, after consultations with the various interest groups (employers, unions), the Member States invited the Community institutions to draw up an action programme. This was approved in 1974. Some 40 priority actions were singled out which sought to contribute to full and better employment, improved living and working conditions, and participation of workers and *social partners*.

A threefold approach

In the search for full and improved employment, the approach was threefold. Firstly there was the Social Fund. In the 1970s the priority task of the Fund was to alleviate friction created by Community policies (for example, by supporting the retraining of workers from the textile industry or agriculture) and to combat structural unemployment, particularly in regions that were slow to develop or in economic decline. From 1978 onwards, aid for the recruitment or employment of young people was added to the Fund's traditional help for vocational training. In 1984 a new reform of the Fund reserved 75% of its resources for young people under 25 years of age; in addition, the most disadvantaged regions were guaranteed 40% of appropriations (44.5% after the enlargement of the Community to include Spain and Portugal). The operation of the Fund is now more flexible and its effectiveness in the face of mounting unemployment is increased. Nevertheless, with an allocation of ECU 3 100 m in 1987, the Fund is not capable, by itself, of solving the unemployment problem which currently affects 16 million workers in the Community of the Twelve.

The second approach was through employment policy. Although this remains the responsibility of Member States and is still therefore outside the scope of the Community, a start has been made on concerting national policies.

Finally there were provisions for vocational training, and a European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training was established in Ber-

lin to improve and harmonise levels of training.

Improvements in health and safety

Other factors were of course of the essence in the search for improved living and working conditions, not least health and safety at work and in the home. Provisions to protect the safety and health of workers in certain sectors (such as coal, steel, nuclear energy and road haulage) were followed by others after the adoption of an action programme in 1978. A series of Directives on health problems limits dangers from noise and the use of certain materials (lead, asbestos, cadmium, etc.). Specific provisions have been adopted to help handicapped people, and a European action programme to fight cancer was launched recently (see Courier no. 111, p. 44).

Other steps have been taken over the years to improve conditions of work in the other ways. In 1976, A European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions was established in Dublin. The previous year, a Community Resolution called on the Member States to introduce the 40-hour week and four weeks' paid holiday. In the face of mounting unemployment, the Community subsequently considered the implications of a reorganisation of working time and a better distribution of existing employment; the social partners were asked to examine the question.

Not just legal provision, but enforcement

A special effort has been made to progress towards equality between men and women at the workplace — and not simply equality on paper, but equality in *practice*. Several Directives enshrine the principle of equality in remuneration, in access to employment, vocational training and promotion, in working conditions and in social security. In addition, action programmes have been implemented, which put increasing emphasis on positive action to promote equality.

The third priority objective, was to increase the participation of workers and employers and other interest groups in economic and social deci-

^(*) Article based on the D.G.X. publication "The social policy of the European Community: looking ahead to 1992".

sions taken by the Community. This process is organised on several levels. The Community's Economic and Social Committee (ECOSOC), composed of representatives of employers, workers and other interest groups, delivers opinions on numerous proposals submitted by the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers but it may also express opinions on its own initiative. Before the Commission adopts its point of view, it frequently consults the numerous consultative committees of experts established over the years.

Over the years, therefore, the social policy of the Community's has made indisputable progress in attaining its stated objectives. However, as the economic environment has deteriorated, the unwieldiness of the decision-making procedures, generally based on the unanimity rule, and the diversity of living standards and social traditions in the different Member States—grown from six to 12—have often constrained, scaled down, or actually prevented intended harmonisations, and it was recognised that a new impetus needed to be given to European social policy.

1992: towards a European "social space"

Between now and 1992, the Community is mobilising itself around the ambitious project to complete the internal market without frontiers. This is intended to ensure total freedom of movement between the Member States for people, goods, services and capital. Together with greater convergence in national economic policies, the realisation of this objective should liberate the forces for growth which are present in Europe and thereby help in the fight against unemployment, and it needs to be accompanied by measures which are social in the widest sense.

The large market demands, above all, more effective economic and social cohesion, so that all regions and all social categories benefit from the dynamism it creates. In order to achieve this, the Commission will continue to call for the alignment of national economic and social policies. Early last year, it was able to convince the Member States' Heads of State or Government of the need for a remod-

elling of the Community's structural Funds and for a doubling, between now and 1993, of their budgetary allocation. In their new form, these Community financial instruments will pursue five major objectives: development of structurally backward regions, redevelopment of regions in industrial decline, fighting long-term unemployment, assistance for the recruitment of young people, and adaptation of agricultural structures.

The large market should not, of course, open the door to unfair competition based on the exploitation of workers. The Single European Act provides that the Council of Ministers may adopt minimal social requirements to promote improvements in the working environment, and particularly the safety and health of workers. The participation of the European Parliament in the drawing up of such measures has been strengthened, and there is, of course, nothing to stop a particular Member State from maintaining more exacting requirements, should it wish to do so.

This is the context in which the Commission has defined a new programme on safety, hygiene and health in the workplace. The proposals on safety concern in particular the arrangement of the workplace, conditions for the use of work equipment, safety equipment, the handling of heavy loads, and the characteristics of visual display screens, which are used increasingly in offices and workshops. The fact that the requirements are minimal does not imply that it is a case of "lowest common denominators". On the contrary, such requirements are based on the most advanced model.

Greater consultation

Early last year a paper was published on the possibilities for social policy in the framework of the internal market. Among the challenges are the problems posed by the need to increase employment and improve the quality of working life, the need to re-examine the means employed to ensure the future of systems of protection and social security, and the social implications of the completion of the internal market. The latter involves eliminating certain obstacles to the movement of workers, adapting the labour market and training policies, considering the social

problems raised by the harmonisation of technical standards and company law, and anticipating and supporting a series of social changes engendered or accelerated by the implementation of the large market.

Again, several priority objectives are outlined, amongst which to implement the new action programme on health, safety and hygiene in the workplace. Ensuring conditions for the free movement and equal treatment of workers is another priority. Labour mobility needs support by the generalisation of the right of residence, by the recognition of diplomas and the correspondence of qualifications by the development of Community exchange programmes such as Comett, Erasmus and "Youth for Europe".

Reinforcing economic and social cohesion is another objective. The implementation of an action programme for growth and employment adopted in 1986 and the programme prepared by the Commission to fight against long-term unemployment are also of fundamental importance. The Commission also intends to concern itself with the elderly and with family policy, as well as to examine problems of social security.

Reflection and debate on the development of social policy in the context of 1992 will, it is hoped, dwell not only on the various priorities for a social policy, but also on the most appropriate ways of ensuring the success of proposed activities. The relationship between cooperation of the social partners and legislative action pose fundamental questions in this regard. Against a backdrop of widely diversified national policies and situations, Community action may take different forms, varying from a leading role (mainly the harmonisation of legislation), to that of instigator (through financial transfers, adoption of resolutions, etc.), or of guide (where the Community acts as the channel for information exchanges between Member States). Since Community social policy does not aim to unify each and every European social law and practice, the challenge is to pick out the priorities for joint action and to select—or combine—the methods which will ensure, on a case-by-case basis, the optimal efficiency and coherence of social policies as we approach 1992. ◊

Tanzania and Niger in figures

by Bernard EMONT (*)

Eurostat is continuing and speeding up its publication of a series of reports on the ACP countries intended to make basic statistics on these countries more easily accessible to the European public. After Zaïre and Kenya, which were the subject of the first two booklets, a report on Tanzania has just been published, one on Niger is being printed, and another on Nigeria is in preparation.

These reports, which are intentionally short, illustrate in about 100 pages the social, economic and political situation in each country. Very detailed tables take up two thirds of the volume, while one third is devoted to explanatory (and interpretative) text, maps and a few graphs.

The first chapter gives a general outline and contains a "basic data sheet" (exact name of the country and its main towns, and details of administrative and political structures), overall data on its population, territory, social situation, and economic and financial resources, and a ready-reference table of the main social and economic indicators of the African countries.

Then there are two sections of about equal length, of chapters giving detailed data on the country's social situation and on its economic and financial situation. The last chapter gives details of the public development aid so far received by the country in question, highlighting aid from the European Community.

Most of the material in these reports follows the pattern of the "länderberichte" published by the Federal German Statistical Office, with some change to form or content in the light of data available to Eurostat. It is intended to be published in an English and a French version of each report. There follows a brief summary of the content of the reports on Tanzania and Niger.

Major indicators: the common code of poverty

Most of the major economic and social indicators are low, as can be seen at a glance from the initial ready-reference table: the per capita calorie intake re-

mains low compared with the African average (the same figure of 227 calories per inhabitant a day for both countries); health care is insufficient: one bed for 565 inhabitants in Tanzania (1982), one for 1 389 inhabitants in Niger (1984), one doctor for 20 800 inhabitants (Tanzania 1984), and one for 41 500 inhabitants (Niger 1984). Life expectancy at birth is low: 43 in Niger and 51 in Tanzania.

The data on the economy confirms the general diagnosis of insufficient development: in 1984 per capita, GNP was among the lowest in Africa: US\$ 190 in Niger and 210 in Tanzania. The overwhelming majority of the population in both countries is rural (85% and 78% respectively) and is engaged mainly in agriculture; per capita energy consumption is low (58 kg coal equivalent per inhabitant in Niger and 45 in Tanzania), and machines, symbols of industrial civilisation, are rare: 2 cars per 1000 inhabitants in Tanzania (1984) and 2 in Niger (1985).

Differentiated profiles of economies requiring development

On the other hand, the detailed tables and the explanatory text are valuable in showing subtle differences within this overall picture of two poverty-stricken countries. The comparison of several indicators relating to the same sector (transport, for example) avoids a totally negative picture: the small number of cars per 1000 inhabitants is almost equal to that of heavy goods vehicles in the case of Niger, but in Tanzania there are twice as many cars as heavy goods vehicles. In both cases the road network is being constantly improved.

Similarly, giving figures for 5 or 6-year periods (covering a total of 15 years) means that situations are capable of change and trends can be discerned which help to correct the picture: thus the illiteracy rate, which is high in Tanzania and even higher in Niger, must not obscure the enormous efforts undertaken in both countries to educate young people, and the progress made in Tanzania over a few years is in its adult literacy drive (29%-76%). On the other hand, health care in Tanzania is in a state of stagnation, with no increase in the number of health centres since 1978.

Thus from the figures there emerge the profiles of economies with different features (more positively, the sources of possible improvement). Although farming dominates in both countries, the actual conditions vary considerably: firstly, the products are different owing to the very different soils and climate, Saharan and Sahelian in Niger and humid tropical in Tanzania. Although its total territory is smaller, the area of arable land in Tanzania is one and a half times greater than that of Niger. The number of sheep and cattle, already ten times greater in normal times, is increasing each year in Tanzania, while it is decreasing dramatically in Niger. Cultivation in Niger is geared mainly to food production (millet), while in Tanzania a whole range of crops are cultivated, many of which need humid conditions: tea, coffee, cocoa, citrus fruits, maize and sugar cane.

Not only is the type of agricultural produce different, it also has a different value as a contributor to national wealth: while it is mainly intended for domestic consumption in Niger, in Tanzania it represents 60% of GDP (as against 40% in Niger) and 75% of the value of exports (as against 0.3% in Niger).

As regards development, once it has met domestic food demand, Tanzania can concentrate on crops for export, crops to supply a fledgling industry (cane sugar refining, brewing) and livestock (a basis for its textile industry and tanneries), provided it improves its transport and indigenous energy production.

In contrast, Niger, where uranium and non-ferrous metals, despite the fall in their value, were worth 10% of GDP in 1985 and 98% of the value of exports, would be wise to strengthen its mining sector, provided that it develops its semi-processing industry. Part of the value added would thus remain within the country and help to create jobs.

A table at the end of each booklet analyses the public development aid received by these two countries and the proportion of it provided by the EEC—47.9% of subsidies and 39.6% of net public development aid—for the period 1975-1986.

The loans received from the EIB during this period have been used, as explained above, mainly for industrialisation in Niger and for electricity generation in Tanzania.

The next booklet due to be published is a report on Nigeria, the giant of West Africa. ○

(*) Official of the French Ministry of Education, at present seconded to the Statistics Office of the European Community.

(1) These booklets are available from the Official Publications Office, L-2985 - Luxembourg.

Informatics and development

Informatics, the science of information technology, virtually shares its history with the machine which has made it all possible—the computer, which some people say goes back thousands of years to the abacus used for high-speed calculation in China many years before Christ. Numerous other calculators, of varying degrees of complexity, were invented in Europe in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries, some of them by such great philosophers as Pascal and Leibnitz. But it was only recently, in the mid-'40s, that informatics proper started, when an American mathematician at Princeton University hit upon the idea of using a device incorporating electronic valves to carry out ballistic calculations. Since then, and since the discovery of the transistor especially, information technology has been in constant de-

velopment, producing five “generations” of increasingly high performance machines for an increasingly wide range of purposes, from production to scientific research in both professional to private life. The sector is now worth billions of dollars, has thousands of specialists and is of potential interest to all areas of economic and social affairs—agriculture, industry, transport, administration, teaching, health and leisure, all human activity, in fact (see table p. 54). New words have been invented for it—robotics and telematics, for example⁽¹⁾ and feelings of fear, attraction and mistrust have even been generated. And, like real drugs, computing has its addicts.

(1) And other terms applying to money circulation, industrial production, household tasks and so on.



You said "informatics"?

Europe has seen two waves of computer fashion. In the '50s, state authorities and businesses if they could afford them, bought the only computers then available—30-tonne affairs, 60 metres long, with 2000 150-watt bulbs—to do their accounts and make their scientific and technical calculations. Then, 20 years later, with increasing miniaturisation, came the mini-computers. Now we have the PC⁽¹⁾ era, with our ever-cheaper micro-equipment and chips just a few cm², weighing only a few grammes but containing thousands of transistors and consuming only 1 watt. Thousands of people bought them, sometimes without really knowing what for, but wisdom has gradually returned to the market and the computer, now demystified, is beginning to play its rightful role as a tool for adults and a modern toy for the children of the comfortably-off. In 1984, the world computer market consisted of 33% large, 22% medium-sized, and 19% small machines and 26% PCs—although these were nothing like the figures for the developing countries. At the moment, the specialists say, the African market is about 50% PCs and 35% small systems, and the rest is made up of large and medium-sized systems (5%) and replacements.

But history goes marching on and technical progress with it. The computer as a tool is getting better and better, with some types trying to be as user-friendly as possible—easy to use for such standard jobs as keeping files, producing figures and charts—and others the subject of such advanced research that the term "artificial intelligence" is applied. The day of the computer which can recognise his master's voice and talk back is approaching, and that when the computer which can translate, teach and help design is already with us. Science fiction? In informatics, there is far less fiction than science.

The story is not just about the developed nations. As Mrs Beer-Gabel's article shows, computers began to be installed in the developing world in the '60s—with varying results—so it is surprising that people still ignore their possibilities and constraints nearly 30

years later. And even more surprising that computerisation still comes up against objections of principle, philosophical resistance almost, not to mention fears about the "threats to freedom" sometimes involved in putting details about, say, health on computer. Is the danger the computer in this case, or is it the use made of it? A gadget for some, a panacea for others, the computer is—should be—put in its rightful place, that of a tool.

Is it a luxury reserved for the rich? By no means. Various aspects of computerisation in Côte d'Ivoire are described at length in this dossier, certainly, but it would be wrong to con-



The usefulness of a computer depends entirely on the quality of information fed to it

clude that the less developed countries cannot join in the computer revolution. One research worker, Philippe Pascual, has even shown that there is no correlation between national computer development and the growth of GDP. In Senegal, he said, "the years of heavy computer imports (1977, 1979 and 1981) were years when GDP was low or declining⁽²⁾. But he also showed that there is a (more unexpected) correlation between computerisation and the political system. "The socialist countries", he says, "are the smallest consumers of equipment, given the lack of cooperation from western firms and countries which the eastern bloc cannot make up for".

(2) Article in "Afrique industrie", 1 July 1987. Other examples used here are taken from the same journal.

From knowledge to decision-making

What use is a computer to a developing country? First of all, it offers access to a wide variety of information, making for better decision-making by both individuals and Government. If, say, an agricultural development company wants to know the best crop for its smallholders to grow, it will have to be *au fait* with the market and the prices, both for any production and for input. And when a Government has several investment possibilities, it will make a better job of choosing between them if it knows about the current situation and the trends of population, production, technology, transport etc. So the computer is a vital planning tool—provided, of course, the relevant basic information, properly collected and processed, is there.

Another example of how useful informatics can be in decision-making is to be found in the computerised wall planners of some Heads of State (of Togo and Madagascar, for example). These, of course, also depend for their efficiency on the standard of the basic data.

Informatics and management

Computerised management is both easier and (even now) incomparably more common in the developing countries. First of all, the computer deals with simple things such as accounting, stock, staff pay, files and word processing of correspondence. But at a more complex level, it can also be an "aid to maintenance". In Côte d'Ivoire, for example, there is a software system (called IOMS) which ensures automatic monitoring of the servicing of industrial equipment, providing lists of the location, technical specifications and maintenance schedule of each type of equipment. This programme "manages breakdowns" and looks after upkeep, orders spare parts (and plans labour), works out costs and forecasts what supplies will be needed. It represents a considerable saving to the company which uses it by ensuring proper stock management, rationalising employment and getting better prices by the regular grouping of input orders. Obviously, it is suitable above all for very big firms.

(1) Personal computer.

DOSSIER

The Treasury, the public administration, is also a big firm and, like other ministries, it will no doubt find computerisation a boon. In Côte d'Ivoire, wrote *Fraternité Matin* in 1986: "In 1981, the Treasury produced the general balance sheet for its Ministry two years late. The Treasury was ashamed... Today, the final balance for 1985 is nearly ready... So a

fantastic amount of time has been gained". Another example is Togo, where computerisation in the Treasury has cut payment time, got credit consumption rates under control and boosted the administration's financial management capacity—a particularly telling advantage in a developing country when it comes to the ability to absorb external aid, a common bottle-

neck there. And Treasury computerisation has a further advantage in the field of taxation and customs duties, as it means that collection can be systematised and speeded up. Generally speaking, countries which have been prepared for the cost of computerisation have seen it pay off.

Further saving may result from the transfer of knowledge which compu-

Glossary (1)

- **analyst:** person who analyses a situation to determine programming
- **data base or bank:** large set of data of all categories, grouped by subject or data types
- **BASIC:** a simple computer language (Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code)
- **bit:** basic unit of information (0 or 1) which languages use to give pulses coded on a go/no go basis
- **compatible:** equipment which can be substituted for or communicate with a piece of equipment of a different make
- **light pen:** electronic device for identifying a point on a display screen, giving instructions or answering a question
- **disk, diskette, magnetic tape:** external memory support
- **computer-aided teaching:** teaching based on the use of a computer acting as the pupil's coach
- **printer:** machine which transcribes the result of the computer's work onto paper
- **artificial intelligence:** attempted computer simulation of human intellectual behaviour (to demonstrate theorems, for example)
- **interface:** connection between the computer and peripheral devices
- **language:** series of codes for communicating with the computer (e.g. Basic)
- **software (or programme):** set of instructions to a computer, in the language which it accepts, to perform a given task
- **logo:** a computer language specially designed for teaching
- **memory:** the part of the computer in which the data are stored
- **modem:** equipment whereby computer data can be transmitted via the telephone network
- **monitor:** display screen
- **computer or "hardware":** an electronic machine comprising a processor, a memory (or several memories) and peripheral devices such as disk drives, keyboards, monitors, printers, etc.
- **package:** group of programmes elaborated for different tasks of a same application
- **programmer:** a designer of programmes
- **chips:** minute pieces of monocrystalline silicon making up the microprocessor or memory
- **information retrieval:** seeking data in a data base
- **key in:** to enter data into the computer via the keyboard or a light pen
- **expert system:** possibility of getting the computer to "discover" solutions from basic data and know-how already supplied to it (part of artificial intelligence)
- **terminal:** any point, even far away, which may be used to communicate with a computer (keyboard + screen + control circuit, for example)
- **word processing:** programme whereby a text which is already on the computer can be altered without complete retyping

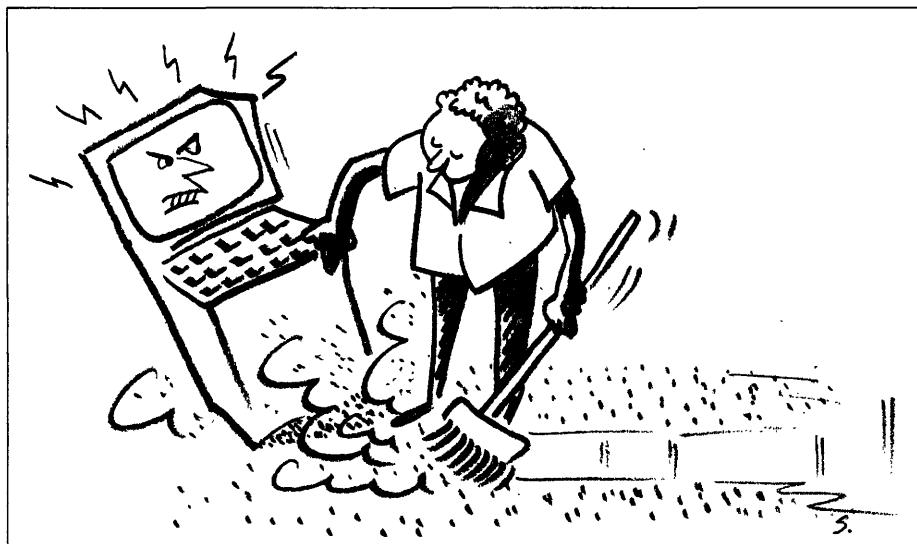
(1) The object of this glossary is to explain to those readers who are not familiar with informatics the meaning of various technical expressions contained in the Dossier. As far as professionals are concerned, we are aware that these explanations may be somewhat simplistic, and they can be skipped over.

ters, and especially the most advanced techniques of expert systems, make possible. These systems involve gathering the knowledge and know-how of an expert in a given field and putting it onto the computer, which, given a specific problem, will "reason" and find the answer, which it will then "explain" to the user just as a human technical assistant would have done. Such highly sophisticated technology means that non-computer staff can have easy access both to the information they need to solve a problem and to the solution itself—hence savings in computer training and an opportunity for many more people to obtain know-how hitherto outside their scope. UNIDO also sees expert systems as an opportunity for South-South cooperation, as "we could develop expert systems that contain all a developing country's effective expertise in a particular field. Public health, agriculture, the control of industrial processing and teaching are just some of the fields in which experience could be shared and results spread to other developing countries thanks to expert systems".

The computer has its drawbacks

All the above advantages obviously involve being able to pay for a computer. So computers can virtually only be used for professional purposes in the developing world—where the authorities, firms and collectivities are almost the only ones to be able to afford them. But they are getting cheaper and cheaper—in inverse proportion to the number of potential acquirers, a trend which is behind the increasing popularity of PCs, which are sometimes used by village groupings and, to an ever-greater extent, by small businesses.

But computers will only be useful if the technical design is exactly in line with both the needs and the resources. All computers, big, medium-sized, small and personal, have their drawbacks. They are demanding, they are sensitive to dust, damp and fluctuating power supplies and they sometimes use the telephone. So there has to be a proper telephone system, regular electricity supplies with no cuts and, in many cases, rooms where the heat can be controlled or air-conditioned premises. And they are greedy. If they are



Computers like to be kept clean

to work properly, they have to have a minimum of qualified staff and regular maintenance and this means men and money, two rare resources. They can also fall "sick" when they belong to a sophisticated network. Last November, a virus (a pirate programme) infected the 50 000 computers in the American Arpanet network. It was entered via a dial-up line and in only a few hours forced all the infected machines to perform a number of pointless operations which considerably held up their proper work. There are "vaccines", but they are not entirely reliable and they are expensive. Another drawback is that computers are not always secure and will allow intruders to discover a password to give them access to secrets, scientific ones especially, as recent experience in France and the USA has shown.

Nor are they culturally neutral. Computer facilities tend to be designed for the industrialised nations—the USA produces almost 80% of the equipment sold world-wide, Europe 11% and Japan 9%—and, as with the media, there is a risk of these countries dominating the others. It is interesting to see two kinds of effort being made by some developing countries here—local production of software to suit their particular needs and characteristics and linguistic adaptation of the facilities, going over to Arabic in the Maghreb (especially in Morocco where terminals, screens and printers are going Arabic), logos translated into Wolof and Serere in Senegal, introducing Amharic word processing in Ethiopia and so on.

Lastly, the vocabulary (artificial intelligence) used in some cases should not fool anyone. Computers are stupid. They are stupid because they can only supply what they have been given and they do so indiscriminately. They can, for example, churn out piles of useless or unimportant data if the questions are not put exactly right, so users have to learn how to make their requests properly, not just in the light of what they want to know, but of what the computer is able to answer. Otherwise they will waste time and money. Then, of course, there are the computer "languages", of varying degrees of sophistication, which the users have to master in the same way as a foreign language if they want to talk to the machine.

An influential machine

Like all sophisticated equipment, computers have been suspected of taking jobs away from the workers and certainly the simplest machines can now do the work of dozens of, say, accounting staff. But they also create work, usually for qualified people, be they analysts, programmers, maintenance technicians, or ordinary users. But just by existing, computing may have other consequences on such things as the balance of payments (imported hardware, spare parts and software), industry (as in India and Brazil, where computer assembly and even production units have been opened, and Morocco, which produces and exports computing furniture), services

Examples of sectors computerised in various ACP countries

SECTOR	COUNTRY	ORGANISATION (OR FIRM) AND PURPOSE
Agriculture	Nigeria	Agricultural services: Creation of agricultural data bases
	Cameroon	FONADER (National rural development fund): Management
	Senegal	Senegalese agricultural research institute: Research
	Senegal	Kirène project (market gardening): Analytical operating accounts, accounting for individual peasants, calculation of rate of return on the various potential crops
Forestry	CILSS	Management of zootechnical information and data on prices and the situation on the small-holdings
Livestock	Ethiopia	IDEAS: Data bank (*)
	Côte d'Ivoire	SOPEPRA: Monitoring of zootechnical information and data on prices and the situation on the smallholdings
Industry	Niger	SONITEXTIL: Management
	Benin	Beninese Brewery Company: Management
	Côte d'Ivoire	SIR (Ivorian refinery Company), Abidjan: Management, computer-assisted maintenance
Energy	Cameroon	National electricity board: Management
	Angola	Petroleum: Geophysical research, prospection and production
	Mali	Mali energy board: Management
Mining	Mauritania	SNIM (National mining industry company): Management
	Zambia and Zaire	Copper mines: Production control, mechanisation and cartography
	Guinea	Friguia (aluminium): Production control, mechanisation and cartography
	Zimbabwe	AAM (African Associated Mines): Mining geology
Transport	Cameroon	National ports office: Management
		CAMAIR (Cameroon Airlines): Management
	Senegal	Autonomous port of Dakar: Management
	Gabon	TransGabonese railway construction office: Management
	Côte d'Ivoire	SOTRA (Abidjan transport company): Accounting, payroll, traffic management, management of vehicles and issue of tickets
		Housing Bank: Management
Banking	Senegal	Congolese banking union: Management
	Congo	Malian development bank: Management
	Mali	Central bank: Management
	Somalia	SGBCI: Banknote distribution
	Côte d'Ivoire	Sheik Anta Diop University: Science faculty research and management
Education	Senegal	University: Research
	Nigeria, Zimbabwe	IAI (African Institute of Informatics): Regional computer training
	Gabon	Training school for electronics technicians
	Angola	Major hospital centres: Management, distribution of pharmaceutical products and social security
Health	Togo, Côte d'Ivoire	SYDONIA: Computerised management of all the country's customs declarations
Customs	Togo, Mauritania, Mali, Niger and Guinea-Bissau ⁽¹⁾	
Municipal authorities	Ethiopia	Municipality of Addis Ababa: Municipal management
	Gabon, Zaire	Public Work Ministries: Architecture and civil engineering — management and computer-aided design
	Côte d'Ivoire	Monitoring of contracts to build roads, management of geo-technical data, technical calculations (e.g. calculation of constraints of sub-pavements)
Public finance	Malawi	Data processing department: Management
	Jamaica	Taxation (*)
	Senegal	DTAI (Directorate for automatic processing and informatics): Management of the debt and investments
Posts	Zimbabwe	Post office: Management of current accounts and savings (deposits)
Other public administrations	Benin	Ministry of Rural Development and Ministry of Justice: Management
	CAR	Ministry of the Civil Service: Computerisation of archives
	Burundi	Savings banks: Management
	Niger	Ministry of Planning: Management
Media	Senegal	SIDEC (Industrial film distribution and exploitation company): Management
Tourism	Pacific	Tourism services: Management

(1) A study of application of the system to other countries, particularly the English-speaking countries of Africa (Ghana, Sudan, Botswana etc.) and the Caribbean, is currently being carried out.

(*) See article in the dossier.

(the absolutely vital local after-sales services and the creation of local software production departments), or education (which has to supply introductory informatics courses locally and retrain civil servants). Algeria's informatics plan (1985-89), for example, provides for the manufacture of hardware, starting with PCs (20 000 p.a. turned out by ENIE, the national electronic industrial firm in Sidi Bel Abbès, from 1989 onwards) and then moving on in stages to screens and keyboards, Roman and Arabic printers, modems and so on.

Informatics can even "help bring peace", as was stated in the declaration of Mexico which several Heads of State and Government (of Benin, Bolivia, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Senegal, Togo and Zaire) and Prime

Ministers (of Morocco and Tunisia) signed in June 1981 (see inset).

This is why it would be wrong to neglect informatics and why the implementation and development of computers in countries which are short of resources must be kept under control so as to remain an aid to development. Some developing countries have in fact set up central computer coordination centres. In Latin America, this is the case of Argentina and Venezuela, for example; in Asia of China, Indonesia and Thailand; and in Africa of Burkina Faso (Cenatrin), Congo (OCI), Guinea (CNIG), Mozambique (CTD) and Nigeria (CCC). And this was the gist of the conclusions of a regional seminar which the EEC Commission ran in Cotonou (Benin) in 1985 to help deci-

sion-makers from a number of African countries see just where computerisation would be useful and where it would simply be a waste. Two of the recommendations made then still hold good today. If informatics are to be an aid to development, it was decided, then "computerisation had to be part of a project or programme which itself contributed to development". And the operation had to be "properly analysed beforehand to determine what the real needs were, evaluate the alternatives and take account of the training and maintenance involved in the choice of hardware and software—which should only be made after evaluation, so the country and the user are in control of the information technique and not controlled by it". ◊

M.-H.B.

Declaration of Mexico on informatics, development and peace

1. In the course of the 60s and the 70s important technological advances were made in the field of electronics which have given a new dimension to informatics and its use in economic and social development. The use of these new techniques in informatics and telecommunications for the widening of knowledge, the improvement of management and the increase of productivity creates a new and important factor of disequilibrium between developed and developing countries. The decade of the 80s is a period of challenge and contradictions. On the one hand, science has greatly extended our understanding of the world and of society while a burgeoning of technology offers enormous possibilities for improving the standard of living and quality of life of all people. On the other hand, mankind is faced with increasingly complex problems which may condition its survival. These trends are interacting in a way which increases tensions within and between societies to the point of endangering peace. Informatics can play a critical role in lowering these tensions...

3. Recent technological breakthroughs and others which are expected, are creating unprecedented opportunities for the betterment of the human condition, but portend as well negative trends which need to be checked. Informatics, through its wide possibilities of application in almost all sectors of human activity, offers a powerful tool for the management of technological development, and opens up new possibilities for cultural and educational development. Herein lies the challenge: wisely used with humanitarian understanding it can contribute greatly to the solution of fundamental problems and hence to the establishment of peace. Applied in a technocratic and excessively centralized manner, it can increase the complexity of problems, rendering them more difficult to solve. Informatics is thus becoming more and more an instrument of power which affects the political, economic, social and cultural spheres nationally and worldwide and hence is of immediate concern to decision-makers at all levels.

4. One of the important consequences of these changes will be a redistribution of productive and service facilities on a worldwide basis which will pose a series of complex issues for

Third World industrialization and development, thus calling for urgent consideration. Among other things, international debates are needed on transborder data flows and their impact on the international division of labour and technological concentration.

5. Informatics is an important ingredient as well as a consequence of development. Its mastering implies an endogenous and autonomous approach to development, an increasing reliance on human resource, a greater emphasis on its scientific and technological dimensions and an awareness of the implication for cultural identity and diversity. Informatics, to the extent it could become an effective instrument for promoting organisational, managerial and administrative structures, can assist in the solution of problems of development.

6. Due to the fact that many areas of informatics require extensive technological and economic resources, it is important that a greater coordination and integration is effected at sub-regional and regional level.

7. The capacity to assimilate and evolve technology depends on the political will to adopt national strategies and policies and enhance international cooperation, permitting the development of adequate capacities and infrastructures for technology and management and of high quality training facilities.

8. Effective use of informatics requires the mastering of the capacity to generate and process information. The most important element in this respect is not only the tool itself but also the content of the information and the economic and socio-cultural context which conditions its receptivity and relevance...

11. Informatics, if developed in the interest of all of mankind, can serve as an instrument of emancipation and development fully preserving the right of individuals to privacy and self-fulfilment. Only thus can it effectively contribute to universal prosperity, human dignity, social justice and ultimately to world peace.

Computers and the Third World today^(*)

by Jozia BEER GABEL^(**)

It is a commonplace to say that computers are instruments of development. Data processing is the fastest growing technology, with a market worth almost \$ 400 billion in 1986 and expected to be three times that in 1995 (Table 1). Computers have such a strong effect on industry and the whole of the socio-economic environment that no development policy could be devised today without them.

Table 1
World production of information technology systems
Growth estimates, 1986-95

	\$ billion ⁽¹⁾			Average annual % growth
	1986	1990	1995	
Hardware	224	353	621	12
Software	84	174	433	20
Telecommunications ⁽²⁾ and computing services	85	107	143	6
Total	393	634	1 197	13

(1) At 1985 exchange rate.

(2) Telecommunications equipment solely for the public network.

Source: OECD.

But taking computers to the countries of the Third World has not always had the anticipated effects. The idea of "computers as a short cut to development" has masked the importance of the effort that had to be made with them, as success depends on national computer policies being defined, with priority on training and attention to the transfer of technology. The difference in the way various countries have implemented their policies is behind the disparity of situations in the late '80s, with some of them effecting an impressive take-off and others in relative stagnation.

The assistance programmes run by the international organisations have had various fates too, and roles are now being redistributed and schemes being refocused with a view to greater realism and smaller size.

This article looks at the present situation in computing in the developing countries and at the various strategies they have adopted, and outlines trends in international cooperation. It begins with a brief look at the past.

The past — 1960-80

Informatisation in developing countries has its specificity, since common features of the process are found, to varying degrees, everywhere.

It was, for example, in the '60s, that computers first appeared in the developing countries, where the public sector was the first—and indeed is—still the main user. Computer use is concentrated in government services because of the cost of the equipment

and because information technology systems can be used to improve and back up administrative management—which is seen as a vital component of development. The need to cope with the shortages of early independence and the prospects of control offered by the centralised systems are well known and have often been explained.

The unsuitability and under-utilisation of facilities, regular features, have also been deplored. They are the consequence of what is called the technological dependence of the Third World, which can be summed up simply as follows: The developing countries use techniques which the industrialised countries have devised in response to specific needs of their own. Unless these techniques are adapted or innovations made by the Third World users, then the phenomenon of dependence is perpetuated. And it is accentuated in computing because of the narrow markets in the developing countries and domination by one or two multinationals.

A look at the past shows that, in many cases, it is an isolated initiative by the administrative authorities which has been behind the introduction of computers, outside of any pre-conceived strategy. The failure to investigate needs before buying equipment and the shortage of competent staff have led people to depend on the sellers for the necessary advice. So hardware and services have been obtained spontaneously, under the pressure of one-off problems and in the light of the supply laid on by the commercial operations of the suppliers. So application has often been geared to using what has been obtained rather than obtaining what the country needs.

The under-utilisation of facilities is the obvious outcome of their unsuitability. But it is also due to the shortcomings of the after-sales services responsible for maintaining the hardware. And lastly, the scattered siting and ill-assorted nature of the facilities have prevented the investments from having the desired effect.

The highlighting of mistakes to be avoided after this first period of anarchic computerisation and the appearance of more flexible PC technology have been food for thought for both

(*) This article sums up the situation five years after the publication of *Informatisation du tiers monde et coopération internationale* by the same author, Paris, Documentation Française, NED 4751, 1984, to which much of the following refers.

(**) J. Beer Gabel is a research engineer at the University of Paris I (Panthéon-Sorbonne).

national authorities and international organisations.

The devising of national policies has emerged as a *sine qua non* of any computerisation process. And the flood of international computing meetings when representatives of the developing countries show that most of them have indeed embarked on such processes and the listing of public bodies responsible for devising computing policies is revealing.

The content of such policies cannot be described here. We shall simply stress the fundamental part played by training. The fact that the shortage of competent staff is the big obstacle to introducing data processing to the Third World countries has already been mentioned. There are more and more international meetings dealing with the problem. The annual IFIP congresses are worthy of particular mention here, as are the "Children in the Information Age" series of annual events in Sofia (which UNESCO, WHO, UNU etc. and the Bulgarian research institutes help organise). UNESCO will also run an international congress on education and computing for 500 leading figures from all over the world in Paris in April 1989. The idea is to look at experience obtained in introducing computing at the various levels of education and come up with recommendations on using this technology better, on improving the educational system and on international cooperation in this field.

Computerisation involves means the developing countries do not have. The market is dominated by private companies and the relations are relations of dependence. The international organisations soon realised they should intervene in this field. Development problems have become the focus of their activities and science and technology have been recognised as factors of development for almost 20 years. It was in this vast movement that the contribution computers could make was perceived.

The '70s were a time for thinking about the substance of this issue and the Secretariat-General of the UN turned out eight reports, a particularly valuable set of data involving analysis in the field, prospects of progress attendant on computing and survey results. Recommendations were made

for both developed and developing countries and for the international organisations — whose duty it is to help. Particular emphasis went on schemes to provide training, obtain goods and services and transfer technology.

Alongside this, three international organisations — UNESCO, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the IBI⁽¹⁾ (no longer in existence, but worthy of mention nonetheless) — developed more specific programmes.

It was UNESCO's job to look at training problems. Schemes began in the early '70s and have been developing constantly ever since, constituting an entire sub-programme with a budget of \$ 3 million for the 1988-89 period.

The work involves running courses at various levels, helping educational institutions, offering direct assistance to developing country nationals wanting to attend courses abroad, providing grants and thinking about the socio-economic and cultural consequences of computerisation.

UNESCO also works in the field, spreading information about computers, running studies relating to the Third World countries, organising lectures for them, assisting them with setting up regional data exchange networks and so on.

The ILO also ran training schemes, but the courses were in-service ones. Worker training, as we know, is a way

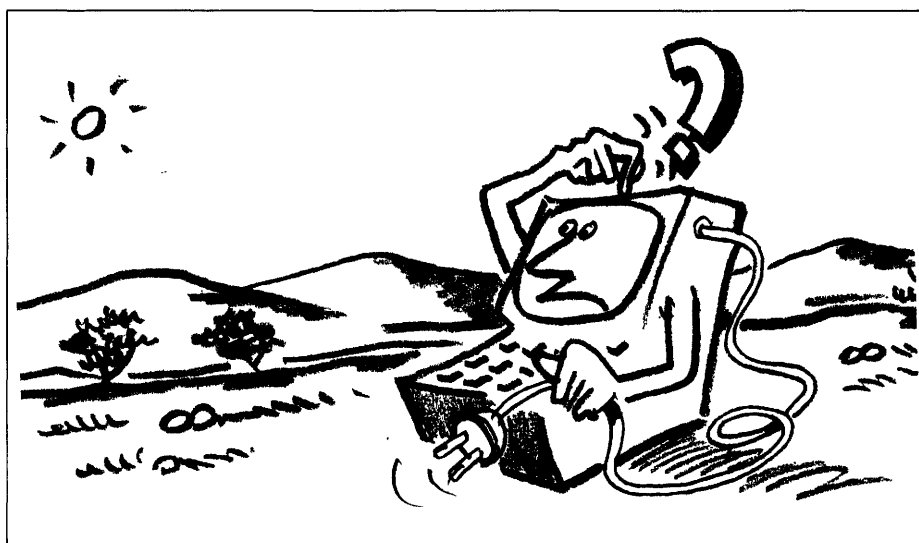
(1) International Bureau for Informatics.

of meeting what has been the ILO's constant aim of promoting social justice and full employment and improving working conditions. Computing was included in the training programmes for senior managers.

Although the IBI has ceased to be, it was an important body for years, taking initiatives and designing operations which attracted attention. The organisation was set up under UN and UNESCO auspices and began working in 1961, although it was not until SPIN (Strategies and Policies for Informatics conference) in Torremolinos in 1978 that it became well-known and developed its activities.

It had its seat in Rome. It was the only organisation to specialise in computerisation in the Third World. But since it was not part of the UN family and had only a maximum of 40 member countries, its work cannot be put on the same plane as UNESCO or the ILO. But it ran some useful field surveys and produced studies of various sectors of computing and development. It offered advice with defining policies, it helped with training, it ran a study grants programme and it helped set up regional computer education centres such as CREI in Spain. And it encouraged the transfer of technology between industrialised and developing nations.

Its disappearance from the international scene and the development of international cooperation as a whole, the variations on the market and the emergence of the newly industrialised



For countries about to use computers, a number of problems exist, including that of regular power supplies

countries with national computer industries of their own are changing the debate on computing in the Third World on the eve of the '90s.

National expansion policies

The Third World is far from being an homogeneous whole. As far as computing is concerned, there is profound disparity between the countries where computers are used in many areas of activity and those where computing is very much in its infancy. In the latter case, the problems have to do with the environment (dust and weather), telecommunications, power supplies and, even more basically, with the absence of data about their socio-economic situation (resources, population etc). The attitude of the authorities is by no means uniform, either. Some have genuine national computing policies which have been designed by *ad hoc* organisations, while others have simply brought in simple import controls.

The widespread use of PCs and mini-computers has changed things, since these systems are cheaper and easier to modify. The techniques are easier to master and there is an opportunity to develop more suitable applications for them. So, roughly speaking, there are three kinds of strategy in the Third World today — those of countries (and they are in the majority) who have policies of using computers and controlling the facilities, the more advanced strategies of countries trying to set up a national industry to meet the needs of the domestic market (Brazil and India, for example) and the strategies of countries in South-East Asia where the aim is to manufacture equipment and systems that are sufficiently competitive to cope on the international market.

Indeed, as the past few years have shown, "informatics are not just the province of the industrialised nations. The experience of the newly industrialised countries shows that underdevelopment is not unavoidable, in spite of the fact that the new arrivals still account for only a small part of international trade". The remarkable work of Patrick Haas ("A Planète du high-tech")⁽¹⁾ gives a picture of all the

(1) Le Figaro Thématique High Tech., N° 13440, 16 November 1987.

high tech industries in the world today.

He defines the countries' positions by means of five parameters:

- i. mastery of one or two skills or the existence of an embryonic national industry;
- ii. existence of a national industry;
- iii. existence of an international industry;
- iv. industry that leads the world;
- v. industry in question of national or foreign origin.

The situation on each continent is explained, in the light of this, as follows:

Latin America

Brazil is the only country to have developed an international industry, two thirds of which is based on foreign technology. *Mexico* has a national industry using nothing but imported technology, which is applied by foreign firms. There are some skills and an embryonic industry, although never of national origin, in *Argentina* and *Santo Domingo*.

Asia

Korea has an international industry and only a third of it is of foreign origin. The situation in *Taiwan*, *Singapore* and *Hong Kong* is similar to that of *Brazil*, while *Thailand* and the *Philippines* are similar to *Mexico*. *Malaysia*, *China* and *India* are developing national industries, half of them local. The situation in *Indonesia* is similar to that of *Argentina*.

Africa

There are some skills and an embryonic national industry in *Algeria*, *Côte d'Ivoire*, *Senegal* and *Gabon*, but the plants use technology which is imported or applied by foreign firms.

Computer utilisation policies are found on every continent, but especially in Africa, where local industries are springing up in some places. The most advanced policies are aimed at improving and modernising the work of the administration and getting better control over the purchasing of equipment and extending its use. *Côte d'Ivoire*, for example, uses this type of policy in its second computing plan for 1986-90. It is currently ploughing more than 1% of GDP into computing, although the average figure for the countries in its category is 0.5%

Official declarations made on the occasion of the 4th African Computer Days in Abidjan in February 1988 stressed training (a computer education plan is being investigated), maintenance of both the equipment and the telecommunications network and the power supply.

The Ivorian computer plan is more than just a policy of using the computer, for it is also aimed at encouraging some sectors of local industry to get going. There is a desire to create a software industry that would make its mark on the French-speaking market on the continent. The installation of PC assembly plants is also encouraged.

Events such as the introduction of the Cameroonian PC "Ramses I" at the computer fair in Yaoundé in April 1988, Senegal's "Taaw" and the launching of "Afrique-Informatique", the continent's first computer journal, all reflect new potential in Africa.

The emergence of a computer industry in the more advanced countries is the result of energetic policies — which, however, it has only been possible to develop because conditions were right, with skills available locally and some industrial activity as support.

Computer development strategies are aimed at creating:

- either a local industry which is independent of foreign suppliers and works for the domestic market;
- or an export industry.

In the former case, the country is closed to, or controls, the activities of foreign companies and mobilises capital to help national firms and support R & D.

Table 2
Africa's micro boom

	1984	1985	(estimates) 1989
Gabon	400	1 083	4 100
Cameroon	850	2 135	14 000
Côte d'Ivoire	1 400	3 150	20 900
Senegal	696	1 780	5 540

Source: Marchés Tropicaux.

In the latter case, foreign companies are encouraged to set up on national territory and the industry thus created is fully aligned with the standards of the world market.

Brazil or India and, to a lesser extent, Mexico, Argentina and China are examples of the former, and South East Asia of the latter.

Brazil

On 31 October 1984, the Brazilian authorities passed a law setting up a "market reserve" with the idea of developing a national computer industry, avoiding a drain on foreign exchange and lessening the hold of foreign suppliers. The law was intended to protect the efforts of the nation's businessmen by keeping the domestic mini-computer and PC market for them and banning foreign manufacturers from making any further investments in this category of equipment and peripheral devices. Four years later, the Brazilian industry is there, but it has not taken off as anticipated.

It would appear that Brazil did not choose the right policy for its particular situation. The potential national market is an estimated million PCs, although there are only 60 000 of them at the moment. The firms were unable to get out supplies quickly enough and so a parallel market grew up, totally avoiding the current regulations. In 1986, for example, 40 000 Apples and IBM PCs, costing 30% to 50% less than Brazilian products and representing a total of \$ 250 million, went into Brazil. The contraband proved to be such competition that it handicapped the national industry and many firms are now on the verge of bankruptcy.

And given the pressure from the USA, which is anxious not to lose such a large market, Brazil has little room for manoeuvre, as it needs American PCs and, more generally, absolutely has to keep its outlets on the North American market.

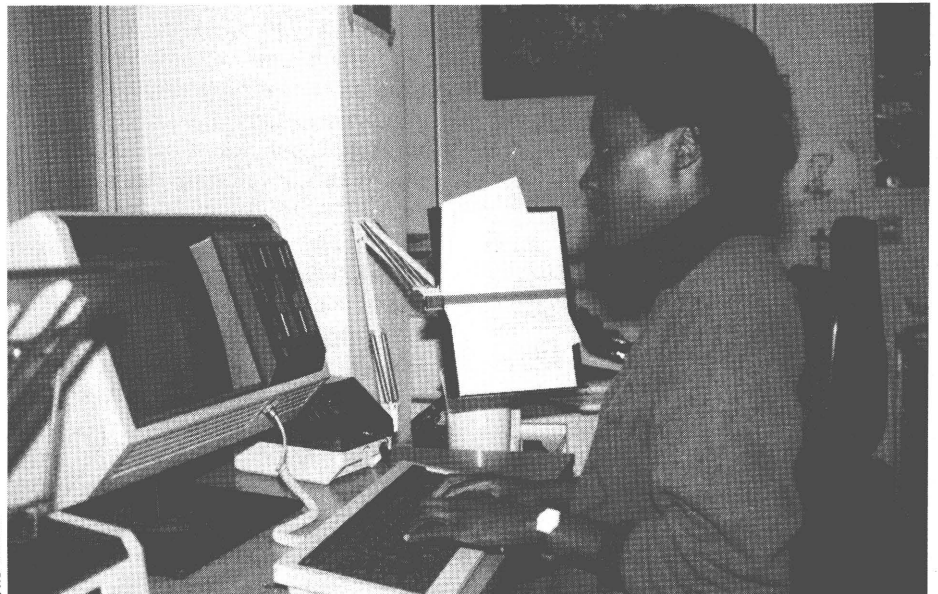
The Brazilian law is to be applied until 1992. Arnon Schreiber, Head of Diriged, the country's third biggest banking firm, says that: "If the Brazilian computer industry isn't ticking over by then, things will have to take a different turn".

For the moment, the industry is dis-

playing both great potential and weakness attendant on the coexistence of worthwhile scientific and technical potential and a policy of protection—over-stringent application of which has provoked criticism. So the first chip projected for 1990 will only be 16 000-strong—10 one tenth the number sold on the international market today. On the other hand, a sector such as the computerisation of banking services is a success which puts Brazil at the forefront of progress.

India

India's policy of protecting the national industry is a longer-standing one, as a highly skilled labour force (there were an estimated 80 000-



Take-off strategies for computers fall into three categories: using the technology, creating an independent local industry, and breaking into the international market

150 000 programmers in 1987) and a large domestic market have meant that protectionist policies (the 1977 law on restricting foreign interests in Indian firms) have been able to help build up the national industry. In 1986 there were an estimated 1300 Indian-made (out of a total 2000) mainframes working. And in the software business, the country's big service companies are exporting a good deal. India has the widest electronic output of all the newly industrialised countries, although all its products do is follow, with some delay, trends in the world market, and with lower standards too. In 1984, the rules were relaxed and foreign firms allowed to open in areas not covered by Indian firms.

Argentina, Mexico and China

These countries' policies are based on the same ideas as those of India and Brazil, although they are still much earlier on in the process. In Mexico, the embryonic national industry has a sound grasp of the techniques involved, but as the result of the activity of joint ventures combining Mexican and foreign firms.

Argentina's computer policy, adopted in November 1984 in the light of the work of the National Computing Committee, was aimed at encouraging the emergence of the foundations of a national industry (PCs and some peripheral equipment). At that stage, the computer market was dominated by American imports, IBM representing

70% of the mainframe market. Decree No 652/86 provided the means to run the policy—customs protection against computing equipment, tax incentives for national firms entering the sector, foreign investment regulation and encouragement for joint ventures seeking to obtain the relevant technology rather than just assemble. Alongside all this, a Higher Latin-American School of Computer Studies (ESLAI) was set up and an R & D programme and the Argensoft programme aimed at helping the national software industry started on.

China has said it wants to modernise both its industry and the national infrastructure by putting top priority on advanced technology and a State

Council Committee for Electronic Innovation has been set up. The authorities are committed to a policy of using this technology and of opening up to and cooperating with the industrialised countries with a view to importing the technology they currently lack. The country has 8000 mainframes and mini-computers and 200 000 PCs, most of them imported from the USA, Japan, France and the United Kingdom.

Country	1983	1984	1985	1986
France	5.8	1.6	2.8	9.2
Federal Germany	1.3	7.3	7.1	11.1
Italy	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.2
United Kingdom	2.3	4.0	6.0	4.3
Japan	25.7	49.9	83.7	84.9
USA	35.3	77.6	154.7	189.7
Total	70.8	141.2	255.4	300.4

(*) All figures include information systems, computers and peripherals.
Source: UNIDO, Microelectronics Monitor, 1987, N° 4.

China is hoping to develop its own industry now and is encouraging joint ventures with this in mind. The production centres are Beijing and Shanghai. The China Computer Development Corporation (CCDC), a federation of companies, is turning out 25 000 PCs p.a. The Chinese PCs, called the "Great Wall", incorporate Intel microprocessors and memory chips imported from Japan.

Thanks to the joint ventures, the assembly of mainframes is also planned.

The authorities realise just what is at stake and so they have set up computer studies departments in the universities and training institutes — which are turning out 6000 graduates every year. In 1984, a software technology development centre aimed at creating national software skills was opened. And there are also plans to channel \$ 1.9 billion (until 1997) into the creation of computer centres in 2000 districts so as to form a network of economic data bases.

South East Asia

In 1981, South Korea's computer industry was virtually non-existent, but by 1983 it was exporting goods worth \$ 120 million, a figure which was doubled the following year. By 1991, the production of electronic equipment will be up past the \$ 6 billion-mark — growth of 30% p.a.

This eruption by South Korea and the three other "little dragons" (Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong) onto the world microelectronics market is the result of a three-stage strategy — sub-contracting, followed by copying, followed by innovation. South-East Asia began by being a *sub-contractor* of the big multinationals at a time when they were trying to "delocalise" their production. Low wages and a plentiful supply of good quality labour, which until recently made few claims on the employer, enabled these companies to fight Japanese competition. Active policies of offering tax incentives and developing industrial free zones to attract foreign investors were run.

But the countries of South-East Asia managed to avoid being dominated by the big foreign companies operating on their territories and they themselves drew up the rules of the game, whereby they could develop their own know-how. Measures aimed at a proper transfer of technology to national firms were brought in.

So, having manufactured for other people, the countries of South-East Asia were then in a position to launch clone-type industries under national names. The Daewoo PC based on the IBM PC or the CUBIC 99 (the Singapore-made Apple) are examples of this.

Today, these countries have obtained the skills they need to embark on an innovatory and high-quality industry of their own and, with this in mind, the authorities have decided to invest in research. South Korea's science and technology budget went from \$ 577 million in 1981 (0.9% of GNP) to \$ 1.7 billion in 1986 (2% of GNP) and is expected to reach 5% by the year 2000.

South East Asian products are getting a firmer hold on the markets of the OECD countries as the years go by and Patrick Haas (op. cit.) said that: "Manufacturers in the Far East are

now the world's almost exclusive suppliers of IBM compatible PCs and they have already got 10% of the PC market in the USA". Hsinchu in Taiwan employs 8000 people and exports 80% of its output and the country is the 7th biggest in the world computer industry — of which it will control 2% in 1990. Tatung, Sampo, Cal Comp and Wyse are the best known of the 100 or so electronics firms there. In Korea, the four big companies exporting PCs are Goldstar, Samsung, Daewoo and Hyundai.

Importers Exporters (1)	USA	EEC	Japan	OECD (\$ million)
Singapore	81.3	15.6	0.3	858.4
South Korea	82.0	8.4	5.1	181.4
Taiwan	75.5	15.3	1.5	511.9
Hong Kong	71.1	19.4	1.3	714.1

(1) These four countries account for 93.3% of South East Asian exports to the countries of the OECD.
Source: OECD.

The biggest growth in semi-conductor sales on the international market is in three States — Korea, Singapore and Hong Kong, whose total sales will go from \$ 2 billion to \$ 5.4 billion in 1990. Semi-conductor International Magazine (March 1987) said that Korean firms (Samsung Semi-conductor and Goldstar Semi-conductor) are penetrating both the Japanese and the Federal German markets.

The astounding success of the computer strategies mentioned here is due to the fact that the products are up to international standards, but cheaper than other goods, which means that there is scientific and technical capacity based on a policy of research and development and remarkably well-trained staff.

Singapore is a good example. One of the prime aims of the National Computer Board (NCB) was to launch a computer training policy involving creating training institutes with the help of multinationals such as IBM, ICL and Sperry, installing computer teaching units in the universities — the

Department of Informatics Systems and Computer Science (DISCS) at the University of Singapore, the Institute of Systems Science and the Centre for Computer Studies (CCS) at the Ngee Ann Polytechnic—and concluding bilateral agreements with States such as the United Kingdom, France and Japan (Japanese Institute of Software Technology).

Today, the countries of South East Asia are having problems because their cheap labour is gradually disappearing. In Korea, for example 1500 trade unions appeared in 1987, and there have been 3700 labour disputes, as against 120 before. A move to relocate computer industries in the industrialised countries is under way and it is being emphasised by the decline in costs attendant on the mechanisation of production in most branches of industry. So, it is 75% dearer to have semi-conductors assembled by hand in the USA than abroad, but it is only 9% dearer to have it done by machine.

Trends in international cooperation

International cooperation has been active for about 15 years and is being continued today. It is marked both by heightened awareness of the role computing can play in development and by the fact that world economic problems restrict the means of intervention. So the international organisations have to look at things with a little more modesty and realism, so as to target the projects that are most conducive to development. Three recent events illustrate this—the disappearance of the IBI, the launching of the Intergovernmental Informatics Programme (IIP), and the increasing attention UNIDO is paying to computing for industrial development.

The regrettable disbanding of the IBI is too recent for any conclusions to be drawn. After the success of the SPIN conference in 1978, the IBI embarked upon an ambitious programme to expand its activities. Considerable investment was called for, but after a period of accelerated growth, the IBI could no longer keep up and several of its member countries dropped out, with an attendant large decrease in its resources, which prevented it from carrying out its programme.

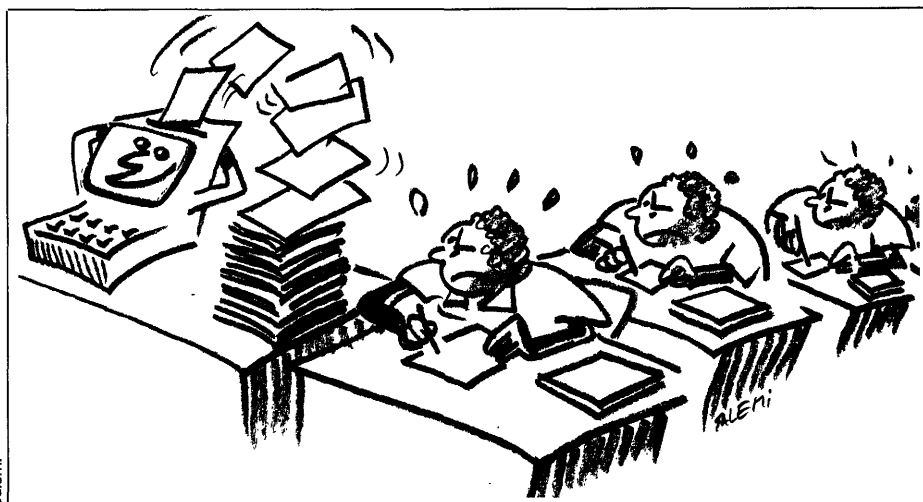
The recent IIP is an attempt to take up the challenge of ensuring efficient cooperation in spite of restricted means.

Actually, the idea of an instrument dedicated to computing developed in UNESCO in the early '80s.

Computing is not new to the organisation, having appeared in UNESCO's activities in 1971-72. Gradually, however, the idea of a sort of cooperation which made for more operational intervention gained currency.

Countries wishing to take part are invited to set up bodies (combining ministries and institutions) to ensure coordination, stimulation and monitoring of the national activities connected with the Programme. These are in direct contact with the Secretariat and they are responsible for running the operations decided on by the Intergovernmental Committee in each of the countries concerned.

The IIP was actually launched in October 1986, with the convening of



In developing countries, the pros and cons of the computer, related to employment, have hardly begun to be assessed: will the computer destroy jobs, (in offices, for instance) or will it create them?

Consultation was geared to setting up an intergovernmental programme of the sort UNESCO had previously created (Man and the Biosphere, the General Information Programme and the programmes of the Inter-Government Oceanographic Commission, which had proved to be efficient). Like its elder brothers, the IIP is run by a central body called the Intergovernmental Committee, which is responsible for coordination, planning and supervision. It comprises 33 member countries, which are elected by the UNESCO General Conference for a four year period, and meets every two years.

The lynch-pin of the programme is the Permanent Secretariat, which is supplied by UNESCO and acts as a link between all the States and institutions involved in its implementation.

The most original thing about the intergovernmental programmes, institutionally speaking, is the national Committees set up in each country as correspondents of the Programme.

the first meeting of the Committee (the second was held in Paris last October).

The Programme is not a financing body. What it has to do is generate, organise, support and plan major regional and multilateral projects—which will thus find it easier to obtain external financing. All the Intergovernmental Committee does is give the IIP 'label' and provide funds to help get them off the ground.

There are five priority areas of action here—computer training; networks and access to data bases; helping member countries prepare national computer strategies and policies; software development, production and adaptation; and support for the development of applications.

Strict conditions have been laid down for the projects and this has attracted the attention of members of the Intergovernmental Committee. They cover the establishment of stringent selection criteria and organise the monitoring of operations. Few inter-

national organisations have taken this path, but it is clear that the credibility of IIP depends on the standard and success of the projects it backs.

Like all intergovernmental programmes, the IIP asks for voluntary contributions from the member countries, to which UNESCO adds a considerable amount. These contributions may be in cash or in kind—experts seconded to the Secretariat, study grants, the supply of equipment and software and so on. The IIP can also call on the UNDP and international development banks. The amount with which it started out is still small and further contributions are promised. Seven projects have been approved and initial financing of \$ 670 000 has been granted for them. They cover training programmes in Latin America (ESLAI), Africa (ENSUT), the Arab States, the Pacific States and Eastern Europe. A project to set up an African university research network is also getting support from Italy.

The Programme is generating growing interest in the countries in UNESCO, "Although the IIP only has some financial means, some contributions in kind, some information systems, some well-thought-out links between the programme and the States and a sharing of project responsibility by the partners, these really are "catalysts", the sort of means which enable firms to make a go of things", said IIP Chairman Danzin.

UNIDO is the UN organisation which deals with promoting the industrial development of all the members, particularly those in the developing world. UNIDO's philosophy is that technology is at the heart of the process of industrialisation and development. During the groundwork for the 4th General Conference, the UNIDO Secretariat suggested that applying technology to development should be declared the main aim of international cooperation in the '80s. Micro-electronics and informatics were recognised as having a particularly important part to play in the developing countries. These technologies were deemed particularly influential on productivity in industry and full of effects on the quality of life (medical care, teaching, agriculture, etc) in general.

UNIDO leaders soon realised that it was virtually impossible to proceed without information technology and that "the question was not one of whether they should be introduced into the developing countries, but how".

UNIDO decided to achieve its aims via the traditional ways of programme implementation, as follows:

— In its operational activities, it tries to help its member countries to formulate industrial development programmes, promote computing, increase its uses, back up the States' drive to set up equipment-component design and production units and, more generally, get the industries to use modern methods of production (e.g. the project to help Latin American sugar-exporting countries to computerise production).

— Its very many studies are intended to underlie the operational activities mentioned above and are aimed at both member countries and Secretariat. They are published in the form of reports, directives or summaries of experts' meetings and they cover various aspects of the computer industry. They are a mine of information on the situation of the computer and computer component market, on the state of the art in different countries, on the implications of micro-electronics for the developing countries, and on industrial applications. UNIDO studies also give useful examples of application and some practical advice to the countries of the Third World—directives on the development of software industries, the creation of silicone plants and the use of suitable expert systems for the developing countries.

— In organising meetings of experts, fora and international conferences, UNIDO is trying to be a centre where information can be exchanged and useful guidelines for future action emerge. The joint meeting of UNIDO and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean in June 1982 was an opportunity to look at the implications of micro-electronics for the region, to come up with themes for cooperation between the two organisations, to discuss the means of creating local micro-informatics capacity and to recommend schemes at national and regional level. Other meetings of this type were organised in Kuwait in March 1984 with

the Commission for West Asia, in Mbabane (Swaziland) and in Kenya. The big forum on technological innovation and development in Tbilisi in April 1983 gave the 4th General Conference the essential basis of the guidelines which became UNIDO's in this field. This event gave rise to some intensive preparatory work and was an occasion for thorough-going reflection. The Tbilisi forum was an opportunity to evaluate the potential, the limitations and the consequences of various technologies, including informatics, on industrialisation. Strategies were proposed to the developing countries and guidelines produced for future UNIDO action. Employment and training were also discussed.

It was also UNIDO which backed the big Dublin conference on informatics and industrial development, jointly with the Irish Government, in March 1981 and organised the New Delhi symposium on micro-electronics and productivity in March 1983.

— In 1984, UNIDO began trying systematically to solicit the advice of professionals and NGOs involved in applying information technologies to development. An advisory group on information technology (COGIT) was formed in the organisation for this purpose, with a view to constant mobilisation of cooperation and backing up the Secretariat. At the Vienna meeting in October 1987, COGIT reviewed practical experience of applying informatics to development as well as UNIDO activity in this field. It came up with some possible practical cooperation measures, including some between developing countries, and made a contribution to the organisation's informatics programme.

— Lastly, UNIDO undertook the vital task of disseminating information by bringing out "Microelectronics Monitor", which takes stock of all the information available in the world four times a year. It is divided into separate sections whereby all available data on trends in the industry, research in progress, new applications, and the activity of big firms, the activity of the international organisations and the situation in the various countries can be obtained. A list of recent publications on these subjects also appears in each issue. ○ J. B. G.

Computer boom in Côte d'Ivoire

by Frédéric GRAH MEL (*)

The computers Côte d'Ivoire knew it would need even a year after it became independent have now come into their own. Since 1984, there have been African Computer Days every year, an opportunity for specialists and users from all over the world to converge on the country to discuss the latest in software, personal computers and so on, and the publicity this annual summit has brought to data processing is now overcoming the initial scepticism and reservations of a population which had already burnt its fingers on TV teaching⁽¹⁾. By the end of the 1981-85 period, the texts summing up the First Data Processing Plan had every justification for enthusing about the Ivorians' general interest in computers.

Although it was 1979 before computerisation became a real part of society, it was in fact 18 years before that, in 1961, that Côte d'Ivoire took the first step and set up a Directorate of Statistics at the Ministry of the Economy, Trade and Planning to inventory all the other ministries' data. Six years later, the State gave practical shape to its desire for better processing of public and semi-public data by opening the Central Computer Office and asking it to train computer staff. But the Office was no sooner open than it was flooded with work from the burgeoning administration of the early years of the young Republic. Its budget was not always adequate to cope with demands either, so service companies and even manufacturers mushroomed, offering their services direct to the authorities. The State saw its computer budget soar to dizzy heights—which was when President Houphouët Boigny called for order to be brought to the sector.

In 1979, a National Committee for Computer Utilisation was set up, with a string of representatives from the different technical ministries. This ultimately came up with the country's First Computing Plan, covering the period 1981-85, which suggested doing

away with the Central Computer Office's monopoly and, while recognising the need for a minimum of coordination, gave each sector of the administration *carte blanche* to organise its own system of data processing.

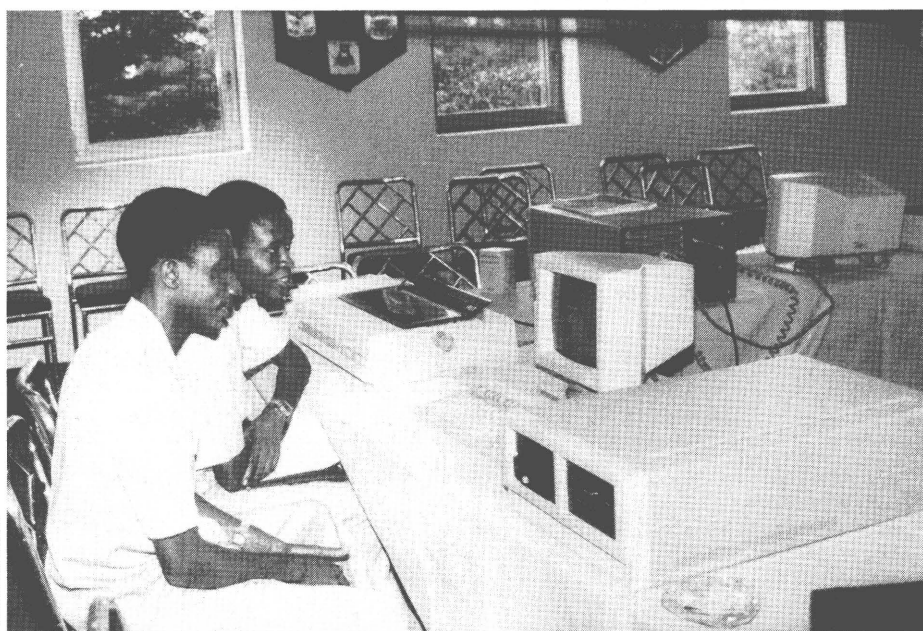
The National Committee, headed by State Minister Mathieu Ekra, was made responsible for laying down the Government's general computing policy and a Secretariat-General, in charge of implementing the main guidelines, was subsequently added. Efficiency was ensured by dividing the Secretariat, headed by Jean-Marie Akeboue, into three operational departments—an information unit to help the minis-

tries produce their master plans and specifications, an administrative and computing unit to help the same ministries manage their sectoral plans, and a technical training and information unit.

Since then, the National Committee and the Secretariat-General have confirmed their position as the country's main computer centres. The future of the nation's data processing is in their hands. They have to design Côte d'Ivoire's data processing policy and suggest how to implement it. And they were operational even before being legally constituted, being only officially set up on 26 January 1983 by a presidential decree of that date. So they were instrumental in implementing the First Computing Plan then on the drawing board and in the groundwork for the Second Plan.

The National Committee, the texts said, had to:

- study and suggest to the Government the main lines of a national computer policy, in liaison with the national economic and social development plan;
- give a reasoned opinion on the national computer plan and the studies run for it;
- give an opinion on all computing dossiers, studies, reports and schemes;
- trigger or recommend all projects, studies and programmes to do with computers and allied subjects.



The Computing Plan, which has operated since 1987, also seeks to reach adults through their children

(*) Mr Grah Mel is a journalist working in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire.

(1) This involved installing 17 000 TV sets to receive schools broadcasts in schools throughout the nation, even in the remotest parts of the bush and the savannah. It failed because of unsuitable programmes, unenthusiastic teachers and poor budget estimates.

DOSSIER

The job of the Secretariat-General was to:

- organise the computer sector and ensure that State schemes were coherent and in line with the aims of the Plan;
- help set up computer centre management and steering systems;
- provide technical and financial support for pilot projects chosen by the National Committee;
- oversee inter-ministerial and national projects.

Although the main idea behind the First Plan was to encourage the emergence of computerisation in Côte d'Ivoire by 1986, priority in the Second Plan was to consolidate the maturity and control of the computing sector. And its designers are optimistic, as a different environment is there to give them hope. This is the era of the less cumbersome, more attractive personal computer. Technology is bringing us smaller and smaller computers and they are increasingly compact and they are faster, with, in spite of their size, enormous memories. This is high-performance hardware and the price is going down all the time. Indeed, one of the revelations of the 4th African Computer Days in January 1988 was the 15-25% drop in computer prices—which means that these machines cannot but break through into the everyday life of the Ivorians. Virtually all the big training institutes in the socio-educational sys-

tem, starting with the INSET and the ENSTP, are getting computerised. Youngsters are fascinated by the entertainment computers can offer and thousands of them have come to the successive African Computer Days to play like musicians on the keyboards, calculating and writing and playing French compositions. In socio-professional circles, in SMEs, in local authorities and in the professions, people are looking to computers too. And even the GVCs in the villages are unwilling to be left behind.

Major State schemes include SIDAM (the Automatic Customs Clearance System), a tax computerisation operation, educational videos for agricultural instruction, health statistics collection schemes and the selection of health indicators at the Ministry of Public Health and the Population. Computers are everywhere. The Secretariat-General put the cost of the country's PC facilities at CFAF 20.4 billion (see inset No 1) on 1 January 1989, as against CFAF 11 billion on 1 January 1985. By 1990, Côte d'Ivoire will have around 12 000 PCs—forecasts which are clear indication of the rosy future awaiting data processing. And they have a good chance of coming true, as the Government's decision (3rd African Computer Days, February 1987) to launch a data processing plan for everyone in the schools so as to reach adults through children, suggests. This plan alone involves install-

ing 5000-10 000 personal computers in 284 schools for 260 000 students.

But even without this vast project (implementation depends on the proposals of a committee in charge of listing specifications by 1989), Côte d'Ivoire can be proud of its data transmission network, TAMTEL, which the Government is already using for its confidential messages. It was installed by Cieria, a branch of Steria, the country's biggest computer firm, and comprises 2000 pages of economic, administrative and cultural information—to be expanded in the future to become databases on administrative and legal matters, national firms, etc—accessible to all minitels in public places, post offices, town halls, police stations and the university. TRT, the French branch of Philips, has already supplied 150 minitels to get the network launched and several hundred more are expected to be connected in the coming months.

If the overall aims of the Second Plan are achieved, there should be 60%/year more PCs in Côte d'Ivoire from 1986 to 1990, 20% more minicomputers and 5% more mainframes—11 600 (as opposed to the 1300 of five years previously), 1075 (434) and 88 (75) respectively. In the public sector, most of these facilities (up to 90%) are used for management purposes and only 10% for scientific calculation and forecasting. The ministries which make the most use of existing equipment are Public Works (20% in number and 34% in value) and Economy and Finance (14% in number and 23% in value). In the private sector, where computers should become even more important in the coming years, office use (for word processing, mail, etc) is particularly common in the tertiary sector (63%), with figures of 33% in the secondary sector and a mere 4% in the primary sector.

But computers are not without their problems. Users in Côte d'Ivoire have to be more concerned with the physical and technical environment and take more precautions against damp and dust than elsewhere if serious damage is to be prevented. Power cuts can hold work up and cause data to be lost and the tension and frequency of electricity supplies is still irregular, so expensive extra equipment has to be

The Ivorian computer market

There are nine big makes of PC on the Ivorian market — IBM, SMT GOUPI, BULL, BURROUGHS, NCR, THOMSON, WANG, SHARP and OLIVETTI.

The country has 22 service firms, most of them also catering for the other markets of French-speaking Africa from their bases in Abidjan. Their combined capital is 51% Ivorian and 38% French.

Anticipated trends in computer hardware:

Type of system	Public sector			Private sector			Total		
	1984	1985	1990	1984	1985	1990	1984	1985	1990
Professional PCs	170	221	1 600	615	1 046	10 000	785	1 267	11 600
Small & medium-sized systems	45	48	115	322	386	960	367	434	1 075
Mainframes	19	19	24	54	56	64	73	75	88
Total	234	288	1 739	991	1 488	11 024	1 225	1 776	12 763

Source: Marchés Tropicaux, 12 February 1988.

Computing in the rural world: Ivorian cooperatives put their management on computer

Since 1981, Côte d'Ivoire has had a policy of reorganising its cooperative movement by forming unions of GVCs (cooperative groupings, usually at village level). These unions combine village cooperatives from a particular department of sub-prefecture with the same main activities—marketing coffee and cocoa, cotton, livestock products, arts and crafts and so on. Membership is optional.

The aim is to group material, financial and human resources and put life back into the cooperative movement—whose development had reached a ceiling that was difficult to break through with the GVCs so scattered and economically limited.

Through this pooling of financial and human means, the unions can obtain professional facilities and competent staff, either directly or with credit from the bank, to run activities which would be beyond the scope of the individual GVCs.

Management problems

The unions have become real agricultural enterprises, running an active policy of diversification and seeing their volume of activity undergo considerable expansion. The turnover of the majority of them, in both the forest zones (coffee and cocoa) and the savannah (cotton), is between CFAF 1 and 2 billion—notched up in the space of five or six months.

Management-induced problems are common, because of increasing numbers of accounts, more and more loans and advances on consignments granted to the GVCs, the difficulty and sometimes impossibility of controlling what stock is in the stores and what on the road, and the mistakes, deliberate and accidental, of both the union staff and the cooperative members themselves.

Computerisation of management

Faced with a situation that could easily have got out of hand, in 1986 the supervisory body here, the Directorate of Mutual Service and Cooperation (Ministry of Agriculture) decided to computerise.

The 5th EDF allocated CFAF 959 million in grants (microprojects) to fit out 77 of the nation's cooperatives. The first try-out was in four coffee and cocoa marketing unions and there was a second scheme in four CREPs (rural savings and loan funds) a year later.

With success behind it, the drive has now been extended to 16 cooperatives and six or eight computerisation schemes are scheduled for each of the coming three years under the 6th EDF microproject programme.

The equipment used is a PC compatible micro-computer with 20 Mb on-line storage (Olivetti) with printer and

plotter. The management software EASY (SOBEMAP) was thought to be the best for the unions' purposes because of its considerable potential (general accounting for several companies, a range of currencies, suppliers' and customers' accounts, budgets, integral stock management etc.).

Adult training

The fact that the software can expand with the unions has been a great help when it comes to integration and the training of users—which is offered in a two-week session prior to installation on site and followed up with a three-day booster two months later.

During the first year, the Directorate of Mutual Service and Cooperation provides monthly training and control back-up on site and at the end of first year, the users meet to discuss their experiences and obtain further information on software potential.

So, after two years, the first unions and cooperatives to computerise are now using the full software potential and planning to handle the individual accounts of some operators and GVC members.

Productivity increases

No further demonstration is needed of the benefits of computerised management. The Ivorian cooperatives are no exception, as, since computerisation, the unions' accounting has become something rarely achieved before—a means of management and control.

The accounting is immediate, so flows of finance and materials can be checked against the accounts at any time.

The simultaneous running of several sets of (general, analytical and budget) accounts, the ease of consultation and the production of a large number of accounting and statistical documents mean that comparisons and analyses can be carried out.

The time saved on entries and the production of recapitulative documents (books, balances, statements, audits, etc) is an estimated 80%.

In terms of costs, unsubsidised computerisation costs about CFAF 2 000 000 (amortisation included) p.a. After two years of operation, the biggest gains are an estimated CFAF 30 000 000 p.a., mainly accruing from proper credit and stock control, the elimination of loss in transit and a decrease in many costs, thanks to motivated management decisions. ○

Alain GIET
Adviser to the Minister of Agriculture
(Directorate for Mutual Service
and Cooperation), Abidjan

Computer training in Côte d'Ivoire

Public and private teaching establishments are competing with each other to train the computer staff of tomorrow.

There are two public computing schools, the ISI and the ESII, attached to INSET (the Higher National Institute of Technical Education in Yamoussoukro). ISI (the Higher Institute of Informatics), set up in 1981, recruits students with science baccalaureates via a competitive examination and trains them in data analysis and programming. ESII (the Higher School of Computer Engineers), set up in 1986, also recruits via a competitive examination, but this time from among students who have already completed a first course of science studies at the university, offering successful candidates a three-year sandwich course. In 1989, ESII will turn out its first annual batch of 25 informatics designers. Masters' degrees in computing are also to be started at INSET and the University of Abidjan. Administrative cadres wanting to retrain in computing can, for example, attend the Adult Training Centre for cadres in Abidjan, an establishment opened in March 1988 with the help of the Hans Seidel Foundation (Germany).

There are a number of private schools too—SIEPAT-Ordinateur,

for example, the limited company which young Ivorian graduates have set up in Abidjan. SIEPAT-Ordinateur takes students who have no special knowledge of computing, the idea being, Mr Valey, its director says, to "dispel the myths of computing by developing two distinct but complementary types of activity:

PC training

Over and above an introduction to computing (and the PC), management control, prediction, statistical decision-making and word processing software constitutes the bulk of the course, a practical one in which every student has his own PC.

Courses last between a week and three months, according to student availability.

They are attended by individuals (university teachers, engineers, lawyers, etc) and some companies send staff too.

PC maintenance

SIEPAT-Ordinateur maintains PCs at the request of individuals or companies, under clearly set out contracts, providing six-monthly and annual servicing and attending to one-off problems too". ◊

In Côte d'Ivoire, computer assembly is for tomorrow

As an illustration of Côte d'Ivoire's ambition in the computing sphere, SAFI-CI (the African Informatics Company of Côte d'Ivoire) is bringing a PC assembly factory to the Abidjan suburb of Yopougen—something which made a big splash when it was announced at the 3rd African Computer Days in February 1987. The public at large thought it was a hoax, but the personality of SAFI-CI president, Emmanuel Koué, the former diplomat, convinced them they were wrong.

The factory, we hear, is to be built in cooperation with a Taiwan construction firm and the software is being developed with French service companies. It should turn out 300 PCs p.a., which can be sold in the other countries of West Africa without payment of customs duties, as the firm should have the benefit of the regional cooperation tax. The Government has apparently also given a priority authorisation guaranteeing total exemption from taxes and other levies for seven years. ◊

bought. And telephonic access to computer data is hindered by the poor telephone infrastructure.

The Second Plan takes all these problems into consideration and draws the users' attention to the precautions that need to be taken to make the most of computer technology. The Ivorians also feel that the whole continent has to be made aware of the data processing issue and that there should be some joint thinking on an African strategy—which is why the "Yamousoukro Group", a promising framework for such reflexion, was set up (see inset 2).

But they still feel that there is every reason to be pleased and, most important, to welcome the employment opportunities which data processing offers—1900 jobs in 1980, 2000 in 1985 and 6650 by 1990. By then, all analysts and programmers, who have completed a two- or three-year course of study after the baccalaureate, will be nationals (95% are at the moment), as will 80% of the engineers (55% in 1985). These figures, said Mr Ambeu Yenon, Head of Training at the Secretariat-General, show that Côte d'Ivoire is far from having covered its needs in either the private sector or the civil service. In fact, he maintained, the problem is less one of unemployment than of qualified computer staff, as job applicants do not have the skills the employers are looking for (inset 3).

So the story that computers are putting people out of work in Côte d'Ivoire is not entirely justified. As Mr Ambeu said: "Computers obviously do cost some people their jobs, but they are gradually creating more work too". And he quoted the example of Japan—both a computer paradise and the country with the lowest unemployment figures. But the Ivorians have still to try and move out of the less skilled jobs (in data acquisition, running, programming, etc) and up into management and design where demand today is greater. These are the positions from which they can really influence the computer phenomenon and provide the most effective response to the wishes of their President—who thinks that Africa, which missed the industrial revolution, should not miss the computer revolution too. ◊ F.G.M.

Beware, computer!

What is the good of computing in Mozambique?

by Salomão Duma CUMBANE (*)

A discussion of computing in Mozambique has first to take account of the country's millions of homeless and illiterates. It must then tackle the problem of planning and production and end up with management and control—not to mention the vacuum created when the Portuguese technicians left on independence. What good are computers in Mozambique? It sounds good, but it is rather like asking what point there is in having arms in the hands of the handicapped. How can someone whose hands or feet are disabled defend him- or herself or escape from danger? At the moment, the dangerous animal is the lack of, or weakness of, know-how, planning and control, and the weapon to fight it with is informatics.

But most people have never even heard of the word. And those who have, or who have heard about computers, know that they are machines which "do the bosses' office work", slow up the payment of wages, cause problems with NSA⁽¹⁾ product distribution, decide how much tax Mr X who lives at Y has to pay, and help the EDM⁽¹⁾ and the APIE⁽¹⁾ collect their dues. So they think computers are harmful and unpleasant. The population as a whole has not had the preparation to understand the mechanics of computer data processing. And even less to recognise qualities such as speed of execution, precision, data storage capacity and so on.

A proper explanation in schools, institutes and universities is necessary—and possible—to pave the way for the future. And what is the situation today? Quite apart from the middle-range technical staff needed for the country's everyday computing, there have to be managers with the training

to use very advanced equipment. Without them, high-performance machinery is a pointless luxury. Mozambique already has 20 or so senior managers able to produce serious computer work. One or two specialists are talking about setting up a computer workers' cooperative and no-one doubts that, if the organisation sees the light of day, it will have an important part to play at national level—although it is up to the Special Informatics Commission to lay down general policy.

The faculty of mathematics at the UEM⁽¹⁾ has started a vocational training course and both the CPD and the Institute of Commerce are taking new initiatives here too. Since 1985, our leaders have begun to take an interest in applying informatics to everyday work—which is very appreciable—and they have even begun to learn how to use the computer! But the lack of know-how is a cause of concern. Too little use is made of too many expensive computers.

As to the purchasing of equipment—at the moment Mozambique has a problem with the over-diversification of its computer facilities. Computing is vital, that much is clear, but not without a guarantee of equipment

maintenance and monitoring being available in Maputo itself.

The present users are scattered and working on an individual basis, so the overall return on the investment is unsatisfactory—all of which could be avoided by making an effort with organisation. Computers are sometimes purchased before anyone learns about them. But the know-how should be acquired first and the equipment should be such that local know-how can be developed.

Handling is not all it might be either. Stories abound about computers arriving from somewhere or other with no spare parts and no guarantee of local servicing, so supplies should be examined with a view to long-term utilisation. It should be possible, with the agreement of the donor organisation, to choose the machine to suit local maintenance facilities. Supplies should not create one more barrier to proper computing.

The Government set up the Special Informatics Commission in 1980 and the optimists thought it would make short work of listing priorities and solving all the problems of the informatics sector. It took decisions on some urgent matters—but the problems of both the country and computing are such that it has not managed to publish a national policy yet.

In conclusion, in Mozambique computing is used for wages, stores monitoring, statistics, accounting and word processing, so it is only a support for the planning, management and control of production. ○ S.D.C.

Computerised databases

In its issue No. 102 (March-April 1987), The Courier published an article describing the experience (stemming from a recommendation by the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly) of the ACP States' access to the EURONET - Diane system, and through it, to Member States' databases. The pilot study dealt with 2 specific cases, Senegal and Zimbabwe, taken as users. In the following two short articles, the problem is approached from another direction, from the viewpoint of the supply of computerised information. The first example concerns the database called ENVIRON, located in Europe, the second, a management package called IDEAS, in Africa.

ENVIRON

The Pesticide Impact Section of the Overseas Development Natural Resources Institute (ODNRI) has compiled

a bibliographic computer database of books and scientific articles about the environmental side-effects of pesticides (including herbicides and fungicides) in the tropics.

(*) Director a.i. of the Data Processing Centre, Maputo (Mozambique). This article was written on 20 September 1988.

(1) APIE — Housing distribution and control organisation.

EDM — Electricity board.

NSA — Nationalised food product distribution system.

UEM — Eduardo Mondale University.

DOSSIER

This database, called ENVIRON, has been designed to provide a rapid and comprehensive information service freely to scientists, farmers and agricultural administrators living in developing countries and working for international development organisations.

Gathered within ENVIRON is information which was previously widely scattered throughout scientific literature. The wise use of such information will ensure that inefficient and environmentally damaging uses of pesticides are minimised.

Topics covered in ENVIRON include:

- pesticide toxicity to non-targets
- pesticide persistence and residues
- environmental fate of pesticides
- ecological impact of pesticides on non-target organisms:
 - evidence of mortalities
 - population changes
 - sublethal effects (eg.: animal behaviour).

ENVIRON can handle enquiries about the effect of pesticides on non-target organisms (including soils), after first specifying the pesticide (or pesticides), the target pest(s) or non-target organism(s), or a combination of these. The output consists of a list of references, each of which is followed by an indication of the contents of each paper and in some cases a relevant abstract. Depending on the request we also attempt to synthesise the information available to aid the enquirer.

Information available in ENVIRON can be obtained from:
Pesticide Impact Section,
Overseas Development Natural Resources Institute (ONDRI)
College House, Wrights Lane
London W8 5SJ — UK

IDEAS

The International Livestock Centre for Africa (ILCA) has pioneered the development of a unique database management package: IDEAS. This is a micro-computer data recording system for the comprehensive evaluation of livestock performance in African and other production situations.

It is aimed squarely at helping national livestock research institutes improve their data collection and thus it is hoped that it will lead to more valuable analysis and results.

Using a relatively inexpensive micro-computer system, the package is designed to record all aspects of cattle, sheep, goat, donkey and camel production. Animal records are stored in one or more of 10 integrated databases: herd details, basic animal details, reproduction details, weight details, milk details, wool details, traction details, health details, nutrition details and climate details.

The package will maintain records, provide instantaneous reports on important production factors such as the milk yield, progeny weight and viability of specified animals, and perform statistical analyses to identify factors such as breed, sex, management group, etc., relevant to enhanced production.

Existing manual systems are often subject to contradictions and inconsistencies. IDEAS overcomes this by a logical sequence of data entry that incorporates automatic error messages, so for example — once an animal's birthdate, sex, etc. ("passport" data) is entered in the programme, its weight, reproductive activity, milk yield, etc., can be recorded systematically over time. If, as often happens with manual systems, data is not properly calibrated, e.g. calving is assigned to a male animal (this does happen!), the system will warn the user with an error message. Similarly data can only be entered against a "passport", so consistency is safeguarded.

Installation and operation

IDEAS is supplied on diskettes and can be simply installed. It comes complete with an Introduction and Guide and a Technical Reference Manual. Sample herd data on cattle and sheep management systems are also provided, to be used along with the Introduction and Guide to quickly familiarise operators with the easy-to-use screen menus.

The IDEAS programme is based on the well-known and widely used DBase III software. It requires an IBM-compatible micro-computer plus hard disk, equipment that is increasingly available throughout ACP African countries, and is nowadays quite affordable (generally ECU 5 000-10 000 suffices).

The system began to be installed by ILCA in 1985 and as of today, is operational in 16 ACP (African) countries, viz: Botswana, Cameroon, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Gambia, Kenya, Mal-

awi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Training has been provided by ILCA technicians in 10 countries.

One criticism is that IDEAS currently does not incorporate economic parameters, being written around animal production technical coefficients. ILCA are working on incorporating this type of data within the system, as it will help researchers to work toward optimal animal production improvements.

The full benefits of IDEAS will take some years to realise. Livestock research typically takes many years to come to fruition (animals must be monitored throughout their productive lifetime if a proper assessment is to be made). However, it is because of this time factor that IDEAS should come up trumps. Once the data files are established, the system ensures continuity and thus meaningful time-series of data.

How to obtain IDEAS

IDEAS has been developed by ILCA primarily for the benefit of animal production systems in developing countries in Africa and can only be used under a licensed agreement with this institute. The cost (1987 prices) of the software package will be as follows⁽¹⁾:

1. African government-funded operations with no external funding

Software, free. Annual updating and maintenance, free. Installation and training, free.

2. Donor-funded government operations in Africa

Software, US\$ 800. Annual fee, US\$ 200. Installation and training, free.

3. Commercial or non-government operations in Africa

Software, US\$ 800. Annual fee, US\$ 200. Installation and training, at cost.

4. Outside Africa

Software by post, US\$ 800. Annual fee, US\$ 500. No training provided.

Further information can be obtained by forwarding details of your computing facilities and livestock recording requirements to:

The Computer Manager
ILCA, P.O. Box 5689
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

(1) The user must supply the hardware.

A new tool for processing survey data

by C. DAFFIN, P. DUNCOMBE, Mary G. HILLS, P.M. NORTH(*)

Since 1979 the Applied Statistics Research Unit (ASRU) at the University of Kent at Canterbury, has been running summer courses for workers from developing countries. One of these courses is aimed specifically at people engaged in any of the aspects of the collection and processing of survey data, and it provides training in the statistical background to such surveys, with applications to monitoring and evaluation added, and now with a component on demography also included.

At around the time that the courses were started it became apparent that microcomputers would have many advantages over mainframes for work in developing countries (and, indeed, elsewhere). Apart from being cheaper than mainframes, microcomputers require less maintenance and are less sensitive to environmental conditions. Mounting new software is also easier (and there are now more packages available). The failure in the early 1980s to find an easy-to-use microcomputer package suitable for the work being done by participants (from many developing countries) who came to the courses led to a project to develop a "user-friendly" survey programme (U-SP) in the Unit.

The three-month summer courses at Kent have always been run in close collaboration with the Overseas Development Administration (ODA), within the British Government. The ODA provided funding until 1985 for the development of U-SP. ASRU funded the development further, until late 1987 when the Statistical Office of the European Communities (SOEC) stepped in to continue funding, which currently sees the package through to a release of a new version ("2.6") in January 1989.

General outline and mode of operation

Previous work at Kent on "user-friendly" statistical software had produced an interactive package for the design of experiments and a multiple regression programme. The development of safe and simple validity checks and diagnostic aids (which underpins the "user-friendly" approach) for these projects involved extensive areas of fundamental research and the same has been true for the project to develop a computer package for sample surveys. The computing language APL was used.

The package is divided into option sequences (or "menus") from which options are chosen by the user. At any point the selection of the option is aided by on-line help in the form of a manual for each of the options. A

manual contains a description of what the option does and the information required to run the option and interpret the results. When the option has been selected, the user may also obtain guidance on how to reply to the current prompt. A dictionary of technical words used in the package is also available, as well as an option which enables the user to chart the current position in the package and to obtain information on the facilities available in other menus.

Although U-SP was designed for running interactively, it is frequently desirable to save the commands (replies) entered during an interactive session for use on a subsequent occasion, possibly on a different data set. A particularly useful application of this is that commands may be tested on a pilot set of data and saved for use later on the complete set.

There is a comprehensive hard-copy manual, of which there is also a French translation.

Fundamental features of U-SP

Particularly important features of U-SP, together with salient changes made in version "2.6", are described below:

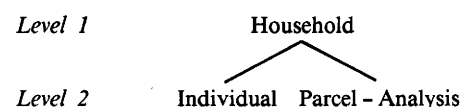
a) The database

It is common for a questionnaire to be made up of more than one type of record. For example, a household questionnaire often contains items of information (variates) pertaining to the household generally (e.g. type of dwelling, village) and also information for each individual in the household (e.g. age, sex, education). Such a questionnaire is made up of two record types, one for household and one for individual, and there will be one record of the first type (household) and a number of records corresponding to the number of individuals in the household of the second type (individual).

This is the basis of the hierarchical database system adopted, where the information for the household is linked to the records for the individuals belonging to it by identification keys and household information is entered in the database once only, not repeated for each individual.

There may also be information for parcels of land belonging to a household. This could lead to a third type of record (parcel), also linked to the household record. (Clearly the records for parcels are not linked directly to records for individuals, i.e. information on parcels is independent of persons within the household).

A continuation record type is also allowed, intended for information coming from another source or at a different time. In the example we are considering, a sample of soil from each parcel of land might be taken for analysis when completing the questionnaire, each soil sample being identified by the keys corresponding to the parcel. When the soil analyses became available, the information could be entered, together with the keys, as a continuation record (analysis) for parcel. The structure of the database for a survey with record types such as those indicated above is illustrated in the diagram below:



(*) Applied Statistics Research Unit, Mathematical Institute, University of Kent at Canterbury, Canterbury, Kent CT2 7NF, England.

DOSSIER

The design of a database giving acceptable speeds of entry and access to linked records has proved to be very difficult in APL. Version "2.6" contains a new database where the records are stored in sorted order and access has been speeded by inclusion of a search routine written in assembler code. It is consequently now possible to form complex derived variates obtained from the linked records at a lower level of the hierarchy (eg. total income of persons within a household or a marker variate for households with at least one member older than 65). The new database is generally more flexible; new variates may be added to a record type and new record types to the database.

b) Data input and output

Very large amounts of data are involved in censuses and surveys and entering this information into a database represents a larger proportion of the task for surveys than for most other statistical work; consequently, particular attention has been given to making data entry as simple, practical and flexible as possible.

A full-screen data entry system is being introduced in version 2.6. Variate prompts corresponding to the entries on the questionnaire may be set up on the screen, making the data processor's task easier. It is also possible to set up rules for automatically changing between record types at data entry, e.g. if a variate on the household record contains the number (n) of individuals in the household, U-SP may be set up to expect a household record followed by n records for individuals, no change of record type being initiated by the operator.

As in previous versions, data may be double-entered (i.e. a second operator may enter records which are checked against those entered by a previous operator, differences being queried). As records are entered, each observation is checked against pre-set limits (validation) and records with observations which violate these limits may be corrected at the keyboard or sent to an error file. Logical checks between variates may also be set up, records which violate them being queried. Again, the operator has the option of immediate correction or sending the record to the error file. It

Mauritius — Sugar crop 1985

<i>Factory Area</i>	<i>Area harvested (arpents)</i>	<i>Sugar cane production (tons)</i>	<i>Yield (tons/arpent)</i>	<i>Sugar production (tons)</i>
North	46 618	1 327 809	28.5	145 066
Beau Plan	9 447	285 331	30.2	30 171
Belle Vue	13 602	379 333	27.9	42 853
Mon Loisir	8 822	263 323	29.8	29 045
Mount	5 738	213 189	37.2	23 019
St. Antoine	9 009	186 633	20.7	19 978
South	57 413	1 854 880	32.3	219 741
Bel Ombre	6 483	189 905	29.3	20 656
Britannia	6 468	221 882	34.3	26 627
Mon Tresor/Mon Desert	7 423	258 770	34.9	31 635
Riche-en-Eau	8 281	266 363	32.2	31 290
Rose Belle	7 513	194 888	25.9	23 452
St. Felix	5 947	161 632	27.2	17 724
Savannah	8 090	290 023	35.8	35 933
Union St. Aubin	7 208	271 417	37.7	32 424
East	46 545	1 353 103	29.1	158 567
Fuel	21 670	634 084	29.3	72 604
Beau Champ	14 876	454 531	30.6	54 485
Constance	9 999	264 488	26.5	31 478
West	14 513	466 220	32.1	57 390
Medine	14 513	466 220	32.1	57 390
Centre	19 777	581 355	29.4	65 033
Highlands	9 111	277 793	30.5	27 530
Mon Desert (Alma)	10 666	303 562	28.5	37 503
Total Island	184 866	5 583 367	30.2	645 797

has been possible to set up logical checks in previous versions of the package for variates within a record type, but more sophisticated checks are available in version 2.6, using complex derived variates of the type described in (a) above. Options exist which allow data in the error file to be corrected.

Each operator's data are initially entered into a day file and corrected errors are returned to this file. The day file system allows data to be entered on more than one machine; day files may be copied to floppy disks and transferred to the main database. This system thus provides for the efficient use of a powerful microcomputer (with a high performance processor and a large hard disk) for the main database with several floppy disk based microcomputers being used for entering data.

Data may also be entered to U-SP from standard text files; transfer of data to U-SP from other packages (and vice versa) may be effected in this way. The new release allows direct transfer of data.

c) Missing values

Missing values come in a number of different forms in survey work, some of which are indicated below:

- 1) questions to which an answer should be available but for which no reply has been obtained;
- 2) questions which, for a particular record, are irrelevant, e.g. those concerning a garden for a household which does not have one;
- 3) values which are missing because U-SP is unable to compute them, typically derived variates where a division by zero is encountered;
- 4) missing values inserted when a check reveals an impossible answer and where the correction has not been obtained;
- 5) complete questionnaires are missing.

It may not be necessary to separate all of these categories but it is certainly desirable to distinguish between 1) and 2). To enable one to do this, U-SP allows the user to nominate a number of single character codes to represent different types of missing data. A skip function allows a particular missing

code to be entered for questions of type 2). Tabulation routines allow the inclusion of different types of missing value as categories and give a count of missing values for the tabulated variate, giving some idea of the reliability of the data.

Missing values of type 5), in particular, pose the problem of the estimation procedure which should be adopted. A practical solution (which, of course, assumes that missing values are equal to the average value for the stratum in which they occur) is to adjust weighting factors to take account of missing observations; this is a simple operation using the table transformation facilities in U-SP. More complicated imputation procedures, which may be required for variance estimation, have been investigated but have not been implemented in U-SP.

d) Tabulation and table functions

A typical "table" required for a planning report is illustrated on the previous page, as it was output from U-SP. This actually occurred in a report brought by a statistician on one of the courses as an example of the work in which he was involved (Mauritius Central Statistical Office, 1986). Output of this kind is so frequently required that it is worth examining in some detail. This "table" is not, as it appears at first sight, a two-way table, but is composed of four one-way tables. Three different variates are tabulated by the same classification variate and are displayed in columns 1, 2 and 4, and a fourth table (obtained by dividing each cell of the table in column 2 by the corresponding cells of the table in column 1) is shown in column 3. There are also a number of subtotals included in the tables (North, South, East, West, and Centre). The facilities for performing these simple operations, subtotals, division of the cells of one table by those of another and printing a number of tables, classified by the same variate, side-by-side are included in the table transformation options in U-SP. These and other facilities included in the TRANSFORM option, together with the U-SP full-screen editor, are of practical importance in enabling useful, camera-ready tables to be prepared, cutting out retyping with the consequent necessity for checking and proof reading.

The component tables which make up the "table" in the example are formed and stored in the tabulate option. In previous versions of the package, as in the new release, it has been possible to produce tables based on variates from more than one record type, provided that the records were linked directly. For example, height of individual could be tabulated by district and grouped by age, district being on the household record, and height and age on the record for individuals. It is possible to have up to seven classifying variates, and to filter the data if desired, e.g. in the above example, entries in the table could be restricted to one of the sexes.

Much of the usefulness of the table transformation commands arises from being able to enter them in two modes, one at a time or stored as a programme. When storing the commands in a programme, indices may be set and FOR... NEXT loops used. This means that the same set of commands may be used on a number of sequences of similar tables; the initial sets of tables may have been produced by tabulating different variates, e.g. the sugar crop for 1986 might have been used instead of that for 1985, as in the example. (Alternatively, the sets might have been produced by filtering, e.g. the figures in the example could have been restricted to a particular variety of sugar cane.)

Tables may be entered into a full-screen editor for final preparation; this editor may also be used for report writing. Tables may also be saved in text files for transfer to other packages. With the release of version 2.6, simple descriptive parameters such as population totals, means and proportions may be readily produced and displayed, and account may be taken in the estimates of any stratifying or clustering procedure using the DERIVE and TRANSFORM options.

Current use of U-SP and future developments

An agricultural census in the Pacific island of Vanuatu and an integrated rural development project at Mpika in Zambia were the projects initially chosen for testing U-SP. The experiences of workers at these test sites have re-

sulted in many useful and practical improvements to the package.

The current version 2.5 is being used in 37 countries. Twelve of these are in Africa, where Zambia, in particular, has taken U-SP as the standard package for survey work. A further ten sites are in the Pacific; in Niue, for example, U-SP is being used for an employment survey, a household survey and an analysis of immigration records. U-SP has been used on projects funded by ODA, the Overseas Development Natural Resources Institute (ODNRI), the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), the United Nations Development Project (UNDP) and SOEC.

Monitoring and evaluation of projects already set up is also a purpose for which U-SP is being used; examples of this include a resettlement project in Zimbabwe and a drainage project in Pakistan.

In addition to the teaching programme at Kent, U-SP has been used on courses in the U.K. organised by the Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex and the Project Planning Department of the University of Bradford. The Statistical Institute of Asia and the Pacific (SIAP) also uses U-SP on its courses, run both in Japan and elsewhere; as an example, it was used by SIAP on a course run by them at the University of Colombo in Sri Lanka. Plans are also well advanced for U-SP to feature in courses at the Eastern Africa Statistical Training Centre (EASTC) at Dar-es-Salaam (Tanzania) with which the Applied Statistics Research Unit has special links through the University of Kent's External Courses Initiative in Statistics. Building on this experience, there are plans to develop U-SP further as a teaching package.

Future plans include a version of U-SP written in a language other than APL (probably C); APL has proved to be a useful language in which to develop a package, but a version in another language is likely to achieve some advantages in performance. There are also plans to set up a newsletter which will provide information on changes and new features in the package and keep the many users worldwide in touch with one another. ○

C. D., P. D., M. G. H., P.M. N.

Computerisation of tax administration Jamaica

by Gary QUINCE (*)

In 1981, Jamaica embarked upon a comprehensive programme of structural adjustment designed to restore the economy to a sustainable growth path, reduce levels of unemployment and improve social services and economic infrastructure.

A key aspect of this programme, which has received substantial support from the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and other donors, was the restoration of fiscal balance on the Government budget to ensure a substantial reduction in the budgetary deficit.

An important element of this task was the reform of the tax administration system⁽¹⁾. At the outset of the structural adjustment programme, deficiencies in tax administration were a major factor in the large fiscal deficit. Problems included substantial arrears in tax collection, widespread tax evasion, abuse of customs and licencing procedures by importers and inadequate and out of date records on tax liabilities and payments.

As a result of this, the Government decided to undertake a comprehensive tax reform programme involving a complete review of tax policy together with the modernisation of the tax administration system.

The review of tax policy was undertaken with assistance from USAID which provided US \$3.5 million for technical assistance and training in revenue administration. Under this project, which began in June 1983, a wide range of studies were undertaken, culminating in 1985 in the preparation of a comprehensive tax reform document

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

(1) On the general problem of financial management in the Jamaican public service, see article by Miss Slyfield in *The Courier* No. 109, p. 70.

covering personal and corporate income tax, land valuation, customs duties and general consumption tax. The recommended tax policy reforms were embodied in the Tax Reform Act which became law from 1st January 1986.

Over the same period, substantial progress has been made in the computerisation of the tax administration system. The development and the computerisation of tax administration in Jamaica is the responsibility of the Revenue Board, a statutory body established in 1981. At the end of 1981, the Government formally requested EDF assistance to finance the first phase in the development of a computer-based tax administration system, and a preparatory expert mission visited Jamaica in April 1982 to hold discussions with the Jamaican authorities and to obtain the necessary data. This appraisal mission supported the request for EDF financing and, subsequently, a project was approved in January 1983 for a grant of ECU 3.26 million under Lomé II, covering the provision of further studies to define the computer hardware required, followed by the provision of the hardware together with technical assistance for software development and staff training.

The initial studies of the computerisation programme, which were undertaken between the end of 1983 and mid-1984, were based upon a detailed study of the functioning of the tax administration system followed by a proposal for the technical specifications for the computer system required.

Design of the system

In designing the computerisation project, the tax administration system was divided into three areas:

i. *Collection*: Involving the discharge of tax liability, except customs duties, normally through tax payments.

ii. *Customs and excise*: Covering all forms of import duties and domestic excise taxes on e.g. petroleum together with a general consumption tax, still under consideration.

iii. *Assessment*: Covering the creation of tax liabilities and tax audit.

It was clear from the outset that the EDF assistance would be insufficient to finance the computerisation of the entire tax administration system and it was decided that EDF assistance should be concentrated on the computerisation of the collection system. This included the acquisition of computer hardware and the development of the necessary computer software.

Based upon this decision, the recommended approach was to provide two main computers for the Revenue Board in Kingston (one for collection and one for back-up/software development).

The tender for the supply of the equipment was launched in February 1985 and tender bids were received in April 1985. Following extensive technical discussions with the bidding companies, a contract for the supply of the hardware was awarded in February 1986 to De la Rue General Services of the United Kingdom, for an amount of ECU 2.5 million, co-financed between EDF (ECU 1.2 m) and the Government of Jamaica (ECU 1.3 m).

The computer system was installed in June 1986 in a purpose built computer centre in Kingston, constructed at a cost of ECU 1 m financed by the Government of Jamaica.

This computer centre is operated by Fiscal Services Ltd, a company owned

Headquarters of Fiscal Services Ltd, a government-owned company, where the techniques of computer-aided financial management are passed on to civil servants and managers



by the Revenue Board. FSL is responsible for the development of the necessary technical infrastructure for the operation and maintenance of the computerised tax system throughout Jamaica.

Specific software and training

Two essential aspects of a computerisation programme such as this, are the development of the software to run the system, and the provision of the necessary staff training, bearing in mind that the numbers of technical staff at FSL are expected to grow to 150.

Due to the specialised nature of the tax administration programme, it was necessary to develop software specifically for the purpose, rather than using packaged software. To this end, following a restricted tender procedure, a technical assistance contract was signed in November 1986 with Datacentralen of Denmark, a computing consultancy company, to provide 144 man-months of technical assistance to design, develop and implement the software system. This contract was subsequently extended, in October 1987, with an additional 13 man-months to cover staff training.

The technical assistance to the Revenue Board is provided by Datacentralen and its local subcontractor: Caricom Information System Consultancy (CISC), Kingston. This company is a joint venture between three of the major computer consultancy companies in Jamaica.

The overall objectives for the technical assistance are:

- to provide the necessary managerial and technical expertise for the expeditious and cost effective development and implementation of a highly reliable, secure, efficient and auditable software system for the collection of, and accounting for revenue; and
- to establish an environment which will allow local counterparts employed to the project an opportunity to be trained to a level of managerial and technical competence capable of operating and maintaining the system effectively and continuing similar development upon completion of the contract.

Eliminating bottlenecks

Inland Revenue, which is a department under the Ministry of Finance, is

responsible for the collection of taxes and is thereby the main user of the computer system to be developed. Inland Revenue is organised with 27 collectorates spread over the island. The collectorates collect more than 50 different types of taxes and licences, of which the more important ones from a revenue point of view, are:

- Property Tax
- Drivers' licences
- Motor Vehicle licences
- Income Tax, Company Tax and taxes from Self Employed persons
- Pay As You Earn (PAYE) deductions
- Employers' and Employees' contributions to different social schemes (National Insurance Scheme, Human Employment and Resource Training Trust)
- Trade licences.

The major problems in the manual system have been to keep the tax ledgers up-to-date, to produce arrears information and to provide the taxpayers with a proper level of service. It has therefore been difficult for the Inland Revenue Department to enforce the collection of outstanding taxes. Management information has been time consuming to create and as a consequence are often produced late and based on unreliable data.

In view of this, the main aims of the approach under the computerisation project has been to:

- *Ensure a high level of information to the users*

During the first period of the project, several seminars were held where the senior staff from the collectorates were informed about the computerisation programme. This has been followed up by newsletters from the project committee and further seminars.

- *Ensure a high degree of user involvement*

Several working groups have been established to discuss user requirements, to discuss different solutions, to write user manuals and to carry out the end-user training.

- *Develop the system*

The first version of the system in production only includes one tax type, the experience gained from this version is utilised in the next version which includes more tax types, etc.

Start with a batch system

The first versions of the system are based on a batch approach, where input to the system is received on paper from the collectorates. Later in the development, terminals will be introduced in all major collectorates, first for enquiry purposes and later for update purposes. In this way, the users are exposed to the new technology in a step-by-step manner and it is the hope that this will improve the data discipline and ensure more reliable data bases.

The project is organised with a Steering Committee which is responsible for the strategic decisions to be taken and for coordination with the other projects in Tax Administration. Below the Steering Committee is a Project Committee composed of senior managers from the Inland Revenue. The Project Committee is responsible for all decisions in relation to the development and implementation of the system. Under the Project Committee are several working groups with members from the users and from the technical side. These working groups deal with all activities in relation to the development of a computer system: requirements, specifications, user manuals, user training, etc.

The project is at present staffed with six consultants and 12 analysts and programmers from FSL, together with support and clerical staff.

As already mentioned, the project also includes staff training. Two training consultants worked at FSL in order to establish a Training Department to develop and carry out some basic training courses for the technical staff. The basic training consisted of an introduction to the structured methodology for system development and a basic course in the use of POWERHOUSE, a fourth generation language, used in the development of the collection system.

The first taxtype, Property Tax, is now in operation, and further taxtypes will be included during the first part of 1989.

It is still too early to judge the benefit of the system seen from a revenue point of view. The full benefit will not be achieved before 1989, but it is expected that the project will meet its targets, which means that Jamaica by the end of 1989 will have a modern and efficient tax collection system. ○ G.Q.

The AGRHYMET programme in the Sahel

by Horacio S. SOARES (*)

Most of the Sahel countries have had relatively good rainfall over the past agricultural year. But nature's generosity is far from wiping the damaging effects of the repeated droughts of 1970-80 from the minds of the Sahelians.

It was in 1973 that the Sahel countries of West Africa decided to try and parry this climatic threat by combining forces in a joint organisation, the Permanent Inter-State Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS). As soon as it came into being, CILSS laid down and adopted a general strategy for drought control and integrated development, with the help of the international community. The AGRHYMET (agro-hydrometeorology) programme is still an important part of it.

Aims and structures of the AGRHYMET programme

The main idea is to achieve food security and self-sufficiency in the region by combating the hazards of climate with harmonious, integrated exploitation of the skills and means of Sahelian meteorology, hydrology and agricultural services.

With that aim, AGRHYMET has had three phases to date:

1. 1975-1981. This was devoted to improving the meteorology and hydrology services by training staff in agro-meteorology and operational hydrology and expanding and setting up reliable meteorology, agro-meteorology and hydrology networks in the different countries.

2. 1982-1986. This saw the consolidation of previous achievements and the launching of operational agro-meteorology applications.

3. 1987-1991. The idea of this phase, which is to cost an estimated US\$ 40 million, is to achieve the following immediate objectives:

- development and introduction of the methods of observation and collection of the meteorological and hydrological data required to monitor crops, grazing land and surface water. Analysis and storage of this information in the data banks in the Centre

and the various States. Provision of these data, on request, to users;

- help with implementing a national, regional and global early warning system (SAP) by supplying meteorological, agro-meteorological and hydrological information and forecasts;
- a contribution to the national and regional drive to increase agricultural output by the development, evaluation and use of methods which integrate agro-meteorological and hydrological information into the existing production systems;
- the phasing in (indicative timetable) of Sahel staff to manage the whole programme.

AGRHYMET is run by the meteorology, hydrology and agricultural services in the various countries in CILSS and by a central unit, the Niamey Regional Centre. The implementing agencies are the World Meteorology Organisation (WMO), the principal one, and the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), an associated agency.

AGRHYMET Regional Centre in Niamey

The Niamey (Niger) Centre is not just the lynch-pin of the whole operation. As the driving force behind the organisation, motivation and coordination and activity, it is the best-known part of AGRHYMET too and it has aimed to shoulder these responsibilities fully by setting up a proper organisational structure and installing

the requisite computing and communications facilities.

Its technical directorates are the Directorate for Training, the Directorate for Exploitation, the Directorate for Agro-Meteorological Application, the Technical Services Directorate and the Hydrology Office.

Computing and communications facilities

The AGRHYMET system depends on the rapid processing and dissemination in the Sahel of a large amount of information. The basic weather-water-farming data are gathered together at national level and transmitted to the Regional Centre in Niamey for processing and analysis. The results are then distributed to the users — heads of national services, CILSS regional leaders, cooperation agencies, etc.

The communications facilities are:

- BLU radio emitter-receivers to concentrate data at national level;
- the WMO's world weather telecommunication system, the post office, telegraph lines and telexes for connections between the Regional Centre and the national centres involved.

The automatic data acquisition and processing facilities on a PDP make immediate exploitation of the data which the Centre receives easier, particularly when it comes to both monitoring and implementing the agricultural livestock year.

The current telecommunications facilities of the whole AGRHYMET programme have some major shortcomings, but there are plans to overcome them during phase three by such things as data collection units and receiving stations using the satellite Me-teostat.

The hardware is as follows:

- two PDP 11/60 (256 Kb.) systems, one of which is dedicated to immediate data entry and processing;
- one VAX 11/780 mini-computer;
- a number of PCs:
 - one Bull Micral 60;
 - four Bull Micral 20s;
 - one Goupil G 286;
 - eight Rainbow 100s.

As with its telecommunications, much of the Centre's computing hardware will be replaced during phase

(*) Mr Soares is the Director-General of the AGRHYMET Centre and Programme Coordinator in Niamey (Niger).

three by equipment which both performs better and costs less to maintain, the idea being to cater for the computer facilities needed to handle the processing of satellite data. The Centre already has a SOUS receiving station for Meteostat pictures and an HRPT (1.1 km resolution) receiver for the NOAA/AVHRR satellite.

There are plans to improve the hardware by the addition of Bull Mical 75 PCs, a Vax micro and IBM PC-ATs.

Activities at the Regional Centre

The Centre concentrates on training, monitoring the farming and livestock year, monitoring and implementing the programme in the various countries in CILSS, setting up a meteorological and hydrological data bank, transferring agro-meteorological and hydrological data to the CILSS countries to help improve agricultural output, and producing an agro-climatological atlas of the Sahel.

Training

This was one of the first things the Centre did. More than 220 qualified staff (works engineers and technicians) have graduated from the Centre after taking 24- or 28-month courses of the theory and practice of agro-meteorology, hydrology or instruments. Most of them were Sahelians who found immediate employment with the AGRHYMET programme in their countries of origin.

Satellite data and monitoring agriculture and livestock

The CILSS authorities and the bilateral and multilateral cooperation agencies expect AGRHYMET to provide a precise, continuous assessment of the effect of the climate on crops and grazing land in the rainy season. The assessment helps with decision-making at the highest level and with backing for the peasant farmers and herdsman, thanks to the Centre's monthly telex bulletins and handouts and its annual summaries of the agro-meteorological and hydrological situation in the Sahel.

Initially, the Centre based these on its analyses of the (meteorological, hy-

drological and agronomic) data gathered at the available observation posts.

But the inadequacy of the ground observation network and, most important, the need for exhaustive, continuous geographical coverage of crops and grazing land in the rainy season, led AGRHYMET to look to satellite information.

Meteostat data is used to monitor the formation of clouds, particularly those generating heavy rainfall, and to assess precipitation. The data on vegetation obtained from NOAA/AVHRR satellite pictures are used to monitor trends in the plant cover.

The NOAA/AVHRR satellite data reception station has just been installed at the AGRHYMET Centre. It comprises a 2-metre dish, a combined guidance and reception system, a micro-Vax for data acquisition and pre-processing, and a PC-AT for the presentation of the images. The software already available will mean that syntheses of the vegetation index and radiant surface temperature can be produced in real time in the form of maps. Information from the station will be disseminated in two forms:

- raw data on magnetic tape;
- syntheses (geographical projections of predetermined zones) on diskette.

The Centre's potential for analysis will be improved by the installation of software developed by USGCS (the US Geological Cartography Service), which can be used for agricultural purposes.

AGRHYMET has been able to use the satellite equipment to monitor the agricultural year, thanks to technical support from a number of French laboratories and American universities and financial support from French cooperation and USAID.

AGRHYMET's economic partners

The programme plays, and will continue to play, a very important part in the training of Sahelian experts, the collection, analysis and processing of data on weather, climate and water and the assessment of their effect on agricultural and pastoral output. This has been made possible by the availability of considerable human and material means and, above all, by the



The NOAA/AVHRR satellite data reception station has just been installed at the AGRHYMET Centre

interest shown in the programme by its economic partners — Belgium, France, Italy, the Netherlands, the UNDP, the Federal Republic of Germany, Switzerland, USAID, the Commission of the European Communities and the CILSS countries.

The drive has also been backed up by the Commission of the European Communities via its financing of the project "Monitoring of the Sahel's renewable natural resources", which is being coordinated by the AGRHYMET Centre in Niamey. The EEC has also launched a major project to study desertification on the edge of the Sahara by remote sensing. The results of this major operation (divided into seven sub-projects run by several European laboratories) will considerably help the operational application of AGRHYMET.

The implementing agencies (the WMO and FAO), the donors, the Sahel Club and the Sahelian leaders meet periodically to discuss progress with the programme and to assess it and adapt it as circumstances demand. This process of consultation imparts a degree of dynamism to AGRHYMET, making it not just a suitable development tool but a scientific and technical cooperation model that is unique in the sub-region. ○ H.S.

Micro-informatics and statistical enquiry

The permanent survey of Ivorian households

by Chia Blé KOUAKOU (*)

Reliable, up-to-date socio-economic and demographic data are important throughout the world. In Africa, they are vital, because of the enormous and often unsatisfied needs there. We may want information to help us investigate major projects, but our statistical systems—which, like our countries, are developing—are not always able to come up with anything recent and we sometimes have to make do with data that are old or relate to other countries which are supposed to have similar characteristics to the one we are looking at.

So today, there is a concerted national and international drive to create and improve our statistical systems and make basic information available—as all the sample surveys run throughout Africa in recent times show.

Household surveys are getting a lot of attention at the moment. These enquiries into people's standard of living are often very complex in both design, implementation and handling, and, in terms of volume, they can be compared to semi-censuses.

The complexity of processing the data they yield is due to their great scope and to the inclusion of many subjects of analysis for any given population.

The long delays of yesterday

Before the Permanent Survey of Ivorian Households (EPAM) was set up, surveys of living conditions used to go through various stages virtually sequentially. Roughly, this meant starting with sampling, then moving on to collecting, handling and analysing the data and, finally, publishing the results.

So there were long delays between the end of the data collection period and the publication of the results. Some stages, such as analysis, could

easily take two years and there was nothing unusual about having to wait as long as five years for the final results.

Another major drawback was that it was impossible to go back to the households and correct large or systematic errors, because such errors only became apparent at the computer stage, long after the end of the collection phase, when it was too late to embark on any corrective processes.

One colleague told us what had happened to him in the Far East, when a consumer budget survey was being run and, through lack of experience, the different parts of a questionnaire failed to contain a common identifier whereby they could be linked: the survey could not be exploited—whereas an error of this magnitude would have been apparent if data treatment had been parallel to collection.

This is the background against which the first moves were made, in 1982-83, with a view to the Permanent Survey of Ivorian Households.

As well as achieving aims of its own, EPAM was to come up with a solution to the two major problems mentioned earlier by making collection and treatment simultaneous and substantially reducing the time it took to have the results ready.

And how have PCs helped? This is what we shall be describing below, after a short introduction to the survey.

Short introduction to EPAM

After running a national survey (EBC79) into household budgets and consumption in 1979, Côte d'Ivoire launched its Permanent Survey of Households (EPAM) after consultation with the World Bank, in 1985.

The main aim here is to provide various users with rapid, regular, up-to-date information on the standard of living of African households living in Côte d'Ivoire. The survey provides data about different aspects of the so-

cio-economic life of the families—income, outgoings, health, education, employment and other productive activities, demographic characteristics, migration, fecundity, housing and so on.

Other information about the areas in which the survey is run are an opportunity to assess the influence of the environment on the standard of living.

EPAM is now in its fourth year. The data for the first three years are ready and those for the last year are entered while the survey is being carried out in the field.

The survey covers a sample of 1600 households grouped into 100 clusters of 16 households each and spread across the whole of the national territory. The questionnaire, containing 17 sections and about 800 variables, relates to the household and is filled out during two visits a fortnight apart.

Each data collection team comprises six people—a supervisor, two interviewers, an entry clerk, an anthropometrist and a driver. The entry clerk, who has a PC, is based at the Regional Statistical Office, while the rest of the team travels from one place to another.

At the headquarters of the Directorate for Statistics, there is a supervisory team comprising a project leader, a statistical officer, an informatics officer and two deputies to coordinate the work of the teams in the field.

In the field

The day before the survey starts, each team goes to the area in which its cluster of 16 households is situated. The interviewing takes four days, during which time the first 10 sections of the questionnaire are filled out (first cluster, first visit). Back at the Office, the supervisor gives the questionnaires from the first cluster to the entry clerk, who has a week to deal with them.

In week two, the team fills out the first 10 sections of the questionnaire

(*) The author, a computer engineer, is head of the Informatics Department at the Directorate of Statistics and National Accounting (Ministry of Planning and Industry), Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire.

with the second cluster (second cluster, first visit).

While this is going on, the entry clerk deals with the data for the first visit to the first cluster. Back at the Office, the team leader hands over the questionnaires for the second cluster and gets the data and listing for the first cluster in exchange. He then carries out the relevant operation controls and has any corrections made.

In week three, the team returns to the first cluster to fill out the seven remaining sections of the questionnaire (first cluster, second visit). This takes four days. They cannot of course return until the data from the first visit has been dealt with. The interviewer takes this opportunity of repeating questions to which answers were incoherent during the first visit. During this time, the entry clerk handles the data from the second cluster. Back at the Office, the team leader hands the questionnaires from the second visit to the first cluster and gets the data and listings of the first visit to the second cluster in return. He runs the relevant operational controls and has any corrections made.

The work during week four is identical to the work in week three. The only difference is that it involves the second visit to the second cluster for collection purposes and the second visit to the first cluster for entry.

The fact that data entry and collection are simultaneous is important. A week after collection, all the data have been entered (see Figure I).

Various measures have been introduced to ensure that the computing, the key to the whole operation, can go on without a break. Particular attention has been paid to the environment

of the PCs, adapting the power, stabilising supplies by installing voltage regulators, fitting air conditioning in the permanently closed rooms and buying covers for the PCs to keep the dust off, and two extra PCs have been bought so that any being repaired can be immediately replaced.

Servicing (dust removal, checking diskette units etc) is carried out regularly by operators in the supervisory team.

There are three copies of the data entry programme and the clerk has to make two back-ups of any data he enters.

All this has proved to be very efficient and there have been no major hitches in four years of operation.

Innovations in EPAM

These open the way for new ideas in the design and running of household surveys.

These innovations, the main ones of which are described below, were made possible essentially by the use of PCs.

Once the basis for the survey was defined, the sample of households by cluster (including the replacement households) was made entirely by computer.

The word processing software was used to produce the questionnaire, a form-design programme being specially written for this. Once the questionnaire had been tested in the pilot survey, rapid changes could be made. The proofs sent for reproduction were photo-reductions of computer listings, which both saved a lot of time and kept the standard of the questionnaire up.

When the anthropometry unit was added six months after the survey began, an attempt was made to design the relevant questions via a programme directly based on the dictionary of variables.

Using PCs has made it easier to keep up with the survey timetable. As we showed earlier, stage two of the survey cannot be run with a cluster of households until the data for the first visit have been entered. And because of all these constraints, the survey was run entirely according to the initial plan—a rarity in the field.

Intensive checks from entry onwards

First of all, almost all the details on the questionnaire are precoded. The interviewer encodes the answers directly on the questionnaire sheet during the interview. So the lengthy, finicky job of encoding the data, which used to follow collection, has been done away with and the clerk only has figures, not sentences, to enter.

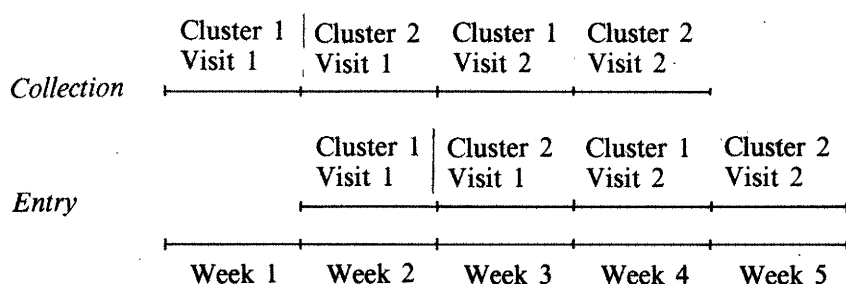
The data entry programme was designed in such a way as to include data validation. If a particular character not authorised in the survey—“\$”, for example—is keyed in, the programme indicates this at once. And if a non-planned code for a variable is entered, then the programme points this out too.

It also checks out any “jumps” in variables. On the “household data sheet”, for example, the questions following age (question 6) deal with the marital status of individuals and details about the spouse (questions 7-9). With EPAM, these questions are not put to individuals under 12. Errors caused by a failure to respect the structure of the entries are common in household surveys, but the programme picks them up rapidly.

Once the data for a particular individual in a section have been entered, the programme checks on their coherence within that section. And once all the sections for a particular household have been entered, the programme checks on the coherence of the various sections.

It can also check that all the sections of a questionnaire and the data for all the household in a given cluster have actually been entered.

Fig. I - Timetable of data collection and entry over five weeks for two clusters of households



Printing made easier

But one of the facilities of PCs which the Ivorian survey has perhaps not used to the full, in spite of the fact that computers can make a really decisive contribution in most countries of Africa here, is the editing and publishing of results.

One of the big causes of hold-ups in statistical output in our states today is printing. Plenty of survey results, analyses and research finish their lives as manuscripts on stackroom shelves.

Shortage of money apart, the problems of typing and compiling proper documents containing text, tables and charts that are ready for printing, are often blamed for this.

Although computing cannot do anything directly about the financing problems, it can help the statistical services prepare reports to a high professional standard, ready to be sent to the printer. This can cut costs and considerably reduce the time it takes to publish results. The relevant technology here—"computer-assisted printing" (CAP)—is both available and improving all the time.

Autonomous teams

Another thing PCs have done is made it possible to have autonomous teams, as a team having problems

does not now hold up the whole system.

This flexibility, combined with the unit-style design of the survey, meant that one unit (anthropometry) could be added, without any stoppage or interference, six months after the survey began.

Rapidly available results

All this meant the initial results were available very early on.

The survey began in March 1985. By September, data for 900 households (of the 1600 in the corpus) had already been entered and, by November, two months after collection and entry, the preliminary results were already available.

Method easy to reproduce

But the most fundamental aspect, to our mind, is that the PCs have facilitated the rapid formation of a team of national experts for the collection and treatment of data in our household surveys. EPAM started in year one with the help of international experts, but it now works with just national experts, who have developed it and are even planning to entirely recast it in the coming years.

And the idea is easy to reproduce. Already countries such as Peru have

used it, and Mauritania and Ghana (which have already started a similar survey) and Senegal (which has one on the drawing board) are in contact with the Ivorian team. The South-South cooperation the politicians recommend has taken practical shape in the technology of household surveys.

Even better prospects

Although data collection in households has greatly improved thanks to the PC, it is still possible to go further with portable PCs. It is easy to imagine interviewers, with PCs no bigger than a brief case, turning up on the doorstep and keying in the information themselves — with software that immediately validates the data. This is not science fiction. Many conclusive experiments are being run in a number of institutions and there are fairly firm plans to use these high-performance technologies when EPAM is reorganised.

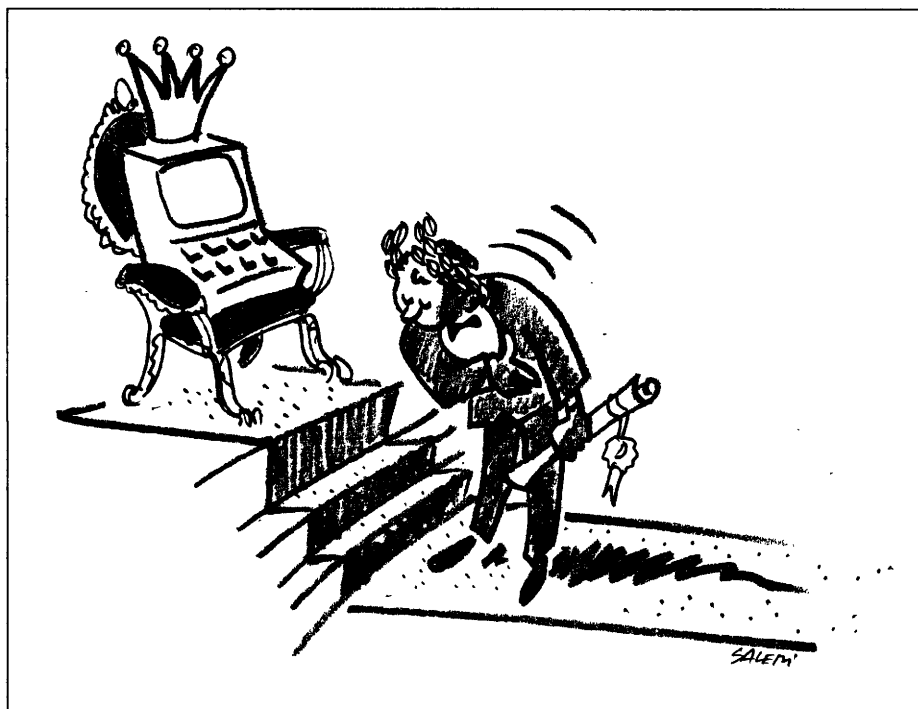
And better still, there is every reason to suggest that the extraordinary progress being made with voice synthesis on PCs means that verbal responses to surveys can be digitalised directly in the not too distant future.

So a new type of relation is emerging in household surveys, in which computing is not just an aid to data treatment. It can also have a decisive influence on it, for the better, particularly when it comes to the method of design and collection and other processes. This is why the idea of involving informaticians in the discussions, even at the very early stages of the survey project, is highly recommended.

Beware! The computer cannot do it all

But it would be wrong to think that computers are a panacea. They cannot solve all survey problems.

It is more necessary now than ever it was to produce a proper sample, because of the facilities computing offers, and to provide better training for the various aspects of the job, take data validation and correction as far as possible, run more varied analyses and rapidly bring out attractively set-out results—which are the fruit of so much human and financial effort and are necessary to the planning of development in our countries. ○ C.B.K.



"... it is necessary to provide better training for the various aspects of the job..."

A newspaper... thanks to the computer

by Ruth MASSEY (*)

In just about a year and a half, Kinley Dorji has made thousands of friends in very high-up places—in the Himalayas—thanks to one or two other friends who have helped make his dream come true.

Dorji wanted to launch the first newspaper in Bhutan, the Himalayan kingdom where literacy is a recent phenomenon, but he did not have the money to undertake what initially looked like being an expensive enterprise. Thimphu, the capital of Bhutan, is like a village “where everybody knows everybody else”, says Dorji, whose friends included a “very dynamic group” of people working for the UNDP.

“When I mentioned the problems we had getting together the money to buy equipment”, Kinley Dorji said, “the resident representative at the time, Raj Kumar Dar, was very understanding, which is how the idea of asking the UNDP to provide the money for the computers came about”.

Once upon a time, it took a lot of basic capital to start up a newspaper. But thanks to computing, a \$ 93 000 cheque from the UNDP was all it took to get the national weekly, *Kuensel* (bringer of light), off the ground. The UNDP funds were used to buy three computers, two laser printers and some graphics software — enough to turn Mr Dorji’s dream into reality-

“Since my newspaper was going to be the first newspaper for all these

readers”. Dorji continues, “I wanted it to be as simple as possible and to stimulate people’s interest. So we decided on a 12-page tabloid”-

And now, each edition has national and international news, illustrated reports, a readers’ correspondence page and so on, and it comes out in three languages — English, Nepalese and Dzongkha (the national language in Bhutan).

While deputy editor Kul Prasad prepares the illustrations on one of the computers and Raj Kumar Chetri writes the headlines on another, Kinley Dorji edits correspondents’ articles, which can easily take a two-day coach trip up the mountains and through the valleys of the Himalayas to get to the office.

Most of Bhutan’s 1.4 million people live in tiny villages scattered over the mountainsides, overlooking terraced fields and pastures. And in a country such as this, full of isolated mountain communities, the *Kuensel* has an essential job of communication to do. Which is why its launching, in 1986, was a major event in a country where tradition is till a force to be reckoned with and where Buddhist prayer flags still fly before every house.

In Bhutan, major events have to be organised in consultation with the Buddhist monks so they were consulted and they consulted their calendars and decided that, if things were to augur well, the newspaper should be launched between a.m. and midday on the 25th day of the seventh month of the year of the Fire Tiger, i.e. on 29 August 1986.

On that day, Social Affairs Minister Lyonpo Sangye Penjor pressed a button and page one of Bhutan’s first newspaper came rolling off the press. — Or, to put it more precisely, thanks to electronic magic, off the laser printer.

Since that memorable day, the *Kuensel* has had its share of agitation, if not panic. Number three all but failed to come out because there was a power cut. “A laser printer blew and we were desperately planning to get one in from Singapore”, Dorji told us, “but the weather was so bad the planes couldn’t take off and even the road to Puntsholing on the Indian frontier was blocked. And to cap it all, we couldn’t use the telephone either. In a nutshell... we were stuck”.

But fortunately, the head of the Bhutanese Electricity Board (another friend) is an electrical engineer and, by dint of following the instructions in the laser printer handbook step by step, he and Dorji managed to repair it—it took two days—only to find that the problem was a tiny resistor that cost 5 Singapore cents (or 2 US cents). So they made their own and when another one blew the following week, Dorji had a handful of spares sent by post from Singapore.

Since power cuts are so common, Dorji installed a solar-powered computer in his home and purchased equipment that cuts in automatically when the power is down so that the data being stored can be kept for 15 minutes until the supply comes back on again. He is also planning to instal solar panels to give a six-hour supply in an emergency.

“We are also thinking about putting four panels on the office roof so we could produce a whole issue with solar power”, he said.

Is his imagination running away with him? Not necessarily, bearing in mind that Bhutan has gone from mediaeval times to the computer era almost overnight. Which is why the editors of the *Kuensel* hope to get the paper out twice a week by the end of next year and maybe one day become Bhutan’s first daily.

And by then, it could well be produced entirely with solar power. o

R.M.

(*) Source: “UNDP, World Development”, March 1988.

Editor Kinley Dorji (far left) and the “*Kuensel*” editorial team



UNDP

Training in informatics

A course in the application of computers in agriculture

by Tony HICKIN (*)

When most of the today's more senior managers began their careers, computers hardly existed. So rapid have been developments over the last few years that now they are widely and more cheaply available and accepted as a basic tool of organisations large and small.

The best way to understand their capabilities is to get "hands-on" experience in an environment which encourages experimentation and the sharing of experience with others.

The four-week residential "Computers in Management" course at MAMC has been running annually for the past three years. It aims at achieving a broad practical understanding of how computers can be used to increase productivity and develop managerial effectiveness. It is intended for middle and senior level managers who are already, or expect to be, involved with some aspect of computerisation in their work. The emphasis is on the application of computers in agriculture, and the course is tailored for executives in both commercial and government organisations involved in planning, administration and production.

Its specific objectives are to help participants to understand what computers are and how they work; develop operating skills in applying commercial software packages which relate to strategic and operational planning and control, and appreciate the technical and management issues involved in planning and implementing computerisation in their organisations.

Structure of the course

The course is structured around six main components:

Introduction to computer concepts

This helps participants to understand the hardware and software. Each

is analysed into its component parts, and then is shown how they interrelate to perform specific data processing tasks.

Programming

To learn how computers work and gain skills in automating a wide variety of data processing procedures, participants are taught a general purpose programming technique.

Role and objectives of MAMC

MAMC is a Management Development Institution, with an agricultural bias, catering for a middle and senior management from developing countries.

Its role is to impart and promote international standards of management principle and practice, and by so doing make a major contribution to the development of manpower resources in developing countries, which it sees as essential to economic and social progress.

The core of MAMC's residential and outreach activity is the Management Development Programme, the objective of which is to meet the market demand for highly effective and well-motivated managers in both the public and private sectors.

The programme concentrates on practical management development objectives aimed at producing professional managers who look for and are motivated by challenge and performance-related incentives.

It thus aims at achieving ongoing improvement in management performance by contributing directly to individual career development by providing structured progressive training, and encouraging self-development, both directly relevant to job experience.

Using Computer Operating Systems

Much of the difficulty experienced by computer users is due to an inability to use the operating systems effectively. Throughout the course, therefore, a considerable amount of time is allocated for hands-on practice.

Using Application Programmes

The course is designed to help find a way through the variety of application packages commercially available, and equip all participants with the skills to implement and operate the three most useful ones, namely:

- data management software for storing, organising and retrieving data from large files.
- spreadsheet software for the analy-

Background, status and activities

Established in 1972 as a directly owned and managed project of the Commonwealth Development Corporation for the training of its own staff, it is now a separate limited liability company incorporated since 1988 as a not-for-profit Association under the laws of Swaziland. The Director is responsible to a Board of Directors, the members of which represent the major shareholder (CDC), donor agencies, collaborating institutions and client organisations.

Two thousand managers from over 50 countries have had "The Mananga Experience". They have come from Africa, the West Indies, Europe, the Far East and the Pacific.

One of the great advantages of attending a course at Mananga is the close contact between participants of different nationalities, which provides a stimulating forum for discussion and a lively exchange of views and ideas.

At the same time, however, MAMC is also rapidly developing its "Outreach" activities whereby it is carrying out management training and development for client organisations in other countries. As a result the academic staff is constantly on the move in the cause of national manpower development which it sees as essential to economic development.

(*) Director, Mananga Agricultural Management Centre (MAMC), Swaziland.

Effects on management of the different stages of computerisation

Phase 1: computer system preparation

1.1. Selection of projects:

- i) *Opportunity* for management participation in overall development of computer methods in the organisation.
- ii) *Difficulty* for management to make judgements about cost-benefits and practicality, because of lack of knowledge about the methods under consideration.
- iii) *Time requirement* of sitting on project-vetting committees, etc.

1.2. Identification of objectives:

- i) *Opportunity* for participation in this stage may lead to a better understanding of (a) existing business methods and problems, (b) the capabilities of computer methods.
- ii) *Difficulty* may occur through ignorance of computer methods, hence in practice the identification of objectives is often a creative contribution by the systems designer or specialist. The latter, however, may also experience difficulty through not giving sufficient attention to operating realities.
- iii) *Time requirement* may be very substantial for adequate participation in this phase.

1.3. System Design:

- i) *Opportunity* to participate in this stage would lead to considerable knowledge of computer methods. In practice this is unusual, though departmental staff may be seconded to assist the system designer.
- ii) *Difficulty* of participation in this stage would serve without substantial knowledge of computer methods or a very heavy time requirement.
- iii) *Decisions* may be required from management concerning information formats, decision rules to be applied (e.g. acceptable service levels), timing of computer work, etc.
- iv) *Difficulty* may be experienced in providing decisions in these circumstances, since the manager may be accustomed to a trial and error approach rather than a prior or imaginative approach.

1.4. Programming:

Difficulty may be experienced in understanding the nature of the programming activity, e.g. the time required, the costs, the likelihood of error, etc.

1.5. Classification, coding and creation of standard data:

- i) *Responsibility* for this task very frequently falls upon line managers. They must organise staff to cope with it.
- ii) *Difficulty* occurs because the task is often extremely laborious, leading to staff work pressures. Also it may be difficult to achieve the unaccustomed high levels of accuracy required in the work.
- iii) *Time requirement* may be substantial for the manager.
- iv) *Decisions* may be required concerning the form of the data. (These will often be required of different managers from those responsible for the physical data preparation.)
- v) *Difficulty* may be experienced, as in 1.3 above, because such decisions are needed prior to experience with the system. Also, in general, a more systematic approach to standard data may become necessary.

1.6. Operating procedures and manual procedures:

- i) *Responsibility* may have to be accepted by managers using the system for working to specified operating procedures, and for introducing appropriate manual procedures to support them.
- ii) *Difficulty* may be experienced in getting staff to work with tighter time schedules, and more closely defined procedures.
- iii) *Decisions* may be required concerning the times at which information will go to and from the system (this may also be considered in the original system design).
- iv) *Difficulty* may again be experienced in foreseeing the implications of changes in timing of information, etc.

1.7. Acceptance of the system by users:

- i) Before implementation it should be *decided* whether the system designed meets the objectives. This is also an

opportunity to contribute further ideas to the final system.

- ii) *Difficulties* may arise for two main reasons: (a) management is insufficiently knowledgeable, and (b) if acceptance has been left till very late, the sunk costs of the system development may leave very little opportunity for changes.

Phase 2: testing the system

2.1. Technical testing of programmes

Management not affected.

2.2. Proving the validity of the system

- i) *Opportunity* may be provided to learn by trial and error with the system, both about the problems and about the methods being applied.
- ii) *Decisions* may be required concerning the validity of output from the system.
- iii) *Difficulty* arises because of lack of knowledge of methods of analysing data, and lack of criteria with which to evaluate the system's output. Pressures to accept the output as satisfactory may also be present because of the large sunk costs.
- iv) *Time demands* may be considerable, depending on the complexity of the system which is being evaluated.

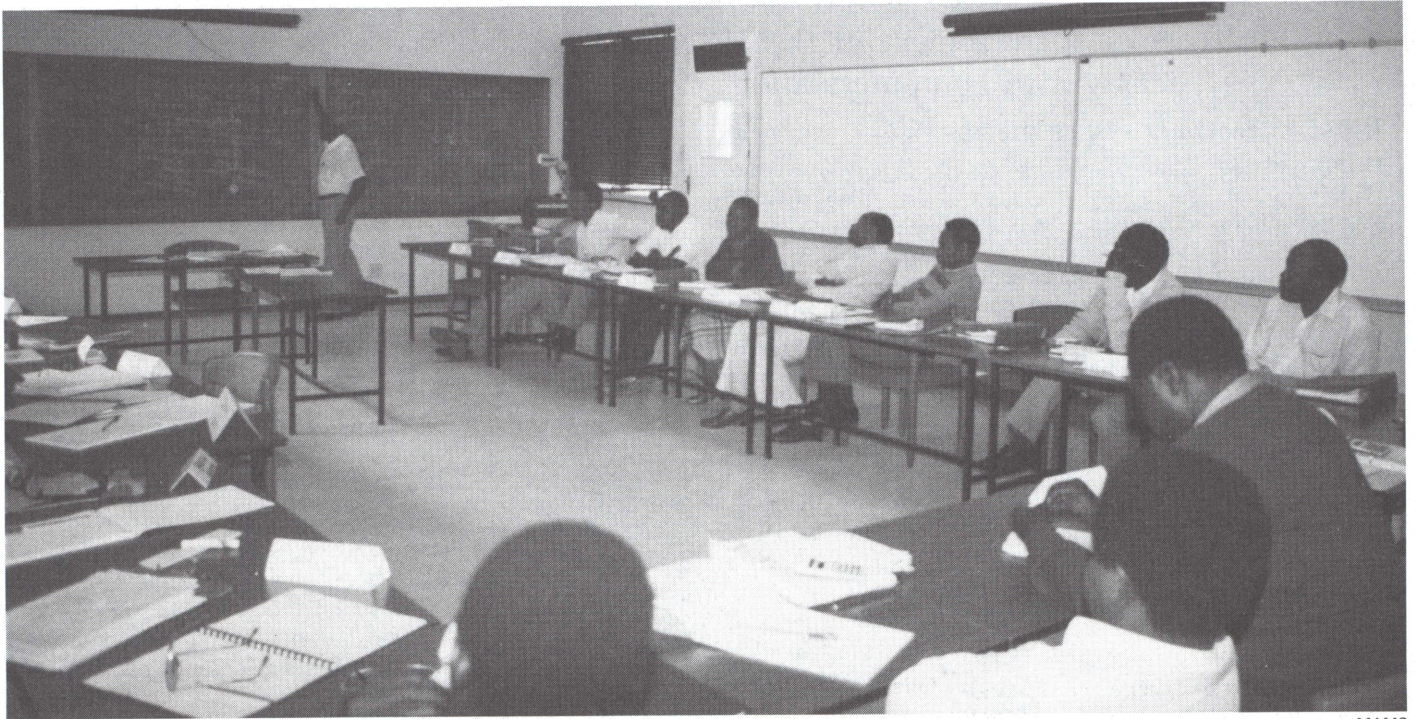
2.3. Parallel running:

- i) *Responsibility* for keeping the old system running while introducing the new one remains with management.
- ii) *Difficulties* arise because of duplicate work which is caused, hence staff work pressures. Also confusion may result between the two systems.

Phase 3: putting the system into operation: preparation of input data

- i) *Responsibility* for ensuring that staff work in accordance with the system requirements.
- ii) *Difficulty* may arise because the work may become more monotonous and minutely demanding, and management may be faced with consequent staff resistance.
- iii) *Time demands* may arise from the need for closer supervision or frequent explanation of what is required by the system.

Source: MAMC



MAMC

A senior managers' course in progress at MAMC

sis of tabulated numerical data by mathematical formulae.

— word processing software.

These three applications cater for a wide range of management requirements. By using them the participants are encouraged and enabled to work on a previously identified computerisation project relating to their respective organisations.

Participants are encouraged and enabled to choose additional options to study applications for such areas as accounts, project management, statistical analysis, and many more from the packages available at MAMC.

Impact of computerisation

This module looks at the ways that computerisation affects decision-making and organisational behaviour when computers are introduced to modernise clerical procedures, operations planning and control functions, and long term strategic planning.

Managing computerisation projects

The final component is the presentation of a three-phase conceptualisation of a computerisation project together with the necessary management tools for planning and control purposes. The three phases are: system preparation, testing the system, and putting it into operation.

Participants are required to apply this work breakdown to their specific projects, estimate the time and resources required for each activity, and construct project networks, schedules, budgets and the critical path.

Teaching methodology

The teaching methodology comprises a balanced mixture of laboratory work, plenary lectures, option and case studies, and integrative exercises.

Each participant spends 50% of the course getting hands-on experience in the computer laboratory. For about half of the lab. time participants have their own individual computer, the balance of the time being shared with one other person depending on the nature of the particular session's training objective.

The plenary sessions cover the core syllabus and topics are examined which are relevant and useful to all course members. They provide a general background and act as an introduction to the main subject areas.

Much of the learning takes place in small, problem-solving groups. One of the greatest advantages of taking part in a programme at Mananga is this close contact between participants of many different nationalities and professional backgrounds.

The options are designed to enable course members to study in detail, and in greater depth than plenary work allows, those areas which are relevant to their particular job demands.

While the group work serves as a means to bring together all aspects of the course in a general manner, the participants are given case studies and integrative exercises to consolidate the specific aspects of technical issues with behavioural and managerial ones.

Learning resources

There are six IBM-compatible microcomputers in the computer laboratory and nine more on the campus.

There is an extensive range of software available, including the most widely used IBM-compatible packages, tutorial disks for the main software packages, and interactive management games.

A broadly-based management library of over 4000 books, journals and periodicals is available.

There are many interesting agricultural projects in Swaziland, several of which use computers, and to which visits are arranged to give course participants a practical insight into computer management. ○ T.H.

Aid for refugees under Lomé III

by Martin POWER^(*)

EEC aid for refugees is not something new. The Community has for a number of years been one of the largest donors of assistance to refugees. The biggest proportion of this aid is in the form of food aid. As the table below shows, food aid accounts for around 40-45% of total EEC aid to refugees. Another 20-25% of the total is administered through UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency) in Palestine. Under Lomé III there are two provisions which are of direct application to refugees. The first of these is Emergency Aid (Article 203) which has been an essential tool in the Community's efforts to help bring relief in the immediate aftermath of crises and disasters. The second provision (Article 204) is a new measure introduced for the first time in Lomé III. This article recognises the particular difficulties involved in meeting the longer-term needs of refugees. For this purpose a budget of ECU 80 m has been established. While this is not an enormous sum when seen against the numbers and plight of refugees in ACP countries, it nevertheless represents a significant additional effort by the Community to channel more resources to some of the most deprived people in the world who are often forced to settle in some of the poorest countries. The EEC, in line with other members of the international community, is committed to help relieve the problems faced by the refugees and the countries that are called on to accept them. This article looks at the experience gained so far in the implementation of Article 204 of Lomé III.

Flexible implementation

Aid for refugees under Article 204 is designed to come into effect once emergency aid (Article 203) has ended. Community emergency aid, by its nature, is a rapid disbursing mechanism of relatively short duration (six months). Once emergency aid has ended there are often ongoing needs and requirements to be met and this is



Wars and drought are the main causes of displacement in Southern Africa. Here a food aid distribution to drought refugees in Botswana

where Article 204 comes into play. Generally speaking, there are two categories of actions that receive assistance under Article 204:

- (i) acute needs (no longer supplied under Emergency Aid), i.e. supplies of medicines, clothing, shelter, vehicles, repair of roads, airstrips, etc.;
- (ii) longer-term needs, i.e. projects aimed at helping refugees to achieve some degree of self-sufficiency through food production, training, development of crafts, etc., and, where suitable, repatriation.

The above examples are purely indicative. Since Article 204 is new it has been the policy that it should be implemented in as flexible a manner as possible so that a wide experience

could be obtained of different types of projects assisting refugees. As mentioned above, refugees often find themselves in states that are economically in very difficult circumstances.

As a result, the local populations often face many of the problems encountered by refugees. It has been an essential element in the implementation of Article 204 that local populations should not feel discriminated against and that the "benefits" of a project to aid refugees should therefore be extended to include local populations wherever practicable.

Some indication of the flexibility with which Article 204 has been implemented can be seen in Belize where a scheme to provide primary health

Community aid to refugees, displaced persons and returnees 1985/87 (ECU m)			
	1985	1986	1987
Emergency aid	62.9	10.2	10.4
Food aid	81.8	61.8	49.5
Art. 204 - Lomé III	—	1.9	9.0
Art. 936 - Budget (non-ACP)	5.2	5.0	10.0
Art. 941 - Budget (NGOs)	1.8	0.5	2.9
UNRWA - Palestine	31.5	31.5	35.1
Others	4.0	0.8	—
Total	187.3	111.7	116.9

^(*) Administrative Assistant, DG VIII, Commission of the EC.

care for 10 000 refugees from non-ACP States has just got underway. The local population will benefit also from the provision of a medical team and the training of local health workers that is taking place in the Cayo district.

What, then, has been the experience to date with Article 204? As of September 1988 over ECU 33 m (out of ECU 80 m provided) have been committed to support over 30 projects in 14 ACP States. The size of these individual projects has varied considerably, with the largest being for over ECU 16 m (in Sudan), details of which are described below. For the most part, the projects have been undertaken by NGOs (Non-Governmental Organisations) on behalf of the Commission and the ACP State concerned. The expenditure involved in over 80% of the projects has been under ECU 750 000.

Since Article 204 only came into effect in 1986, most of the projects being funded are still underway. A rough breakdown of the projects indicates that about one-third concentrate on improving medical facilities in and around refugee settlements, another third have focussed on the longer-term requirements of refugees, such as educational and other training facilities while the remaining third have assisted with the integration or repatriation of refugees. Within this general categorisation there has been a wide variety in the type of project undertaken. Under the "medical" heading one of the first projects to be approved was in Djibouti, where the Ministry of Health set up a programme to strengthen the health services for the

approximate 40 000 Somali and Ethiopian refugees. This project included the renovation of the local hospital as well as the establishment of an anti-TB campaign. In Somalia Médecins sans Frontières (Netherlands) were implementing a project in the North West of the country where, as well as renovating the local hospital to help cater for the 60 000 Ethiopian and Sudanese refugees and 15 000 local people, a medical team was provided to undertake basic surgical, obstetrical and medical care. Furthermore, training was provided for Somali doctors and nurses so that they would have been in a position to take over once the project ended. Unfortunately, near the end of the two-year project the Sheik Area, where the hospital is located, became embroiled in the disturbances taking place in northern Somalia. Many of the refugees have fled from the area and expatriate workers were, for safety reasons, compelled to leave. The project has had therefore to be abandoned for the time being.

Repatriation and resettlement

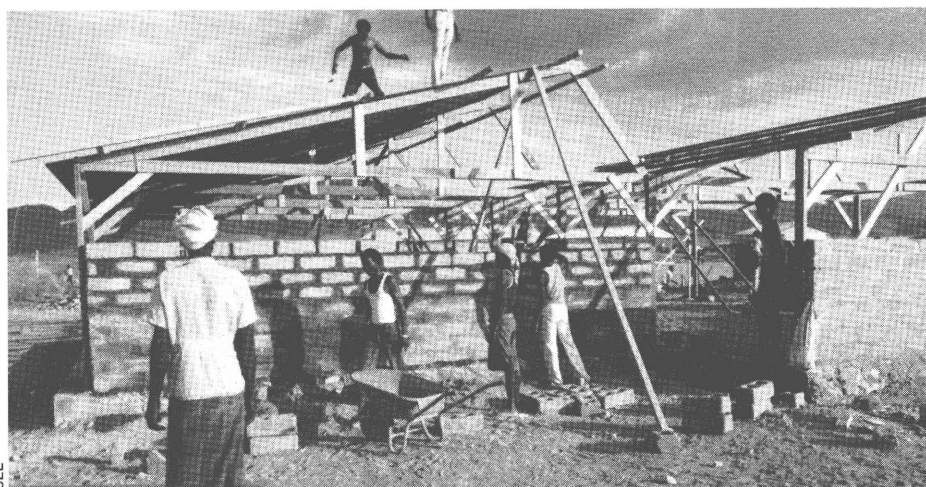
The repatriation and/or resettlement of refugees is another broad area where there are a large number of projects being assisted. The largest of these projects is taking place in Uganda. In conjunction with the Government of Uganda, the Lutheran World Federation and UNHCR, the EEC is assisting with the repatriation from Zaïre and Sudan of 100 000 Ugandan refugees and with their resettlement in Uganda. Resettlement is a complex operation, often requiring the provision of basic necessities. Refugees usually return with very little to areas

where the infrastructure is non-existent or has fallen into disrepair.

Whole ways of life have to be rebuilt. A big concern with repatriation is that the necessary security exists to ensure the wellbeing of those returning. This is often the limiting factor in restricting the repatriation of those who have had to flee from a country. The resettlement part of the project in Uganda is directed towards community development and provision of infrastructure. To promote income generation and a location for selling produce, three marketplaces are being constructed in the Moyo and Arua districts each with 24 shop units, stores, shelters, etc. A workshop and ancillary facilities to embrace carpentry, blacksmithing and construction is being developed in Moyo town. Four schools are being either built or renovated. An important element here is the input being made by teachers, parents and local communities into the construction of these facilities. Assistance is also being provided for the rehabilitation of some roads and bridges.

While the hope of most refugees is to be able to return to their homes as soon as possible, circumstances often do not allow this. Many refugees find themselves condemned to a long period in a strange environment. To avoid a dependency mentality and to build up morale and self-respect, schemes to aid the self-sufficiency of refugees have been another area encompassed by EEC-assisted projects. At a basic level, this includes the construction of schools as in Dukwe refugee camp in Botswana which is being undertaken in conjunction with the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). In Malawi a project is underway with Concern Universal whereby refugees will start to undertake the construction of roads, schools, etc., and will receive payment in the form of extra food. Training in basic medical and hygiene standards is another common longer-term requirement in many refugee camps.

As mentioned above, by far the largest project currently being supported by the EEC is getting underway in the Eastern Region of Sudan. In conjunction with the Sudanese Ministry for Finance and Economic Planning and the Commission for Refugees, the EEC is assisting a series of projects to aid the spontaneously-sett-



Construction of refugee camps in Somalia

Aid to refugees and returnees – Art. 204 Lomé III

Country	Date of approval	Article 204		Notes
		Amount (ECU)	Beneficiaries	
			Returns and refugees (2)	
Benin	09.04.87	120 000	350 refugees	Reintegration of Chadian refugees.
Botswana	12.08.87	450 000	2 000 refugees	Building of a secondary school in Dukwe Camp.
Djibouti	25.07.86	545 000	30 000 refugees	Anti T.B. campaign, 25/7/86. Government contribution to project: 15 000 ECU of I.P.
Malawi	14.01.88	335 000	130 000 refugees	Strengthening of medical facilities for refugees in the central region. Improving access road to Noukhokwe camp. Improving refugee camp in Mtendere Parish.
	27.06.88	300 000	250 000	
	30.06.88	120 000	9 000	
Total		755 000	389 000	
Mozambique	12.05.87	110 000	16 000 refugees	Medical-health assistance for returnees in Moatize.
Niger	12.03.87	15 000	8 000 refugees	Phases of repatriation programme for Niger refugees in Algeria.
	12.05.87	134 600		
	13.05.87	404 000		
	05.10.87	190 000		
Total		743 600		
Uganda	19.12.86	740 000	100 000 refugees	Repatriation of Ugandan refugees from Zaire and Sudan. South-West refugee health programme
	01.05.87	3 860 000		
	14.04.88	320 000		
Total		4 920 000	205 000	
Somalia	26.03.87	663 000	60 000 refugees	Refurbishing of Sheikh hospital for Ethiopian and Sudanese refugees. Joint EEC/IBRD/HCR study mission.
Total	00.01.88 400 000	45 000 708 000		
Sudan	30.04.87	126 800	12 500 refugees	Preliminary study of health, agric. and educ. needs. Training for Eritrean-Kasala refugees. Mother-child health care programme. Facilities for refugees in Port Sudan. Assistance to Yei hospital. Assistance to Maride hospital. Aid Programme (schools, hospitals etc.) for spontaneously-settled refugees. Technical assistance for Office of Commissioner for refugees. Geneina Hospital. Wadi Salei district.
	19.06.87	80 000		
	14.07.87	29 800		
	12.08.87	230 250		
	02.02.88	740 800		
	02.02.88	432 800		
		16 330 000		
	11.02.88	725 000		
	25.03.88	750 000		
	29.04.88	723 800		
Total		20 169 250	992 500	
Swaziland	20.08.87	730 000	6 000 refugees	Building of a secondary school in Ndzevane.
Chad	17.12.86	630 000	14 000 refugees	Repatriation of Chadian refugees from Sudan. Resettlement in Southern Chad of returnees from Sudan. Follow-up on previous actions.
	20.01.87	750 000	9 000	
Total	29.10.87	630 000 2 010 000	23 000	
Zaire	10.02.88	661 000	35 000	Medical assistance for Angolan refugees.
Zambia	19.03.87	440 000	10 000 refugees	Building and lengthening of access route to Ukwimi camp.
Total	13.08.87	210 000 650 000		
CARIBBEAN Belize		738 000	10 000	Primary health care Cayo district.
Overall total		33 309 850	1 786 800	

(1) UNHCR estimates.

(2) It is not possible to quantify local beneficiaries who also benefit from the projects designed primarily to help refugees and returnees.

led refugees (i.e. outside official refugee camps) in the Eastern Region of Sudan. Spontaneously settled refugees usually have little assistance from outside agencies but are dependent on local resources. Considerable tension can arise with the local populations as places in schools, hospitals and even land becomes more difficult to find. The projects currently getting underway are aimed to try to improve the situation in the Eastern Region for both the refugees and the local population. The main aspects of the programme are:

(i) the rehabilitation of buildings, sanitation, water supply and electricity supply for 12 hospitals and the provision of medical equipment and medicines;

ii) the renovation of 37 primary and 11 intermediate schools and the construction of one intermediate school;

(iii) the funding of a number of livestock, credit, forestry and agricultural self-sufficiency projects;

(iv) in addition, the programme provides for a contribution for assistance to spontaneously settled refugees in Khartoum, to be implemented by UNHCR, for the strengthening of the Sudanese Commissioner of Refugees office and for technical assistance to help with the programme's implementation.

This is the first time a programme this size has been undertaken under Article 204 and its broad scope will provide much experience in projects for assisting refugees. This programme in Sudan could be the forerunner of similar programmes in other ACP States who face similar problems in trying to cater as best they can for refugees who seek refuge in their territory.

Article 204 is, as stated earlier, an innovation in Lomé III. It is obviously filling a gap in the Community's efforts to relieve the plight of refugees particularly in trying to meet their longer term requirements. Too often public attention is directed to the immediate aftermath of a crisis, forgetting that the provision of food and shelter, essential as they are, does not solve the severe problems faced by refugees. While not a panacea, the projects supported by Article 204 are helping in their small way to redress the situation. ○

M.P.

Sectoral import programmes: a Zambian example

by Tom ROE (*)

An exciting and innovative element of Lomé III is Article 188 which provides for sectoral development and import programmes. "Such programmes", the Article specifies, "may include the financing of inputs to the productive system, such as raw materials, spare parts, fertilisers, insecticides and supplies to improve health and education services, ...".

Zambia is one country which has taken advantage of this provision. During the Lomé III pre-programming discussions in Brussels in November 1985 the EEC Member States encouraged the Commission to develop and implement quick-disbursing aid to Zambia and the Lomé III national indicative programme, agreed and signed between Zambia and the Commission in Lusaka in December 1985, includes provision for "... import support, integrated in the focal areas..." of agriculture and rural development. After detailed discussions and agreement between the Zambian government and the Commission, a financing proposal for a ECU 40 million import programme was prepared to be financed under the terms of Article 188 of the Lomé III Convention, and was discussed by the EDF Committee in June 1987. After the unanimously favourable opinion of the Member States, the Commission approved the programme in July 1987, and the financing agreement was signed in Brussels on 21 August 1987 between the Commission and the Government of Zambia.

The overall programme includes two components:

1. ECU 32.8 m for supply of inputs and spare parts to the parastatal Nitrogen Chemicals of Zambia (NCZ) fertiliser factory at Kafue, just south of Lusaka, and
2. ECU 7.2 m for the importation of essential agricultural inputs such as pesticides, insecticides, veterinary drugs, irrigation equipment, tractors, and agricultural machinery and spares.

Inputs and spare parts for Nitrogen Chemicals of Zambia

The Nitrogen Chemicals of Zambia (NCZ) facility at Kafue has been, apart from the copper mines, the largest single productive plant investment in Zambia since independence in 1964. Up to 1985 some US \$ 100 m had been invested there. In order to keep the plant operational there was a need, defined in 1985, for rehabilitation of the production lines (financed by the Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau

(KfW)⁽¹⁾ for improved management (financed by the World Bank), and supply of inputs and spare parts (EDF finance).

Implementation of this three-year programme has been rapid and on schedule. The Government of Zambia has made significant efforts to meet project-specific and the substantial sectoral policy conditions which are integral to the programme. The Commission, for its part, has made a considerable and successful effort to expedite, in a flexible yet controlled way, EDF implementation procedures without prejudicing the provisions of the Lomé Convention.

For example, since the EEC is not a major producer of the Triple Super Phosphate (TSP) needed by NCZ, the Commission approved, at the request of the government, to include Morocco and Tunisia as potential sources of supply (see Article 232, Para. 5 of the Lomé III Convention). The TSP was finally supplied from Tunisian sources. All other inputs for which contracts have been awarded are of EEC origin. The value of supply con-

tracts awarded following the tenders, up to December 1987, was ECU 7.17 m. The TSP was delivered to Kafue via Dar es Salaam in March and April 1988 and the other goods are expected to arrive within the delivery period.

In April 1989 NCZ plans to close down for six months its production lines, originally constructed by Klockner INA (D), in order to allow Klockner to carry out essential rehabilitation. The Klockner contract is financed within a DM 68 m KfW facility. In addition, the KfW has already provided DM 12 m in commodity aid for spare parts and inputs for NCZ. Equipment and spare parts for this rehabilitation work, worth some DM 20 m, have already been procured by Klockner and partly shipped.

To allow NCZ to complete their own scope of works in parallel with Klockner, ECU 8.5 m-worth of spare parts are to be procured with EDF financing. These fall into the following categories: rotating equipment, piping, valves, mechanical heat exchangers, electrical items, instruments and freight. The procurement programme began in July 1988 and deliveries, which are dovetailed into the NCZ and Klockner rehabilitation schedules, are spread between October 1988 and August 1989.

The complexity of the critical path of this rehabilitation project and the variety of participants presents a particular challenge in coordination and management. The respective sources of finance (Commission, KfW, World Bank, NCZ and the Zambian Government) require financial coordination. Klockner, funded by the KfW, is the principal rehabilitation contractor and its activities are being coordinated with NCZ's own scope of works. ENICHEM, funded by the World Bank, is providing the management team. The expatriate Managing Director is funded by the government through ZIMCO, and Lurgi (D), the supervising engineer by the KfW. The EEC Delegation is required to ensure that the EDF-financed procurement fits into the critical path for the project. This requires day-to-day coordination with NCZ's procurement department and, overall, a substantial management task for the Delegation. NCZ has hired an expatriate procure-

(*) Administrator, Directorate-General for Development.

(1) A West German bilateral aid agency.

ment manager paid from their funds, for the rehabilitation, and the EDF is funding the provision for six months of a procurement expert to assist him. NCZ is required to credit the government of Zambia/EEC counterpart fund account at the Bank of Zambia with the kwacha equivalent of the inputs and spare parts supplied.

Agricultural sector supplies

After the signing of the financing agreement, the Commission agreed and signed with the Zambian authorities detailed agreements covering (I) the management of foreign exchange for purchase of agricultural input supplies, and (II) the management of the counterpart kwacha funds to be generated from the importers. Then the Commission agreed with the government a positive list of eligible agricultural input supplies, machinery and spare parts. Announcements were placed in the Zambian press to ensure wide participation of importers, particularly in the private sector. EEC or ACP origin was a strict stipulation. The principle for the administration and allocation of foreign exchange was to channel the EDF funds through the normal FEMAC (Foreign Exchange Management Committee) fortnightly allocation procedure. The foreign exchange was advanced in instalments by the Commission to an account in a European bank in the name of the Bank of Zambia and jointly controlled by the Bank with the Commission Delegation.

Between February and April 1988, 393 applications totalling ECU 21 563 547 were received for the EDF facility which shows the high demand for foreign exchange coming from the agricultural sector. The total value of the 128 applications accepted was ECU 7 160 000, the other ECU 40 000 available in the financing agreement having been committed to fund technical assistance for a Zambian accountancy firm to account for the funds in detail. The total amount of the facility, ECU 7 160 000 was disbursed by May 1988.

The positive list approach ensured that all the imports are appropriate for use in the agricultural sector. Goods imported were pesticides, insecticides, tractors, veterinary drugs, irrigation equipment, agricultural equipment

and machinery, seeds, boxes for export of vegetables, gauze and screws for maize mills and counter scales. Most of the recipients are in the private sector, although some subsidiaries of parastatals, particularly INDECO, which are run on a commercial basis, also obtained approved applications under the facility. All applicants had to have adequate kwacha liquidity to make the advance deposit in their commercial bank. Applications to import goods which are effectively locally manufactured, were refused. Since the importers were required to deposit the kwacha in advance at their commercial bank, the equivalent in kwacha of the applications approved has been transferred to the Bank of Zambia. This amount is Zambian kwacha 66 m. A detailed agreement for joint government-EEC delegate control and disbursement of these funds to cover budgeted local costs of development projects has been signed.

Zambian Government support actions

After discussions with the Commission and the KfW the government of Zambia announced in May 1988 a set of policy support measures concerning agricultural production, fertiliser pricing and NCZ. Increase in the producer prices of maize (80 kwacha/90 kg bag up to 108 Kwacha) and fertiliser (80 kwacha/90 kg bag and to an average 92 kwacha) were announced which, given present parameters, should allow farmers to cover their costs. Producer prices for a wide range of agricultural products were also increased. A large part of the costs of production for farmers is accounted for by fertilisers. The ex-factory fertiliser price which NCZ is authorised to charge was increased from a fixed ZK 1860/ton to "import parity plus 15%", which meant an immediate increase to ZK 2721 per ton on average. NCZ was also told that it could in future apply the "import parity plus 15%" criteria for future price fixings. The government pledged to allocate sufficient foreign exchange for NCZ to operate effectively. The government also acted to ensure continuation and enhancement of the management support to NCZ. And between July 1987 and May 1988 the government provided 56 millions in Zambian kwacha

funding for NCZ. As part of a financial restructuring of NCZ this was then converted into government equity in NCZ.

Rapid and substantial impact

It is recognised by all parties involved—the government of Zambia, NCZ, KfW, World Bank and the several consultants—that the rapid mobilisation of Commission budget food aid substitution funds for NCZ in December 1986, and then the EDF import programme, effective from 1987 onward, were decisive in allowing the continued production of fertiliser by NCZ. No source of finance for imported inputs was otherwise available. The continuation of EDF finance for inputs is similarly crucial for production in 1988/89/90.

NCZ, once working at capacity after rehabilitation, is estimated to produce US \$60 m of output which would otherwise be imported. With net foreign exchange needs of about US \$15 m it would hence save some US \$45 m in foreign exchange per annum at capacity output.

While the NCZ component of this programme reinforces the local supply capability for fertilisers, the ECU 7.2 m foreign exchange facility for agricultural supplies has allowed assistance to the private agricultural sector. The money was mobilised within a short period of time so that it was available to the more productive market-oriented farming sector in time for the 1988/89 season—which looks like producing a bumper harvest. The importation of spare parts and essential inputs allows the more efficient use of past investments and has lowered the costs of production.

The agreed structural adjustment need for Zambia is to encourage agricultural production and exports to compensate for the declining revenues from copper. This import programme has directly met these needs. Through a concerted dialogue with the Zambian authorities, the Commission and the other donors involved in the NCZ programme have contributed towards the development of import parity pricing in the fertiliser sector and related agricultural producer prices at a time when the Zambian Government was reassessing its policy framework. ○

T.R.

Coordinating aid — problems and perspectives

by Nicolas TENZER and Francis MAGNARD(*)

Aid coordination is at the heart of all debates on development policies and this emphasis reflects the difficulties of implementing it. However, since the appearance of structural adjustment programmes, problems have been better analysed, views have become less utopian, consultation has become franker and, most important, coordination has come to be seen as the deciding factor of success.

But people who discuss coordination are rarely talking about the same thing, as the notion covers both sectoral operations (transport in Tanzania, the social sector and industry in Ghana and agriculture in Burkina Faso, Gambia and Niger, for example) and one-off projects such as the port of Dar-es-Salaam, the Tanzam or the Mufindi paper mill in Tanzania. When coordination is set up for a particular project—an irrigation scheme, say—to take care of the technical feasibility and economic efficiency, the various funders agree to provide a specific amount of financing. But this kind of one-off coordination ceases once the project is over, all too often without any concern for continuity or the recurrent costs (of staff and maintenance). So coordination should also cover whole programmes, from the definition of general balance to the practical conditions of implementation in the field — in which case the funders come to an agreement with the recipient country on a coordinated series of measures.

Why coordination?

External aid and the implementation of sectoral policy in the developing countries have taken the specific form

of projects, an extremely original process. Development in Europe was not achieved through projects. But in the developing countries, where a gradual process is no longer possible, development is voluntarist and organised, makes plans and is all-embracing.

In countries with limited financial means, where there is a constant drive to avoid wastage, this kind of development cannot cope with scattered initiatives or contradictory schemes. The coherence of the development plans (that a sort of “hidden hand” in the developed countries could help guarantee) has to be ensured here *a priori*. Coordination is thus not only a purely theoretical concept, it is the key to development.

In the poor countries, anyone initiating a process of production has first to ensure that the basic resources are available and that the vital (energy and transport) infrastructure is there. And that the relevant institutional and human structures for the design, implementation and, above all, survival of the project are present. The fact that bottlenecks are so common points all too clearly to inadequate coordination overall, with individual projects often being contradicted by the non-existence of others. Unless some form of global programme is kept in mind and there is consultation between the various donors, their cooperation will often amount to no more than a succession of ill-assorted projects. This incoherence is apparent in the choice of projects (the development of two conflicting types of crop, for example) and techniques (creation of a railway that fails to take structural rail-road interaction into account and uses locomotives from different countries with, therefore, different standards).

The technical success of a project also depends on the economic framework. Too many agricultural schemes have failed for want of a price policy to offer enough incentive to the peasant classes. And the possibility of an industry developing products that are com-

petitive both at home and abroad also depends on exchange rate policy and tariff policy. A failure to include projects in a general programme, something which coordination alone makes possible, is behind the fact that many projects are dropped when the host country is forced to pursue a policy of austerity.

But viability is no guarantee of a project's relevance to development. Failure to take external considerations (effects on the balance of payments, for example, on price trends or the level of employment) into account will often make imbalances worse. The whole coherence of the project and the general development policy is at stake here.

If there is no coordination, increasing numbers of projects prevent the host country from seeing what the priorities are and stop it from putting its choices in order of importance. The result is a litany of wastage and duplication, not to mention the extra administrative costs attendant on multiple procedures and all the budget lines that have to be managed. This should come as no surprise, as it is by no means unusual for a developing country to be receiving aid from more than 60 donors, financing an average of upwards of 10 projects each, at one and the same time. And fashion may often lead different donors to keep going in for the same type of projects — and to make the same mistakes. The passage from the idea of a project to the idea of a programme that is supposed to internalise all the parameters on which the life of the projects themselves depends is indissociable from realisation of the need for coordination.

The “lone ranger” who ran scattered projects has to go as soon as the all-embracing concept of development emerges—and this is relatively new—with equally all-embracing procedures.

The coordination of such contributions must go hand in hand with coordination in the recipient country. There must be a directing unit which can take political and technical decisions relating to the project or programme. The foundations of the programme will crumble if the host country radically changes its policy or lays down aims that are in no way compatible with the essential parameters of the project. This is why it is a good idea for the recipient country to be in charge of the

(*) Authors of *La crise africaine: quelle politique de coopération pour la France?* — PUF — Paris — 1988.

Francis Magnard is a founder member of CERAP, the Political Action Study and Reflection Centre, a brain-trust which is independent of all groups and parties.

Nicolas Tenzer is a senior lecturer at the Paris Institute of Political Studies, and chairman of CERAP.

Coordination, seen by the EEC

The importance that is attached to aid coordination can be seen in the amount of time that the Council of Development Ministers have devoted to the issue and the resolutions that have been adopted dealing specifically with aspects of coordination. In particular, the Council Resolutions adopted on 5 June 1984 and 23 May 1985 have greatly helped to increase coordination between the Community participants (i.e. Commission and 12 Member States) both at local level in ACP States and also at headquarters level.

The Lomé Conventions have acted as vehicles to promote coordination. Lomé III, for example, sets down the framework through which the Community's Development Cooperation programme is to be implemented. The programming concept developed under Lomé III has situated Community aid in the context of sectoral policies being proposed by individual ACP States. Through the drawing up of individual programmes for each ACP State it has been possible for EEC Member States to discuss and arrive at a more convergent and coherent approach in relation to the development aid goals worked

out between the ACP State and the Community.

Coordination is not just something that is undertaken in Brussels. If this were the case then the efforts to improve coherence and understanding would probably fail since it is essential that those actively engaged in implementing policy, i.e. at the local level, are equally engaged in the coordination process. The Lomé Conventions have ensured that the maximum of decisions are decentralised to local capitals so as to maximise the involvement of those actively involved in implementation. There is a continuing dialogue between local administrations and Commission representatives on the implementation of the respective indicative programmes. Under Lomé III, the drawing up of the multicomponent programmes helped in many cases to improve the coordination in individual states by bringing together the various ministries responsible for components of the respective programmes. Coordination *in situ* is also strengthened by the continuing dialogue and exchange of information that takes place between the Community participants.

Development concerns though more than the Community and its Member States. There are other major donors and participants. Coordination must be undertaken with these also. To support this process the Council of Development Ministers therefore adopted in May 1988 (ref. Courier No. 111) a resolution which stresses the need for more effective coordination between the Community and its Member States on the one hand and with the Washington institutions on the other in the important and sensitive area of structural adjustment. This is currently being implemented.

Coordination does not imply that everyone must think and do things in the same manner. It is, rather, an effort to narrow differences so as to improve understanding between all those engaged in development cooperation. It is only through the improved understanding of each other's point of view that common positions can be arrived at. There are many different views about the best manner to implement development cooperation. There is no one right way of doing things. But through sharing experience, ideas, etc. and endeavouring to work closer together the effectiveness of what we are all trying to achieve can be greatly enhanced. ○

Martin POWER

Coordination of aid in structural adjustment operations in Senegal

The general framework of structural adjustment operations in Senegal is outlined in the Medium- and Long-Term Economic and Financial Adjustment Programme, which is controlled at national level by an Interministerial Committee and monitored by the Programme's Technical Monitoring Committee.

This institutional frame is completed by various coordinating structures aimed at ensuring the degree of efficiency needed for the success of the current reforms:

1. The Planning Ministry is responsible for coordination between Senegal and the funders (long-term view and general economic approach). There is a permanent exchange of information between the funders and the World Bank organises quarterly

coordination meetings, which have improved coordination of the various aid operations.

2. When it comes to short term considerations, and particularly the monitoring of the public finance and treasury situation, the Ministry of Economic and Financial Affairs organises meetings between the authorities and the funders on the occasion of IMF missions or payment dates. The IMF also ensures coordination with the other funders.

This general plan has made it possible to coordinate all the external aid contributions to the financing of the adjustment programme. Over the past few years, this has meant more than CFAF 230 billion p.a., about 55% of it from the European Community, divided as follows:

- financing for projects in the three-year public investment plan coordinated with the funders for a total of CFAF 400 billion over a three-year period;
- direct aid for structural adjustment (from the IMF, CCCE and IBRD, including grants from Switzerland and The Netherlands which it manages — and USAID), plus the Stabex transfers that Senegal channels into the Groundnut Price Guarantee Fund, and the gifts in kind (particularly the cereals sent as food aid).

This coordination drive has paid off, as the general coherence of the various interventions has been maintained, a result which has gone a long way to ensuring proper integration of medium- and long-term support, with the adjustment measures via rapid payment schemes and complementary measures. ○

C. DEBEN

coordination machinery — although it does not have to pay for it.

It would be wrong to overlook something which is still at an exceptional and quasi-experimental stage, but essential nonetheless — coordination amongst the various beneficiaries. The balkanisation of Africa is a meaningful term which explains the wastage that the scarcity of resources should encourage people to avoid. Of course, the main trade flows to and from Africa involve the industrialised nations, particularly the former colonial powers, but this by no means justifies the constitution of national production structures that are over-sized because of the narrowness of the local markets. Regional projects—in which the Community institutions have been a driving force—constitute the first step towards the vital African division of capital and labour.

Obstacles to coordination

Coordination will only be effective if the beneficiary States accept the attendant constraints — which they have not always been willing to do. If a developing country deliberately holds an adjustment programme up to question, the planning document on which coordination is based may well be rendered useless. And, for reasons of administrative sociology, the different ministries may be tempted to hang on to their own preserves and their special contacts with particular countries. If an absence of concertation between the central ministries and the technical bodies results in contradictory initiatives, it means that even the idea of a programme will be unworkable and therefore rules out coordination too.

The beneficiary countries are not the only ones responsible for the failure of attempts at coordination. The funders, with their complex internal administrative procedures, find it difficult to be flexible in adapting to the often necessary and not always erratic changes in the economic policies of African nations. And annual budgeting, which is the rule in most of the funder countries, prevents them from being specific about their potential funding in the medium term. Like the beneficiary countries, the aid donors still have to learn to coordinate. It is a pity, as the World Bank has said, that the components of the financing plans for cofinanced pro-

grammes cannot be discussed by the main countries involved before the coordination meeting on the programme proper, as the financing which a country provides often depends on how the programme has been assessed. Coordination is made more difficult by uncertainty about the resources available and loses much of its effect. Lastly, many funders are often wary about the very idea of coordination. It is often the multilateral organisations which have taken the initiative in aid coordination — as in the case of the World Bank's country advisory groups and the UNDP's round tables.

The emphasis on the need for structural adjustment has heightened this tendency. Under this policy, funders are invited to provide aid that is in line with the basic thinking on the programme, with an eye to balance, import restrictions, reorganisation of the public sector and so on. Coordination here has often been seen as an attempt by the multilateral organisations (particularly the World Bank) to take over the development policies — so bilateral donors sometimes get the idea that they are only “stop-gaps” and will have no real control over the general policy. The increase in financing programmes may also involve the risk of the donors' funding being hiked up.

The states also resist the idea of the international division of cooperation which is often latent in the coordination operations in which they are invited to participate. There can really be no question—even if it is technically defensible—of funders specialising in a particular facet of cooperation. Their aim is usually to try and respond in a variety of fields to the demands of the African states, particularly where they have maintained special links with them. And the beneficiary countries themselves—and the different ministries in them—often feel that direct relations with the states is a more efficient way of getting more resources.

There are also commercial and political reasons for the donors' reluctance about coordination, obviously — which in fact explains the relative success of the coordination of emergency aid. And there are ideological disagreements, too, as there is no one development model. Lastly, coordination has often been ineffective in the past, which is why many aid donors and re-

ipient countries too, not unreasonably, fear their staff will be overworked for limited results and are therefore wary about programmes which cost a lot in terms of money (a series of round tables costs an average of \$ 500 000), and time and maybe administration as well.

What can be done?

There is no standard recipe for aid coordination and care should be taken to avoid suddenly imposing a universal system. The principle of the involvement of several donors should not be criticised. It is inevitable and it means there is a range of abilities and methods which is useful to the developing countries and represents real progress and more flexible cooperation methods. There should not just be one initiative for the coordination of programmes, and above all of sectors and projects, in all the countries. Coordination can be organised by the beneficiary, by the World Bank or by the UNDP — or by the EDF or a state making a large bilateral contribution.

The methods must be pragmatic, of course, but certain simple ideas must nonetheless be kept in mind. Coordination needs more than formal meetings where information is exchanged and declarations of intent announced — although that is hard enough with such lively competition between donors. If coordination is to be effective, it has to be organised and it has to lead to firm general policy decisions. There has to be machinery to force donors and recipients to stick to their commitments and coherently adapt their policies to external constraints. This is why, unless there is some “conditionality”, uncontrolled coordination will remain a dead letter, a pointless system for devising concerted programmes that are often unapplicable and always unapplied.

The final condition for useful coordination is a psychological—i.e. political—one. It is up to the beneficiary country to accept the stringency of the vital policy dialogue and it is up to the donor country to take part in the dialogue without any thought of domination. And that country must also accept the rules of multilateralism — which is nothing without the financial support of bilateral aid but which gives the bilateral aid the dynamism and coherence it needs. ○ N.T. & F.M.

South Korea, model for development?

by Michel FOUQUIN(*)

South Korea hit the headlines in September 1988, and for peaceful reasons too, as the 24th Olympic Games were held in Seoul, the capital, from 17 September to 2 October. But over the last few years, people have talked about "the Land of Morning Calm" for other reasons, for although Korea is technically a developing nation, it is one of the Asian quartet along with Hong Kong, Singapore and Taiwan, whose amazing economic performance has earned them the name of "the four dragons". Some writers, however, feel the breakthrough has been made to the detriment of social conditions; the benefits of growth are unevenly distributed, the working week is very long, housing is in short supply, and striking is banned in the so-called strategic sectors. There has been civil unrest too, particularly in 1987, in addition to the politically-inspired demonstrations organised by the students.

So is South Korea a model for other developing countries? This article attempts an answer.

Since the mid-'60s, big business in America and Japan has woken up to the fact that some developing countries now have sound industrial bases and represent serious competition. The Europeans realised this in the mid-'70s. And 10 years later, these one or two countries are flooding the US market with their footwear, textiles and watches and increasing numbers of cars, computers, video recorders and other manufactured goods, too, and Europe is increasingly under threat. The Japanese challenge is not the only one. There is also the challenge of the newly industrialised countries (NICs)—including the one with the biggest industrial sector, South Korea.

In the rapid development school, South Korea, long the darling of the World Bank, has gone to the top of the class. Whereas in 1960, the country had been brought to its knees by war, had far too many people for its resources and seemed badly structured, today, its economic weight is comparable to that of Switzerland.

Yet South Korea has been through two terrible catastrophes—the Japa-

nese colonisation of 1905-45, with the attempted assimilation of its culture, and the Korean War, after which—and until the 1960s⁽¹⁾—came the United

(1) American financing was primarily in the form of grants.

States. Singman Rhee's policy of national reconstruction and the development of small import substitution industries led to an *impasse* in both economic and political affairs (famine and student unrest), so the army took over with an economic stabilisation programme and an attempt to reduce dependence on the Americans—who were increasingly reluctant to continue their aid. The first aim was to promote export industries to bring in much-needed foreign exchange.

So South Korea became one of the first testing grounds for export-led industrialisation, a major innovation on two counts:

- firstly, the so-called liberal developing countries tend to be exporters of primary products rather than manufactures;
- secondly, industrialisation in these countries tends to run counter to the primary sector and counter to liberal policies, via the construction of import substitution industries with effective customs protection. Industrial production in this case is intended for the domestic market.

This twofold innovation has long left development economists incredulous, while many advocates of the policy have forgotten to mention certain features peculiar to the Korean experi-



Precision instrument centre in Seoul. South Korea has demonstrated its capacity to break into extremely complex industries.

(*) The author, an economist, is head of the Department of Industrial Structures at the CEPII (the Centre for Prospective Studies and International Information), 9, rue Georges-Pitard, 75015 Paris, France.

ence which make it difficult to assimilate to the liberal model:

1. The priority sectors for industrial development are laid down in the Plan.
2. The banking system which allocates credits is entirely State-controlled.
3. The import policy is defined by the import-export link—i.e. only imports supplied to the export sectors are free.

The four stages of industrialisation

The same people also forget that Korea's development has gone through four very different stages of industrialisation.

1962-71 — development through export (textiles and clothing and the assembly of electronic goods)

The army came to power just as the import substitution strategy was running out of steam. At the time, North Korea was making a better job of its development than South Korea—where political instability and poverty worried the American protectors who were supporting the military. They imposed a policy of promoting exports in labour-intensive industries, a move which was successful in getting the Korean population to work, as industrialisation geared to textiles and clothing and electronic assembly can be carried out in country areas, often topping up the peasant income. Over this period, South Korea had

And the oil shocks showed the Korean firms' aptitude for grasping every opportunity. Building companies competed with French, English and Indian concerns and won big contracts in the Middle East, providing both the plans and the labour. Combined development drives with pre-Khomeini Iran appeared. The first Korean nuclear power stations were built with Iranian financing and there were plans to transfer technology to Iran. However, President Park drove the country to the brink of financial ruin—and was killed by the Korean Head of Security.

1980 and after — adjustment (1983), followed by the promotion of export industries with high added value (cars, machinery and electronics)

It is this period of Korean history that many people will find the most surprising. South Korea has proved that it can cope with industries that are both extremely complex (cars and electronic components) and extremely costly in terms of equipment. The results available at the end of 1987 showed an industry of international size and ambition—and one which had emerged in an extraordinarily short time too. Korean car exports climbed rapidly, Korean automakers shipping a total of 542 993 vehicles overseas in 1987, a substantial 78.3% jump over the 304 471 units exported in 1986. Even compared with the Japanese car firms (the Korean Hyundai Company is partly Japanese-owned), Korean performance is outstanding. In 1988, Hyundai sold more vehicles than Honda on the American market. Although international financiers were putting their money on Brazil in the '70s, Korea now looks like a serious candidate for the title of economic giant at least of new developed country. And its application to join the OECD symbolises its ambition.

Its strategy is a complex one, which hinges on the idea of working all the way up the chain, as the chart below shows (textile industry).

The X-axis shows the degree of penetration of the domestic market and the Y-axis the degree of extraversion of the sector. Over the years, Korean specialisation has evolved as indicated by the arrows. On the X-axis, in heavy industries, penetra-

Profile of South Korea

- Area: 99 000 km²
- Population: • 42 millions
 - growth: 1.6% p.a.
 - literacy: almost total
- Breakdown of GDP: • 1960: agriculture 66%
 - industry 9%
 - services 25%
- 1986: agriculture 12%
 - industry 42%
 - services 45%
- External debt: • \$ 35.5 billion
 - debt service: 15% of exports (1987)
- Currency: • the won (\$ 1 = W 800 (1987))
 - inflation: 3.1% p.a., 1984-87
- Trade balance: \$ 7.7 billion surplus (1987)
- Working week in industry: 57 hours
- Unemployment: 3.1%

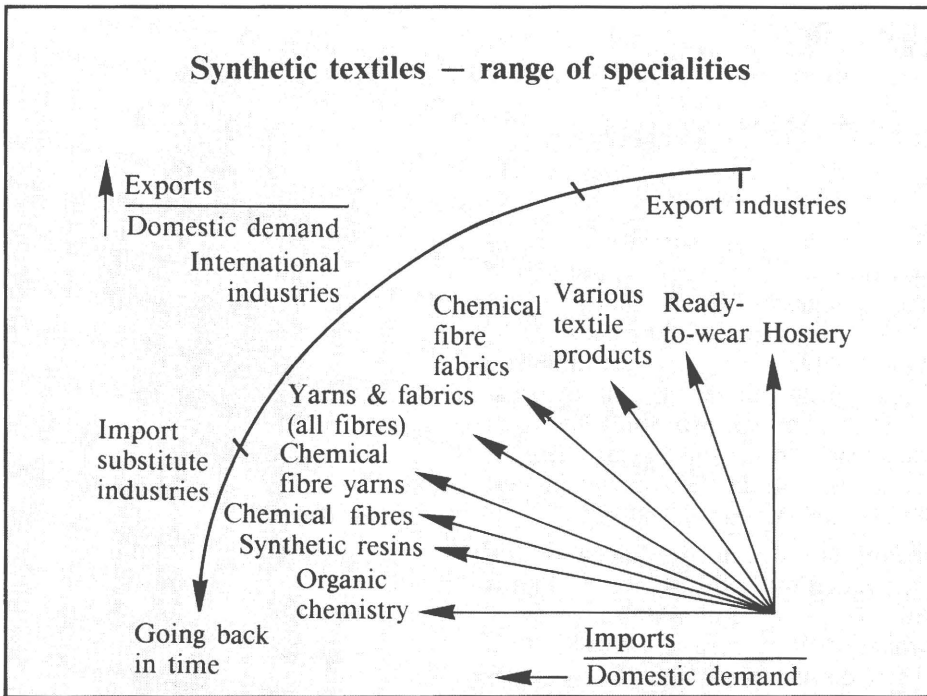
1954-61 — reconstruction and import substitution

The Korean War literally ravaged the country, which was overrun again and again when the Communist offensive reached the south of the peninsula. The American counter-offensive (under the UN banner) got nearly as far as China and the Chinese "volunteers" pushed the front down to 40 km of Seoul. So reconstruction was the first priority and many of the major Korean groups date from this period, when they made large profits from public contracts and American aid—and subsequently reinvested them in import substitution.

none of the export free zones in which other countries opened their doors to multinationals, and the situation is still relatively difficult for such firms in Korea today.

1972-79 — forced march on heavy industry (steel, petrochemicals and shipbuilding)

The aim of the South Korean leaders' successive plans was always to create as integrated an industry as possible, in particular with industries which were expensive to equip upstream. The State and one public firm, Posco, handled this and were, as we know, extraordinarily successful at it.



tion of the domestic market has declined, while on the Y-axis, light industries (hosiery and ready-to-wear clothing) are now working mainly for the world market.

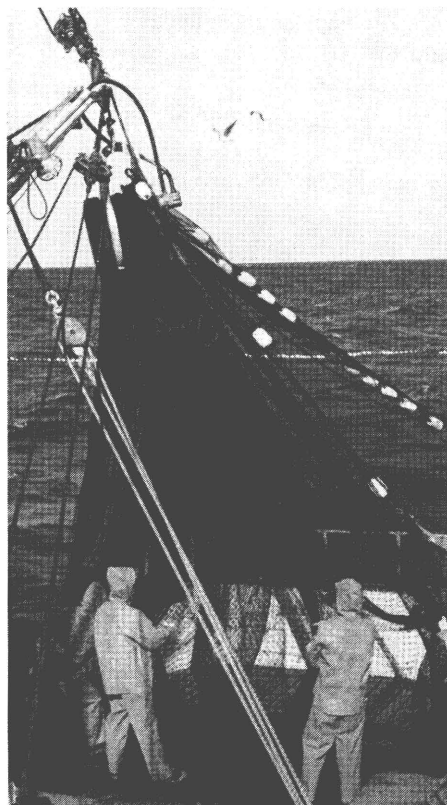
A look at the trade balance shows mounting profits for the textile sector—which means the country can increase its investments.

A similar picture can be painted for other industries—showing that Korean development owes nothing to chance.

The Korean tigers — Hyundai, Samsung, Goldstar and Daewoo

These are Korea's main "chaebols"—enormous conglomerates along the lines of the Japanese "zaibatsus" of the pre-war era—and the basis of the nation's economic success. They have been systematically encouraged by the powers-that-be and their products are already invading Asia, the Middle East and America. And Europe is beginning to find out about them too. In 1986, Hyundai sold 100 000 Pony cars to Canada, taking over from Honda at the top in only 18 months. In the USA, 250 000 little Excels were sold in a year. Samsung produces computer memories and microprocessors as well as video recorders. Goldstar has cornered nearly a quarter of the American colour TV market. And Daewoo is causing concern among the computer manufacturers with its mini-computer—like a PC (Personal Computer) but at half the price.

But South Korea has not notched up economic success overnight—or without serious problems. There have been the oil shocks, over-investment in heavy industry in the '70s and heavy technological dependence on Japan.



The training ship of the Pusan Coastal Fisheries Training Centre. Over the past 25 years, the share of GNP of the primary sector (agriculture, livestock and fisheries) has fallen from 60% to 12%.

Yet the country has (just) managed to avoid the trap of debt in which most of the nations of Latin America have been caught, for two reasons:

1. A development strategy based on export development inevitably means a rapid grasp of changes in the conditions of international growth—which ultimately makes the country less vulnerable.
2. South Korea is a small country in a delicate geo-strategic position and it cannot try and alter the rules of the international economic game as Peru or Brazil could.

This summary omits many other important aspects of South Korea's success, but it does show how domestic accumulation and external relations interact.

Economic success and political development?

The real challenge facing Korea is how to democratise its political life and ensure respect for human rights. Unlike Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore, with which it is often compared, South Korea has been shaken periodically by very violent political upheaval. It has never known or managed to organise the peaceful, democratic transmission of power. The assassination of President Park, the re-establishment of martial law by the army under General Choi Kyutha in October 1979, the repression of the insurrection of the town of Kwangju in May 1980—hundreds were killed and thousands wounded—and the riots of June 1987 are all examples of the violence of the country's political oppositions.

President Chun, who took power after the events of 1980, entered into a dialogue with the opposition in 1986, and a new constitution was adopted in October 1987. Under this constitution, elections were held in December 1987 and Mr Roh Tae Woo was elected with 36% of the popular vote, the first peaceful change of government since the birth of the Republic of Korea. In April 1988, the National Assembly was elected, in which the President's party does not have a majority, although it is the largest party. Concomitant with its economic success, Korea is thus witnessing democratic political development in the occidental mould. ○ M.F.

African art

Its role and major functions

by Frank HERREMAN (*)

Two important functions come to the fore when we look at the role of traditional African art, namely the preservation of fertility and the desire to ensure the continued vigour of the community. Both objectives are expressed through all kinds of ceremonies and rituals in which various artistic forms of expression such as music, dance, the spoken word and the plastic arts play a major part.

To explain the term "culture" is to talk about all human actions, mental and physical. Three important aspects are involved: magic/religion, the social and the economic dimensions. The first two relationships, namely between man and the supernatural, and between man and his fellow men, belong to the non-physical world. The relationship between man and nature, or the economic aspect, concerns the way man draws upon nature for his physical sustenance.

Any analysis of the function of a mask or an image reveals not only the ever-present religious impulses but also social and economic aspects. It is striking how these three relationships are always interwoven, and as wide a definition as possible must be given to the term "culture".

Within his culture the African is faced with material objects which Europeans classify as "works of art". The aim of this article is not to determine whether within its context the mask or image was considered by its original "users" to be a work of art. What is certain is that the expressiveness of the forms, the sense of internal proportions, the refinement of the finish, the subtlety with which pride, motherhood, fear and so on, are expressed, are sufficient proof of the artistic maturity which is reflected in African art and which rightly forms part of the ideal gallery of every universal art lover.

Sculptures and masks, the most important representation of the plastic arts in traditional cultures, can be found almost anywhere in sub-Saharan Africa.

(*) Anthropologist, working at the Antwerp Museum, Belgium.

They are, however, particularly concentrated in the western and central part of the continent. Eastern and Southern Africa have more of a nomadic tradition. Consequently, more attention has been devoted to the making of ornaments, and artistic expression has taken the form of poetry and song. These art forms are naturally also found in west and central Africa.

For the African, everything is animated and imbued with power. This is certainly true of masks and images, which play a religious/magical role. These objects are given to the community by the supernatural and act as media which transmit to the believers the wishes and duties imposed by the divinities and spirits. The community, through its priest or chief, makes its wishes known to the supernatural only before the ancestral image. The religious leaders or political chiefs ask the image to act as intermediary for them and for their people.

The witch doctors are an important category of specialists. They have learnt how to master forces and they can make these forces act according to their wishes. They are to be found throughout Black Africa. There is often an ambiguity in dealings with them — on the one hand they are treated with respect, and are always seen as the healer or diviner, and on the other they are feared, as they can use their talents to the detriment of society. Witch doctors sometimes use images described in older literature as fetishes. These specialists cover their masks and sculptures with a magic substance which makes them more effective in achieving their aims.

From among the many circumstances in which masks, images and other artistic objects such as ornaments or decorated objects actually intended for use are to be found in the traditional African cultures, we have selected examples to illustrate the role which these works of art can play in the course of people's lives, in the world of magic and religion, and in relation to authority and social organisation.



Hughes Dubois

A small ivory statue, some 11 cm high, of the type used by the Bwani society (Zaire) in its traditional ceremonies

The stages of life

Life on earth begins with birth. Images of mothers with children are a material symbol of this. They give expression to the community's prime concern, namely procreation and posterity. Images of this type are very common among the peoples who live near the mouth of the river Zaire, and they form part of a chief's regalia or belong to a diviner. Among these peoples, descent is traced through the female line, and this also explains the frequent occurrence of such sculptures in this area.

Before giving birth, the women in many ethnic groups wear all kinds of amulets to protect the life they are carrying. A brilliant example of these are the little *mbulenda* figures which are found among the Lulua (Zaire) and are

worn on the body in order to protect future children from disaster of any kind.

Until the onset of puberty, when the rites marking the transition to adulthood take place, children are not considered to be fully-fledged people. The future role of a girl as a mother is, however, already expressed in the form of her most important toy, the doll. Dolls are to be found throughout Africa. Because of the essential characteristics of their form, they are very exciting artistic objects.

Most attention is paid to the modelling of breasts and hips. This indicates the physical maturity of the female figures presented as dolls and also points to their magical nature. It is believed that by coming into contact with the doll while playing the girl will be fertile. If later the girl turns out to be sterile, she wears her former toy on her body as a fertility amulet.

Every African goes through the various rites of passage during his life: birth, entry into the adult world, marriage and death. From the social aspect, the second rite, when the child leaves behind the first few years of his life in order to enter the adult world, is undoubtedly the most important of the four. Boys and girls, having previously been considered as more like animals than people, are now separated in order to learn, along with their contemporaries, their role as adults and to be initiated into the social, religious and economic life of their people. All this they normally learn away from the hub of village life. Depending on the people, initiation can last anything from a few days to a number of years. In many cases the sexual identity of the new adult is dramatically marked by physical intervention, namely circumcision: the boy becomes man, the girl becomes woman.

Masks play a part in many peoples' rites of transition to adulthood. They are a material representation of the supernatural and can alarm the young adults. They are nevertheless usually seen as affording protection against all the disasters that can occur during this period of great uncertainty. A good example are the initiation masks used by the Kwango (Zaire) during these rites. These masks are also very frequently used by the Pende, the Yaka and the Suku; they incarnate all kinds of supernatural spirits but at the same time de-

pic specific people, such as beggars and hunters, so that the young people get a picture of the group in which they live. They are also seen as a source of fertility.

Masks are always worn by men; they are usually the prerogative of male societies. A female association has only one type of mask. This is called *bundu* by the Mende, and *sande* by the Vai, Gola and Sherbro. These four peoples live in an area where the borders of Sierra Leone, Liberia and Guinea meet. The *bundu* or *sande* society also prepares girls for their future role as wife and mother and for the place which they will later occupy in society. The *sowei* helmet-type mask is worn by older women who have already reached a higher rank within the society. The masks incarnate spirits which bring fertility and are used when the girls return from the initiation camp, where they have undergone, among other things, excision.

Initiation can take just a short time or it can last for years, depending on the people. Every Bamana in Mali has one ideal which he would like achieve in his life, namely to pass through the six successive initiation societies. In this way he learns step by step to understand everything to do with nature, man and the fate assigned to him in the world by the Supreme Being. During this long initiation period he is confronted with different types of masks which symbolise abstract concepts. The hyena mask represents knowledge in its purest human form: credulous, narrow and innocent or naïve.

Young men and women usually marry and start a family soon after the rites of puberty. This particular transition is rarely marked by the creation of sculptures or other such art forms. There is, however, often jewellery or a characteristic garment which points to the new status of the male or female wearer.

The Baule (Côte d'Ivoire) have a remarkable type of male or female wood sculpture, known respectively as *blolobian* and *blolobla*. These represent the supernatural partners. This tribe believes that a man or woman, before he or she came into the world, was already married. The need to create such a sculpture is felt when a man is impotent or a woman infertile, or when there are other dramatic occurrences in the married life of a couple. Someone can also

be ordered through a dream to create such an image. The owner keeps the image of his or her supernatural partner on an altar, looks after it, gives it food and spends the night with it once a week. The sculptured figure should meet the ideal aesthetic standards of the Baule; this propitiates the supernatural partner.

Death, the last rite of passage, is usually considered as an unnatural event, the result of magical intervention the cause of which must be sought.

Various African peoples make images of their most important deceased and place them on the tomb or, together with other sculptures of people who have died earlier, they form part of an ancestral altar. These images are believed to be infused with the spirit, the vital breath, of the deceased.

The Fang worship the skulls of their most important ancestors. These are the founders of a lineage and their successors, the tribal and family chiefs and women who had supernatural qualities or gave birth to exceptionally large families. On top of the cylindrical box in which these relics are kept, and which is made of the bark of a tree, there is a fully moulded figure or a sculptured head. These sculptures are a symbolic evocation of the ancestors and afford the remains magic protection.

Religion, magic and divination

Religion presupposes belief in the existence of transcendental powers on which man knows himself to be dependent, and involves the obligation to maintain specific relations with those powers. The bulk of African sculptures express the desire to make contact with the supernatural. The sculptures and masks represent the supernatural beings as they live on in their myths.

No African people addresses its Creator or Supreme Being direct. Once the Creator's work is done he leaves his subjects, who are obliged to address the lower divinities or spirits in order to make their wishes known. The creator is never represented, but divinities and spirits sometimes are.

The predominant images in religious life are of ancestors. An ancestor may be represented on the altar in the home or a whole series of such sculptures may be assembled in a place set aside for them. The ancestral image acts as a link

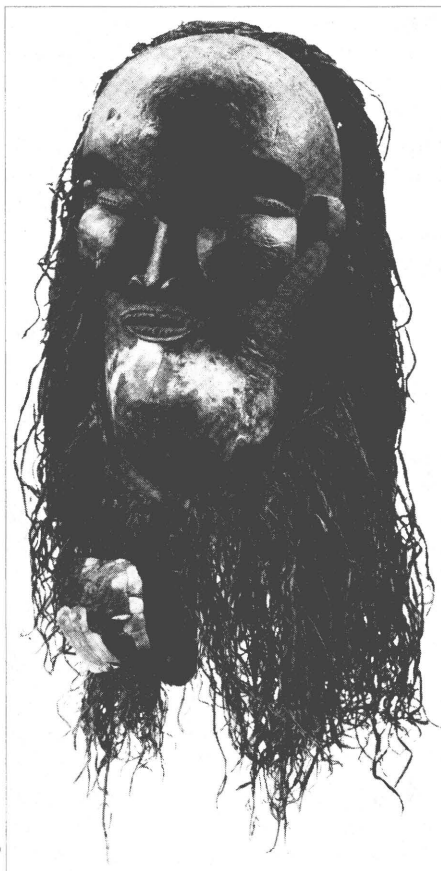
between people and the Supreme Being to enable the wishes of the family and the community to be fulfilled. During sacred rites food and drink are often proffered to the images, as a result of which the original wooden form becomes encrusted. The image may, however, shine because it is regularly rubbed with oily substances. A kind of erosion may occur in a specific place because the image has been touched and this changes the original form, providing tangible proof that the image has been used.

Witchcraft is a body of techniques and methods for dominating the universe and is based on the assumption that if procedures are carried out accurately the results follow inevitably. Witchcraft is founded on a whole system of cause and effect, hence an ordered universe. Magic rites are carried out, as stated earlier, by specialists, witch doctors, formerly also known as fetishists. They wield all kinds of objects and materials to which magic properties are attributed. They also use sculptures, and attach all sorts of magic paraphernalia to these images. Often the sculptured image seems to be of less importance than the material added to it and its only function is as a vehicle for this material. These magic substances can be hidden in cavities in the image or are attached in little bags or boxes to the figure. Such practices often radically change the overall form of the sculpture. Furthermore, in such cases, it is not just the sculptor who shapes the image — the witch doctor plays just as much of a role in determining its final form.

Forms of authority can differ from one people to another. The Ashanti in Ghana, the peoples of the Cameroon grasslands and the Luba in Zaïre have a pyramidal structure with a sovereign or head whose authority is based on his noble origins. These leaders express their authority largely by means of all kinds of material symbols which they carry or use. These are jewellery, clothing, ornamental weapons, staffs of office and ancestral images.

Ancestral images often form the essence of symbols of authority and consolidate the power of the leader. They portray predecessors and also act as the medium through which he can ask for help in exerting his authority over his subjects.

Among the most impressive collections of ancestral images are those found in front of the palaces of the small kingdoms in the Cameroon grasslands. At the start of the reign of a sovereign images are sculptured of him and of the first wife to bear him a child. As a mother, this woman testifies to the reproductive powers of her consort, who is always expected to set an example to his subjects. Strictly speaking, these figures, when created, were not ancestral images, since they represented the man and the woman when they were still alive. Because, however, they stood alongside images of deceased



Hughes Dubois

This wood and fibre mask from Zaïre enables those wearing it to act their role better... without being identified

kings and their respective wives, these images were already during their lifetime part of a group of figures where the earlier generations were also represented. This enhances the status of the leader in the eyes of his people.

Among the Luba the head of a line of princes owns his people's ancestral images. He also has additional symbols of power which he displays at his investiture or other important ceremonies. One, or in some cases, several female figures are represented on all these ob-

jects, and these female figures depict the archetypal mother of the people.

Society

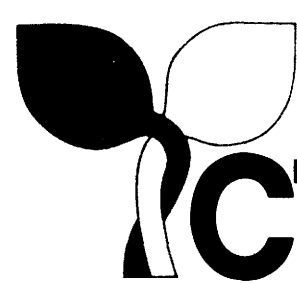
We have already talked about different symbols of authority. Apart from the pyramidal structure already referred to, authority in Africa also takes other forms. There are peoples with a less centralised organisation, and many ethnic groups have a structure in which there is no overall leader.

Even where there is a distinctly centralised structure, the power hardly ever lies completely with one ruler, since he is assisted by advisers, usually elders. In addition, all forms of authority frequently have to co-exist with closed societies which take a part in the general running of affairs, or in particular aspects. These societies often have masks or images which are considered to be supernatural media.

The *bwami* society is an institution which, in particular among the Lega (Zaïre) and certain neighbouring ethnic groups, exerts a major influence on the social order. This closed society consolidates the relationship between the various groups of relations. In all, the *bwami* has six grades, the highest of which are the *yananio* and the *kindi*. In order to enter the society a man must be married. His wife may also enter the society, but the number of grades accessible to her is limited. The entrance or promotion rites take place largely in public, but to outsiders the activities remain esoteric.

The ideals towards which the society strives are good, truth, and the spiritual excellence of its members. This way people can live in harmony with one another. In order to work towards this ideal of perfection, they learn all kinds of proverbs and maxims, which are quoted and elucidated during the rites. Masks and figures are most frequently used within the two highest grades. Their role is figurative. The showing of the masks and figures goes hand in hand with the quoting of proverbs and sayings associated with the sculptured object. Some of these masks and animal and human figures are of a very high artistic standard. The Lega consider the beauty of the *bwami* objects to be the reflection of the harmony, order and peace on which the rites are based and which form part of their ethical ideal.

F.H.



Fighting manioc mosaic virus

by M. A. SCHMIDT-LEPLAIDEUR (*)

The African manioc virus is the main cause of poor manioc yields in Africa. The pernicious disease it causes cuts production of the tuber, a staple for more than 200 million people, by 50% every year, but lengthy investigations have enabled research workers to develop two methods of fighting it which the producing countries are now trying to apply.

Manioc was brought from South America by the indefatigable Portuguese voyagers and has probably been known in Africa and Asia since the 16th century, although the crop only really spread widely in the late 19th century. Today, Africa produces 56 million t of fresh manioc roots—more than 40% of world output—every year⁽¹⁾.

Unfortunately, for the past 15 years or so, manioc has been the victim of a combination of scourges, time-honoured ones and new arrivals, which have taken their toll on production. Yields, at around 7 or 8 t per hectare, are poor, although they can be up at the 40 t mark on industrial plantations, and the African manioc mosaic virus seems to be the most to blame. The disease, which is endemic to Africa, costs the producer countries 10-25 million t (CFAF 100 billion worth) of manioc every year—to the extent that it is possible to calculate losses on what is still essentially a traditional crop. These figures show the importance of research geared to the rapid discovery of methods of containing the virus.

The vectors: white flies and men

The researchers already have some precise information about the disease. It is caused by a geminivirus isolated in Kenya about 10 years ago and, after considerable work, we now have a clear idea of its two methods of propa-

gation. The initial mosaic dissemination agent is a little fly (*Bomisia tabaci*), a millimetre-long creature which pricks the manioc leaf and passes the virus on to the plant. The populations of these vectors, carried by the wind, fluctuate, being encouraged by the rainy season in East Africa and multiplying better at high temperatures in West Africa.

However, these flies, only a small percentage of which are carriers, are not the only ones responsible for the spread or the persistence of the disease. It is man, without realising it, who by planting diseased cuttings, is the main one to blame. The flies are infected on the diseased plants and they go on to infect the healthy manioc shrubs. Manioc itself is in fact the main reservoir of the virus and the essential means of dissemination and research has not yet isolated any other wild or cultivated plants which are major reservoirs. The vicious circle has been reinforced with the increase in manioc growing, which is why the disease affects all the regions in which the shrub is grown.

The presence of the virus, which is very specific to Africa, can only be detected when the first symptoms—yellow blotches on the leaf—appear. When the attack is mild and only a few stems are affected, output does not really suffer. But if it is severe and the leaves pucker and are stunted and fall, losses are far greater, sometimes as much as 80%.

This is what happens when infected cuttings are planted. White fly attack during growth has far less impact, because it is the young manioc leaves which are most sensitive to infection and contain more of the virus. So the risk is greatest during periods of active plant growth. Attacks by white flies three or four months after planting have very little effect on yield. Once the plant matures, the disease often regresses and may disappear entirely.

The flies cannot be treated with insecticide. Apart from being too expen-

sive, insecticide is out of the question because it would render the leaves, which are often used to make sauce, inedible. There has been little research into biological control, although *Bomisia* carries a number of diseases and is found on many (sweet potato, tobacco, cotton, tomato etc.) plants. And research into predators of parasites such as flies tends to be long and uncertain. So, for the moment, the quickest and simplest answer, as one research worker put it, "is to sensitise people rather than flies".

Health measures, the first step

Epidemiological studies run in recent years have come up with two strategies for containing the disease. The first, accessible to manioc producers and bringing noticeable results fast, involves applying health measures. The planting of selected cuttings from stock with no external signs of infection is in its infancy. But even apparently healthy cuttings may develop signs of infection later, so the plantations have to be carefully monitored, particularly during the early stages of growth, so as systematically to eliminate all infected plants and replace them by new cuttings.

Although this method does not entirely eliminate all the risks of recontamination, it does make for a substantial increase in yield. If infection occurs, it only affects adult plants which are less sensitive to the virus. And if plant health measures are practised on a wide scale, they reduce the focuses of infection and thus break through the vicious circle.

A plant health protection programme has been on the go in Kenya for the past three years now and several countries in East Africa (Malawi, Uganda and Tanzania) are also preparing to run one. This method of containment calls for a lot of publicity to tell the farmers what mosaic is. Many of them, in fact, have never seen manioc other than with yellow leaves and have no idea what a healthy manioc plant looks like. Nurseries of adult bushes have also to be created so that healthy cuttings can be supplied to the farmers. Traditional methods of cut-

(*) Contributor to "Spore", a CTA publication.

(1) See The Courier's dossier on roots and tubers (no. 101, January-February 1987).

ting in the field give very satisfactory results and rapid multiplication techniques can produce more than 15 000 young plants from a single adult plant. When means permit, *in vitro* production of meristems yields perfectly healthy plants from sick ones. The virus can also be killed with heat therapy.

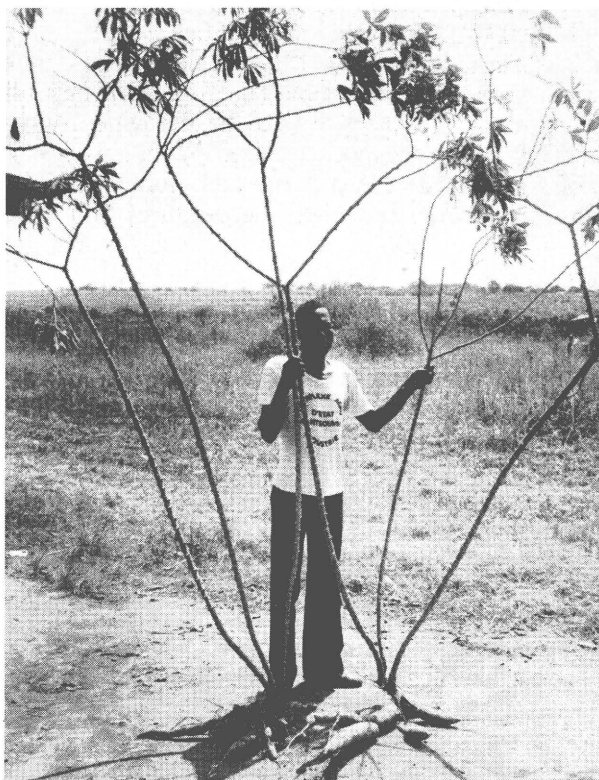
Finding resistant strains

In countries where the pressure of contamination is heavy and the white fly a major consideration, the planting of healthy cuttings is not adequate to stop the virus, as health measures do not prevent recontamination. So the second method of containment the researchers are working on is the development of resistant strains. Results take longer to obtain here and, in the early stages, it is more a question of research in the laboratory than practice in the field.

Major selection programmes have been run by the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), which has developed and multiplied several resistant manioc strains. Since the different countries involved can exchange their plant stock without risk thanks to heat therapy and the production of meristems, which is a sure way of eliminating the virus, these varieties have been able to be distributed in many countries. However, they have not really left the research stations and experimental plots because the peasants do not like them. They are bitter varieties which are not to everyone's taste, as in many places people are used to a sweeter kind of manioc which is easier to prepare. And the bushy shrubs are a nuisance when cultivated amongst associated crops. In fact, different varieties are grown in different regions and it seems preferable to use local cultivars with which the farmers are familiar in the selection programme. The look of the plant, the yield, the quality of the root and the food value all need to be taken into account if the improvement process is to be an effective one.

So Congo, which has built up a collection of local clones, is planning on the rapid multiplication of the most mosaic-tolerant strains by *in vitro* methods, while Togo is currently distributing a variety which involves no change to traditional growing methods and is very suitable for making *gari*.

If healthy cuttings and mosaic-tolerant



Manioc, the staple food of 200 million people, has been hit by a combination of pests which has affected production

ant plants are not to succumb to repeated attacks of the disease, health measures must be applied on planting and there has to be permanent crop control.

These are the conclusions reached by the 120 people at the seminar on the African manioc mosaic virus and its control, which the CTA organised, in collaboration with ORSTOM and with participation of the FAO, the IITA and the OAU's Plant Health Committee, in Yamoussoukro in May 1987. The CTA will be helping the producer countries implement the recommendations by bringing out a practical handbook soon to guide health programme extension workers — the method which currently seems most likely to bring immediate results.

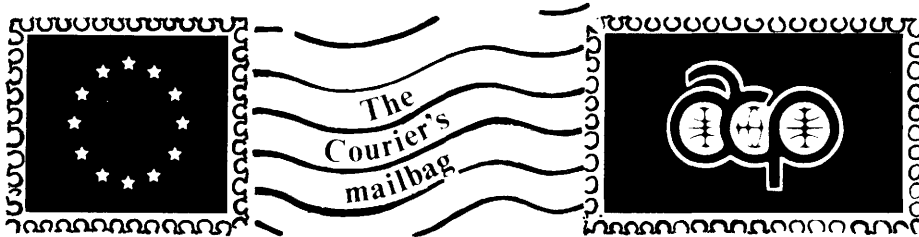
A more scientific work for virologists will also be published.

Although the international research organisations have laid down effective methods of control, it is the national programmes which now have to take over, put them into practice and adapt them to the local context. This means finding simple, inexpensive strategies whose advantages are obvious to the producers. As representatives of the producer countries pointed out at the seminar, peasants who follow the recommendations are still not sure of getting a decent harvest. There are many threats to manioc and the mosaic virus may be followed by bacteriosis or cercosporiosis and insects such as flour worms and mites. So it would be better to find methods embracing all the parasites which affect manioc. Big programmes dedicated to mosaic control seem very expensive to African leaders.

In fact, it will take more than the tackling of agronomical problems (soil fertility, growing methods, input, pests etc.) to boost manioc production. The techniques of root conversion and processing have to be improved and marketing has to be organised too. But it cannot all be done at once and the farmers will get significant results if they sort out one of the worst problems first.

The effort the international scientific community and the producer countries are putting into controlling manioc mosaic reflects the size of the problem. Reducing the heavy toll which mosaic makes on manioc crops every year is a way of helping the farmers to make more of this vital tuber which they have always regarded as beneficial hitherto. M.A.S.L.

The report of the seminar on African manioc mosaic virus and its control has been published, with CTA assistance, by ORSTOM and will shortly be translated into English. It can be obtained from the CTA at the address below.



Structural adjustment and Zambia

The Courier No. 111 September/October 1988 featured the articles on an interview with His Excellency the President Dr Kenneth D. Kaunda and an article on the "Problems and Prospects on Structural Adjustment in Zambia".

I wish to express our sincere gratitude for the said articles and look forward to working with you in your effort to inform the world and in particular the nations of the EEC and ACP countries on aspects arising from and affecting the cooperation between our peoples through the Lomé Convention and our collective participation as partners in the larger world economic order.

I however noticed one or two aspects I wish were corrected. The first related to the price of copper in the first column second paragraph on page 84 where it is stated that the "price of copper continues to be above £100.000". This is a typographic error, the price should be £1.000.

On page 53 there is a picture showing a poultry farm in Zambia and an insertion which states "the country is still unable to provide all its meat".

If one reads my article it is obvious that Zambia exports meat, including beef and chicken. I however still feel that the articles do reflect a correct record of their originals and commend you for your work.

**Kapembe Nsingo,
Ambassador of the Republic
of Zambia,
Brussels, Belgium**

Harmonising the institutions

It is striking to see that a large number of observers, even, the apparently, those best informed about the developing countries' problems, fail to pick up one of the fundamental issues — the nature of the legal structure which organises society, the institutions in other words.

One of the things which the developing countries' institutions have in common is their very strong hierarchisation, something which makes legal, social, economic and political relations very vertical. And less efficient.

The effort the developing countries have to make is, first of all, to harmonise their national institutions to make relations between the different State bodies and the individual a little more flexible, making way for easier expression of all talents.

**Edouard Kouvinga,
Reims, France**

Let's do all the jobs!

My attention was caught by the cover photo of No. 110, a picture of an African bent over his sewing machine. Increasingly, in the coming years, it is said, Africans will have to create their own jobs. One of the causes of unemployment, and, therefore, of the poor standard of living in Africa, is that people there choose work without thought for the fact that jobs such as sewing and building (masonry) and so on are the only things that will get the Africans out of their difficulty.

My message is that we Africans have to be ready to do all kinds of jobs, without distinction, particularly when we know that they cause no harm to society.

**O. Ondoki, Congolese student,
Kiev, USSR**

Why is there an informal economy in the ACPs?

Your article on the informal economy in No. 110 (July-August 1988) is not entirely correct in its analysis. The underground economy accounts for about 85% of the tax evasion in our developing countries. So if the situation were righted, there would be enough to enable the State budget to reconcile long-term growth with the satisfaction of collective needs. The African economy, still pre-capitalist for the most part, has no long-term interest in a throughbred informal economy which does not usually follow the trade and investment code. Your article should have insisted on the management needed to innovate in the informal sector.

In the sub-region of West Africa, the Nigeria of the '80s, where the informal sector has developed to 90%, the pre-capitalist economy has taken a knocking. And transactions involving the rest of the ECOWAS countries represented almost two thirds of the revenue lost to the Lagos Government.

Although Africa does not live in the same socio-economic environment as Europe, efficient management is still a panacea when it comes to administering Africa's economic policy. How did Switzerland, a small country with no natural resources, manage to cut unemployment more than the rest of Europe and achieve such spectacular national development? By innovating, of course, with collective work done properly by modern methods. Togo, which is expanding fast, is the Switzerland of Africa which, thanks to proper management, is getting huge profits from the informal sector, particularly via Ghana, Benin, Burkina Faso and Nigeria.

It is not a question of protectionism or unity of market if a state decides to restrict its informal sector. It is in the interests of the national economic policy, because the informal sector is behaving like a parasite in relation to the relatively developed national economy of the African nations.

**Hounsoto Honore Sourou,
Cotonou, Benin**

ANALYTICAL INDEX (1988)

Note: This index does not include the CDI pages, the Books Column, the News Round-up (with exceptions) or the Operational Summary.

Publication dates: Nos. 107: January-February 1988
 108: March-April 1988
 109: May-June 1988
 110: July-August 1988
 111: September-October 1988
 112: November-December 1988

	No/	Page
A* ACP-EEC Relations (general)		
– Adoption of the “Basic Principles” in four project areas	112/	6
– Opening of the negotiations for a new Convention, Luxembourg, Oct. 1988 (News Round-up)	112/	I
– Joint Assembly in Madrid, September 1988 (News Round-up)	112/	I
– ACP-EEC Council of Ministers, Mauritius May 1988 (News Round-up)	110/	I
– To be an ACP Ambassador in Brussels: Interviews with Mozambique’s and Western Samoa’s Ambassadors	109/	39
– Joint Assembly in Togo, March 1988 (News Round-up)	109/	I
– Commission policy on the new ACP-EEC Convention (News Round-up)	109/	V
– To be an ACP Ambassador in Brussels: Interviews with Senegal’s and Dominica’s Ambassadors	108/	9
– The ACP Group’s 1988 programme (News Round-up)	108/	IV
– Seminar on the Single European Act and the ACPs (African School of Brussels) (News Round-up)	108/	IV
– The 43rd ACP Council of Ministers (News Round-up)	107/	I
– Annual Conference of ACP-EEC Social Partners, Nov. 1987 (News Round-up)	107/	IV
Agriculture		
– Asparagus: Lesotho’s growing export	112/	92
– Information services on agriculture in the ACP countries	111/	102
– Pheromones and kairomones, perfumes and pests	109/	92
– Africa and Asia: agricultural policy and development – a comparison	109/	96
– Sesbania rostrata, an outstanding “green fertiliser”	109/	100
– Agricultural development in Rodrigues	107/	81
Apartheid		
– South Africa – First meeting of ACP-EEC Ministers in Luxembourg	110/	5
– International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (News Round-up)	109/	XV
– Archbishop Tutu in Brussels (News Round-up)	109/	XVI

(*) ACP = See Regional cooperation and ACP-EEC relations column.

– Special Programme for the victims of apartheid (News Round-up)	107/	XIV	
B Bilateral aid			
– Interview B. Haakonsen (Denmark)	107/	2	
– Interview J.M. Durao Barroso (Portugal)	107/	6	
Building, housing			
– Earth, miracle material	110/	91	
– Building in the Third World	110/	93	
C Country reports			
– Aruba	112/	27	
– Cameroon	108/	34	
– Cape Verde	107/	15	
– Equatorial Guinea	107/	33	
– Guinea	108/	6	
– Jamaica	109/	19	
– Madagascar	111/	25	
– Mauritius	111/	7	
– Seychelles	112/	14	
– Tanzania	110/	32	
– Zaïre	110/	12	
Culture and the Arts			
– The penury of Africa’s museums	112/	93	
– Puppets and drawings tell tales of Africa (News Round-up)	112/	96	
– African Cultural Fortnight (News Round-up)	111/	XV	
– The Lagos International Symposium on African literatures	110/	98	
– FESPAC: to be or not to be ... black	109/	98	
– “Culture and agriculture” – the ACP-EEC Cultural Foundation’s Amsterdam seminar	108/	7	
– “Climats 87”: Festival in Brussels – dialogue between the cultures	108/	94	
– The collection and preservation of ancient Arabic manuscripts in Nigeria	108/	96	
– Action programme of the ACP-EEC Cultural Foundation (News Round-up)	108/	V	
– “Vestiges of glory”	107/	93	
D Demography, Population			
– Can the Third World fight back?	107/	89	
– Stemming the rural exodus: city opportunities in the villages	107/	95	
Debt			
– Toronto Summit (News Round-up)	111/	XV	
– Interview with the Chairman of the African Development Bank group	110/	2	
– Doubtful debts: the hard bargain	109/	94	
– Recent discussions on debt (News Round-up)	107/	X	
Disasters			
– The summer of ’88: a season of disasters	112/	90	
E EIB			
– EIB: financing arrangements in the ACP States	110/	7	

Employment					
– <i>Dossier: Employment</i>	110/	54			
Energy/Industry/Mining					
– Financing of mining projects	109/	11			
– Lake Nyos, Lake Kivu: opportunities and risks for exploiting methane	109/	45			
– Capitalising on local energy potential	109/	55			
Environment					
– The fight against locusts must not harm the environment	112/	9			
– Mangrove: fragile but fruitful	109/	15			
– Ecology of wood fuel production in Kano	109/	48			
– Interview G.H. Brundtland (Norway), Chairman of the World Commission on Environment	108/	2			
– Ministerial Conference on environment (Dakar, Jan. '88) (News Round-up)	108/	XVII			
Europe					
– European political cooperation	112/	42			
– Europeans and development aid: a survey	110/	51			
– Interview with Lord Plumb, President of the E.P.	109/	50			
– Europe and the Southern Mediterranean	108/	53			
– <i>Dossier: The Future of Europe</i>	107/	49			
F Fisheries					
– Gambia's fishermen: living better, living longer	109/	89			
– New horizons for West Africa's fishermen	108/	97			
– Ruling the waves: the Gulf of Guinea Fisheries Management Committee	107/	45			
– Tonga's new fishing harbour	107/	84			
Food Aid, Food					
– 1988 World Food Conference (News Round-up)	109/	XV			
– Multidisciplinary key to Africa's food problems	108/	13			
– Cereals marketing and food security	108/	91			
– EEC food aid policy under scrutiny	107/	10			
H Handicrafts					
– Craft in the limelight in Ouagadougou	110/	10			
Health					
– Drugs and drug addicts in Africa	112/	12			
– Europe against cancer	111/	44			
– <i>Dossier: Health for all?</i>	108/	60			
I Index					
– Analytical index (1985-1987)	108/	100			
Investment					
– How to attract private capital to the LDCs?	111/	100			
M Media					
– Interview with Souleymane Cissé, Malian film-maker	112/	2			
– The cinema as instrument of development	110/	95			
– Rural cinema in Burundi	109/	90			
Monetary Affairs					
– A North-South, Ecu-based monetary zone?	110/	85			
N NGO					
– XIVth General Assembly of European NGOs (News Round-up)	110/	XV			
North-South (general)					
– North-South: one future, a common task	109/	53			
P Public Administration					
– <i>Dossier: Public Administration</i>	109/	58			
R Regional Cooperation					
– <i>Dossier: Regional Cooperation</i>	112/	47			
– OAU celebrates its 25th anniversary (News Round-up)	110/	XV			
– SADCC Conference (East Africa) Tanzania, Jan. '88 (News Round-up)	108/	1			
– Senegambia: regional cooperation at work	107/	43			
S Science – Technologies					
– Biotechnologies and developing countries: promises and challenges	112/	97			
– Grass roots technology transfer in Ghana	109/	86			
– Congress of African Scientists in Brazzaville	107/	13			
Statistics, Prices					
– Mali – Better statistics with the SOEC	112/	45			
– The prices of food products in Africa	111/	47			
– Household budget – consumption survey in Togo: Half-way through a two-stage operation	110/	52			
– HARAMBEE – a game designed for producers and users of statistics	108/	58			
– "Reports on ACP countries" – towards a more open information policy	107/	47			
Structural Adjustment					
– <i>Dossier: Structural Adjustment</i>	111/	50			
– ACP-EEC Seminar on structural adjustment, debt and commodities, Dakar, July 1988 (News Round-up)	111/	I			
T Tourism					
– ITB Berlin – accent on responsible tourism	110/	83			
Trade					
– The cocoa futures market	110/	89			
– The Lomé trade arrangements: what do they do for the ACPs?	109/	5			
– 1986 International Cocoa Agreement (News Round-up)	108/	XVI			
– The future of cotton in West and Central Africa	107/	91			
Training					
– Eldoret Polytechnic – responding to Kenya's skilled manpower needs	111/	96			
U United Nations					
– Interview with the Vice-President of the International Court of Justice	111/	2			
– One year later – where is Africa's Recovery Programme?	107/	85			
W Hydraulic					
– Water-point maintenance in Togo	112/	86			
Women					
– Distance teaching to benefit rural women	110/	99			
World Bank					
– Report 1988	111/	97			

Léon VANDERMEERSCH - **Le nouveau Monde sinisé** (The New Sinitic World) — Presses Universitaires de France, Paris — 224 pages — 1986

Oriental Asia, that part of the world under Chinese influence, is one of the most active centres of civilisation. It is certainly the oldest. Does not continental China's history go back further than 4000 B.C.? The civilisation of the pharaohs may go back equally far, but it has disappeared. China is still there.

At the moment, there is a group of countries (which have followed different development models, some capitalist and some collectivist) which is gradually shifting the economic centre of gravity of the globe, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, without most Europeans realising. Yet perhaps the most economically and culturally striking happening of the latter part of the 20th century is the emergence of these countries — China, South Korea, Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore and Vietnam, although Taiwan could well be substituted for Vietnam, which, because of the political choices of its leaders, is a counter-example of the dynamic nature of the sinitic countries.

Léon Vandermeersch stresses that this world is made up of countries once marked by Chinese culture, which is still deeply rooted in their common ideographic writing. The new Chinese-influenced world is an economic area whose share of world production rose from 8.3% in 1960 to 15.6% in 1980 and is expected to reach 20% by the year 2000, thereby balancing North America's output. Yet this world, based on cultural ties, "on a system of values, a conception of society and a vision of the world which are manifestly moving away from the West... will soon have to realise that culture has to be declined in the plural, and in grammars other than that of ethnology".

Here, then, we have a political unit which is gradually reorganising, independently of the two super-powers, and a social set-up cemented by a system of values which is rooted in a rich and very ancient tradition and can resist contagion by Western individualism. The book, therefore, is to be recommended.

Alain LACROIX

○○○

Corinne and Laszlo MESTER de PA-RAJD - **Regards sur l'habitat traditionnel au Niger** (Traditional Housing in Niger) — Ed. Créer, 63340-Nonette, France — 1988 — 101 pages — FF 160.50

The two authors, one an architect and the other an interior designer, have spent more than 10 years in Niger where there are 40 of Laszlo's buildings. The book is the fruit of both a professional study of building styles and techniques and of a field study by people who evince both curiosity and open-mindedness. The result is a clear description, backed up with plenty of plans and some delightful photographs, of the different types of traditional housing—skin tents, straw huts, mud huts and more—and the way they have developed. They are all described in relation to the physical and cultural environment and there is a commentary on the advantages, disadvantages, durability, suitability for the climate, cost and so on, while the aesthetic side of the buildings is left for the reader, who has photos to help him, to assess. And housing here means not just homes, but grain-stores, concessions, mosques and the villages and their important features — the market-place, the praying place and so on.

The final chapter contains "an example of the path architecture could take", a synthesis of traditional Sahel architecture and of modern technologies and constraints and keep to traditional qualities ("diversity, simplicity, unity, pleasing form and integration in the site"). If it does this, the authors maintain, then traditional housing can well be the housing of the future. "Modern architecture", they say, "should have its roots in the traditional architecture of the place in which it is situated — which rules out the possibility of putting up the same building anywhere... It is by respecting this principle that we can preserve the wonderful diversity of the world".

○○○

Sylvie BRUNEL (under the direction of) - **Tiers Mondes, controverses et réalités** (Third World — Controversy and Reality) — Editions Economica-Liberté sans Frontières, 49 rue Héri-

cart, 75015 Paris — September 1987 — 520 pages — FF 125

This book is the work of the Liberté Sans Frontières Foundation, the research and information organisation set up by Médecins Sans Frontières. Its 12 chapters take stock of the present state of an increasingly disunited Third World, looking at each of the great controversies of under-development and summing up the successes and failures of 30 years of development strategies.

Dossiers at the end of each chapter cover specific points of particular importance, such as the crisis in Black Africa, the role of the terms of trade, world hunger, the green revolution and its consequences and so on.

There are also many maps, insets, tables and charts. Recognised specialists have contributed to the discussion on all the subjects covered, making the work a vital one for teachers, students, cooperation officers, "donors" to the major humanitarian organisations and anyone else who often wonders about the present situation in a fast-changing Third World.

○○○

Franck MAGNARD and Nicolas TENZER - **La crise africaine: quelle politique de coopération pour la France?** (The African crisis — Choosing France's cooperation policy) — Presses Universitaires de France, Paris — 249 pages — 1988 — FF 140

The crisis in Sub-Saharan Africa is a major challenge for the industrialised nations in this, the latter part of the 20th century. The size and diversity of the imbalances means there has to be a profound change in the structures of the African economy and in the methods of cooperation between rich and developing countries.

This book goes beyond an overall picture of the origins and manifestations of the crisis of the 'dark continent' and explores possible ways out of the vicious circle of poverty and underdevelopment.

Thanks to its history and geography, France feels it should be a driving force in the international drive to help Africa, and the authors clearly set out

(Continued on inside back cover)

Lomé IV — The ACP negotiating position

Since 12 and 13 October, the dates on which ACP Ministers and their Community counterparts formally opened negotiations in Luxembourg for the renewal of the Lomé Convention, a number of working sessions of the Central Negotiating Group have taken place in Brussels. The group was created by the ministerial conference and is co-chaired by the Chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors, Ambroise Gambouélé of Congo, and Dieter Frisch, Director-General for Development at the Commission.

The *Courier* published the main thrusts of the EEC's proposals for a new Convention in No 109 of May/June 1988 (News Round-Up, page V), and now presents the principal themes which the ACP negotiators have taken as their own.

The negotiation⁽¹⁾ of the new agreement, the memorandum states, will be taking place in a world environment that is likely to be more unstable and unpredictable in terms of key external economic variables such as export prices, growth rates of developed countries, exchange rates, protectionism and interest rates. Under current projections, management of ACP economies would become even more uncertain since the present imbalance will most likely worsen.

As compared to 1983, the situation has improved for the developed countries while it has deteriorated for the developing countries. Growth in the developed countries now seems to have less influence than in the past on the growth process in the developing countries. There is an increasingly recognised phenomenon of the growth gap.

In this context, the main task that will face ACP negotiators, is to see how they can forge an instrument in the form of a new Convention that will spearhead a turnaround in the situation facing them, in so far as it arises from the inter-relationship with their EEC partners.

With declining international support for the United Nations Programme for African Accelerated Economic Recovery and Development, the new Convention must respond to this situation to the limit of the EEC's capacity.

Over the next five years, ACP States are expected to experience high population growth rates, a continuous deterioration of their commodity export earnings, onerous debt servicing and even lower net resource inflows. Under these conditions, the position of

They are contained in a densely-packed 180-page memorandum divided into eight chapters which analyses the previous Conventions and their effect on ACP economies, looks at the economic prospects of the EEC and the ACPs, the background to the negotiations (which, if it seems to be improving in Europe, is certainly deteriorating in the ACP countries) and puts forward a series of improvements (some of which we are publishing) to be brought about in the various areas of cooperation (Stabex, Sysmin).

It also touches on institutional questions such as the duration of the future Convention, and touches on new themes which have entered into the ACP-EEC debate, such as debt and structural adjustment.

the ACP States in the world economy as a whole and among developing countries in particular is likely to slide even further.

In a world that will be more and more dominated by trade in manufactures and services, the ACP will find themselves still heavily dependent on exporting raw materials and unable to keep pace with non-ACP developing countries whose process of transformation is projected to accelerate even further. In this context, per capita incomes in the ACP are not likely to increase significantly.

Many ACP States have embarked on structural adjustment and transformation programmes with a view to tackling the current and expected negative economic trends. The successor arrangement, therefore, has a crucial role to play in terms of supporting such an effort.

In summary, therefore, this new Convention must differ from its predecessors in that it must provide an effective, practical and operational schema for:

(a) processing of the output flowing

from the successful pursuit of ACP agricultural and rural development objectives laid out in Lomé III to be reaffirmed in the new Convention;

(b) transforming the ACP commodities — agricultural and mineral — from raw materials into processed and semi-processed products;

(c) producing manufactured goods from ACP and other raw material supplies;

(d) producing a preferential and effective trade and market outlet regime for the exporting of ACP processed products as well as its raw materials.

Agricultural development

In the framework of the forthcoming negotiations towards the next Convention, the present emphasis should be retained. Due attention should however be given also to:

— fisheries, in order to protect fishery resources a better definition must be produced of the guidelines and objectives beyond sea-fishing alone, and for rules of origin to permit the exploitation of those resources in the Exclusive Economic Zones;



Mr Greenidge, the Chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers and Mr Gambouélé, President of the Committee of Ambassadors (respectively first and second from the left in the foreground) during the meeting that adopted the ACP memorandum of negotiation

(1) Extracts chosen by A.T.

- the development of food strategies;
- agricultural research, to give real support to the development of suitable export crops;
- the Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation, with a view to widening its functions beyond those of collecting, processing and disseminating scientific and technical information on agricultural and rural development;
- environmental protection.

The Lomé III provisions do not cover the entire spectrum of issues concerning the protection of the environment. The successor Convention should therefore provide a bigger allocation for tackling environmental problems.

Governments of the Member States of the EEC should provide the ACP States on a regular basis with lists of dangerous chemicals and substances which are banned in their countries. Given the enormous danger to the environment and to human, animal and plant life, the ACP will seek to have in the next Convention provisions resulting in a total ban on the export of such products to their countries.

Trade cooperation

Trade is central to the economic relationship between the ACP and the EEC, yet the share of the ACP States in world, as well as in EEC trade is small and declining.

Against this background, the following proposals are suggested as an integral part of an ACP approach.

Principles of free market access

The principle of free market access should be extended and genuinely applied under the next Convention, but the terms must be redefined. After 15 years of cooperation the EEC's fears should now have been allayed and they should be persuaded to remove all tariff and non-tariff barriers to all ACP exports save for those covered by special protocols.

In addition to this principle, the current basic needs should be safeguarded, threatened as they are by the Uruguay Round of trade negotiations, especially in the light of the Community's autonomous offer to the world at large on tropical products. The ACP States must therefore insist:

(i) on the preservation of their preferences in the Community market as a vital part of the *acquis* of ACP/EEC cooperation.

(ii) that any loss or diminution in the ACPs' trade preferences must be offset by clear quantifiable compensation (and not by vague promises by the Community to assist the ACP to find alternative markets);

(iii) on reminding the Community again that already, even without the impact of the Uruguay Round, the ACPs have been losing ground in the Community market due to GSP, etc.;

(iv) that into any new arrangement a mechanism and resources for developing greater marketing capacity by ACP States would need to be inserted;

(v) on the need and resolve to:

— harmonise their positions in Brussels and Geneva, especially at all stages of the Uruguay Round;

— ensure closer consultations with the Community's GATT Representative;

— monitor closely all relevant developments in the Uruguay Round of negotiations.

In the light of experience gained under Lomé III, the new Convention must ensure:

(a) the maintenance and improvement in the functioning of the existing protocols in the Lomé Convention;

(b) increased real export earnings for ACP commodity exports through strong support for International Commodity Agreements (ICAs) based on buffer stocks and/or export quotas;

(c) contribution and strong support for the First and Second Windows of the UNCTAD Common Fund especially as the latter can now legally enter fully into force;

(d) removal of all customs barriers, internal taxes or other protectionist measures against ACP commodity exports and in particular their escalating tariffs on processed commodity exports to the EEC;

(e) reduction of artificial support measures and export subsidies on EEC production of commodities or their substitutes (e.g., sugar, oilseeds, etc.) produced and exported by the ACPs. This can be seen within the context of the reform of the CAP;

(f) support for the processing of commodities must be central to the Convention's industrial development thrust. Since Lomé I, this central question has not been squarely faced;

(g) there must be an increase in Com-

munity finance to the directly productive sectors, in particular increased processing and manufacturing. Thus the existing provisions of the Convention regarding processing, marketing and distribution of commodities as well as those pertaining to investment should be strengthened and made operational.

Stabex

Stabex remains one of the fundamental and most popular innovations of the Lomé Conventions. Its contribution to ACP/EEC cooperation, notwithstanding its infrequent difficulties, has been substantial. The next Convention should aim to remove the remaining weaknesses in this important cooperation mechanism.

The objectives of the Stabex system should be redefined to make it clear that the purpose of the scheme should cover:

a) Stabilisation of ACP foreign exchange earnings from the exports of their agricultural commodities and their derivatives;

b) the safeguarding of the purchasing power of ACP States to enable them to sustain the development and growth of their economies;

c) the remedying of the harmful effects of the fall in the foreign exchange earnings of the ACP States from their commodities, including support for the balance of payments of their economies;

d) promotion and diversification of ACP production for export and thus the enhancement of the means to earn foreign exchange.

Related or similar products should be regrouped wherever possible. Clear principles should be defined regarding the basis for including any product in the Stabex system within a specified period of time and consideration to be given for the inclusion of manufactured products and tourism in the Stabex scheme or in a separate system to be set up.

The reference period

In the light of the declining trend in commodity prices over the last decade, the ACPs should consider the merits of changing the current four-year reference period to a ten-year exponential trend reference level formula ensuring thereby a sufficiently long period to accommodate most commodity cycles.

The issues of indexation

It has been noted that Stabex does not take into account inflation or terms of trade deterioration suffered by the ACPs, although one of Stabex's objectives is to safeguard their purchasing power. The ACPs should insist on stabilisation of imports by at least having transfers adjusted upwards by not less than 10%.

The ACPs should resist any further restrictions in the use of Stabex resources. More funds should be put into the Stabex scheme to compensate for the effects of the abolition of replenishment.

Financial cooperation

a) Volume of aid

The determination of the volume of aid must take into account increases in population, the enlargement of the EEC and the ACP Group of States, declining real per capita incomes in ACP States, inflation, deteriorating terms of trade, etc. as well as the cost implications of the programmes to be covered by the Convention.

Given the extreme difficulties facing ACP States, significant increases in EDF financing are patently necessary and there are now more EEC Member States to make this contribution. Anything short of returning to the Lomé I real per capita aid would hardly reflect the initial undertaking of the Community.

b) Quality of aid and speed of utilisation

The reduction of the degree of concessionality of the EEC's aid should be avoided and arrangements must be made for greater EIB investment resources to assist the ACP States. To facilitate these processes, the whole question of loan guarantees, their level and the distribution of cost between the ACPs and the EEC needs to be reconsidered.

As regards resource utilisation, improved procedures consistent with efficient utilisation must be found to facilitate the quick disbursement of EDF resources. For although the Lomé provisions reflect considerable improvement over Lomé III, they do not go far enough to accelerate the disbursement of EDF resources.

ACP debt

There is a need to consider a separate chapter on debt in the next Con-

vention, covering this question extensively. As provided for in Article 198 of the Lomé III Convention, there must be an undertaking to enter into healthy dialogue between the EEC and ACP States regarding the solution of their debt problems, and the EEC Member States, as important ACP creditors, must accept that they have an obligation to discuss debt questions with ACP States, especially within ACP/EEC cooperation, and to cooperate on behalf of the ACPs at multilateral fora.

The dialogue and the provisions for debt relief, must cover:

- the cancellation of all Community debt;
- the cancellation of least developed ACP States' debt owed to EEC Member States;
- the reduction of interest on all public debt;
- the conversion of part of existing public loans into local currency;
- the provision for debt/equity swaps;
- provision for debt conversion into bonds;
- increased training in external debt management and international financial negotiations;
- increased support for attracting foreign investment;
- measures to strengthen the commodity sector of ACP States.

On the international scene, the Community and its Member States should advance and support such initiatives as would bring debt relief to ACP States.

Structural adjustment

In view of the fact that ACP/EEC cooperation in the area of structural adjustment is certain to need reinforcement by Bank/Fund measures, the ACP/EEC must actively seek, in the spirit of Article 1 of Lomé III, to modify, on the basis of ACP/EEC cooperation experience, the Bank/Fund approaches to parallel support action on behalf of ACP States. One area where this would be useful is in mitigating the potentially socially disastrous consequences of structural adjustment.

In terms of need, there is indeed a *prima facie* case for strengthening balance of payments support in the successor arrangement. At present, a large number of the ACP States are undertaking burdensome programmes of structural adjustment and are doing so

Also in the yellow pages

The Convention at work

- I. ACP memorandum
- IV. Lomé IV negotiations
- VI. Lorenzo Natali leaves the Commission
- VIII. EDF financing

General information

- XIV. International AIDS day

European Community

- XV. The Summit in Rhodes
- XVI. Development Council

without having access to needed additional lending even though large undisbursed resources have been accumulating in the EDF.

A specific Lomé approach to structural adjustment is necessary in any future relations, as many ACP States have either had to adopt IMF/World Bank adjustment programmes or are already struggling with similar programmes without that support. Recent modest efforts by the EEC to help the most debt-distressed of ACP States signal a recognition of this necessity.

As regards the resources for structural adjustment, the Convention must consider the additional resource needs of structural adjustment over and above the conventional EDF resources.

Given the importance of longer-term development projects, greater recognition should be given to the provision of assistance for project identification and preparation.

Finally, structural adjustment and the concomitant greater balance of payments support should also not lead to a diversion of resources away from long-term development. It should be therefore additional to conventional EDF allocation. Moreover, it should respect the present "acquis" by not entailing any conditionality or cross-conditionality.

Duration of the Convention

There is need for caution. The question of the duration of the next Convention should continue to be the subject of reflection with the unfolding of the negotiations. ○

Negotiations for a new ACP-EEC Convention^(*)

The ACP-EEC negotiations entered into an active phase in November with meetings of the Central Negotiating Group (CNG), which had been formed at the Ministerial Conference in October 1988. In addition to coordination and overview, the CNG will be responsible for discussing important general questions such as duration, geographical coverage, human rights and institutions. The Group consists of all the representatives of the ACP Group of States and its Secretariat, the ACP spokesman, the Commission spokesman (as negotiator for the Community) and Member States' representatives. On the ACP side there is also a Steering Committee to ensure continuity of chairmanship and coordinate the work, made up of

the current Chairman of the Committee of Ambassadors and his two successors⁽¹⁾ plus the Ambassador of the country chairing the ACP Council of Ministers, Mr Chasle (Mauritius), Mr Valy Tuho (Côte d'Ivoire) and Mr Carrington (Secretary-General of the ACP Group of States).

At the time of writing, three meetings of this Group have been held. The first, on 3 November, was devoted essentially to procedures and organisation but also served to set the scene for the future in a positive and constructive atmosphere. This was clear from the preliminary statements by the co-chairmen, Mr Gambouélé (Ambassador of Congo) and Mr Frisch (Director-General, Commission), who spoke of 'trust', 'convergence', 'frank speaking' and 'open cooperation'. The ACP States presented their list of eight negotiating groups, which follow quite closely the structure of the present Convention (see box). Each group

is chaired by an Ambassador, with two alternate spokesmen, making 24 Ambassadors in all.

The CNG's first task, it was decided, was to carry out a preliminary survey so that all participants can become familiar with the overall assessment of the situation and the major concerns of both sides. This operation began on 10 November, with the second meeting of the CNG, at which Mr Frisch announced that the Community had chosen Mr Auclert and Mr Fairclough (Deputy Directors-General) as spokesmen to cover two broad areas of negotiation corresponding to their briefs within the Commission.

Mr Gambouélé outlined the ACP States' basic objectives and principles, which were to be used as a guide to the negotiations and for later practice. These broadly coincide with the letter and spirit of Part One of Lomé III and with the Suva Declaration of May

(*) Article supplied by the Commission's Negotiations Task Force.

(1) Chairmanship rotates every six months and the next change is due in February 1989.

ACP Negotiating Groups	ACP Spokesman Ambassador	Altern. Spokesman Ambassador	EEC Spokesman
Agricultural Cooperation, Food Security, Rural Development, Environment, Natural Resource Protection, Fisheries	E. ASSIONGBON (Togo)	J.-M. PEHOUA (CAR) M. KAJESE (Zimbabwe)	A. FAIRCLOUGH
Trade Cooperation (including special arrangements on Bananas, Beef and Veal, Rice and Rum), Customs Cooperation, Rules of Origin, Trade Promotion and Marketing	L. A. WILSON (Jamaica)	E. S. MPOFU (Botswana) BROWN BAI (PNG)	A. FAIRCLOUGH
Commodities (agricultural and mineral), Stabex and Sysmin	M. ODONGUI-BONNARD (Gabon)	J. A. LARYEA (Ghana) F. A. R. EISA (Sudan)	A. AUCLERT
Industrial Cooperation, Agro-industry, Manufactures, the Development of Mineral Products, Energy	K. NSINGO (Zambia)	S. M. MBILINYI (Tanzania) T. BADEN-SEMPER (Trinidad and Tobago)	A. FAIRCLOUGH
Regional Cooperation and Services (including Transportation, Telecommunications, Informatics and Tourism)	C. K. KATUNGI (Uganda)	R. O. MARVILLE (Barbados) J. B. J. S. DLAMINI (Swaziland)	A. AUCLERT
Financial and Technical Cooperation, Investment, Debt and Structural Adjustment	J. O. B. IROHA (Nigeria)	F. K. MUTHAURA (Kenya) A. LAMANA (Chad)	A. AUCLERT
Cultural and Social Cooperation including Environment, Health, Population, Training, Science and Technology, Refugees	R. CHASLE (Mauritius)	S. BAKO (Niger) A. NZISABIRA (Burundi)	A. FAIRCLOUGH
Special Regime for the Least Developed, Landlocked and Island ACP countries	K. TAVOLA (Fiji)	A. OUEDRAOGO (Burkina Faso) C. A. SAVARIN (Dominica)	A. AUCLERT

1984 on the *acquis*. The ACP States are laying particular stress on the processing of raw materials as a strategic objective for the next Convention, on the principle of non-discrimination between ACP States and on closer ACP-EEC consultation in international fora.

The review of subjects started with agricultural cooperation, food security, rural development, environment and protection of natural resources. A certain convergence of views was observed here, though we are still in early days and on a fairly general level.

On fisheries, Mr Gambouélé raised the question of improving the Convention as regards development of inland fisheries and the origin of catches from ACP exclusive economic zones.

The other issue dealt with at the second meeting—trade—is considered by the ACP States to be the keystone of their cooperation with the Community and negotiations in this controversial area are bound to occupy a prominent position. Mr Gambouélé reiterated the ACP States' concerns about the rules of origin and the safeguard clause and he expressed their fears about the effect on ACP-EEC trade of the current Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations and the Single Market due to become a reality in 1992.

For its part, the Community confirmed its analysis, according to which the shortcomings in the ACP countries' trade performance are due less to the Convention's trade arrangements, though they do need consolidating, than to weak structures and lack of competitiveness.

Leading on from the exchanges on trade, the third meeting of the CNG dealt first of all with another central theme—commodities. Mr Gambouélé called for lasting solutions to the ACP States' short, medium, and long term problems and criticised what he saw as a certain lack of commitment on the Community's part to international arrangements in this area, namely the Integrated Programme for Commodities, the Common Fund and similar initiatives. He urged the EEC to bring its full weight to bear in international fora.

Mr Frisch pointed out that the Community did always take the ACP States' interests into consideration in negotiations on commodity agreements and that, if it were not for the

Lomé Convention, there would not be any contact at all between ACP and EEC in this context.

The Community feels that one answer to the ACP States' problems is diversification. The ACP countries themselves have suggested that this be tied in with the development of industries up- and downstream of agriculture. On the subject of Stabex and how to employ this mechanism in the future, everyone agrees that it should be maintained and adapted to suit the changing situation. Just how this is to be done will provide much food for thought in the negotiations to come.

A certain convergence of views seems to have emerged at this early stage on Sysmin, industrial development, mining, energy and regional cooperation, at least as far as objectives and approach are concerned.

Both ACP and EEC think that the Sysmin system—designed “to re-establish the viability of the mining sector”—should be streamlined. Its procedures are altogether too cumbersome and lengthy. The ACP States have also drawn attention to the environmental aspects of the mining industry and the idea of drawing up a code of conduct has been put forward. In fact, the parties agree that industry in general, or ‘enterprise development’ as Mr Frisch puts it, will require more attention in the interests of diversification.

The statements exchanged on regional cooperation, a very important key to development, also converged. The objective here is regional economic integration, which will probably require a shift away from infrastructure towards less visible forms of cooperation such as liberalisation of intra-regional trade.

Subjects still to be reviewed by the CNG at the time of writing include financial and technical cooperation, debt and structural adjustment, cultural cooperation and the arrangements for least-developed, landlocked and island countries.

It was decided that the last meeting of the CNG on 22 December would be devoted to a general review of the exchanges of opinion held during the preceding four meetings. Once this review has been carried out, technical sub-groups will probably be formed to negotiate in more detail. A second full Ministerial Conference is to be held in Brazzaville in mid-February 1989. ○

LOME IV

ACP-EEC trade union organisations meet in Dakar

In view of the opening of the ACP-EEC negotiations on the renewal of the Lomé Convention, ACP-EEC trade union organisations met in Dakar from 3 to 5 November 1988. Some 60 trade union representatives from the ACP and EEC countries, the Organisation for African Trade Union Unity, the European Trade Union Confederation, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions and the World Confederation of Labour were present. In the final report summarising the conclusions of the meeting, the participants declare that in order to defend workers' interests and to cope with the serious economic crisis prevailing in large parts of the world, continuing efforts are required to strengthen relations between ACP and EEC trade union organisations. The participants note with great regret that living standards and the employment situation in many ACP States have deteriorated during Lomé III. ACP-EEC trade development has been disappointing, Stabex and Sysmin have had only moderate success, the debt crisis is holding back investments and economic recovery, terms of trade have deteriorated further, and people have continued to get poorer.

Nevertheless, the participants stress unanimously that the Lomé Convention is unique, as a model for organised and institutionalised North-South cooperation with both parties on an equal footing. It must contribute to a type of development which is mutually beneficial to ACP and EEC countries through respecting human rights in the spirit of “furthering the well-being of the ACP countries”. Lomé IV must therefore ensure that the active participation of the social partners becomes a reality, consolidate the achievements of Lomé III, step up action to contend with economic and social change, and meet the new challenges which have arisen. In this vein, the Conference urges *first* that the consultation and involvement of the populations and of the social partners must be stimulated at both local, regional, national, and ACP and European levels. It is unacceptable that the provisions in Lomé III designed to ensure this have only rarely and partially been put into effect. ○

Lorenzo Natali leaves the Commission

After 12 years, during which he was responsible for the enlargement process of the EEC to include Greece, Spain and Portugal and later on for development, Vice-President Lorenzo Natali is stepping down from his post as European Commissioner. He has been replaced by Manuel Marin who is also in charge of fisheries policy. Before leaving the Commission, Mr Natali sent to the readers of *The Courier* the following message:



"I am leaving Brussels after 12 years of Community life. During my long stay here, I have seen the Community both expand—I had the honour of being directly responsible for the negotiations first with Greece and then with Spain and Portugal—and take a further step towards economic and political integration.

I can say without hesitation that one of the best things in my long political career was being with you over the past four years—which I hope have contributed to consolidating and developing the Community's policy of cooperation with the countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific.

During this time, we have seen serious cyclical events, with the great droughts, and structural issues, with the debt problem, coming to a head.

The problems of under-development seem to have got worse, certain-

ly, but there are also important positive signs on the horizon.

Courageous leaders in the ACP countries have had no hesitation in taking what have sometimes been difficult decisions to help right their economies. And at the same time, the peoples of Europe have realised, as never before, the importance and seriousness of their distant partners' problems. Terms such as "commodity slump", "debt" and "food security" are not just heard on the lips of experts and bureaucrats. They have gone into the language, too, and into the minds of our fellow citizens. And all because they have discovered the true meaning of the concept of interdependence.

When I became Development Commissioner, people were seeking an adjective to define this interdependence. They talked about political interdependence and economic and financial interdependence, but from an egoistical standpoint, weighing up the pros and cons of an aid policy to the last ounce.

This was a mistake. Interdependence cannot be defined with just one adjective, because it has emerged from the realisation of the one-ness of human nature and from the feeling that the destinies of all men and nations are closely linked.

It is not for me to summarise my term of office. I just want you to know is that I have, with the help of the ACP authorities, the Delegations and my Directorate-General, always followed the principle whereby development has a moral dimension as well as an economic one.

It is with regret that I leave my work today. But I firmly believe that this new step aid is taking, encouraged by an international environment which offers real prospects of peace, will mean genuine progress for the ACP peoples—whom I have always tried to make feel closer to us men and women here in Europe". ◊

discuss ACP-EEC documents on the general provisions and specifications for works contracts and the rules of arbitration proposed by the ACPs. It was the group's third meeting. Its first look at the general conditions of EDF-financed contracts was on 14-18 September 1987. The experts continued their talks in October 1987 and met again in March 1988, moving on to supply contracts and ultimately analysing the projects which had been planned in the light of ACP comment.

The task of producing general conditions applying to all 66 ACP States, which have different practices and legal systems, is a complex one—which is why the work has taken so long. ◊

CONFERENCES

Dieter Frisch goes to Bonn ...

The Commission's recent guidelines on the external dimensions of the internal market of 1992 were the backdrop for the talk which Dieter Frisch, the Director-General for Development, gave on the repercussions of the Single Market on the developing countries in Bonn on 25 October.

The Single Market of 1992 does not just mean new prospects for the Community. It is also of great interest to the outside world—although it also provokes worry and raises questions about Europe being a 'fortress'.

The fear that creation of a unified market might go hand-in-hand with a barrier to the outside world is without foundation. The external trade policy is not an instrument of creation of the internal market. Given the extent to which the Community is involved in the international economy—it is the world's biggest importer and exporter—it certainly could not allow this to happen, as, legally, it is part of an international contractual system (GATT, Lomé, the Mediterranean agreements, EFTA etc.) which guarantees that the outside world is not open to any protectionist tendencies. So the internal market of 1992 will stay open.

External partners will also have new possibilities in the internal market—easy access to one market instead of 12, with 320 million consumers, thanks to simplified procedures, across-the-board or mutually recog-

ACP

ACP meeting on EDF-financed General Conditions (*)

A technical group (**) under the chairmanship of Mr Gaolathe, Perma-

nent Secretary at Botswana's Ministry of Finance, Planning and Development and EDF National Authorising Officer, met from 7-15 November to

(*) An ACP press communiqué.

(**) Participants — Benin, Botswana, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Dominica, Jamaica, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Western Samoa and consultants.

nised standards and the economies of scale that can be made when goods move freely about the Community.

The dynamic movement generated by the internal market will inevitably make its presence felt outside, too. It cannot but play an essential part in getting international economic growth off the ground again. The more competitive the external partners, the greater their chance of reaping the benefits of the big market.

This market also gives the developing countries new economic opportunities. Competition will be stiffer, of course, so the Community will have to help them maintain and improve their position. It must do more than carry over the special systems set up for them (the Lomé Convention, the Mediterranean agreements, GSP and so on), too. It must improve them if possible and, by means of technical assistance, seminars and trade promotion, help the developing countries familiarise themselves with the new facts of the internal market and grasp the new opportunities.

The only problem still to be solved as far as external trade policy is concerned is the national quantitative restrictions, which are obviously incompatible with the Single Market. The Community will remove them by limiting the cases in which the present protection of national markets is brought to the level of the Community. These cases are unlikely to affect the developing countries much and will probably not affect the weakest of them at all.

One product of particular concern to the developing countries is bananas. The present system, involving compartmentalisation of the national markets, will have to go in 1992 and the Community will have to devise a new system which takes account of the many interests, is compatible with a frontier-free market and safeguards the interests of the less competitive developing countries.

... and to London

Three weeks later, Mr Frisch made the same exercise, but this time in London where he delivered two keynote addresses on 14 November. In the morning, he spoke to almost 100 participants at the Community's London office as part of the series of "1992 Briefings". These briefings are intended to raise industrial, commer-

cial and media awareness of the far-reaching changes which are likely to be brought about by Community policies to secure the Single European Market. Mr Frisch concentrated on setting out the Community's development policy, one which he said was "one of the lesser-known activities" of the EEC, though it now spent about ECU 2.5 bn every year. A lively question-and-answer session followed the presentation, and the audience proved itself to be even more diverse than had been anticipated when a member introduced himself simply as a "man in the street" who was interested in development problems! As far as 1992 was concerned, Europe would not turn into "fortress Europe" said Mr Frisch, but would remain a reliable partner.

After lunch, Mr Frisch spoke to the Royal Commonwealth Society on the theme "Towards a new Lomé Convention" in which he assessed the record of Lomé III and gave pointers to what was likely to come up in the successor convention. He stressed that Lomé would not go far beyond its geographical limits, and that the trade regime was not susceptible to much liberalisation, though there might be welcome changes in Stabex. What would need to be tackled, he said, were debt and structural adjustment and he highlighted the role of the Commission as a moderator and an initiator of sensible policies for debt relief. He promised, with regard to the austerities of the programmes proposed by the World Bank and IMF, that the Community would strive to make the policies differentiated, to ensure that they took the social dimension into account, were spread over a longer period and were, to a greater extent than at present, evolved by the countries concerned. He emphatically denied that Europe would "simply be dragged behind the chariot wheels of the World Bank and the IMF". Mr Frisch had words of praise for his hosts, too. Development cooperation, he said, was "an area where we owe a great deal to Britain". And he cited the multifarious personal and professional links of the Commonwealth as, in part, the inspiration for the Community's own drive for polycentric cooperation. "Talking the same language" he said, "is more than mastering the grammar, as the Commonwealth stands witness, and it is those almost intangible links that polycentric cooperation is intended to forge".

Edwin Carrington: "What the ACPs wanted was a Lomé Plus, qualitatively different"

Last November, Mr Edwin Carrington Secretary-General of the ACP Group gave a lecture at the Centre for European Policy Studies. Among the attendance was Mr Laloux (Minister Plenipotentiary, Permanent Representation of Belgium to the Communities). Mr Carrington gave a short historical introduction followed by a survey of the achievements to date.

The solid, legally-binding, contractual nature of Lomé was the first achievement emphasised as being remarkable.

Other aspects that came in for praise were: the solid institutional framework, sovereign partnership, assurance and predictability, the fundamental method of cooperation enshrined (i.e. consultation and dialogue), the flexible, dynamic framework to cope with new needs, non-reciprocity and preference.

On Stabex, Mr Carrington said that the system had been set up despite the fact that it was said not to be feasible and it had even been extended to LLDCs not in the ACP Group.

He criticised the "non-achievements" saying that there was "No NIC in the ACP". For him Lomé is applying "the right medicine but in weak doses". None of the Lomé mechanisms was potent enough. What the ACP wanted was Lomé Plus, qualitatively different, not mere consolidation but *amelioration*. Future ACP generations would reject Lomé if it were not improved.

Speaking about the enlargement of the Community to Spain and Portugal, Mr Carrington said that Portugal and Spain had introduced new concerns and perceptions (contacts with Brazil and other South American countries)—for example, enlargement and the risk of competition for supplies of off-season fruit and vegetables from the ACP.

The Secretary-General of the ACP Group spoke also about the Uruguay Round.

Since the Lomé negotiations would finish before the MTNs, the new Convention might be vitiated by what emerged at the multilateral trade negotiations. The EEC's concessions on tropical products were certain to result in a loss of preference on the EEC market

for ACP products whereas improved access to world markets was only a possibility.

Among the concerns listed as far as the Single European Act is concerned were bananas and the harmonisation of standards (aircraft noise, aflatoxin, cadmium content of phosphates), which would not be set at the most concessionary levels. The ACP supported the grand design but feared the unknown. Would the EEC turn inwards? Would it divert investment to the enlarged domestic market? ○

EDF

Following a favourable opinion from the EDF Committee, the Commission has just decided on the following financing.

Senegal

Drainage in the Medina and Gueule Tapée districts

5th EDF

Grant: ECU 2 000 000

The idea here is to instal drainage in the working class districts of Medina and Gueule Tapée in Dakar by rehabilitating the waste- and rain-water systems in the Gueule Tapée basin.

The project is the final phase in the Soumbédioune Bay drainage scheme, phases one and two of which were financed by the 4th and 5th EDFs.

The waste-water system will be rehabilitated, inspection ports built, 200 000 m² of sidewalk stabilised, a pump and spare parts supplied to the Soumbédioune station, 300 individual connections laid on and 12 000 m² of road improved.

Burkina Faso

Hydro-agricultural improvements on the Douna plain

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 2 100 000

The project is both part of the nation's food security and in the 6th EDF national indicative programme (which is geared to self-sufficiency in food and anti-desertification).

It involves developing 400 ha of irrigated cropland which was set up under a 5th EDF project and, forecasts suggest, will produce a double crop of

2 000 tonnes of cereals and 2 000 tonnes of vegetables. Village groupings will be formed to run the plots and the appropriate training will be provided for the members.

Electricity supplies to Zinlare

5th EDF

Grant: ECU 520 000

This project is in line with the country's policy of laying on electricity supplies to its secondary towns, an operation to which the Community has already contributed with financing for power production in seven places in Burkina Faso.

The Zinlare system involves:

- a line connecting Zinlare with the Ouagadougou network;
- a supply and public lighting network;
- one or two back-up structures.

Gambia

Reorganisation and improvement of education

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 700 000

The national indicative programme says that the funds for non-priority areas should be channelled, in particular, to the development of human resources.

The project to modernise and improve secondary technical education is intended to raise the standard of technical and practical qualification of secondary school students who leave without the opportunity to go on to the fewer, more expensive but better considered establishments of higher education.

Secondary school leavers will thus have better job prospects in the private sector, bearing in mind the current cutbacks in civil service employment and the national policy of stimulating the potential output of the private sector.

Netherlands Antilles

St Eustatius airport

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 2 000 000

St Eustatius, south east of St Martin in the Netherlands Antilles, is a small island 21 km² in area with a population of 1 700 and considerable tourist potential. It is a magnificent island with an architectural heritage of its

own and superb marine flora and fauna.

The airport is the only way in for passengers and goods. Access by sea, which is unsuitable for tourists, is difficult and used only for heavy equipment.

The existing 600 m runway can only cater for small aircraft of a maximum of 20 places and tourist development is held back as a result. The authorities have therefore decided to lengthen the runway so that 40-50 seater planes can take off and land safely.

Otrabanda drainage system

5th EDF

Grant: ECU 6 000 000

Otrabanda, in the heart of Willemstad, is of considerable historical, social and economic interest. The idea of the project is to help enhance these assets by improving the drainage network.

This is why the project plans to replace the old-fashioned existing network and to lay on connexions to the new treatment plant at Klein Hoffje. The Government designed the project, which involves dismantling the present pipes and installing new ones and replacing the old connections, pumping stations etc.

Somalia

Sectoral import programme

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 15 000 000

Somalia has a serious balance of payments crisis on its hands, a considerable threat to an already fragile economy as it reduces the operation of the productive sector to below the level of survival. Improvements may be expected in the medium term, but immediate support is needed to maintain the country's production capacity.

The indicative programme includes financing for import programmes in the focal sectors. This programme, which is covered by this provision, is intended to guarantee rapid financing for priority imports in agriculture, transport and industry (operational input). The initial sectoral contributions, based on very general estimates of immediate needs, can be adjusted to proven demand during implementation. They will, in principle, be granted to public and private sectors equally.

Tanzania

Sectoral import programme

5th and 6th EDF

Grant: ECU 24 500 000

The Tanzanian Government's aim in launching its economic recovery programme in 1986 was to boost production in the key sectors and increase its foreign exchange earnings. The programme was well received by the funders and the results have been encouraging so far. However, further expansion is hampered by the deficiencies of the transport system and industry needs more support if the upward trend is to be maintained.

This is why a programme of rapid disbursements has been decided on to finance:

i) imports of raw materials and spare parts for profitable industrial firms in agriculture, transport and the production of basic consumer goods;

ii) trucks, spare parts and other necessities in the transport sector.

Niger

Sectoral import programme

5th and 6th EDF

Grant: ECU 14 000 000

After the uranium boom of the 70s, Niger's economy is now in recession, which began suddenly in 1981 and was made worse by the drought of 1984. In 1982, the Government took energetic measures to right the financial imbalance at home and abroad, but all the analyses suggest that the economy cannot be improved without a slight decline in the external situation, and, therefore, without any extra external financing. This is the background against which Niger is presenting its import programme based on the social sectors and health and education especially.

The general idea is to protect and strengthen the two key sectors of Niger's economic and social development—health and education—by providing equipment and durable input or using counterpart funds to boost the local and production distribution of goods and services in this sector.

Nigeria

Training and research programme

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 30 000 000

This training and research pro-

gramme (TARP) should provide further support for the Government's drive to rationalise education, research and training in what are considered to be priority fields and improve the quality and standards of the institutions.

The priority fields in this programme are agricultural and rural development (popularisation of the results of research for farmers), assistance with developing a "culture of maintenance" (study of maintenance and in-service training requirements), environmental protection and planning in the energy sector (a unit responsible for the environment, coastal research and the analysis of energy requirements) and public service staff management (assistance for three major staff training institutions).

Anti-desertification and environmental protection programme

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 5 000 000

Loan: ECU 25 600 000

The Government of Nigeria sees agriculture as preponderant in the country's development. It stresses smallholders and the creation of the sort of agriculture which includes a wide range of products and is based on integrated rural development. The aim is to raise the standard of living and improve the quality of life of the rural populations and ensure proper food supplies and enough agricultural output to meet domestic demand by boosting production. The north, which is arid, has particular difficulties to cope with, and the low incomes there are primarily due to drought and desertification.

The programme, is mainly geared to the north east of Sokoto State, covers an area of 17 500 km² of Sudanese-type vegetation. Traditional farming, typically, involves mixed, rainfed crops (local varieties) and rudimentary hand methods, inadequate grass removal and low-density planting. The poor, sandy soil is made worse by the failure to use fertiliser and average yields are very low. Herding, essentially using transhumance methods, is a major economic activity in northern Sokoto.

The programme hinges on a dynamic combination of environmental protection and conservation and redevelopment of the environment through farming, herding and forestry. This will be achieved with the help of

mass information campaigns and encouragement based on local initiative and the traditional production systems already in existence.

Angola

Rehabilitation of the Boavida Hospital in Luanda

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 19 500 000

The Angolan Government is currently running a health sector renovation and reorganisation plan in connection with the general programme of economic reform. The main hospital in Luanda, the Americo Boavida, is central to the Government's plans and rehabilitation of it is also one of the ways the national indicative programme sees of improving the health conditions of the people in the capital.

The idea is to entirely rehabilitate the infrastructure, installations and technical equipment of the hospital, reorganise the ground plan and the services (21 000 m² devoted to medical activity) and return to a capacity of 8 000 beds, via supplies and technical assistance.

New Caledonia

Construction of a training centre at Poindimié

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 165 000

This project is part of the 6th EDF training programme requested by New Caledonia.

It involves building and fitting out a branch at Poindimié where courses and seminars can be run for economic concerns on the island's east coast.

Papua New Guinea

Vallala-Rigo road

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 1 700 000

Loan: ECU 5 500 000

The main idea here is to improve access to the rural areas south east of Port Moresby, the capital. The local rural population will thus be able to go to the commercial centres in the capital and incur fewer overheads in selling their agricultural produce there.

The programme includes rebuilding and surfacing the (26.3 km) Vallala-

Rigo stretch of the Magi road between Port Moresby and the eastern part of the central province.

Brown River-Verlamuri road

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 3 300 000

Loan: ECU 8 500 000

The main purpose of this project is to improve access to the rural areas north of Port Moresby, the capital, thereby enabling local rural populations to go to the commercial centres of the capital and sell their produce and livestock with fewer overheads.

It involves rebuilding and waterproofing the Brown River-Verlamuri (28 km) stretch of the Hiritano Highway which links the region north-north west of Port Moresby with the Gulf and Centre Provinces.

Mauritius

Development of arts and crafts on Mauritius

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 1 900 000

In accordance with the policy of the Mauritian Government and the indicative programme, this programme, worth ECU 1.9 million, is aimed at organising and developing arts and crafts on the island so as to turn it into a proper productive, profitable sector of the economy.

The Community-financed craft promotion schemes will involve pilot workshops, training, production and marketing.

Diversification of the productive sectors

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 4 000 000

Loan: ECU 4 000 000

This is to back up the Mauritian drive to diversify agriculture so as to bring about lasting improvements in the employment situation, improve the country's food security and promote profitable new export crops.

Three areas are to be covered, as follows:

- (a) Improvements to food security:
- development of local production to cut coconut and copra imports;
 - production and conservation of seed to replace imported seed;

— storage and marketing scheme to meet maize and potato requirements.

(b) Export crop promotion:

- *in vitro* tissue propagation laboratory;
- packaging centres for agricultural exports.

(c) Back-up schemes:

- credit to encourage smallholders and farm cooperatives to produce;
- training for managers and smallholders.

Madagascar

Programme to import petroleum products

5th and 6th EDF

Grant: ECU 15 000 000

This involves financing a programme to import petroleum products to Madagascar. It is necessary because of a foreign exchange shortage and debt servicing which is out of proportion to the country's export revenue.

In spite of a series of economic policy reforms, GNP has not so far grown any faster than the population, so there is a continuous decline in *per capita* income (an estimated \$ 265 in 1986).

The Government has brought in a structural adjustment policy which includes drastic rationalisation and recovery measures, particularly in monetary and financial affairs.

This programme is part of a coordinated operation whereby funders are backing up the structural adjustment policy. It complements other schemes in progress or on the drawing board both in this sector and other sectors downstream of the energy sector.

Health and housing

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 5 500 000

The idea here is to provide support for the Government's policy of assistance with health and housing. The scheme involves providing the urban population with basic medicines by generating local production through a sectoral import programme (commodities) and financing the construction (work and supervision) of a first batch of prepared plots on which simple houses can then be built with low-interest loans in the towns of Antananarivo, Mahajunga and Toamasina.

Kenya

Development of ASAL livestock

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 9 000 000

The main aim of the programme is to bring about lasting improvements in the production and marketing of livestock from the arid and semi-arid lands (ASAL) of Kenya. Particular emphasis will go on grazing land. The overall strategy is to improve the present institutional framework and physical infrastructure so as to enable individuals and groups of producers and merchants to improve their productivity and play a bigger part in the economic development of the nation. An attempt is being made to involve the socio-economic environment actively and to concentrate on schemes which have been successful in the past. The programme will be confined to geographical coverage and the relevant technical assistance and management will be provided.

Caribbean (regional)

University of the West Indies

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 6 200 000

The purpose of the scheme is to ensure that the region's human and natural resources are better utilised. It has been designed to enhance the permanent cooperation between the University of the West Indies and the European Community and it covers agricultural training, research into energy and the other natural resources of the region and the home study course programme.

The main idea is to provide buildings, furniture, equipment and materials, as well as technical assistance and training.

It will be run mainly on three campuses—Mona on Jamaica, St Augustine on Trinidad and Cave Hill on Barbados.

Solomon Islands

Rural fisheries

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 500 000

The idea here is to develop small artisanal fishing concerns in five selected rural areas in the islands with a view to increasing marketed production and cash income.

The opportunity for paid employment in these areas is very limited and coastal fishing, particularly of pelagic species, is under-developed.

Guinea Bissau**General import programme**

5th and 6th EDF

Grant: ECU 6 000 000

This country is one of those eligible for the Community's special programme for certain highly indebted, low-income countries of sub-Saharan Africa which the Council adopted on 14 December 1987.

This is because of its low *per capita* GNP, its high rate of debt servicing and its adoption of economic rationalisation measures as part of a structural adjustment programme negotiated with the IMF and the World Bank in 1987.

The Community contribution will be organised by the balance of payments management unit at the National Bank. The funds, for which a special foreign exchange account will be opened by the National Bank in a European bank, will be made available to all the economic operators of Guinea Bissau in possession of Ministry of Trade import licences.

Guinea**General import programme**

5th and 6th EDF

Grant: ECU 12 500 000

In 1985, after a quarter century of economic decline, Guinea embarked upon a courageous and ambitious programme of economic and financial reform. In spite of success in a number of fields, structural adjustment, a long-winded process, calls for further efforts and more extensive reform.

This is why Guinea is now running phase two of its economic recovery programme, with three basic aims:

- consolidation of the liberal economic option;
- better economic management (thanks, in particular, to administrative reform) and improved public finances;
- a change in the growth potential via the appropriate sectoral investments and the restoration of basic infrastructure.

The European Community will back up the Government's running of phase two of the economic recovery programme by granting financial aid to finance a general import programme

to help operators in both public and private sectors.

Ghana**Sectoral import programme**

5th and 6th EDF

Grant: ECU 20 500 000

After several years of economic decline brought about by such things as poor economic management, the oil crisis and the drought, Ghana launched a programme of economic recovery in 1983. This was followed by a structural adjustment programme in 1985. Both programmes had the backing of the IMF, the World Bank, the Community and several of the Member States, as well as of other bilateral donors, including Japan, Canada, Switzerland and the USA.

They have resulted in a production increase and more exports over the past few years. However, the short-term servicing of the external debt has also got much worse, being expected to absorb more than half the country's export revenue in 1988-90. This is why aid worth ECU 11 500 000 from the special community programme for certain highly indebted, low-income countries of Sub-Saharan Africa has been granted, together with an ECU 9 000 000 contribution from the Lomé III national indicative programme.

This aid, in the form of a grant totalling ECU 20 500 000, is to finance a sectoral import programme, with priority on the input needed in the rural and social sectors (to be implemented in 1989).

Zaire**Kinshasa economic hinterland programme**

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 25 000 000 000

The Lomé III national indicative programme adopted by the Republic of Zaire and the Commission of the European Communities has two focal areas for EEC intervention over the 1986-90 period. One of them is the economic hinterland of Kinshasa, the capital, which, with its 3.5 million inhabitants, has problems with its food and firewood supplies.

The main point of this programme is to promote agricultural production in the region, thereby ensuring better food supplies for Kinshasa.

ACPs and OCTs in the Pacific and Caribbean**Trade promotion**

6th EDF

Grant: ECU 4 320 000

This is a technical and financial assistance scheme, as part of trade cooperation, to help the ACPs and OCTs take part in international trade fairs and improve the commercial success of their exports. ○

SYSMIN**Guinea: Programme to rehabilitate the alumina plant at Friguia. ECU 35 000 000. Sixth EDF**

One of the priorities of the policy of economic recovery and encouragement for the nation's industrial sector is the rehabilitation of the Friguia mixed company, the first alumina plant to open in Africa (in 1960) and a cornerstone of the mining sector which accounts for almost all the country's export earnings.

Alongside the company recovery plan and the drafting of an agreement on pricing and financial reorganisation between the State and the private (majority) shareholders, an investment programme aimed at restoring productive capacity and maintaining the industrial facilities, was finalised during the last quarter of 1987.

The national authorities hoped to obtain the financing they needed for this on the very best terms and therefore applied to the Commission for Sysmin assistance in November 1987.

The credit now being discussed is ECU 35 million. It is intended, first of all, to cover the bulk of the investments in the plant which have to be made to ensure that the undertaking is a profitable one. The complement is to come from the EIB (ECU 13 million-worth of risk capital). The idea is also to facilitate the transfer of a fraction of the services Friguia currently provides (and which generate extra running expenses but are not directly related to alumina production) to the public and the private sector. This covers such things as staff transport, upkeep of the mining estate, health (hospital) treatment, food supplies and water and electricity supplies to the town of Fria.

Guyana: Recovery of the bauxite industry.

Fifth EDF.

ECU 31 500 000

Guyana has had Sysmin assistance for its bauxite industry (1984) and an ECU 3 million advance to buy equipment and spare parts. Since 1984, a number of steps have been taken in the mining sector to improve its operational and financial viability, but there are still many problems to solve, particularly the deterioration of the installations. More recently, the Government has concluded an agreement on an economic adaptation programme with the IMF and the World Bank and an essential part of this is the recovery of the bauxite industry — which brings in 40% of the nation's export earnings. The proposed Sysmin scheme, which is intended to help the Government run its bauxite recovery programme, involves supplying equipment, spare parts and materials for the Guyana Mining Enterprise (Guymine) to improve extraction, processing, transport and quality control and the workshops and medical facilities. Technical assistance will also be provided with running the project and improving marketing and financial control. The bauxite programme also includes developing new mines to replace two almost depleted deposits.

EIB

The European Investment Bank has just granted the following loans.

The Netherlands Antilles: ECU 3.1 million.

The European Investment Bank announces a loan of ECU 3.1 million for the improvement and extension of the international telecommunications services of the Netherlands Antilles. The borrower is the Ministry of Transport and Communications of the Central Government of the Netherlands Antilles which on-lends to Landsradio Telecommunication Administration, the central government department responsible for all long distance telephone services.

The loan is for 10 years at 5% after deduction of an interest rate subsidy drawn from European Development Fund resources. The total project cost is estimated at ECU 7.8 million.

The project elements financed by the EIB are new international digital telephone exchanges on Curaçao and St. Maarten and new buildings to house the new international exchanges. The loan will help to support the development of international business and tourism with modernised and efficient telecommunications facilities.

The funds have been advanced under the Decision taken in tandem with the Third Lomé Convention to provide assistance to Overseas Countries and Territories enjoying special ties with certain EEC Member States.

Guinea: ECU 13 million

The proceeds of the loan, for 15 years at 2%, will be on-lent to Friguia, a semi-public company in which the Government holds a 49% interest, the remainder being owned by European and North American aluminium producers. Aluminium Pechiney of France manages Friguia and provides it with technical assistance. The funds will be used to improve the productivity of existing installations.

Kenya: ECU 25 million

The loan to the Republic of Kenya, has been granted under the provisions of the Third Lomé Convention, for 18 years at 5%, after allowing for an interest rate subsidy from the European Development Fund.

The foreign exchange proceeds of the loan will be made available to industrial enterprises through the commercial banking system and priority will be given to companies which have previously received EIB financing; this should improve their capacity for importing essential raw materials, spare parts and capital goods and put them in a better position to implement rehabilitation and modernisation investments and to adjust their activities to the changing economic environment, both in the local and the export markets.

Mali: ECU 9.5 million

The (EIB) is advancing ECU 9.5 million for the construction of a cotton ginning plant in Mali, near Koumantou, 200 km southeast of Bamako, and the modernisation of nine existing plants.

The funds are in the form of a conditional loan to the Republic of Mali, for 15 years at 2%, from risk capital resources; the proceeds will be on-lent to Compagnie Malienne pour le Développement du Textile (CMDT), a semi-public company set up in 1974 which operates 12 cotton ginneries in the country.

Mauritius: ECU 3 million

The European Investment Bank is lending ECU 3 million for the construction of a flour mill in Mauritius. The project comprises the installation of machinery, silos with a total capacity of 20 000 tonnes, four packaging lines, office space, and facilities for offloading and conveying grain 150 metres from the harbour to the mill site.

The loan is being provided for 13 years at 5%, allowing for an interest subsidy drawn from European Development Fund resources.

The funds are granted to the Development Bank of Mauritius (DBM) to on-lent to "Les Moulins de la Concorde" (MCL), a company set up in 1987 for this operation.

Tanzania: ECU 3.5 million

The European investment Bank is lending ECU 3.5 million for the extension of the power grid in Tanzania to facilitate the supply of electricity to agro-industry. The funds from risk capital resources, are advanced for 20 years at 2% to the Tanzania Electric Supply Company (Tanesco).

Western Samoa: ECU 1.6 million

The EIB is advancing ECU 1.6 million, under Lomé III, to support small and medium-scale enterprises in the industrial, agro-industrial, transportation and tourism sectors in Western Samoa.

The funds, drawn from risk capital resources, are in the form of: — a conditional loan of ECU 800 000 to Western Samoa to finance half of an increase in the capital of the Development Bank of Western Samoa (DBWS), the balance being financed from the Government budget; and — a global loan of ECU 800 000 to DBWS for on-lending to small and medium-size enterprises. ○

ACP Embassies

Five new Ambassadors have just presented their credentials to the Presidents of the Council and the Commission of the European Communities. They are from Angola, the CAR, Fiji, Kenya and Zaïre.

Angola

Emilio José Carvalho, Angola's 44-year old Ambassador, is an agronomist by training and spent many years (1979-87) as Minister of Fisheries. Before that, during the war of liberation, Carvalho ran the Angolan Institute of Education in Congo, moving on to become Head of External Relations in the MPLA, the ruling party, and then Inspector-General and later Deputy Minister in the Department of Industry and Energy.



CAR

The CAR's new Ambassador to Brussels, José Maria Pehoua, is an agricultural engineer. His has unusually broad experience of the public sector, the private sector and the international civil service, having worked



in the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock and the Department of Rural Development, as Head of Shell in the CAR and in the UN Economic Commission for Africa, in particular as the Head of the African Trade Centre. He embarked on a diplomatic career in 1981 and was appointed Ambassador to Japan and the Republic of Korea, a posting he left to go to Brussels. The 51-year old Ambassador is married and has five children.

Fiji

Kalipate Tavola takes over from Poseci Bune as Fiji's Ambassador to Brussels. Mr Tavola, a 42-year old father of three, is an economist who specialises in agriculture and the posts of responsibility he has held indeed include that of Head of the Department of Agriculture. Since 1984, he has been in London as representative of the Fiji Sugar Marketing Company and trade adviser to the Fiji High Commission in the UK.



Kenya

The new Kenyan Ambassador, 42-year old Francis Kirimi Muthura, a married man with three children, is no



stranger to Brussels, having already been First Secretary at the Embassy there. Mr Muthura, who qualified in economics and political science, began his diplomatic career in 1973 and was until recently Adviser to Kenya's High Commission in London.

Zaïre

Kabala Kiseke Seka, Zaïre's latest Ambassador to Brussels, is a civil administrator. He joined the diplomatic corps in 1965 and has since been Ambassador to Portugal (1978) and Rwanda (1980), Vice-President of the Economic Commission of Central African States and Foreign Secretary. Mr Kabala, who is 48, is married and has five children. ◊



Fisheries

EEC-Mauritius fisheries agreement

The EEC and Mauritius have just concluded a fisheries agreement. It was initialled in Port Louis on 23 November.

It lasts three years and offers fishing possibilities to 40 tuna vessels and a limited number of boats manned by anglers from Reunion, who traditionally fish these waters.

An experimental shellfish campaign, costing ECU 150 000 in all, is also to be run during the first 18 months of the agreement and the results to be assessed by both parties.

The Community will be paying Mauritius financial compensation (ECU 400 000 p.a.) for the fishing possibilities and it will be contributing

ECU 480 000 to a scientific programme and various studies in addition.

With the conclusion of this latest agreement, the Community now has bilateral fisheries relations in the Indian Ocean with Comoros, Madagascar, Mozambique, Mauritius and Seychelles. ○

SUDAN

Special Community effort for flood victims

Only 3 months after the extreme storms and consequent flooding affecting Sudan, which caused so much damage to its social and economic infrastructure, the public of our countries tends to forget this catastrophe because the period of flood and emergency aid to victims directly affected has ended and the attention of the press is diminishing. However, it is in the period following the floods and rains, when the waters are receding, that the real damage can be assessed and the magnitude of longer term aid to the flood victims can be estimated. In light of this, the Community, following its emergency aid actions in August and September, totalling ECU 3.5 million, which enabled ten flights to deliver tents, blankets, medicines, food and medical assistance teams (the first ones arriving within one week!) will now take some decisions for long term assistance to the flood victims, enabling them to reconstruct the economic base on which their livelihood depends. These actions were adopted by the Member States in the European Development Fund Committee. These actions were presented at the Special Donors' Meeting for Sudan, organised by the World Bank in Paris on 29 November.

The first programme is the Post-Flood Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Programme of ECU 15 million, which consists of:

— an agricultural component of ECU 7.3 million, comprising supply of spare parts for the repair of small scale irrigation pumps damaged by the flood, supply of new irrigation pumps as replacement of lost or destroyed pumps and spare parts for trucks which are essential for transport to and from the flood-affected areas in remote parts of Northern Sudan; in this region small scale farmers were

the most severely hit by the August floods and rains, which destroyed many of their houses and most of their irrigation infrastructure (pumps and irrigation channels);

— a transport component of ECU 7.7 million comprising reconstruction of the major road bridge at Geneina in Darfur Province in Western Sudan and earth moving equipment, materials and motor trolleys to the Sudan Railways Corporation for permanent repair and strengthening of railway embankments damaged by the floods and the reconstruction of a damaged railway bridge.

The second programme which was approved is the Sudan Railways Support Programme of ECU 19 millions, of which an important part (ECU 11.5 million) consists of the reconstruction of five major bridges and 18 smaller bridges and drainage structures on the Western railway line from Kosti to Babanousa, aimed at making this railway line more reliable during the rainy seasons, during which until now, due to insufficient drainage, flood damage has caused railway traffic to be disrupted each year.

Together with other actions related to either flood victim support (5 000 tonnes of food aid to small scale farmers who lost their food reserves, fertiliser inputs for these farmers) or to the repair of economic infrastructure damage caused by the floods (relaying of telephone cables for instance) the EEC-financed aid related to the floods amounts to more than ECU 40 million. ○

GENERAL INFORMATION

International AIDS day

1 December was anti-AIDS day all over the world. The WHO headed the organisation of the day, which revolved around talking about AIDS, being involved in international action and telling others what you do about preventing AIDS.

The idea was to tell everyone that the AIDS virus can be stopped, that responsible behaviour can be a protection against this terrible disease and that understanding and compassion must be shown to those who are affected by or infected with the virus.

The Secretary-General of the WHO issued the following message for AIDS day.

“The world AIDS campaign day, on 1 December, is intended to put public opinion in the picture and teach it about this malady which is claiming so many victims the world over. We all have to learn what to do to stop this pandemic disease and help those affected by it.

The UN system, whose action in this field is being organised by the WHO, is in the throes of an anti-AIDS campaign. But the virus is still spreading. There is a new case every minute. So we have to double our efforts to find vaccines and other ways of preventing transmission of the disease and, let us hope, to cure those already afflicted.

For the time being, education and information are our only means of defence against AIDS and understanding and compassion our only hope of reaching our goal. Confidence, frankness and cooperation are essential in any public health campaign. They, in the last analysis, are the difference between a world where we vanquish AIDS and a world where we do not. Respect for the human rights and dignity of those who have AIDS or who are HIV positive is vital to our success.

The campaign we are waging is against AIDS and not AIDS sufferers. Let us hold a willing hand out to them and to all those who are fighting with them. Let us pull together and win the fight.” ○

VISIT

Moudud Ahmed, Prime Minister of Bangladesh, visits the Commission

Bangladesh's Prime Minister, Moudud Ahmed, visited the Commission on 27 October 1988, when he talked with President Jacques Delors and Vice-President Lorenzo Natali.

They discussed both the situation in Bangladesh, which had recently been hit by natural disasters—drought, followed by flooding—and bilateral relations between the country and the Community, one of its main aid sources, which has provided Bangladesh with aid totalling ECU 170 mil-

lion, including almost 600 000 t of cereals, since September 1987.

But the main reason for the Prime Minister's visit to Europe was to attend the Bangladesh Days run in collaboration with the Commission of the European Communities. The idea of this event, held in Brussels on 27 and 28 October and London on 31 October and 1 November, was to present Bangladesh's industrial projects to potential investors.

Moudud Ahmed, who is both Prime Minister and Minister for Industry, himself presented some 45 industrial projects—selected by means of a computer data base created with financial help from the Commission—to European economic operators. ○

COFFEE

Directives for negotiations on a new international agreement

The forthcoming meetings of the international Coffee Council will be a time for the Community and the Member States to say what they think about starting negotiations to decide on the future of the international Agreement. This will be done in the light of the work of the preparatory committee at negotiations arranged for this purpose in the International Coffee Organisation (ICO).

The present agreement, which took effect on 1 October 1983, expires on 30 September 1989.

The dominant position of the European Community and its Member States in the group of consumers, which has been substantially reinforced in recent years, gives them considerable political responsibility. The share of the Community (12), which was 35% of the total imports of the countries in the Agreement in 1965-66, had gone up to 47.5% by 1987-88.

In view of the importance of Europe's coffee industry and trade, and of the product's weight in the economies of a large number of African, Latin American, Asian and Pacific producers (with whom privileged relations have developed and expanded over the past few years), the Community and the Member States have always been involved in the International Coffee Agreements — the prime aim of which is to strike a balance

between production and consumption and to stabilise prices so they are fair to the consumer and remunerative to the producer.

Negotiations for another International Agreement will be run alongside the negotiations for the next ACP-EEC Convention. The ACPs are in an important position in the coffee produc-

ing group, as 27 of the 50 producer countries which belong to the Agreement are ACPs, with a 28% share of world output.

So the Commission has just proposed negotiating directives of the future International Coffee Agreement, in the light of a draft decision from the Council. ○

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

The Rhodes Summit and the prospect of the large market

The 40th session of the meeting of the Heads of State and Government of the Community took place last December in Rhodes under the presidency of the Greek Prime Minister Andreas Papandreou.

The European Council examined the projects for the future development of the European Community and its place in the world on the basis of the experience acquired to date in the implementation of the Single European Act. Particular attention was given to the progress made in establishing the single market and developing accompanying policies to strengthen economic and social cohesion, bearing in mind at the same time the beneficial changes which have taken place in the world and especially in East-West relations.

Implementation of the Single Act: stocktaking

Establishment of the large market

The European Council took note of the report submitted by the Commission. The European Council notes with satisfaction that at the half-way stage towards the deadline of December 1992 half of the legislative programme necessary for the establishment of the large market is already nearly complete.

This confirms, if such confirmation were necessary, the irreversible nature of the movement towards a Europe without internal frontiers and bears witness to the will of the Community bodies to complete the task by the deadline set. The European Council notes that the process of completing the internal market has already created a new dynamism in the European economy by contributing to economic adjustment and increase in growth rates.



The Heads of State and Government of the EEC, their Foreign Affairs Ministers and the President of the Commission at the Rhodes Summit.

It would point out that the creation of the large market forms a whole and that maintenance of an overall approach is one of the conditions for success. It is therefore necessary to make progress in a balanced and co-ordinated fashion in all areas (free movement of goods, services and capital, free movement of persons) and to ensure that the appropriate harmonisation or approximation is carried out where necessary.

The pace of work must be stepped up in future, because if account is taken of the time needed to transpose Community law into national legislation the Council in fact has only two years in which to meet the 1992 objective.

Social dimension

The European Council considers that progress in implementing the provisions of the Single European Act on the completion of the internal market must be accompanied by progress in implementing its provisions on social policy, in particular Articles 118a and 118b, and by the strengthening of economic and social cohesion.

The Presidency drew the European Council's attention to the memorandum which it had circulated on this subject before the beginning of the Presidency.

Completion of the Single Market cannot be regarded as an end in itself; it pursues a much wider objective, namely to ensure the maximum well-being of all, in line with the tradition of social progress which is part of Europe's history.

This tradition of social progress should be a guarantee that all citizens, whatever their occupation, will have effective access to the direct benefits expected from the Single Market as a factor of economic growth, and as the most effective means of combating unemployment. ○

COUNCIL

EEC Development Ministers examine food situation in Africa

The Council of development ministers of the EEC met in November in Brussels under the Chairmanship of Theodoros Pangalos the Greek deputy

minister for Foreign Affairs. The Council discussed food security policy in sub-Saharan Africa.

It noted that, despite the efforts made, the ability of a considerable number of sub-Saharan African countries to feed their populations adequately has diminished in recent decades. It consequently stresses that establishing food security must remain a priority both for the developing countries and in the cooperation policies of the Community and its Member States.

Alongside the cooperation provided for by the Lomé Convention, the Community has a number of aid instruments which can also help to achieve the desired aim. The recent reform of Community food aid policy was intended to help rather than hamper efforts to establish food security. Such efforts do not necessarily include self-sufficiency but must be part of a consistent long term development policy. By allowing counterpart funds to be set up, the sale of food aid products at prices which do not compete with local produce and the restriction of such aid to compensating shortfalls in food crops are an illustration of this resolve to promote the development of the country being assisted. Similarly, the funding of food aid replacement measures and triangular operations has been eased. Very recently, moreover, the Community introduced rules making it possible to finance storage programmes and early-warning systems and to co-finance purchases of food products or seeds with NGOs.

Efforts in this area should not be confined to cereals; the contribution livestock farming, fisheries and traditional agricultural products make to food security must also be remembered.

Particular attention should also be paid to scientific and technical research tailored to the climate, the environment and African farming methods with a view, inter alia, to promoting drought-resistant rain crops and to developing cost-effective viable small-scale irrigation schemes.

The Council considers that particular attention should be paid to the socio-economic situation of women, given the part they play in the agricultural sector.

It also stresses the need, in accordance with its Resolution of November 1987, to strengthen the environ-

mental dimension in food security support policy if lasting development is to be ensured.

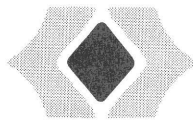
Following an examination of the problems posed by implementation of a strategy or a programme to strengthen food security, the Council thinks that any strategy or programme requires measures in the areas of food crop production, food markets and purchasing power.

Informal meeting of Directors General for Development

An Informal meeting of Directors General for Development was held in Brussels in 9 November 1988, to discuss a range of issues including the evaluation of the implementation of the programming concept; the report on Special Community programme to aid certain highly indebted low-income countries in sub-Saharan Africa; food security, the social dimensions of adjustment and regional cooperation.

Talking about programming the Commission said that the experience gained so far with the implementation of multicomponent programmes had been extremely favourable. The significant amount of aid that these programmes represented (average ECU 30-40 million) meant that the Commission had major leverage in the dialogue with each country to ensure that the necessary reforms were carried out. Furthermore, the drawing up and implementation of the programmes had necessitated an improved coordination among the main ministries concerned in local states and with the Commission Delegation. Programmes of this nature also facilitate coordinations with other donors such as Member States and the World Bank.

It was the feeling of Delegations that the move to multicomponent programmes had been very beneficial for the effectiveness of Community aid and as such should feature in the New Convention. It was desirable that regular evaluation should be undertaken so that the necessary lessons could be drawn. Delegations agreed that it was important that in the implementation of such programmes there should be the greatest possible coordination between donors so as to ensure that conflicting macroeconomic requirements were not being imposed on particular countries. ○



INDUSTRIAL OPPORTUNITIES

PUBLISHED EVERY TWO MONTHS

No. 65 : JANUARY-FEBRUARY 1989

"CDI IS ON THE RIGHT TRACK"

— SAY ITS EUROPEAN PARTNERS

A meeting in Brussels, on October 20, between CDI and its European partner organizations, confirmed the value of CDI's catalytic role in stimulating industrial cooperation between ACP and EEC firms. The meeting concluded that CDI is on the right track and should further develop its network of partner organizations and contacts in Europe.

The meeting brought together representatives from national development cooperation ministries, development finance corporations, trade promotion agencies and regional bodies — all from EEC member States. Representatives of the European Commission and members of CDI's Joint Governing Board also attended.

Under examination was the framework, role and impact, of agreements between CDI and its partner organizations in EEC countries.

involved in ACP industrial promotion.

"There is clear evidence of good cooperation between CDI and both national and regional organizations in Europe; and there is clearly a willingness among the European development finance corporations to collaborate in more depth with CDI."

EXCHANGE OF EXPERIENCE

For the 80 participants, it was a unique opportunity to present and discuss for the first time their own approaches to cooperating with CDI and to learn from the experience of others.

Mrs Felisbela Godinho of Portugal's foreign trade institute, ICEP, explained the approach of her organization: "We distribute information on the projects which CDI addresses to us, and then follow up with person-to-person contact."

"We've tried to encourage Portuguese companies to strengthen their relationships with ACP countries and to

his region was at the top of Europe's league-table, in terms of the number of cooperation projects it had been involved in with CDI.



Mr Philippe Soubestre of the European Commission: "Clear evidence of good cooperation between CDI and both national and regional organizations in Europe."

In West Germany, as in Portugal, explained Mr Kurt Paulussen from the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation, there is a full-time official looking after relations with CDI. Furthermore, the objectives of Germany's Business Cooperation Programmes, which aim at putting together German and ACP ventures, are complementary to CDI's objectives.

Mr Paulussen did voice a word of caution, however, about future trends, saying that with 1992 (the single European market) on the horizon, many smaller German firms are turning their attention towards Europe to the detriment of ACP countries.

Mr Simon Ray of the UK's Overseas Development Administration (ODA) explained that UK support for the private sector in ACP countries is channeled through the Commonwealth Development Corporation with which CDI has already established good links.

Mr Ray stressed the need for a more coordinated approach from Europe towards helping the private sector in ACP countries, but emphasized that it is up to the ACP countries to create the right economic climate to ensure that investment there is successful.

(Continued on page 2)



Participants at the meeting of CDI's European partner organizations.

WILLINGNESS TO COOPERATE

Mr Philippe Soubestre, a Director in the European Commission's Directorate-General for Development Cooperation, stressed the importance of private enterprise to the industrial development of ACP countries.

He concluded that the meeting had come at the right time in view of the need to coordinate the work of the multilateral and bilateral institutions in-

come forward with true, viable proposals of their own." Some 60 companies

... the importance of private enterprise to industrial development...

have submitted proposals to CDI so far and a further 60 are in preparation, she added.

Mr Philippe Vaes of Belgium's Walloon Region, highlighted the fact that

(Continued from page 1)

Mr. Jean Ménéchal from the French Ministry of Cooperation stressed that because of their difficult economic environment, many ACP industries, whether public or private, need to be helped, especially with training costs and finance.

RESULTS AND CONSTRAINTS

Mr Jens Mosgard, CDI's Deputy Director, outlined the results of CDI-sponsored industrial cooperation.

On average, over the past three years, 20-25 new companies per year started production with CDI's assistance. In each year some 60 existing operations improved their performances through training or rehabilitation assistance.

There has been a total of more than 500 interventions every year, he explained, covering a wide range of assistance for actions such as feasibility studies, hiring of consultants, travel subsidies, marketing assistance, etc.

CDI's assistance has usually helped small industries to mature, to start up, or to improve themselves; and small production units, he said, can act as nuclei for further development.

DIRECT CONTACT NEEDED

"We have found that a wide unselective diffusion of information on

CDI's projects has very little effect on generating production proposals from EEC industrialists. The person-to-person approach has proved far more successful, either through direct contact by CDI, or by consultants recruited to search for suitable industrialists," Mr Mosgard said.

"In doing this, we have great need for supplementary manpower for going out to talk directly to EEC industrialists. We therefore need to have an extended arm in each EEC country."

COOPERATION AGREEMENTS

In almost all European countries CDI has some kind of agreement for cooperation, usually with government institutions and development finance corporations, Mr Mosgard explained.

"We therefore need to have an extended arm in each EEC country."

The most important factor in a cooperation agreement, he stressed, are the resources that the partner organization can bring to creating contacts between CDI and EEC industrialists.

Through recent agreements with Portugal and Germany, CDI now has a senior expert at its disposal, full-time, in these countries. The expert in each case is based in a national institution.



CDI Deputy Director, Mr Jens Mosgard: "It is absolutely vital that investors engaging in joint ventures receive as much support as possible..."

Some cooperation agreements involve co-financing arrangements. These are usually designed so that European partner organizations match CDI's contributions, in support of joint ventures or technical assistance activities.

The prime advantage of these funding agreements is probably the fact that they lead the European partner organizations to set aside budgets which they feel obliged to utilize.

This spurs them into more efficiently locating suitable industrialists in their own countries, for ACP projects.

CDI Director, Dr. Isaac Akinrele, stressed that these budgets have never been integrated with CDI's own budget. They are administered directly by partner organizations, in co-financing actions with CDI.

Dr. Akinrele added that these budgets enable CDI (with its staff strength of only 40 including support personnel) to more effectively service 66 ACP and 12 EEC States.

Given the financial constraints of many ACP countries, Dr. Akinrele said that co-financing actions with European partner organizations tend to concentrate on export-oriented industrial projects. European firms' contributions to such projects can take the forms of:

- equity capital (at least 20% of total equity);
- a percentage of licence, management or know-how fees;
- equipment or hardware (with performance guarantees);
- buy-back or other marketing arrangements.

SUPPORTIVE FINANCING

Supporting finance for CDI projects is now becoming available from the European Development Fund (EDF) and also from the Italian Government (which is prepared to make available Ecu 3 million). Mr. Gherardo La Francesca from the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Directorate for Cooperation) mentioned that the Italian fund

CDI ON FILM

First screened at the meeting of CDI's European partner organizations in Brussels, on October 20, was a new 25 minute video film on the work of CDI.



The film shows how CDI operates, notably by showing some of the projects it has supported. It carries interviews with promoters, investors, and representatives of institutions which cooperate with CDI. Filming was undertaken in some 17 countries.

The film will be distributed to CDI

antennae in ACP countries, to European partner organizations, broadcasting organizations and industrial promotion agencies.

It will to some extent substitute for presentations by CDI staff and provide useful support for CDI's antennae and partner organizations in their promotional work.

The film was highly praised at its first showing for its effectiveness in illustrating CDI's work.

It will help spread awareness of CDI's work and will, it is hoped, encourage more enterprises in both European and ACP countries to explore the possibilities of industrial cooperation and investment with the help of CDI.

The film has been produced in both French and English and copies can be supplied in most formats (VHS, U-MATIC, BVU, NTSC, PAL, SECAM etc.).

CDI staff provided the project information on which the film was based. It is in effect a co-production by CDI and the Belgian firm "Action Video". It was written and directed by CDI's public relations executive Diarmuid Peavoy (a former broadcaster and journalist).

will be available under a new law for development cooperation (law 49) which covers technical assistance and the financing of equipment, as well as equity participation.

In six EEC countries there are Development Finance Corporations (DFCs) that participate in risk sharing by equity and loans.

Unfortunately the other six EEC countries are without such DFCs.

"Reinforcing both CDI's leverage and the direct support available to ACP industrial projects," said Deputy Director Jens Mosgard, "would not only benefit ACP industrial development – EEC industries could also benefit, by strengthening their presence in the expanding African market, or utilizing production possibilities in the Caribbean and the Pacific for penetrating North American or South Pacific markets."



Mrs Felisbela Godinho of ICEP in Portugal: "We distribute information on projects which CDI addresses to us, and then follow up with person-to-person contact."

"It is absolutely vital," concluded Mr Mosgard, "that investors engaging in joint ventures receive as much support as possible in the forms of equity and soft finance – otherwise it will be difficult to induce enough EEC industrialists to bring their equity capital to joint ventures in ACP countries."

The morning session of the meeting of October 20th was presided over by the Vice Chairman of CDI's Joint Governing Board, Mr. Wilhelm A. de Jonge. CDI Director, Dr. Isaac Akinrele, delivered the opening address.

KEY ISSUES FOR THE FUTURE

The meeting of CDI's partner organizations on October 20th included an open discussion which looked at some of the key questions concerning CDI's future operations.

Increased public support to ACP-EEC industrial ventures?

Participants generally agreed that, given the economic situation of the majority of ACP countries, there is clear justification for concessionary funding and grant assistance for ACP industrial ventures.

It was stressed however that public money should be used carefully and should not distort the market.

Promoters of projects must properly evaluate the risk involved in the projects they propose and should not rely too heavily on the support of public money.

And it is the responsibility of ACP countries to make their economies attractive to foreign investors.

How best to extend the work of CDI in EEC countries?

CDI put forward its view that in each EEC country there should be a partner organization with at least one full-time professional actively endeavouring to introduce CDI projects to industrial circles.

Both Portugal and Germany have an official with full-time responsibility for CDI work, while Belgium's Walloon Region has a team of professionals working in close contact with CDI staff to promote ACP projects.

The discussion gave backing to this approach and stressed that it was extremely difficult to coordinate from CDI headquarters in Brussels all the initiatives being undertaken at the national level in Europe.

It was suggested that CDI should ex-

pand its contacts with regional bodies even though they may have no budgets for the co-financing of interventions. This could strengthen CDI's penetration in the SMI sector of the European economies.

Most desirable forms of financial assistance?

The participants generally considered that it is desirable to have financial support for ACP industrial ventures in areas such as training, technical assistance, marketing programmes, etc.

CDI's policy aimed at supporting ACP private entrepreneurs was well received within this framework. Cooperation between both multilateral and bilateral institutions was regarded by the meeting as necessary.

Representatives of European Development Finance Corporations (DFCs) pointed out that their first priority goes to export-oriented projects which are capable of generating repayments in foreign currencies. It was also pointed out that the number of individual promoters and the number of good investment projects is in fact very limited.

In this context, the need for new financial instruments which could support European initiatives for economically marginal ACP projects was recognized.

Using EEC partner organization's local services in ACP countries?

There was general agreement that CDI can and should use the ACP correspondents of the European DFCs or other partner organizations, whenever available, in addition to its own antennae.

Many of these organizations have the same objectives as CDI and their actions could be highly complementary to the work of CDI, if suitably coordinated.

FROM THE MEETING BETWEEN CDI AND ITS EUROPEAN PARTNER ORGANIZATIONS, THE FOLLOWING CONCLUSIONS WERE DRAWN:

- Private operators should have a key position in the industrial development of ACP countries.
- CDI's policy of providing assistance directly to private entrepreneurs is fully appreciated by its partner organizations.
- The need for coordination between bilateral and multilateral institutions was stressed by many participants.
- CDI's work for private industrial development was considered essential since this is not duplicated by other international institutions.
- The need for an extended arm of CDI through national institutions in the Community was highlighted. It is important to multiply CDI's efforts, through cooperation agreements, to get every EEC country to offer equal opportunities to its industrialists.
- Soft support for joint ventures (e.g. through co-funding arrangements) has provided greatly increased CDI activity in specific EEC countries.
- Development Finance Corporations (DFCs) have reacted positively to a more liberal approach to investment financing e.g. some DFCs are moving towards the acceptance of a long-term commitment by an EEC partner, other than equity participation, as a sufficient pre-requisite for contributing to the financing of an ACP project.

NEWS IN BRIEF

NEW AGREEMENT

UNIDO AND CDI

CDI and UNIDO (the United Nations Industrial Development Organization) have objectives which are often complementary.

For a long time there has been close contact between the two organisations.

To put their collaboration on a more systematic footing, an agreement on a range of general areas of cooperation was signed on September 19th. As a result of the agreement, the Industrial Investment Division of UNIDO will step up cooperation with CDI in industrial promotion activities. The overriding aim of the accord is to avoid any duplication of effort and to gain maximum benefit from the resources of each organization.

NEED FOR COORDINATION

"The need for the general coordination of all activities aimed at promoting industrial development in ACP countries is clearly evidenced by the proliferation of institutions created by national, bilateral and multilateral funding agencies," said CDI Director, Dr Isaac Akinrele, at the signing ceremony.

"Whilst recognizing the desirability of collaboration between UNIDO and CDI, we can pragmatically advance the speed of implementation if the areas of cooperation are well defined," he said. "The terms of our cooperation agreement have been formulated and elaborated by mutual consent."

PRIORITY AREAS

At the signing ceremony, Dr Akinrele proposed the following priority areas for joint action by CDI and UNIDO.

Investment promotion

- coordination and harmonization of investors' and consultants' registers for the EEC;
- liaison between CDI antennae and UNIDO representatives in ACP States;
- collaboration in the preparation of sectoral investment fora (such as Africabat) in ACP countries.

Industrial potential surveys and project identification missions

- UNIDO to concentrate on macro-economic aspects with CDI focusing on the micro-economic world of SMLs;



- cooperation in the identification of project partners in ACP and EEC States;
- exchange of information on project portfolios.

Industrial policy consultations

- UNIDO's global consultations on industrial sector policies are of interest to CDI, particularly those based on the natural resources of ACP States;
- CDI will continue to organize meetings centred around ACP regional problems.

Training workshops and seminars

- CDI will continue financing group training workshops for industrial workers in specific sectors in ACP countries;
- UNIDO could integrate with CDI by organizing corresponding training programmes in Europe.

Industrial and technology fairs

- CDI will continue to sponsor the participation of ACP and EEC manufacturers in industrial exhibitions;
- UNIDO could complement this by financing the costs of stands and infrastructures.

Industrial technology transfer

- CDI's operation is generally concerned with assisting in the transfer of adapted (or appropriate) technology for SMLs in ACP States. UNIDO could become a resource institution for this.

The CDI-UNIDO accord should lead to common exploitation of the resources and efforts of both organizations. A concrete example of such cooperation was the sharing of costs for the attendance of ACP entrepreneurs interested in compressed earth blocks, at a seminar and an international exhibition in France.

NEW AGREEMENT

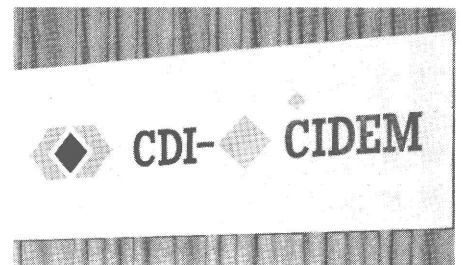
CATALAN REGION

A cooperation agreement has been signed between CDI and Spain's regional development organization for the Catalan region, CIDEM (Centre d'Informació i Desenvolupament Empresarial, Generalitat de Catalunya).

CIDEM has agreed to aid CDI in identifying industrialists in the Catalan region likely to be interested in participating in ACP projects through joint ventures or other types of industrial cooperation agreements.

In particular, CIDEM undertakes to assist in having proposals and literature from CDI publicized and circulated in the Catalan region. It will arrange presentations to various local organisations such as regional development bodies, chambers of commerce, financial institutions etc.

It will also help Catalan industrialists prepare production proposals for dissemination by CDI to ACP countries.



As part of the agreement CIDEM will provide industrialists interested in ACP projects with an advisory/consultancy service for obtaining funds both from Spanish institutions and from overseas.

Where industrial arrangements are concluded between Catalan companies and ACP sponsors, CIDEM will, where appropriate, provide co-financing or will assist in identifying funding sources, particularly for feasibility studies, pilot projects and adapted technologies.

Travel assistance will also be provided to project promoters to facilitate negotiation.

Financial support will be arranged to help training, implementation and management assistance for new projects (and for existing ACP industries where appropriate). Support will also be provided for diagnostic studies of existing industries and for market surveys.

THE COMOROS

CEMENT TILE FACTORY

In the Comoros, floor and wall tiles which have to be imported are expensive items. The choice available on the local market is also rather limited.

This should all change with the creation of an indigenous cement tile factory by a local entrepreneur, with the support of CDI.

CDI sent Mr Claude Willems, a technical consultant with the Belgian manufacturer Eurobrevet, to help the Comoros firm, CEBOC, get started on the right track.

Mr Willems advised the company on their manufacturing processes and helped train the local personnel in the art of quality tile making.

Using a mixture of local sands and imported cement and pigments, the company is now producing floor and wall tiles of excellent quality.

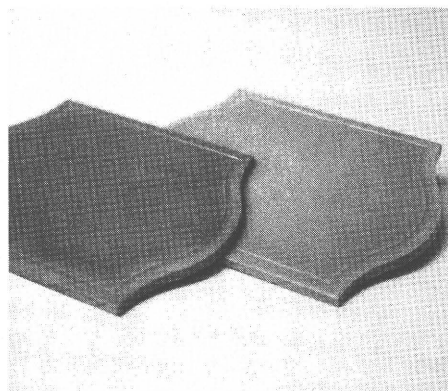
Analysis of production costs showed that the tile products offer CEBOC a substantial profit.

This demonstration of profitability convinced the local bank, La Banque de Développement des Comores, to become a shareholder in the firm and to provide suitable credit for financing raw material stocks.

A substantial reserve of raw materials is required to ensure continuity of production in face of a 6-month delivery period.

Mr Willems said that the President of Comoros was himself very impressed by the quality of the tile products and there could be some big orders on the horizon for the local firm.

While demand for the products appears very good, Mr Willems stressed that a critical factor in its long term suc-



Good demand is evident in the Comoros for the indigenous production of attractive cement tiles by a new local factory which CDI has been supporting.

cess will be the maintenance of high quality standards and regular supplies of raw materials.

Mr Willems has also involved the laboratories of the Department of Public Works in Comoros to test samples regularly to ensure that tiles continue to be produced to high standards of quality.

EQUIPMENT EVALUATION

CHALK PRODUCTION

Following the successful start-up of a plant in Zaire producing high quality school chalk, CDI has commissioned a survey of the equipment and services available in Europe for the manufacture of chalk. This survey should aid a number of ventures currently being planned in this sector in ACP countries.

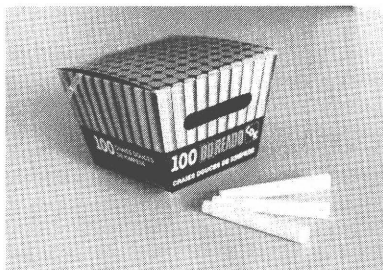
For the Zaire project (located in Kimpese), CDI gave financial assistance to allow experts from an Italian chalk factory to participate in the start-up in 1986.

The Italian firm advised on equipment, choice of raw materials, and production methods. The plant now produces 300 gross of chalk sticks a day for local schools and colleges.

The Italian firm continued to support the project after start-up, giving advice on the packaging, image and marketing of the product.

Following the success of this project, a further three projects (involving a UK firm) are in the pipeline for Jamaica, Kenya and the Comoros.

The CDI-commissioned survey of chalk manufacturing equipment (and services) is now being used to guide project promoters in this sector. The survey covers Belgian, German, Italian and UK suppliers.



This cleverly designed and attractive box which protects chalk against breakage is just one element of the support given by an Italian chalk manufacturer to the Zaire plant which it helped during its start-up phase.

TEA PACKAGING

EEC PARTNER SOUGHT

A private company in Mauritius produces approximately 1,000 tonnes per year of black tea for local and export markets.

It seeks an EEC partner to jointly invest in a new tea-packaging plant. The intention is to market tea, both in attractive small packets as well as in high quality tea-bags. This would enable the company to capture new export markets.

The EEC partner should have access to established markets in Europe for relevant products.

Enquiries should be addressed to CDI quoting the reference number:

MUS.8179.FO.00.

BURUNDI

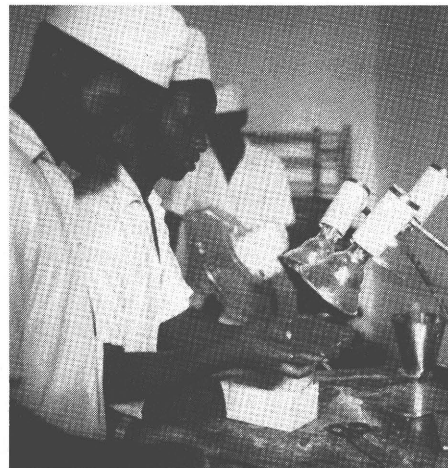
SWEET FACTORY

Abiscuit manufacturer in Burundi has expanded into the production of delicious sweets with the support of CDI.

Technical assistance for the start-up phase was provided by the Belgian consulting firm, IBF, with financial support from CDI. IBF was also involved in the start-up of the original biscuit plant back in 1985 (see *Industrial Opportunities*, number 48).

Aimed at the local market, the sweets will be made from sugar cane and glucose sirop. Sugar, the main raw material, is shortly to be supplied by a local sugar refinery.

The sweet production unit should employ around ten people.



Sweet production in Burundi.

THE FINANCING OF JOINT VENTURES

by Dr. Eckhard Hinzen

The key to the success or failure of many joint venture projects is whether a suitable financial package can be set up which is acceptable to all parties and particularly to the lending banks.

Following his analysis of the financing of joint ventures in the last issue of *Industrial Opportunities*, CDI's project finance expert, Dr Eckhard Hinzen, presents two case studies of EEC-ACP joint ventures, to illustrate how a successful financial structure can be arranged. (For reasons of confidentiality the names of the parties involved in these projects have been omitted and figures quoted here have been slightly changed.)

MEDIUM-SCALE PROJECT

LEATHER TANNERY

The start-up of a West African leather tannery is a good example of how a joint venture with a relatively small investment can be made attractive for an ACP promoter and a European business.

The ACP enterprise produces semi-finished leather for export, using local hides and skins as the main raw material. The firm is located in a small West African country with a weak local currency with convertibility problems.

A feasibility study was initiated by CDI. This showed that the turnover and potential profitability of the joint venture firm would be too low to consider investing in costly new equipment. It was clear that second-hand tannery equipment, on the other hand, could significantly reduce the cost of the investment and improve profitability.

The latter approach proved particularly attractive for an EEC firm that possessed tannery equipment which was effectively outmoded in Europe. In the context of this joint venture, the EEC firm sold its second hand plant to the new joint venture company and contributed part of the revenue as an equity share in the project.

The CDI feasibility study showed that total investment needed for the project was then Ecu 600,000.

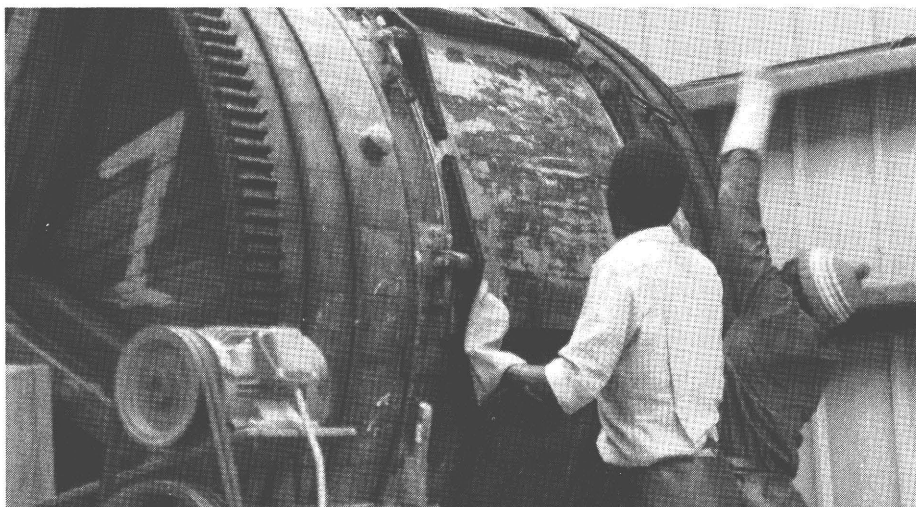
INDEPENDENT EVALUATION

CDI helped organise an independent evaluation of the second-hand equipment and the EEC firm's contribution to the equity was consequently agreed at Ecu 144,000, a majority share (60%) of the total equity of the joint venture (Ecu 240,000).

The ACP partner who is active in the livestock trade, provided the remaining equity funds.

LOAN FINANCE

● Ecu 360,000 was required in loan capital and the European partner arranged



A rotating wooden drum: some of the second-hand equipment sold to the West African tannery.

an export credit of Ecu 300,000 through his local European commercial bank.

● The loan was insured by a national export credit insurance agency – a natural requirement for a European bank. This insurance facility required a counter-guarantee from the ACP side. It was provided by a development bank in the ACP country which arranged a mortgage on the assets of the joint venture company.

● Relevant approvals were obtained from the central bank regarding foreign currency transfer (for debt repayment and profit transfer). To obtain this vital approval it was very important that the project was potentially a net foreign exchange earner; it was allowed to maintain a foreign exchange retention account in Europe.

● The final element of the financial package was an overdraft credit of Ecu 60,000 to provide working capital. The ACP firm arranged this credit with its local development bank.

FURTHER ASSISTANCE

CDI gave technical assistance for the installation and start-up of the factory and helped with foreign travel costs and negotiations. CDI's antenna in the host country was also involved in obtaining investment incentives, government guarantees, as well as approvals, for the project.

CDI and the EEC Commission also subsidized the salary of an expatriate manager to work with the firm during the start-up and initial production phases.

LIQUIDITY PROBLEM

Although this joint venture and its financial structure initially appeared quite sound, liquidity problems appeared soon after start-up due to delayed implementation, insufficient supplies of raw material and slow market penetration.

This led to problems with the repayment of the export credit, which typically had to be repaid within 5 years (without a grace period).

To ease the cash flow problem, an additional longer term loan of Ecu 170,000 was arranged in Europe through a national development finance institution. A repayment period of eight years was agreed for this new loan with a "period of grace" of two years. This loan was secured against the assets of the tannery.

Thus the project was successfully eased through the start-up phase; and the European partner, being well established in the EEC leather market, took responsibility for export marketing for the new firm. He also continues to provide technical support to the tannery and has a long-term interest in its success because of the value of his investment.

LARGER-SCALE INVESTMENT

DAIRY PLANT

The launching of a dairy plant as a joint venture in Central Africa is a good example of the financing of a larger scale operation in which a group of six shareholders were involved.

The ACP enterprise was set up to produce UHT milk and milk products (capacity: 30,000 litres per day) mainly for the local market, with a view to replacing imported products.

CDI co-financed a feasibility study which showed the need for total investment of Ecu 11 million, 10% of which would be working capital.

Equity capital, to be provided by the participating firms, was set at 30% (Ecu 3.3 million) of the total.

The local partner, a private investment company, was prepared to provide 35% of the equity capital and the leading EEC partner, which is an agro-food concern, provided 20%.

The European firm managed to bring in IFC (International Finance Corporation.) as a shareholder (15%). Having IFC on board helped mobilize the support of a further three private investment corporations, who took up the remaining 30% of the equity.

LOAN FINANCE

- The European partner approached a large international commercial bank to arrange an export credit of Ecu 5.4 million. This 7-year loan was basically to cover the cost of most of the imported investment items. A two year period of grace before the beginning of loan repayments was negotiated.

- Export credit insurance was required for this loan and was provided by a European national agency. Here it was highly valuable that the European commercial bank had a subsidiary of its own in the ACP country. This subsidiary was able to provide the necessary counter-guarantee by arranging a mortgage on the assets of the firm.

- A further Ecu 2 million of loan finance was raised through IFC. This 7-year loan at 12% included a two and a half year period of grace before the first repayments were due. The IFC loan was also secured against the company's assets and no government guarantees were required.

- The local firm arranged an overdraft credit line of Ecu 0.6 million with a local commercial bank to aid short-term cash flow requirements.

INCENTIVES

The local promoter of the project applied for investment incentives under the local investment code. This resulted in a

reduction of import duties on investment items and raw material supplies.

Approval was also obtained from the local central bank to ensure there would be no restrictions on the repayment of foreign debt.

The preparations for this project took three years from the start of the feasibility study to the incorporation of the firm. During this period CDI assisted considerably with negotiations between the shareholders and lending institutions.

The final element of the package was a technical assistance and management agreement which had to be concluded with the European partner to cover the entire loan repayment period.

This joint venture between the European agro-food concern (and its partners) and the local promoter, is now underway and is aiming for a 10% share of the local market in dairy products. It should benefit the local economy considerably by substituting for imported products, and by exporting to regional markets.

The leading European partner is bound to provide competent technical management as well as ensuring a reliable supply of raw materials.

It is envisaged that the project will be integrated, in the medium to long term, with the development of local dairy cattle herds. In the meantime, it depends on imported raw materials.

CARIBBEAN ANTENNAE VISIT CDI

Four of CDI's antennae (field representatives) from the Caribbean region recently spent a month at CDI's headquarters in Brussels as part of a "promotion attaché" programme.

The objective of the programme is to provide a working attachment to enable the antennae to gain a better understanding of the work of CDI and thereby reinforce their ability to make use of CDI in their home territories, for the benefit of their own industrialists.

Ruby Lee Sweeting, Executive Director and trade and investment specialist at the Bahamas Chamber of Commerce, said that her month in Brussels was useful for meeting the CDI staff and the investment partners involved in her projects, to accelerate their implementation.

Trevor O.B. Lovell, General Manager, Research & Planning Department, the Barbados Industrial Development Corporation, sees a great advantage in observing CDI's operations at first hand, and taking note of detailed requirements, such as, the filling in of application forms for assistance with joint ventures.

Marie Casserly, Senior Technical Assis-



Antennae from the Caribbean in Brussels (from left) Trevor Lovell (the Barbados Industrial Development Corporation), G. Winston Miller (the Belize Export and Investment Promotion Unit), Marie Casserly (Jamaica's economic development agency - JAMPRO), and Ruby L. Sweeting (Bahamas Chamber of Commerce).

ance Officer, from Jamaica's economic development agency (JAMPRO), devoted some of her time at CDI to finalizing two joint venture projects and to advancing the progress of other projects currently in the pipeline.

George Winston Miller, Industry and Tourism Promotion Officer of the Belize Export & Investment Promotion Unit (BEIPU) said that Belize has already benefited from CDI's assistance in the fur-

niture and match production sectors, and that spending time at CDI has given him a good feel for promoting joint venture projects at home.

For all of the antennae, CDI is only one of their responsibilities. But all were convinced that having a more personal link with the people and a better understanding of the organization would result in more effective and more productive cooperation with CDI.



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, franchising, licencing, sub-contracting, marketing, management or other agreements with local businessmen.

ACP entrepreneurs interested in any proposal are invited to write to CDI quoting its reference number. However, CDI will not be in a position to act upon letters received unless ACP entrepreneurs provide all the information requested at the bottom of the page.

Where a joint venture is proposed, the EEC companies are willing to consider contributing (depending on the country and the project) some 20% of the equity investment. For other proposals, the companies are committed to entering into long-term agreements for the creation of profitable ventures.

Where second-hand equipment is suggested, CDI may sponsor an evaluation by an independent expert of the quality, cost, suitability and condition of such equipment.

All equipment costs are quoted in Ecu (European currency units). The value of the Ecu may easily be ascertained from its relationship to other European currencies. Thus, on 1 December 1988: 1 Ecu = £ 0.65, or FF 7.1, or DM 2.08.

Please ALWAYS mention the CDI reference numbers when reproducing these proposals.

88/108 LE PORTUGAL

FOOTWEAR

Shoes and shoe components.

Minimum capacity: 500,000 pairs per year with a minimum investment of Ecu 495,000.
Proposed cooperation: equity participation, technical assistance.

88/110 MC PORTUGAL

AGRICULTURAL
IMPLEMENTS

Soil-working tools.

Minimum capacity: approximately 5,000 units per year for a minimum investment of Ecu 450,000 (second hand equipment).
Proposed cooperation: equity participation, license, technical assistance, training.

88/112 CH BELGIUM

ORGANIC FERTILIZERS

Animal feed concentrate from animal or urban waste.

Minimum capacity: 22 tonnes of waste per day. 8 hours to produce concentrate or fertilizers (50% to 70% of input volume) for a minimum investment of Ecu 170,000.
Proposed cooperation: equity participation, management, training.

88/113 MT PORTUGAL

PREFABRICATED
METAL PRODUCTS

Metal houses and containers.

Minimum capacity: 2,300 m² per year for a minimum investment of Ecu 252,000.
Proposed cooperation: equity participation, technical assistance.

88/36 EX BELGIUM

CITY FURNITURE

Resin concrete or synthetic marble facade elements, refuse bins, paving slabs, seats, etc.

Minimum capacity: 2.5 tonnes per day with an investment of Ecu 580,000.
Proposed cooperation: equity participation, technical assistance.

88/38 EX BELGIUM

PIPING

Piping made from sandstone.

Minimum capacity: 15,000 tonnes per year for an investment of Ecu 6,900,000.
Proposed cooperation: joint venture, technical assistance and training.

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 are available locally, etc.
- Describe your present activities plus your industrial and/or commercial experience, enclosing any available information such as your latest balance sheet.
- 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. 49 – January 1989

(position as at 16th December 1988)



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
200, rue de la Loi
B-1049 Brussels

Please cover only one subject at a time.

DESCRIPTION SECTOR CODE

A1	Planning and public administration	A5B	Industrial development banks
A1A	Administrative buildings	A5C	Tourism, hotels and other tourist facilities
A1B	Economic planning and policy	A5D	Export promotion
A1C	Assistance to the normal operations of government not falling under a different category	A5E	Trade, commerce and distribution
A1D	Police and fire protection	A5F	Co-operatives (except agriculture and housing)
A1E	Collection and publication of statistics of all kinds, information and documentation	A5G	Publishing, journalism, cinema, photography
A1F	Economic surveys, pre-investment studies	A5H	Other insurance and banking
A1G	Cartography, mapping, aerial photography	A5I	Archaeological conservation, game reserves
A1H	Demography and manpower studies		
A2	Development of public utilities	A6	Education
A2A	Power production and distribution	A6A	Primary and secondary education
A2Ai	Electricity	A6B	University and higher technical institutes
A2B	Water supply	A6Bi	Medical
A2C	Communications	A6C	Teacher training
A2D	Transport and navigation	A6Ci	Agricultural training
A2E	Meteorology	A6D	Vocational and technical training
A2F	Peaceful uses of atomic energy (non-power)	A6E	Educational administration
		A6F	Pure or general research
A3	Agriculture, fishing and forestry	A6G	Scientific documentation
A3A	Agricultural production	A6H	Research in the field of education or training
A3B	Service to agriculture	A6I	Subsidiary services
A3C	Forestry	A6J	Colloquia, seminars, lectures, etc.
A3D	Fishing and hunting		
A3E	Conservation and extension	A7	Health
A3F	Agricultural storage	A7A	Hospitals and clinics
A3G	Agricultural construction	A7B	Maternal and child care
A3H	Home economics and nutrition	A7C	Family planning and population-related research
A3I	Land and soil surveys	A7D	Other medical and dental services
		A7E	Public health administration
A4	Industry, mining and construction	A7F	Medical insurance programmes
A4A	Extractive industries		
A4Ai	Petroleum and natural gas	A8	Social infrastructure and social welfare
A4B	Manufacturing	A8A	Housing, urban and rural
A4C	Engineering and construction	A8B	Community development and facilities
A4D	Cottage industry and handicraft	A8C	Environmental sanitation
A4E	Productivity, including management, automation, accountancy, business, finance and investment	A8D	Labour
A4F	Non-agricultural storage and warehousing	A8E	Social welfare, social security and other social schemes
A4G	Research in industrial technology	A8F	Environmental protection
		A8G	Flood control
A5	Trade, banking, tourism and other services	A8H	Land settlement
A5A	Agricultural development banks	A8I	Cultural activities
		A9	Multisector
		A9A	River development
		A9B	Regional development projects
		A10	Unspecified



**** From January 1989 PABLI will be updated twice monthly.**

PABLI – Blue page informatics

Direct access to the blue pages via on-line terminal or telex

The blue pages are on computer and available either directly via a terminal or micro-computer.

Selected extracts of the blue pages may be obtained.

The cost of these two services has been fixed and are applied from 1988.

To obtain any information concerning PABLI please write, specifying the option chosen (terminal or telex) to:

ECHO Customer Service
117, Route d'Esch
L-1471 LUXEMBOURG
Tél.: 352/48.80.41
Télex: 2181

ECHO is in charge only for PABLI. For general correspondence see page I.

ACP STATES

New projects are printed in italics and offset by a bar in margin at left

Projects under way are marked with an asterisk and with words or phrases in italics

ANGOLA

Sectoral Import Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. 35 mECU. Supply of seeds (maize, potatoes, for market garden crops) fertilizers, tools, vehicles, raw materials, rural equipment. T.A. and evaluation. ★Project in execution. 8 int. tenders for supplies launched *since* August 88. 6th EDF. EDF ANG 6005 A3a

Rehabilitation of the Americo Boavida Hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. Estimated total cost ±25 mECU. EDF 19.5 mECU. Italy 5.5 mECU. Works, supply of medical-technical equipment. T.A. for installation, maintenance and training. Works: int. tender (conditional) launched in October 88. ★*Date financing November 88.* 6th EDF. EDF ANG 6004 A7a

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

Community Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Social Services. 0.150 mECU. Project preparation study. Short-list done. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BEL 6002 A6b

BENIN

Upgrading of health service infrastructure. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Estimated cost 14.3 mECU: renovation and construction of the hospital building and equipment. Project in execution. 5th and 6th EDF. EDF BEN 5010 A7a

Mono rural development programme. ★Development of the rural production. Cofinancing with BAD. Estimated total cost 51.8 mECU. EDF 32,5 mECU, BAD 14.4 mECU, local 4.9 mECU. Date financing October 88. 6th EDF. EDF BEN 6003 A3a

Petroleum products import programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministre du Plan — Société Nationale des Produits Pétroliers (SONACOP). 11 mECU. Supply of 65 000 t finished petroleum products. Int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 5th and 6th EDF. EDF BEN 6012 A4ai

Fish breeding. Applied research and popularization actions. Resp. Auth.: MDRAC. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BEN 6009 A3d

BOTSWANA

Support programme for dry land agriculture. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Lands. 3 mECU. Masterplan for Pandamatenga, soil laboratory, Pandamatenga Research Farm, price study. Works, supply of laboratory equipment, agricultural machinery, studies and T.A. Studies: Pandamatenga masterplan. Price stu-

dy: short-lists already drawn up. Project in execution. Supplies: int. tender launched in April 88. 6th EDF. EDF BT 6005 A3a

Manpower development for sustainable resource utilisation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and University of Botswana. 4.4 mECU. T.A. and training for basic science, ground water exploration and management, environmental resource and sustainable agriculture. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF BT 6003 A6

BURKINA FASO

Rural integrated development programme in the provinces of Sourou, Yatenga and Passoré. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'eau, Ministère de l'Agriculture et Elevage, Ministère de la Santé, Ministère de l'Education Nationale. 44 mECU. Development and security of rural production, land capital protection, drinking water supply, rural health improvement, training and monitoring, planning and coordination at regional level. Works for water control, training, T.A., supplies, coordination and follow-up. ★*Works: int. tender launched in October 88.* Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF BK 6001 A3a

Ziniare town electrification. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Equipement. 0.520 mECU. To connect Ziniare with the Ouagadougou network by acc. tender. *Date financing November 88.* 5th EDF. EDF BK 5025 A2ai

Ouagadougou-Kaya Railway. Resp. Auth.: Government of Burkina Faso. 1.7 mECU. Supply by restr. tender of 96.000 T of ballast (25-55 mm granit or dolerite) local origine. *Date financing November 88.* 5th EDF. EDF BK 5019 A2d

Hydro-agricultural development in the Douna plain. (Intermediate phase). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Eau. 2.1 mECU. Improvement of 400 ha. Construction of quaternary canals, training and monitoring. ★*Date financing October 88.* 6th EDF. EDF BK 6005 A3a

BURUNDI

Rural development in the Mosso Buyogoma. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Elevage and Département des Eaux et Forêts. 34.815 mECU. Improvement of the feeder roads and secondary roads, rural hydraulics, rural stock-farming and reforestation development. Support to cooperatives. Feasibility study for secondary roads and hydraulics: short-list done. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF BU 6001 A3a

Rehabilitation of the R.N. 1-Bujumbura-Rwanda border. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 22 mECU. Rehabilitation works plus the town section up the port of Bujumbura. Study to be done: technical study for the execution and int. tender dossier preparation. Short-

list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BU-REG 6305 A2d

Support to the Mugamba tea communities. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Elevage and Office du Thé (OTB). Estimated total cost ±21 mECU. EDF 18 mECU, EIB 3 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BU 6008 A3a

General import programme. Resp. Auth.: Banque République du Burundi. 12 mECU. Special programme debt. Hard currency allowance to finance import and to establish counterpart fund in Burundi Francs. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing: *1st quarter 89.* 6th EDF. EDF BU 6014 A1c

CAMEROON

Rural development programme in the Bénoué basin. Resp. Auth.: Mission d'études pour l'aménagement de la vallée supérieure de la Bénoué (MEAVSB). Total estimated cost 30 mECU, EDF part 25 mECU. Roads network, schools, health centres, rural water supply. Support to crop production and fishery. Irrigated agricultural areas, fight against soil and surface vegetation degradation. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Study to be done: sectoral studies to implement different sectors of the programme. Short-list already drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF CM 6002 A3a

Rural development programme in the Logone and Chari. Resp. Auth.: Semry. Estimated cost ±12 mECU. Consolidation and extension of existing actions. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF CM 6013 A3a

CAPE VERDE

Town development of Praia. Estimated cost 19.8 mECU. Works and supply of equipment, T.A. and supervision of works. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF CV 6001 A2d

Sectoral Import Programme for building materials and equipments. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et Entreprise Publique d'Approvisionnement (E.M.P.A.). 4 mECU. To purchase cement, iron, medical equipment and pavings. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF CV 6002 A4c

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

National Livestock Programme. Supply of agricultural inputs, monitoring training, T.A. Feeder roads. EDF part 10 mECU. Cofinancing with France, EIB, local, IFAD. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF CA 6001 A3a

Conservation programme for the ecosystem in the North. National game and natural reserves. Supervision for protected areas. Monitoring, management. Supply of

infrastructures. EDF 25 mECU. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF CA 6002 A3a

Development programme of the Central and Southern region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. 20.3 mECU. To strengthen coffee plantations in the villages and the infrastructure, diversifications in cotton zones; rural health and human hydraulics, T.A., studies, following and evaluation. Short-lists already drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF CA 6005 A3a

CHAD

Rural development priority programme in the concentration zone. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de Dév. Rural. 15 mECU. Hydro-agricultural works, infrastructure, education, health. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF CD 6002 A3e

Strengthening of the health sector in the Sahelian prefectures. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. 12 mECU. Supply of essential medicines, training programme and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF CD 6003 A7e

Rural development programme. Phase 2. Resp. Auth.: Office National de Dév. Rural (ONDR). 28 mECU. Works, feeder roads, scholar buildings, agricultural equipment, pumps, T.A., follow up and evaluation. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing February 89.* 6th EDF.
EDF CD 6005 A3a

CONGO

FEDAR (EDF regional action for the Pool and Cuvette). Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. 36 mECU. Roads, wells, rural infrastructure, supervision of works, line of credit, monitoring. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF COB 6002 A3a

COTE D'IVOIRE

Rural oil palm plantations for the 2nd palm plan. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. EDF 20.850 mECU. 22,945 ha in rural areas. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF IVC 6001 A3a

Collection and grouping centres. Building of 3 centres in Kotobi (vegetables), Sine-matiali (mangoes) and Meadji (plantain bananas). Works by acc. tender. Supplies by restr. tender. T.A., animation, promotion, training, follow up and evaluation. 2.150 mECU. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.
EDF IVC 5027 A3a

Support to the livestock development. Continuation and completion of the *Marahoué Ranch (T.A., investment, training) and support to "Centre National d'Elevage Ovin"*. Estimated total cost 18 mECU. EDF 12 mECU, local 6 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF IVC 6003 A3a

DJIBOUTI

Rural development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 6.1 mECU. Improvement of the rural development, farm and livestock monitoring, rural hydraulics, palm-tree plantations, pump-station maintenance. For the infrastructures works acc. tender (conditional) and for urgent supplies int. tender (conditional) in November or December 88. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF DI 6001 A3a

Urban development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics, de l'Urbanisme et du Logement et Ministère de l'Intérieur. 4 mECU. Rehabilitation, construction of waste water controlled network, works and supplies, road assessments to improve rain waters. Studies for rehabilitation and to prepare int. tender dossiers (drainage, roads, drinking water, fire protection): short-lists already drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF DI 6002 A2d

Support for information. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat Général à l'Information. 1.1 mECU. Establishment of a Documentation Centre. Supply of equipment and staff training for the National Printing Office. *Project in execution.* 6th EDF.
EDF DI 6005 A1e

Training programme. 2 mECU. New vocational training actions for adults. T.A. for training centres. Training, scholar-ships and training courses. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF DI 6101 A6d

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

Forestry support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Eaux et Forêts. 8.4 mECU. Assessment of the forest feeder roads network. Support to the definition and application of governmental measures to preserve forest patrimony. Support to improve timber export control. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF EG 6001 A3c

Essential goods import programme. Resp. Auth.: Présidence de la République. Estimated cost 1.5 mECU. Hard currency allowance to import essential goods. Project on appraisal. 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF EG 0000 A1c

ETHIOPIA

North Shewa rural reclamation and development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Total cost 28.5 mECU. EDF 24 mECU, local 4.5 mECU. Soil and water conservation, reforestation, rural infrastructure development and feeder roads. Works, supply of equipment, vehicles, T.A. and line of credit. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF ET 6001 A3a

Central Shewa peasant agriculture development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 53.4 mECU. Buildings, roads, rural infrastructure, agricultural inputs, consumer goods, equipments, T.A., studies, credit line. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF ET 6002 A3a

South Shewa conservation-based rural development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 26.2 mECU. Buildings, roads, rural infrastructure, agricultural inputs, consumer goods, training, T.A., micro-projects, credit line. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF ET 6005 A3a

Coffee improvement programme III. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Coffee and Tea Development. 38.1 mECU. Construction and civil works, supply of equipments, vehicles and agric. inputs, aerial photography, training and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF 6003 A3a

FIJI

Vanua Levu Road. Phase 3. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Dept. 2.125 mECU. Section of 25 km and bridge. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF FIJ 6002 A2d

Rural electrification programme. Resp. Auth.: Fiji Electricity Authority. 3.3 mECU. Construction of 28 small electrification schemes and installation of a small power plant. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing February 89.* 6th EDF.
EDF FIJ 6004 A2ai

Coconut rehabilitation and improvement programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Primary Industries. Estimated total cost 1.350 mECU. EDF 0.900 mECU, local 0.450 mECU. Clearing of 300 ha of land, establishing of a hybrid seed garden (150 ha) develop a research centre. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing February 89.* 6th EDF.
EDF 6005 A3a

GABON

Experimental rural rubber tree cultivation programme Mitzi/Bitam. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et du Développement Rural. 2.3 mECU. Special loan to support development of rural rubber tree cultivations in the concentration area assisted by the EEC. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GA 6004 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, *1st half 89.* Project in execution. 4th EDF.
EDF GM 4005 A6b

Development of the non-industrial fisheries. 3 mECU. Works and supplies. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GM 6003 A3d

Development support for the "Upper River Division". Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Economic Planning. 7 mECU. Rehabilitation and improvement of feeder roads, rebuilding and equipment of 6 health centres, rehabilitation of 18 primary schools and 2 vocational training craft centres, rehabilitation of 20

new wells. Credit lines. Works by acc. tenders, supplies by int. tenders. T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GM 6004 A3a

Rehabilitation and upgrading of Secondary Technical Education. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education (Projects Implementation Unit). 0.700 mECU. Workshops, supply of tools, equipment and materials, teacher training and T.A. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF GM 6005 A6b

Provincial Centres Water Supply. 3.350 mECU. Rehabilitation of water supply of Basse, Farafenni, Bansang, Mansa Konko/Soma. Works, supplies, T.A. and supervision. Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing February 89.** 4th, 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF GM 6009 A2b

GHANA

Programme for the improvement of the transport infrastructure in the South Western part. First actions. 21 mECU. Rehabilitation of the Axim-Axim junction road, construction of a road link (including bridge) to Enchi and studies. Feasibility and design study for Wiawso-Awaso-Mim corridor, short-list drawn up. Project in execution. 1st in tender launched in May 88. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6001 A2d

Accra Plains Livestock Development Project (APLDP). Estimated total cost 4 mECU. EDF part 3 mECU, local 1 mECU. Provision of veterinary and animal husbandry extension services, including construction of cattle treatment centres, water points and other inputs. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6006 A3a

Twifo oil palm development. Maintenance aid 1988-1991. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (M.F.E.P.). Total estimated cost 12.6 mECU. EDF 5 mECU, local 7.6 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6007 A3a

Sectoral import programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MFEP). 20.5 mECU. 1st phase: supply of 25 000 t of fertilizers and vehicles. **1st int. tender (conditional) launched in August 88.** 2nd int. tender for 30 000 t fertilizers foreseen in July 89. Hard currency allowance (11.5 mECU) for import. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6010 A3a

GUINEA

Rural development programme in Upper-Guinea. Resp. Auth.: Coordination team composed by representation from: Ministère du Plan et de la Coopération internationale, Ministère du Finances, Secrétariat d'Etat à la Décentralisation, Ministère du Dév. Rural, 30 mECU. To modernise agricultural systems and to improve the way of living. Development of the crop production, infrastructure (roads, social, rural hydraulics), micro-projects, lines of credit, T.A. and training. Supplies: int. tender launched in February 88. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GUI 6002 A3a

Rural development programme in Maritime-Guinea. Resp. Auth.: Coordination team (see EDF GUI 6002). 40 mECU. Crop production and fishery, road network, social infrastructure, rural hydraulics, micro-projects, lines of credit, research actions, vulgarisation, T.A. and training. Supplies: 2 int. tenders launched in March 88. **Int. tender for wells and pumps launched in October 88.** Project in execution. 6th EDF.
FED GUI 6001 A3a

Strengthening of health infrastructure. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé. Estimated cost 9.4 mECU. Continuation and achievement of the Ignace Deen hospital rehabilitation. T.A. and training. **Works: int. tender launched in September 88.** Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GUI 6005 A7a, e

General import programme. Resp. Auth.: Banque Centrale de la République de Guinée (B.C.R.G.). 12.5 mECU. Hard currency prices CIF covered by the project. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF GUI 6009 A1c

Friguia alumina plant rehabilitation project. Resp. Auth.: Société Friguia. EDF 35 mECU, EIB 13 mECU, Friguia 30.4 mECU. Works, supply of equipment, feeder road construction. T.A. for S.M.E. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF GUI-SYS 6010 A4a

GUINEA BISSAU

Minor bridges. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement Social. Estimated total cost 3.7 mECU. Construction of 4 bridges to open four agricultural regions. Works and supervision. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF GUB 5011 A2d

Rural development programme. 23.8 mECU. Improvement of the food and fishery production, line of credit, micro-projects, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GUB 6001 A3a

General import programme. Resp. Auth.: Unité de Gestion de Balance de Paiement auprès de la Banque Nationale. 6 mECU. Hard currencies allowance programme. Italy: 2 mECU to supply fuel and lubricants to the Bissau Power Plant during 1 year. **Date financing November 88.** 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF gub 6005 A1c

GUYANA

Economic infrastructure sector support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. 15 mECU. Rehabilitation of sea defences, quarries, transport, water supplies. Supply of equipment, training. First int. tender for supplies foreseen in the **1st quarter 89.** Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GUA 6003 A2b, d

Sysmin-Rehabilitation of the Bauxite Industry. Resp. Auth.: Guymine. EDF part 31.5 mECU. Supply of equipments, spare parts, T.A. at Linden and Kwakani. **Date financing November 88.** 5th EDF.
EDF SYS GUA 5024 A4a

JAMAICA

Rural water supplies. Phase I. Resp. Auth.: National Water Commission. 6.7

mECU. Extension, upgrading of five existing water supply schemes: South Manchester, Elderslie/Niagara, Castleton, South Chapelton. Works and supplies. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF JM 6003 A2b

Montego Bay airport. Charter terminal. Resp. Auth.: Airports Authority of Jamaica. 7.1 mECU. Works and supply of equipments. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Supervision. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF JM 6004 A2d

Sectoral import programme. Reconstruction following hurricane Gilbert, September 1988. Resp. Auth.: Jamaica Commodity Trading Corporation (JCTC). 17.8 mECU. Supply of 10 000 t galvanised corrugated iron roofing sheets + accessories. 2 500 t fertilizers, materials for reconstruction of poultry houses, agricultural equipments. T.A. Purchase by restr. tender or direct agreement. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF JM 6008 A1c

KENYA

Minor roads rehabilitation and maintenance programme. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Works by direct labour. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF KE 6002 A2d

Agricultural research programme. 20 mECU. Soil and water management research. Soil fertility and plant nutrition. Civil works and libraries. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF KE 6003 A3e

Development of commerce and industry. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Export promotion and marketing, trade development promotion and support to informal sector and small scale industries. Studies, short-lists already drawn up. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF KE 6004 A5de

Cereal sector reform programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance, Agriculture and Supplies and Marketing and NCPB. National Cereals and Produce Board. 65 mECU. T.A., studies, training. Storage and rolling stock, sectoral import programme purchase of agricultural inputs, short and longterm T.A., cooperatives and reserve funds. Studies, T.A. and training: short-lists not yet drawn-up. Works by int. tender and acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF KE 6008 A3a

ASAL livestock development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Livestock Development. 9 mECU. Works by restr. tender. Supplies by int. tender. T.A. and evaluation. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF KE 6009 A3a

LESOTHO

Manpower development project to support Lesotho's natural resources sector. Resp. Auth.: National Manpower Development Secretariat (NMDS). Ministry of Planning Economic and Manpower Develop-

- ment. 7.7 mECU. Construction of schools, class-rooms, laboratories, supply of T.A., scholar-ships and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF LSO 6007 A6b
- Mekaling-Outhing road.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. Estimated total cost 11.450 mECU. Reconstruction to bituminous surfaced standard of 26.5 km. Works, T.A., training and supervision. Project in execution. **Works: int. tender launched in September 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF LSO 6008 A2d
- LIBERIA**
- Rural health training centre.** Estimated cost 2.5 mECU. Provision of services, supplies and equipment (including drugs), T.A. for management and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF LBR 5020 A7a
- Bong Mining Company. Rehabilitation project.** Resp. Auth.: Government and BMC. 49.3 mECU. Supply of specialized equipment, shovels, conveyor belts, dumpers, locomotives, spare parts. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF LBR/SYS 0000 A4a
- South-East development programme.** Estimated cost 27 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF LBR 6002 A3a
- MADAGASCAR**
- Rehabilitation of the R.N. 4 road (PK 58 to PK 177).** Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 10 mECU. Int. tender for rehabilitation works launched in October 88. 119 km. Supervision. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MAG 6005 A2d
- Small irrigated areas in the North: rehabilitation and support programme for rice-growing in the region of Antsohihy.** Resp. Auth.: For rural part: Ministère de la Production Agricole et de la Réforme Agraire (MPARA) for feeder roads: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 12.8 mECU. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Feeder roads by int. tender. Supervision of works: restr. tender. T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MAG 6007 A3a
- Maize development programme in the Middle West.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Production Agricole. 9.5 mECU. Building of a nursery and farmers training. Works, supplies, T.A. evaluation and training. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAG 6006 A3a
- Development of the Andapa Basin. Phase 3.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Production Agricole et de la Réforme Agraire (MPARA). 2.3 mECU. Rehabilitation of rice growing areas, agricultural advisory actions, road works. Works by acc. tender. Equipments by int. tender. T.A., training, follow-up and evaluation. **Project in execution.** 5th EDF.
EDF MAG 5039 A3a
- Housing and health assistance for urban population.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé et Travaux Publics. 5.5 mECU. Supply of medicines and platforms for housing. **Supervision. Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAG 6009 A7, A8a
- Sectoral import programme. Supply of petroleum products.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie, de l'Energie et des Mines. 15 mECU. Purchase of $\pm 100\,000$ t of refined petroleum products. T.A. and auditing. **Int. tender launched in October 88. Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAG 6011 A4f
- MALAWI**
- Strategic fuel reserve.** Resp. Auth.: Office of the President and Cabinet. Contingency Planning Unit. 4.2 mECU. Construction of tanks for diesel, petrol, ethanol. Associated infrastructure and equipment. T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF MAI 5020 A2a
- Smallholder agricultural input support programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 28.2 mECU. Establishment of fertiliser buffer stock of 70 000 tons, building of 3 warehouses + auxiliary facilities, T.A. Int. tender for fertilizers launched in February and October 88. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MAI 6005 A3a
- Rural health programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health and Ministry of Community Services (MOH and MOCS). 9.3 mECU. Construction of an hospital, two health centres supply of equipments, T.A. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. T.A.: short-list drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MAI 6009 A7a, e
- Programme for industrial products imports.** 12.5 mECU. Supply of industrial equipment, raw materials and spare parts. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MAI 6019 A1c
- MALI**
- Support programme to the food strategy.** 19.5 mECU. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MLI 6001 A3a
- Rice-growing intensification programme in the large irrigated areas.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 66 mECU. Improvement of the irrigated areas, roads. Supply of equipment for maintenance and for agriculture, study, T.A., training and experimentation. Study: short-list done. Project on appraisal. 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF MLI 6004 A3a
- Food security programme in the 5th region.** Resp. Auth.: Gouverneur de la région. 24 mECU. Soil and ground water resources, rehabilitation of Bamako. Mopti road. Works, supplies, supervision, study, T.A. training. Project in execution. 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF MLI 6005 A2b, d
- Import programme for essential goods.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Finances et du Commerce. 25 mECU. Purchase of 28,000 T white sugar, weed-Killers and sprayers and 38,000 m³ of oil and natural gas. All by int. tender. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF MLI 6007 A1c
- MAURITANIA**
- Aioun El Atrouss hospital.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Equipeement. 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
- Rehabilitation of Nouakchott National Hospital.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Equipeement. 4 mECU. Renovation and upgrading for building, supply of medical-technical and surgical equipment. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing **1st half 89.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAU 6003 A7a
- Rehabilitation programme for the "SNIM".** Resp. Auth.: Société Nationale Industrielle et Minière (SNIM). 18 mECU. Renovation of railway track equipment and wagons. Modernization of the repair-shops. Supply of equipments and spare parts by int. tenders launched in July 88. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF SYS MAU A4a
- Support programme for the development of the Gorgol region (PDRG).** Estimated cost 35 mECU. Improvement of the irrigated areas, support to the traditional crop, regeneration of the natural habitats, rural infrastructure, sanitation of Kaedi. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAU 6007 A3a
- General import programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Economie et des Finances. Banque Centrale de Mauritanie (BCM). Hard currency allowance for essential goods imports. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF MAU 6008 A1c
- MAURITIUS**
- Development of Ile Rodrigues - Phase II.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.250 mECU. Development centred on agricultural production. Works and supplies. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF MAS 6003 A3a
- Programme to diversify productive sectors to improve, employment prospects (1st part: industry).** 10 mECU. Actions to strengthen export and industry promotion institutions, actions to incite development of small enterprises. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MAS 6002 A5e
- Craft industry development.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Emploi et du Tourisme. Estimated cost 1.9 mECU. To set up workshops: training and products promotion. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAS 6005 A4d
- Programme to diversify productive sectors (2nd part: agriculture).** Resp. Auth.: to purchase equipments: Ministère des Finances. Tender board. 8 mECU. Works, rural development, supplies, T.A. and training. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF MAS 6006 A3a
- MOZAMBIQUE**
- Import support programme for rural development.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Com-

merce. 40 mECU. Direct support to the agricultural production and consumer foods production, development of the rural marketing and infrastructure. Importation of seeds, fertilisers, pesticides, raw materials for light industry: textiles, food, tobacco, shoes, soap. Purchase of vehicles and trucks, cranes, loading platforms (containers), importation of raw materials for manufacture of tyres, building materials. T.A. and valuation. Supplies by int. tender. 2 Int. tenders launched in June 88. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6008 A1c

Eduardo Mondlane University. Basic science courses. Resp. Auth.: Universidade Ed. Mond. (UEM). 2.3 mECU. Construction works, supply of furnitures and pedagogical equipment. T.A. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. T.A. by restr. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6015 A6b

Institutional support for fishing. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Pêche. 2.750 mECU. Supply of 12 T.A. high and medium level specialized in: finance administration and management (5 T.A.); procurements and stock management (3 T.A.); civil and naval engineering (4 T.A.). T.A.: short-lists already drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6017 A3d

Rural rehabilitation in the Inhambane Province. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Direction Nationale du Développement Rural (DNDR). 4.5 mECU. Dry and irrigated agriculture, marketing for rural inputs and crop production, rural hydraulics, training and education. Works, supply of agricultural equipments, T.A. Works: acc. tender or direct labour, supplies by int. tender.
★ **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6019 A3a

Second import programme. Resp. Auth.: UCPI (Unité de Coordination des Programmes d'Importation et Délégation de la Commission). 30 mECU. Sectors: rural, fishery, transports and industry. Supply of seeds, equipments, raw materials, lorries, spare parts, T.A. audit and valuation. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6025 A1c

Rural telecommunications. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Sports and Communications. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Supply of radio and telephone equipment. Technical study for project appraisal to be done: short list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF MOZ 6021 A2c

NIGER

Rice-growing in the river valley. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 63.6 mECU. Cultivation of 1,800 ha, electrification, feeder roads, T.A. for management. Project preparation study: short-list already drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDR NIR 6001 A3a

Small irrigation programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 21.560 mECU. Rehabilitation of the Tarka down valley, irrigation, boreholes and wells. Feeder roads, environmental protection, T.A. Works

and supplies. Studies: short-lists already drawn up. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF NIR 6002 A3a

Mining research: gold and coal. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Mines et de l'Energie. 12.450 mECU. Gold: photogeological and photomorphological study on existing aerial photos. Revision of all available data. Strategic prospecting. Site exploration and pilot plant. Coal: study and building of a washing plant. Study on the coal field of Anou Araren-Solomi. T.A. and training. Drillings by int. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF-SYS-NIR 6011 A4a

Training programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministères de l'Education, Commerce, Culture, Plan, Agriculture. ±5 mECU. Three priority sectors: rural development, business development, cultural development. Supply of equipments, T.A. and scholarships. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF NIR 6101 A6b, c,i

Sectoral import programme: medications and pedagogical equipments. Resp. Auth.: for médicaments: Ministère de la Santé Publique, des Affaires Sociales et de la Condition Féminine (MSP/AS/CF). Import operations will be conducted by PNPCC (Office National des Produits Pharmaceutiques et Chimiques). For pedagogical equipment a committee composed by: Ministère du Plan, de l'Education Nationale, du Commerce. For the total programme: the Delegation of the Commission in Niamey. 14 mECU. Supply of T.A. and valuation.
★ **Date financing October 88.** 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF NI 6014 A6e, A7e

NIGERIA

Rural electrification project. Resp. Auth.: National Electric Power Authority (NEPA). 7.5 mECU. Supply and installation of transformers, conductors, poles and cables and ancillary equipment for connections totalling 300 km. Supervision and evaluation. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF UNI 5017 A2ai

Oil Palm Belt Rural Development Programme (OPBP). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Water Resources and Rural Development. 68.840 mECU. Flood protection and drainage works in the Niger Delta. ±20 000 ha. Rural infrastructures, micro-projects, T.A., training, research, supervision of works, management. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF UNI 6001 A3a

North East Arid Zone development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 35 mECU. Increase of rural production, livestock development, afforestation and environment control, rural infrastructure development (health, education), commercial services (inputs, credit and marketing system), manpower development, training and research. Works: irrigation, drainage, buildings, supply of seeds, chemicals, fertilizers, dozers, drilling rigs, T.A., training, research. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF UNI 6002 A3a

Research and Training programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development. Training Support Unit

(TSU). 30 mECU. Scholarships, seminars, T.A. Teacher training, cooperation between Nigerian Training Institutions and European Training Institutions, exchanges between Nigerian and European research institutions.
★ **Purchase of equipment. Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF UNI 6004 A6a, b, c, d, e, f

Rural health facilities project. Resp. Auth.: Federal Ministry of Health. 6.100 mECU. Construction of premises and upgrading existing ones. Building and furnishing of maintenance workshops. Supply of equipments, management, supervision and training. Works by acc. tenders. Supplies by int. tenders. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 5th EDF.
EDF UNI 5018 A7a

Desertification control and environmental protection programme in Sokoto. Resp. Auth.: Sokoto Environmental Programme (SEP). Direct responsibility of the Office of the Governor. 30.6 mECU. Community awareness, mobilisation and development campaign. Afforestation actions, improvement of range management and livestock development. Rehabilitation of a small-scale irrigation, training and applied research. Works: buildings, nurseries, water points, irrigation networks. Supply of vehicles, motorcycles, generators, media equipments, T.A. Works by acc. tenders. Supplies by int. tenders.
★ **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF UNI 6003 A3a

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Vailala-Rigo Road. Resp. Auth.: Dept. of Works. 7.2 mECU. Works and supervision. 26 km. Works by int. tender.
★ **Int. tender launched in November 88. Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF PNG 6002 A2d

Brown River-Veimauri Road. Resp. Auth.: Dept. of Works. 11.8 mECU. Works and supervision. 28 km. Works by int. tender.
★ **Int. tender launched in November 88. Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF PNG 6003 A2d

Smallholder Cocoa and Coconut Rehabilitation Programme. Resp. Auth.: Dept. for Agriculture and Livestock. 4.7 mECU. Feeder roads, housing, supply of vehicles, boats, motorcycles, equipments, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
★ EDF PNG 6005 A3a

RWANDA

Food strategy support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan. 51 mECU. Development of the rural activity, monitoring, training, maintaining of natural environment stability. Infrastructures, supply of agricultural inputs, vehicles, T.A. studies and training. Project in execution. T.A.: Short-list done. 6th EDF.
EDF RW 6001 A3a

ST. LUCIA

Roseau agricultural resettlement and diversification project. Phase II. 1.4 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF SLU 6001 A3a

- Rural development. Social Infrastructure.** Resp. Auth.: Central Planning Unit. 3.645 mECU. Works and supply of equipment and T.A. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF. EDF SLU 6002 A3a
- SAO TOMÉ & PRINCIPE**
- Riberia Peixe rural development.** Resp. auth.: Ministère de la Coopération. Development of agricultural output (palm oil) and industrial exploitation. Estimated total cost: 6.79 mECU as follows: EDF 4.00 mECU, EIB 2.00 mECU and local 0.791 mECU. T.A., works, training and supplies. T.A.: Short-list done. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF STP 6001 A3a
- SENEGAL**
- 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
- Sanitation of Dakar. Phase 3.** Resp. Auth.: Direction de l'Hydraulique Urbaine et de l'Assainissement. 2 mECU. Sanitation of Medina and Gueule Tapée districts. Works by acc. tender (conditional). Supplies by direct agreement. T.A. **Date financing October 88.** 5th EDF. EDF SE 5043 A8b, c
- Rehabilitation of the Saint Louis Hospital. Phase 3. Works.** Resp. Auth.: Ministre Urbanisme-Habitat. Cofinanced by EDF and Luxembourg. Estimated total cost 5 mECU. Final phase for the rehabilitation and extension of the capacity up to 400 beds. Works, supply of equipments and supervision. Works by restr. tender after prequalification. Prequalification (conditional) launched in October 88. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SE 5044 A7a
- SIERRA LEONE**
- North Western artisanal fisheries and community development programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Agriculture and Natural Resources (Fisheries Division). 6 mECU. Infrastructures, supply of equipments, line of credit. T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SL 6004 A3d
- Rehabilitation of the Telecommunications network. Phase 2.** 6 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF SL 6006 A2c
- Tourism development programme.** Estimated cost 0.850 mECU. T.A. to the Ministry of Tourism and supply of equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF SL 5026 A5c
- SOLOMON ISLANDS**
- Coconut industry development project.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Land and Natural Resources. Study under way by Agr und Hydrotechnik (D). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF SOL 5009 A3a
- Development of human resources in the rural sector.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Economic Planning. 4 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SOL 6003 A3a
- Small holder development project.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.32 mECU. EDF 3 mECU, local 0.320 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SOL 6006 A3a
- Development of rural fishing enterprises.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Natural Resources. 0.500 mECU. Construction of boats and houses by acc. tender. Supply of outboard motors, fishing gear, echo sounders, refrigerators, SSB radios, motorcycles by int. tender. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF. EDF SOL 6010 A3d
- 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 1989. Equipment: powerhouse main equipment and auxiliary equipment, int. tenders in 1989. Gates, valves, intake equipment, int. tender in 1989. Int. tender with prequalification launched in February 86 for hydraulic tests. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SO 5003 A2a
- Upgrading of the road Afgoi-Shalambot-Goluen.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Works by int. tender. Supervision of works. Studies: AIC. PROGETTI (I). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SO 5017 A2d
- Hargeisa airport rehabilitation.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Land and Air Transport. Estimated cost 3 mECU. Works and supply off equipment. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF SO 6001 A2d
- Satellite telecommunication links with Europe and the Gulf States.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Post and Telecommunications. 5 mECU. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF. EDF SO 6003 A2c
- Sectoral Import Programme (SIP).** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. 15 mECU. Provision of a hard currency facility to the public and private sectors for imports: agriculture, livestock, fisheries, industry and transport. T.A. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF. EDF SO 6006 A1c
- Juba valley road.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Estimated total cost 74 mECU. EDF ±61 mECU. Construction of an all-weather unsurfaced road from Gelib to Baardheere (230 km) prior to the construction of the Baardheere dam. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF SO 6007 A2d
- SUDAN**
- Programme of assistance to spontaneously settled refugees in Sudan.** Resp. Auth.: Commission of Refugees (COR). 16.33 mECU. Rehabilitation of 12 hospitals, 48 schools and construction of one school. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. **Supplies: int. tender launched in December 88.** Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SU 6104 A8a, b, c
- Sudan Railways Support Programme (SRSP).** Resp. Auth.: Sudan Railways Corporation. 19 mECU. Reconstruction of five major and 18 minor bridges and 7 culverts in the line Kosti-Babanaousa. Supply of materials, tools and replacement part, for the most immediate repairs and maintenance of the track Khartoum-Port Sudan and those required for a direct improvement of telecommunications. Works and supplies by int. tender. **Date financing November 88.** 5th and 6th EDF. EDF SU 6011 A2d
- Post Flood Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Programme (PFRFP).** Resp. Auth.: agricultural part: Agricultural Bank of Sudan. Transport infrastructure: Roads and Bridge Public Corporation (RBPC) and Sudan Railways Corporation. 15 mECU. Agricultural sector: supply of spare parts for repair and replacement of 2 500 pumps. Int. tender and direct agreement. Supply of maintenance parts for 100 trucks (6 t): by int. tender. Supply of 100 pumps by int. tender. T.A. for repair, control and credit allowances. Transport sector: bridge construction (5x25 m) at Geneina, repair and work supervision. Bridge by acc. tender. Supplies for railways, gabions, pipes by int. tender. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF. EDF SU 6020 A2d
- SURINAME**
- 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
- Sectoral import programme.** Estimated cost 8.5 mECU. Creation of a revolving funds for imports of inputs (fertilizers and chemicals for the rice sector). Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing March 89.** 6th EDF. EDF SUR 6001 A3a
- New Nickerie Secondary School.** Estimated cost 1.4 mECU. Construction and supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5014 A6a
- SWAZILAND**
- Rural water supplies programme.** Ministry of Natural Resources. 2.6 mECU. Works and supply of equipment for village drinking

water supply scheme. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF SW 6008

A3a

Human resources development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education. 8 mECU. Works and supply of educational equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF SW 6010

A6a, b

Rural dam rehabilitation programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 4mECU. Works and supervision. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.

EDF SW 6012

A3a

TANZANIA

Agricultural sector support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Planning. 94 mECU. Measures to improve food security, support for coffee production and processing, assistance to co-operative unions, repair and maintenance of vehicles and tractors, feeder road maintenance and assistance to institutions implementing the programme. Supplies by int. tender/restr. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tenders. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF TA 6001

A3a

Incentive goods production programme. 6 mECU. Provision of imported row materials and other inputs, spare parts, bicycles. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF TA 6003

A4b

Sectoral Import Programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Tanzania. 24.5 mECU. Allocation of currencies to import raw materials and spareparts for agriculture, transport and the production of basic consumer goods. Purchase of trucks spareparts for the transport sector. **Date financing November 88.** 5th and 6th EDF.

EDF TA 6010

A1c

Secondary roads improvement project. Estimated cost 20 mECU. Repair and rehabilitation works on Songea-Mbinga and Ibo-ma-Mlangali-Madaba secondary roads to improve transport of agricultural produce. Roads and bridges. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.

EDF TA 6007

A2d

TOGO

Support to the draught animals cultivation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. EDF 5.47 mECU. Extension of the Adélé ranch, introduction of new techniques, line of credit. Works: feeder roads, bridges, wells, housing. Supply of vehicles, equipments, veterinary products, T.A. and training, research. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF TO 6005

A3a

Rural development programme in Bas-sar. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. EDF 10.3 mECU. Rural intensification and diversification, soil protection, improvement of infrastructure, support to the small-farmer association, marketing improvement. Works, studies, research, evaluation. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF TO 6006

A3a

Sectoral import programme. Supply of fertilizers and T.A. (follow up and execution). Estimated cost 10 mECU. Project on

★ appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing December 88.** 5th and 6th EDF.

EDF TO 6008

A3a

Road programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. Estimated cost 22 mECU. France 0.8 mECU for T.A. to the Ministère de l'Équipement. Rehabilitation of the road Blitta-Sokodé (South-North) and the urban section of the Lomé-Kpalimé road. Works, supply of equipments, supervision. Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing February 89.** 6th EDF.

EDF TO 6007

A2d

TONGA

Vava'u Airport Development Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Civil Aviation. 2.130 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and training. Works by direct labour, supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. 5th and 6th EDF.

EDF TG 5003-6001

A2d

Integrated regional development study for Vava'u. Short-list done. Project stage identification.

EDF TG

A3a

UGANDA

Forestry rehabilitation programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. Estimated total cost 32 mECU. EDF part 8.5 mECU. Natural forest protection and management; reforestation; improved charcoal production, fuel wood plantation preparation. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF UG 6003

A3c

Rural health programme. Phase 2. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Local Government. 4 mECU. Rehabilitations, supply of equipments, training. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF UG 6012

A7a

Special programme debt. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Planning. Bank of Uganda. Delegation of the Commission. 15 mECU. Provision of hard currency to import agricultural inputs, spare parts, vehicles, printing equipment, building materials. Supplies by acc. tenders and int. tenders. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF UG 6016

A1c

VANUATU

Coconut development project. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 1.8 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF VA 6004

A3a

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

2nd intervention Sysmin. Gécamines Working and SNCZ. EDF part 41 mECU.

Supply of mining equipment, machine-tools, engines. Int. tender for SNCZ launched in January 87. Project in execution. 5th EDF.

EDF ZR-SYS 5001

A4a

Kivu programme. 40 mECU. Action for crops (coffee, corn, palm-tree, rice) environment (Parc de la Virunga), lines of credit. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF ZR 6002

A3a

Kinshasa hinterland programme. APEK 25 mECU. To improve crop production. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.

EDF ZR 6003

A3a

Matadi-Kinshasa-Kenge road. Resp. Auth.: DG Travaux Publics et Adm. Territoriale. 22.5 mECU. Road rehabilitation and training for the staff of "Office des routes". Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF ZR 6006

A2d

ZAMBIA

Rehabilitation of 3 grain silos. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. NAMBOARD. 9.6 mECU. Works, supplies and work supervision. Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing 1st half 89.** 6th EDF.

EDF ZA 6007

A3f

ZAMSTEP. Zambia Mathematics and Science Education Project. 3.5 mECU. Supplies, training and management. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF ZA 6002

A6a

Agricultural inputs import support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Nitrogen Chemicals of Zambia. 40 mECU. Procurement after int. tender of raw materials, catalysts and other chemicals required for the production of fertiliser by NCZ. Supply of agric. inputs, equipments and spare parts. 2 int. tenders for fertilizers launched in July 87. Project in execution. 5th and 6th EDF.

EDF ZA 6003

A3a

Smallholder development in copper belt province. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and water development. 12 mECU. Basic infrastructure by acc. tender. Supply of vehicles and materials by int. tender. T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF ZA 6004

A3a

Smallholder development in central province. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and water development. 12.35 mECU. Basic infrastructure and social facilities.

★ Works, supplies and T.A. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.

EDF ZA 6005

A3a

Batoka cross-breeding ranch. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agricultural and water department. Veterinary Dept. 1 mECU. Provision of further equipment and refurbishment and continued T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.

EDF ZA 6006

A3a

ZIMBABWE

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 in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF ZIM 6001 A4a

Land Use Project for Kanyati and Gatshe-Gatshe Communal Lands. 3 mECU. Cultivation and development and proper utilisation of wildlife potential. Works, supply of vehicles and rural equipment and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF ZIM 6004 A3a

Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT)

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Tourism improvement. Curaçao. Phase I. Otrobanda sewerage. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. 6 mECU. EDF. Sewage, road works, piping, supervision. Int. tender (conditional) launched in April 88.
★ **Date financing October 88.** 5th EDF.
EDF NEA 5013 A5c

St. Eustatius airport, extension of runway. Resp. Auth.: Dept. of Dev. Cooperation. 4.7 mECU. EDF 2 mECU. Netherlands 2.7 mECU. Extension of the runway, supervision of works. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF NEA 6003 A2d

2nd line of credit for the Netherlands Antilles Development Bank (OBNA). 1.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF NEA 6009 A5ab

MAYOTTE

Rural electrification. Resp. Auth.: Collectivité Territoriale. EDF 4.20 mECU, France 6.86 mECU. Supply of 125 km transmission lines with 60 transformers and 11 circuit breakers. Int. tender (conditional) launched in September 88. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88 or January 89. 6th EDF.
EDF MY 6002 A2ai

NEW CALEDONIA

Inventory of the mineral resources. Resp. Auth.: Direction des Mines et de l'Énergie du Territoire. Estimated total cost 1 mECU. EDF 0.800 mECU, France 0.200 mECU. T.A. by restr. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF (SYS) NC 12 A4a

Poindimié vocational training centre. Resp. Auth.: Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie. EDF 0.165 mECU, France 0.055 mECU. **Date financing October 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF NC 6003 A6d

Popularization of melanesian stock-breeding. Resp. Auth.: Direction du Développement de l'Économie Rurale (DIDER). 0.700 mECU. Recruitment of 10 local agents. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing February 89. 5th EDF.
EDF NC 5004 A3a

FRENCH POLYNESIA

Temaarua dam. Resp. Auth.: Service de l'Économie Rurale du Territoire. 0.800 mECU. Drinking water supply for Taravao Village. Hearth-dam construction by acc. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing February 89. 5th EDF.
EDF POF 5007 A2b

WALLIS AND FUTUNA

Electrification of Futuna. Resp. Auth.: Administration Supérieure de Wallis et Futuna. 1 mECU. Supply of cables and pylons for L.T. and M.T. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF WF 6001 A2a

CAYMAN ISLANDS

Community college. Works and supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF CI 6001 A6d

TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS

Replacement of Grand Turk Dock. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 2.290 mECU. Works and T.A. Project on appraisal. 4th, 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF TC 6001 A2d

Regional Projects

GUINEA — GUINEA BISSAU — SENEGAL — MAURITANIA — NIGER — MALI

Soil development of the versant basin type in Guinea: Fouta Djallon and Niger Upper Basin. Resp. Auth.: Ministère Guinéen de l'Agriculture et des Ressources Animales (MARA), Direction Générale des Forêts. Estimated total cost 37.5 mECU. EDF 31.5 mECU, Italy 6 mECU. Anti-erosion works, technical and social infrastructure with local NGO's and population. Preparatory studies for programme extension, aerial survey and mapping. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6137 A3a

CEEAC (COMMUNAUTÉ ÉCONOMIQUE DES ÉTATS DE L'AFRIQUE CENTRALE)

Industrial forum EEC-Central Africa. Preparation execution and follow-up of 2 industrial fora in Central Africa. 2.3 mECU. T.A., studies and valuation. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing February 89. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6213 A4

BURKINA — NIGER

Timber development in the future reservoir of the Komienga Dam. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Environnement du Burkina. EDF 5.9 mECU. Timber trees recuperation and processing to obtain building and service timber, fuel-wood, charcoal for their commercialisation. Works, supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6102 A3c

ZAIRE — CONGO — GABON — SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE — EQUATORIAL GUINEA — CAMEROON

Fishery development in the Gulf of Guinea. 6.7 mECU. T.A. to prepare these projects: Short-list done. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5206 A3d

PACIFIC ACP COUNTRIES

Pacific Regional' Aircommunications. Stage I. Resp. Auth.: SPEC. 4.6 mECU. Buildings, runways and supply of navigational aids. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5717 A2d

Regional agriculture development programme. 6.8 mECU. Ten pilot project. T.A. works and supplies. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6704 A3a

Regional telecommunications. Resp. Auth.: SPEC. 5.550 mECU. Coastal radio stations, earth satellite stations, T.A., training. Equipments by int. tender. Works by int. tender and direct agreement. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6705 A2c

Regional tourism development programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: SPEC and TCSP. Development of tourism and tourism related sectors of the Pacific ACP States and OCTs. Estimated total cost 7.4 mECU. Works: implementation of programme components, supply of films, promotion and teaching materials, T.A., support for TCSP and project. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6027 A5c

Pacific regional marine resources programme. Resp. Auth.: SPEC-FFA (Forum Fisheries Agency in Honiara), CCOP/SOPAC (Committee for Coordination of Joint Prospecting for Mineral Resources in South Pacific Off-shore Areas in Suva), SPC (South Pacific Commission in Nouméa). 10.7 mECU. Five actions. Three first actions for FFA: support for the programmes: management, information services, data bases and telecommunication network. Construction of a new regional conference centre. Supply of T.A. and equipments. 4th action for the tuna tagging programme by SPC. Fifth action: ocean bed prospecting for mineral resources by CCOP/SOPAC. Works: conference centre, prospecting and tagging. Supplies: telecom, computer equipments, ocean vessel, T.A. (scientists and statisticians) training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6709 A3d

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CILSS

Improvement of permanent diagnostic instruments for regional food security. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat Exécutif Ouagadougou. EDF and Italy cofinancing. EDF 7.705 mECU, Italy 2.795 mECU. Supplies, T.A. and running costs. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6110 A3a

Programme to utilize photovoltaic solar energy. Resp. Auth.: CILSS. Total estimated cost 30 mECU. Supply of 1 500 units for pump, refrigeration and light. Supply by

restr. tender after prequalification. Prequalification launched in March 88. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6116 A2ai

Regional programme to promote the use of butane gas. Resp. Auth.: CILSS 8.260 mECU. To substitute wood and charcoal. Actions to inform, to make aware, to promote LPG (Liquid Petrol Gas). Financial aid to reduce costs. Stocks for gas cylinders (3 and 6 kg). Gas fund in each country. Support to improve ovens and supporting plates, purchase of rail tanks, T.A. Rail tanks by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6106 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 organisations of I, UK, F and D. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5307 A2c

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

Institutional support to Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute (ESAMI). Resp. Auth.: ESAMI, Tanzania. Estimated cost 4.5 mECU. Extension of ESAMI installations plus provision of library, audio visual and printing equipment and improvement of kitchen and laundry facilities. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6311 A6b

BURUNDI - RWANDA - TANZANIA - UGANDA - ZAIRE - KENYA

Northern Corridor: Masaka-Mbarare-Kabale Road Rehabilitation. 48.5 mECU Reconstruction of 277 km of road including drainage work lime stabilised base course and double surface dressing. Supervision. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6304, (UG 0000) A2d

Northern corridor transport programme, Kenya. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Transports and Communications, Kenya. 37 mECU. Works (rehabilitation) of 105 km. Supervision. Project in execution. First int. tender launched in February 88. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6303 (KE...) A2d

Central corridor (emergency programme for T.R.C.). Resp. Auth.: Tanzania Railway Corporation. T.R.C. 13 mECU. Supply of railway equipment. Wagons, locomotives, spare parts, T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6306 (TA 0000) A2d

Northern Corridor-Rwanda. Rehabilitation of the road Kigali-Butare Burundi border. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 20 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6310 (RW...) A2d

Central Corridor-Tanzania-Bukombe-Isaka road. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works.

Estimated cost 35 mECU. Asphalt covering of \pm 130 km. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG (TA...) A2d

SOMALIA - DJIBOUTI

Djibouti-Zeila (Somalia) road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère and Ministry of Public Works. Estimated cost 26 mECU. Construction of a road between Djibouti town and Zeila town in Somalia. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6301 A2d

SADCC

Maseru Container Terminal. Resp. Auth.: Government of Lesotho 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

Land and water management project. Resp. Auth.: SACCAR. EDF 2.636 mECU. UK (ODA) 1.562 mECU. Training programmes and T.A. Building of a resource center. Works and supply of equipment. **★ Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing February 89.** 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6415 A3a

ANGOLA - MOZAMBIQUE - SADCC

Training of railways staff. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Commerce. Estimated cost 7.3 mECU. Training of Inhambane school and in the Northern regional centres, Southern and **★ Central. Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6409 A6d

KENYA - SUDAN - ZAMBIA

Field oriented research on the control of tse-tse and livestock ticks. Resp. Auth.: ICIPE (International Centre of Insect Physiology and Ecology). 2 mECU. Support to the ICIPE for the research on two parasites. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6022 A3a

KENYA - TANZANIA - UGANDA

Victoria Lake. Fishery research. Resp. Auth.: Committee composed by Directors of National Research Institutes and/or by National Directors for fishery. 1.5 mECU. Supply of equipment and fishing gears, vessel, laboratory equipment, T.A. training and evaluation. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5316 A3d

CARIBBEAN AND ACP COCOA PRODUCERS

Cocoa Research Unit (CRU), Phase II. Resp. Auth.: CRU in Trinidad. 2.624 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and agricultural inputs, T.A. and training. Study: I.R.C.C. (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5043 A3a

CARIBBEAN ACP COUNTRIES AND MONTserrat

Regional trade development programme. Resp. Auth.: CARICOM Secretariat. Estimated total cost 10 mECU. EDF 6.1

mECU, CARICOM 3.9 mECU. Short and long term experts, seminars, training, market promotion activities, evaluation. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF REG 5681 A5de

West Indies university. Resp. Auth.: UWI and National Authorising Officers. 6.2 mECU. Renovation and rehabilitation works, supply of technical and scientific equipment, T.A. and training. **Date financing November 88.** 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6601 A6b

ORGANISATION OF EASTERN CARIBBEAN STATES (OECS) AND BRITISH VIRGIN ISLANDS

Eastern Caribbean States Export Development Agency (ECSEDA) and Automatic System for Customs Data (ASYCUDA). Resp. Auth.: OECS secretariat in Castries, St. Lucia, ECSEDA headquarter in Roseau, Dominica. 4.430 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment and computers. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6610 A5d

OECS integrated tourism programme. Resp. Auth.: OECS secretariat. Estimated cost 3 mECU. Cooperative marketing in Europe, T.A. and tourism training. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6613 A5c

CARICOM AND UK OCT

Regional hotel training programme. Resp. Auth.: Bahamas Hotel Training College (BHTC). 4.4 mECU. Construction region training facility, supply of equipment, scholarships. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6614 A5c

MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

ALGERIA

Scientific cooperation programme with "Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur" (MES). Resp. Auth.: MES. EEC contribution 2.5 mECU. Supply of technical and scientific equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution.
SEM AL A4g

Integrated training programme on forestry. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Hydraulique, de l'Environnement et des Forêts. 2.5 mECU. T.A. long-term and short-term, equipments, scholar-ships. Project in execution.
SEM AL A3a

EGYPT

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 88. T.A.: GET/KFA (D). Int. tender dossier: Phoebus (I).
SEM EGT 1002 A2a

Industrial training advice for SME. Resp. Auth.: Federation of Egyptian Industries (FEI). 2 mECU. Short-term advice, seminars training, T.A. Date financing December 88.
SEM EGT A5bc

JORDAN

A.T. to the Royal Scientific Society-Phase II. 2 mECU. Supply of equipment, training, scholarships and seminars. Project on appraisal.
SEM JO 2006 A6a

Wala and Nukhelia dams studies. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Hydrology and Irrigation. 2 mECU. First phase A: financial and economical aspects and technical faisability. Phase B: final procedure for design and conception and preparation tender dossier. Phase C: T.A. and supervision. Phase A: short-list done. Project in execution.
SEM JO A2a

Study on underground water-level in the Azraq basin. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Hydrology and Irrigation. 3 mECU. To collect and exploit all data concerning water region of Azraq basin. T.A. supply of equipment and drilling works. Works by acc. tender. Date financing December 88.
SEM TO A2a

Project for a national soil map and land utilization. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 4 mECU. T.A. and training. Date financing December 88.
SEM TO A1g

MALTA

Tourism industry modernisation. 2.4 mECU. Tourism development plan, promotion, institut for hotel management and tourism, restauration of the St. Jean Cathedral. T.A. and works. T.A.: short-list not yet drawn up. Works by acc. tender. Project in execution.
SEM MAT A5c

Improvement of infrastructure. 3.1 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipments. Management of natural water resources, long term development plan for "Telemalta Corporation", Marsaxlokk port project and "Malta Dev. Corporation". T.A.: short-list not yet drawn up. Supplies by int. tender. Project in execution.
SEM MAT A9b

MOROCCO

Drinking water supply for small centres. Resp. Auth.: Office National de l'Eau Potable (ONEP). 11.888 mECU. Pipes, equipments civil works, transmission lines, access roads and fencing, studies and supervision. Works by int. tender. Date financing December 88.
SEM MOR A2b

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. Project in execution.
SEM SYR 2002 A6b

Rural Water Supply Suweida Region. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Local Administration and Ministry of Housing and Utilities. EEC 3.8 mECU. Project in execution.
SEM SYR 2001 A2b

TUNISIA

Sejnane-Joumine water-main. Resp. Auth.: Direction Générale des Grands Travaux Hydrologiques. EEC contribution 10 mECU for supply of pipes and ancillary equipments. German participation (KfW) ±23 mECU for works and supplies. Soviet Union funded revision of studies. EEC part by int. tender. Project in execution.
SEM TUN A2b

Rural development project for the South-West of Kef. Resp. Auth.: Office de mise en valeur du Kef. Ministère de l'Agriculture. EEC contribution 10 mECU. Purchase of 3 bulldozers, 2 motogriders, 5 tractors with 5 t trailers, 5 tanks (3 000 litres each) 2 4×4 vehicles by int. tender **launched in November 88.** Works by direct labour. Project in execution.
SEM TUN A3a

TURKEY

Geothermal energy in Western Anatolia. Resp. Auth.: MTA - Institut de Prospection et Recherches Minérales. EEC contribution 8 mECU. Supply by int. tender of specialized equipment for wells, boreholes and for laboratory analyses. T.A. and training. Project in execution.
SEM TU A4a

Improvement of health studies. EEC contribution 5.8 mECU. Master plan, specialized medical equipments, scanner, vehicles. T.A. and supplies. Date financing December 88.
SEM TU A7ac

Fight against environmental pollution. Resp. Auth.: Prime Minister's Office. Directorate General of the Environment. EEC contribution 2.8 mECU. Purchase of mobile system to measure, control, water, air, surface and soil pollution. Supply of laboratory equipment, T.A. Date financing December 88.
SEM TU A8f

Vocational training programme for tourism and mining. EEC contribution 5.4 mECU. Seminars, staff, trainers, supply of equipment, studies. Date financing December 88.
SEM TU A5c, A4a, A6d

Programme to deepen association relations between EEC and Turkey. EEC contribution 3.6 mECU. Scholarships, supply of equipment for the University of Ankara and Marmara. Training centre and language laboratory in Marmara. Establishment of a Euro-Turkish "Business Council". Date financing December 88.
SEM TU A6b

Regional centre for training and development for the "Union Internationale des villes (UIV)" for eastern mediterranean countries and Middle-East in Istanbul. EEC contribution 1.4 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. Date financing December 88.
SEM TU A1c

WEST BANK AND GAZA OCCUPIED TERRITORIES

Assistance to the Palestinian population in the occupied territories. EEC contribution 2.971 mECU. Various projects, lines of credit, supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. **Second int. tender for supplies launched in December 88.**
SEM OT A8a, b, e

A.L.A. developing countries ASIA and LATIN AMERICA

ASEAN

Aquaculture development and coordination programme. 6.77 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA ASN 8604 A3d

Industrial standards and quality control programme. 5 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA ASN 8609 A4a

Marine fisheries resources assessment. Resp. Auth.: South-East Asian Fisheries Development Centre (SEAFDEC). EEC contribution 0.652 mECU. Supply of equipments and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA ASN 8618 A3d

BANGLADESH

Road materials and standards study. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Communication and Roads. Roads and Highway Dept. (RHD). EEC contribution 2.2 mECU. Short-list not yet drawn up for restr. tender. Project in execution.
ALA BD 8808 A2d

Improvement of food grain storage depots (LSD's). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Food, Dept. of Food (MOF/DOF). 15 mECU. Rehabilitation and improvement of 130 LSD's. Works and supply of T.A. Works by acc. tender. **Date financing November 88.**
ALA BD 8816 A3a

Thikana project. Resp. Auth.: Thikana Village Development Fund (TVDF), Committee and Promotion, Planning and Management Unit. EEC contribution 9.5 mECU. Establishment of the Village Fund, and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.
ALA BD 8815 A3a

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

Development of agricultural support activities. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agricul-

ture. EEC contribution 3.4 mECU. Building of regional centres, soil analyses laboratory, supply of equipments and vehicles, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA BHU 8809 A3a

BOLIVIA

Regulation-prevention programme of the TDPS basin. Resp. Auth.: CORDEOR for urgent works. 5 mECU. T.A. by EEC expert for 2 years for works and T.A. by a multidiscipline team for TDPS study. Purchase by int. tender of 2 dredgers, equipments and specialized equipment for study. Works by direct labour. T.A. direct agreement after restr. tender. Project in execution.
ALA BO 8723 A3a

BURMA

Foot-and-mouth disease fight project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Animal Husbandry Dept. EEC contribution 3.45 mECU. Purchase of equipment, vaccins, vehicles, T.A. training and evaluation. Project in execution.
ALA BA 8718 A3a

CHINA (PEOPLE'S REP.)

China-EC centre for agricultural technology. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries (MAAF) and EEC Commission. EEC contribution 5.9 mECU. China will construct the centre. EEC part: supply of equipment, documentation, training, european staff, T.A. and works supervision. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.
ALA CHN 8821 A3, A6

Maize and sunflower research development project in the Jilin province. Resp. Auth.: Jilin Province Commission for Foreign Economic Relations and Trade (JPCFERT). EEC contribution 2.7 mECU. Supply of specialized equipment by int. tender on direct agreement. Training, T.A. and evaluation. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.
ALA CHN 8813 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

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 EC 8701 A3a

Reconstruction Programme. (After March 87 earthquake). Resp. Auth.: Banco

Ecuadoriano de la Vivienda (BEV). EEC contribution 3.5 mECU. Housing and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA EC 8810 A8a

EL SALVADOR

Programme for the Development of Handicrafts in deprived areas. Resp. Auth.: Interministry Committee with the leadership of the Ministry of Culture and Communication. EEC 6 mECU. T.A., studies and supply of equipment and vehicles. Project in execution.
ALA ES 8710 A4d

Construction of a hospital in Zacamil. Construction and equipping of a 200 beds hospital. 12 mECU. Works and supplies by int. tender. T.A. for supervision and management. Project in execution.
ALA ES 8712 A7a

GUATEMALA

Support to the rural diversification in the Pacific Region (Montellano and San Carlos Malaga). EEC 5.5 mECU. Supply of equipment, infrastructural works, lines of credit. T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA GU 8707 A3a

Programme for sustainable development of the Lake Atitlan Basin. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio Desarrollo Urbano e Rural (MDUR). Pilot programme of microprojects. EEC contribution 3.5 mECU. Works and infrastructures. Supply of equipment, line of credit, T.A. and studies. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.
ALA GU 8822 A3a

HONDURAS

Water supply, health in the rural sector. Resp. Auth.: Consejo Directivo de Saneamiento (CODISA), and Ministerio de Salud Publica. EEC contribution 14.5 mECU. Supply of equipment, materials, vehicles, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA HO 8620 A8bc

INDIA

Coconut development, Kerala. Resp. Auth.: Kerala Kera Karshaka Cooperative Federation (Kerafed). EEC 45 mECU. Supply of equipments, oil plants, T.A. and evaluation. Project in execution.
ALA IN 8709 A3a

Inland Fisheries Development. Resp. Auth.: National Cooperative Dev. Corp. (NCDC) with Dept. of Fisheries (DOF). EEC contribution 22.1 mECU. Works, T.A. and supply of equipments. Project in execution.
ALA IN 8804 A3a

Tank Irrigation System, Tamil Nadu, Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Dept. of Agriculture. EEC Contribution 24.5 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 88.
ALA IN 8811 A3a

Agricultural markets in Kerala. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 18.4 mECU. Construction of three larger regional markets and three smaller markets along the east-west trade routes. Site development, shops

and storage facilities, roads and parking areas. T.A. and training. Project financed through counterpart funding from sale of $\pm 260\ 000\ T$ of muriate of potash (MOP). Purchase by Minerals and Metals Trading Corporation (MMTC) Int. tender in 89. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.
ALA IN 8818 A3a

South Bhagirath: II. Integrated watershed management. 8.4 mECU. Reafforestation, soil protection, T.A. Project financed through counterpart funding from sale of 115 000 t of muriate of potash by MMTC in 89. Int. tender: see ALA IN 8818. Date foreseen for financing December 88.
ALA 8820 A3a

INDONESIA

Evaluation of the pelagic fishery in the Java Sea. Resp. Auth.: Agricultural Agency for Research and Development (AARD) and RIF. Cofinancing with France. EEC contribution 2.20 mECU, France 1.20 mECU, local 0.45 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA IND 8717 A3a

Rural electrification project (hydroelectric micro-power stations). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Energy and Mines. Electricity and new energy Dept. EEC contribution 18.9 mECU. Works, supply of turbines, generators, adjusters of 10 KW, 25 KW and 100 KW, vehicles and other equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA IND 8719 A2a

LAOS

NAM NGUM water, pumping irrigation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture, Forêts, Irrigation and Coopératives Nationales (MAFIC). EEC 5.5 mECU. Building of 4 irrigation networks and drainage. Studies, construction of 4 pumping stations, supply of equipments and T.A. Project on appraisal.
ALA LA 8802 A3a

NEPAL

Rural Development in Gulmi. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Panchayat and Local Development (MPLD). EEC 2.710 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA NEP 8706 A3a

NICARAGUA

Rural integrated development in San Dionisio and La Meseta. Estimated cost 8.5 mECU for the EEC contribution. Supply of equipment, vehicles, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal.
ALA NI 8614 A3a

Crop production development in the La Meseta region. EEC contribution 5.6 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA NI 8630 A3a

PACTO ANDINO MEMBER COUNTRIES

Regional programme for technical cooperation: APIR (Accelerate Process on Regional Integration). Resp. Auth.: JUNAC. EEC participation 7.3 mECU. T.A. for

studies, training and advising. Supply of small equipment. Project in execution.

ALA JUN 8806 A1b

Satellite Telecommunications Andean System (SATS) Preparation - Phase 2. Resp. Auth.: JUNAC. 2.2 mECU. Project in execution.

ALA JUN 8803 A2c

PAKISTAN

Buner development project. EEC contribution 10.6 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Supplies by int. tender. Project in execution.

ALA PK 8715 A3a

Primary education in rural areas. Cofinancing with CIDA and IDA. EEC contribution 15 mECU for works, T.A. and scholarships. Project in execution.

ALA PK 8716 A6a

Baluchistan agricultural college. Resp. Auth.: Baluchistan Department of Agriculture. Directorate of Agricultural Education Services. Estimated total cost 28 mECU. EEC contribution 18 mECU. Design and construction of the college. Supply of pedagogical equipment and vehicles. T.A. to prepare tender dossiers for works and supplies. T.A. for supervision of works. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Project in execution.

ALA PK 8807 A6ci

PANAMA - COSTA RICA - NICARAGUA - HONDURAS - EL SALVADOR - GUATEMALA

Regional programme to strengthen cooperatives. Cofinancing with Spain. EEC contribution 22 mECU. Spain 2.5 mECU, local 15.5 mECU. Supply of T.A., lines of credit, training. Project in execution.

ALA REG 8714 A5f

Regional development programme for agricultural research on cereals in Central America. EEC contribution 10.8 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.

ALA REG 8823 A3a

EL SALVADOR - GUATEMALA - HONDURAS

Trifinio region development pilot project. Resp. Auth.: Ministros de Recursos

Naturales. Comité de Dirección. EEC contribution: 7.170 mECU. Reafforestation works, feeder roads, warehouses, supply of equipments and T.A. Feeder roads, irrigation, warehouses and supplies by int. tender. **Date financing November 88.**

ALA REG 8814 A3a

EL SALVADOR - GUATEMALA - HONDURAS - NICARAGUA

Regional programme to eliminate rabies in Central America. Resp. Auth.: Pan-American Health Organisation (PAHO). EEC contribution 2.9 mECU. Supply of equipment and materials and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA REG 8625 A8c

PERU

Lake Titicaca. Reconstruction-prevention programme. Resp. Auth.: Corporacion de Desarrollo de Puno (CORPUNO). EEC contribution 5 mECU. Studies, works and supplies. Project in execution.

ALA PE 8603 A3a

Rural micro-projects programme (Pampa-Puno II). Resp. Auth.: CORPUNO. EEC contribution 21.4 mECU. T.A.: ten expatriates. Supply of trucks, vehicles, equipments, training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.

ALA PE 8817 A3a

PERU - ECUADOR - COLOMBIA (PEC)

Regional programme: fishing technical cooperation EEC/PEC. Estimated EEC contribution 6 mECU. T.A., supply of equipments and training. Project on appraisal.

ALA REG 8721 A3a

COCESNA - COSTA RICA - EL SALVADOR - GUATEMALA - HONDURAS - NICARAGUA

Radar control for civil air traffic in Central America. EURO MAYA project. Resp. Auth.: COCESNA (Corporación Centroamericana de Servicios de Navegación Aérea) and co-director EEC. EEC contribution 18.5 mECU, Italy 9.5 mECU. Civil works, supplies, 4 radars and equipments, communication systems. Extension of the Tegucigalpa control centre. T.A. and training.

★ Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing December 88.**

ALA REG 8819 A2d

PHILIPPINES

Cordillera development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Food (MAF). EEC part 18.5 mECU. Rural micro-projects in the Northern Luzon. Irrigation, roads, bridges, water supplies, rural credit. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution.

ALA PHI 8616 A3a

Agricultural education programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS). EEC contribution 10.4 mECU. Parallel cofinancing with ADB. Supply of equipments and agricultural inputs. Pedagogical equipment, furnitures, laboratory equipments and audio-visuals, books, chemicals, tools, vehicle, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.

ALA PHI 8824 A6ci

SRI LANKA

Integrated rural development of the Mahaweli right bank region. System B. EEC contribution 25 mECU. Works and supplies. Prequalification for works foreseen in the 2nd half 88. Project in execution.

ALA CE 8703 A3a

THAILAND

Mae Kok water resource study. Resp. Auth.: Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand. EGAT and Royal Irrigation Dept. (RID). EEC contribution 2.8 mECU, local 0.45 mECU. T.A. and training, supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA TH 8708 A3a, A9a

Joint secretariat Office. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. EEC contribution 1.8 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA TH 8805 A3a

Development and extension of fruit and vegetable production in Northern Thailand. EEC contribution 9.45 mECU. Long-term T.A., supply of equipments, line of credit, training, research and follow-up and evaluation. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing December 88.

ALA TH 8812 A3a

INQUIRY

If you have suggestions for improving the presentation, format and print used in the "blue pages" operational summary, please send them to:

M. Franco Cupini
Directorate-General for Development
Commission of the European Communities
200, Rue de la Loi
B-1049 Brussels

N.B.: If you are happy with the present layout, please also let us know at the same address.

DELEGATIONS OF THE COMMISSION

In ACP countries

Angola

Rua Rainha Jinga, 6
Luanda C.P. 2669
Tél. 39 30 38 - 39 12 77 - 39 13 39
Télex 3397 PROQUIM AN

Barbados

Sunjet House, Fairchild Street
P.O. Box 654 C, Bridgetown.
Tel. 427-4362/429-7103
Telex 2327 DELEGFED WB
BRIDGETOWN
Telefax (1-809) 4278687

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
Telefax (267-31) 36 26

Burkina Faso

B.P. 352
Ouagadougou
Tel. 307 385/307 386
Telex 5242 DELCOMEU - 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
Telefax (237) 22.21.49

Cape-Verde

Prédio «Galleries»
4º andar,
apartamento D-C.P. 122 - Praia
Tel. 61.37.50
Telex 6071 DELCE CV

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. 51 59 77 - 51 22 76
Telex DELEGFED 5245 KD
N'DJAMENA - CHAD
Telefax (19-235) 512105

Congo

Av. Lyautey
near Hotel Meridien
B.P. 2149, Brazzaville
Tel. 83 38 78/83 37 00

Côte d'Ivoire

Immeuble "AZUR" Bd. CROZET, 18
B.P. 1821, Abidjan 01
Tel. 32.24.28 - 33 29 28
Telex 3729 DELCEE - ABIDJAN
Telefax (225) 324089

Djibouti

Plateau du Serpent
Boulevard du Maréchal Joffre
B.P. 2477 Djibouti
Tel. 35 2615
Telex 5894 DELCOM DJ

Ethiopia

Tedla Desta Building
Africa Avenue (Bole Road) 1st Floor
P.O. Box 5570, Addis Ababa
Tel. 51 01 29/51 25 11/51 01 80/51 01 89/
51 26 72
Telex 21135 DELEGEUR - ADDIS ABABA
Telefax (251-1) 51 41 19

Gabon

Quartier Batterie IV
Lotissement des Cocotiers
B.P. 321, Libreville
Tel. 73 22 50
Telex DELEGFED 5511 GO - LIBREVILLE
Telefax (241) 732228

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
Tel. (233) 774 236
Telex 2069 DELCOM - ACCRA

Guinea-Bissau

Rua Eduardo Mondlane 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
Telex via Embassy Fed. Rep.
of Germany 22479

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
Telefax (592-2) 62615

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
Telefax (1-809) 9292785

Kenya

National Bank Building
Harambee Avenue
P.O. Box 45119, Nairobi
Tel 33 35 92
Telex 22302 DELEUR - KE
Telefax (254-2) 725503

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
Telefax (261-2) 32169

Malawi

Lingadzi House
P.O. Box 30102, Capital City
Lilongwe 3
Tel. 73 02 55/73 01 73/73 05 93
Telex 44260 DELEGEUR MI - LILONGWE

Mali

Rue Guégau - Badalabougou
B.P. 115 Bamako
Tel. 22 23 56/22 20 65
Telex 2526 DELEGFED - BAMAKO
Telefax (223) 223670

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
Telefax (230-86) 6318

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
Atenção Sr. Delegado da Comissão da CEE
na RPM

Niger

B.P. 10388, Niamey
Tel. 73 23 60/73 27 73/73 48 32
Telex 5267 NI DELEGFED - NIAMEY
Telefax (227) 732322

Nigeria

4, Idowu Taylor Str. Victoria Island
PM Bag 12767, Lagos
Tel. 61 78 52/61 08 57
Telex 21868 DELCOM NG LAGOS - NIGERIA
Telefax (234-1) 617248

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
Telefax (679) 300 370

Papua New Guinea

Pacific View Apartments
8th Floor
Pruth Street, Korobosea
P.O. Box 1264, BOROKE
Tel. 25 92 22
Telex NE 22307 DELEUR - PORT MORESBY
Telefax (675) 217 850

Rwanda

Avenue Député Kamuzinzi, 14
B.P. 515, Kigali
Tel 755 86/755 89
Telex 22515 DELCOMEUR RW KIGALI

Senegal

Avenue Pompidou 57 (2^e étage)
B.P. 3345, Dakar
Tel. 21 13 24/21 57 77
Telex 21665 DELEGSE - DAKAR
Telefax (675) 217885

Sierra Leone

Wesley House
44 George Street
P.O. Box 1399, Freetown
Tel. 239 75 - 230 25
Telex 3203 DELFED SL - FREETOWN

Solomon Islands

NPF Plaza
P.O. Box 844 - Honiara
Tel. 22 765
Telex 66370 - DELECSI
Telefax (677) 23318

Somalia

Via Makka Al Mukarram, n° Z-A6/17
P.O. Box 943, Mogadiscio
Tel. 21 118/21 049/811 18
Telex 628 EURCOM - SO

Sudan

3rd Floor - The Arab Authority for Agricultural
Investment and Development Building
Army Road Khartoum
P. O. Box 2363
Tel. 75054-75148-75393
Telex 23096 DELSU SD

Suriname

Wesley House 4, George Street
Dr S. Redmondstraat 239
P.O. Box 484, Paramaribo
Tel. 993 22
Telex 192 DELEGFED SN

Swaziland

Dhlan'ubeka Building, 3rd floor
Cr. Walker and Streets
P.O. Box A.36
Mbabane, Swaziland
Tel 42908/42018
Telex 2133 WD
DELEGFED MBABANE
Telefax (268) 46729

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
Telefax (255-51) 38575

Togo

Rue de Calais 22
B.P. 1657, Lomé
Tel. 21 36 62/21 08 32
Telex 5267 DELEFEDTO-LOMÉ
Telefax (228) 211300

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
Telefax (256-41) 233708

Zaire

71, Av. des Trois Z
B.P. 2000, Kinshasa
Tel. 327 18
Telex 21560 DECEKIN ZR KINSHASA
Telefax (243-12) 28863

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
NCR House (10th Floor)
65 Samora Machel Ave.
Harare
Tel. 470.7 1.20/39/40/43
Telex 4.811 ZW HARARE — ZIMBABWE
Telefax (263-4) 725360

In the OCT

Netherlands Antilles

Mgr Kieckensweg 24
P.O. Box 822
Willemstad, Curaçao
Tel. 6250 84 — 6264 33
Telefax (599.9) 623281

Aruba

Paardenbaaistraat 12, (P.O. Box 409)
Oranjestad
Tél. 34131 Telefax (297.8) 34575

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
Telefax (213-2) 593947

Egypt

6, Ibn Zanki St.-Zamalek
Tel. 340 83 88 - 341 93 93 — 340 11 84
Telex 94258 EUROP UN ZAMALEK
Telefax 3400385

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
Telefax 251983

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
Telefax (262-6) 686 746

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

2 bis rue de Meknès-Rabat
B.P. 1302, Rabat
Tel. 612 17/612 46/612 48
Telex 32620 - (M)
Telefax (212-7) 61156

Syria

73 rue Rachid
P.O. Box 11269, Damascus
Tel. 24 76 40-24 76 41
Telex 412919 DELCOM SY

Tunisia

Avenue Jugurtha 21
B.P. 3, Belvédère - Tunis
Tel. 78 86 00
Telex 13596 — TUNIS
Telefax (216-1) 788201

In A.L.A. countries

Bangladesh

House CES (E) 19
Road 128, Gulshan — Dhaka - 12
Tel. 60 70 16 — Int. N. 41 18 41
Telex 642501, CECO BJ

Offices of the Commission

In ACP countries

Antigua & Barbuda

Alpha Building 2nd floor
Redcliffe Street
St. John's, Antigua W.I., P.O. Box 1392
Tel. and telefax (1-809) 4622970

Bahamas

Frederick House, 2nd floor, Frederick Str.
P.O. Box N-3246, Nassau
Tel. (32)55850
Telex DELEGEC NS 310

Belize

1 Eyre Street
P.O. Box 907
Belize City, Belize
Tel. (501-2) 72785
Telex 106 CEC BZ

Comoros

B.P. 559 — Moroni
Tel. 73 19 81 — 73 03 06
Telex 212 DELCEC KO

Equatorial Guinea

B.P. 7779 — Malabo
Tel. 2944 - 2945
Telex 913104 GE

Grenada

Old Fort
P.O. Box 5, St. George's
Tel. 3561 — Télex 3431 CWBUR GA
(Attn. EEC Delegation)
Telefax 4402123 (Attn. EEC Delegation)

São Tomé & Príncipe

B.P. 132 — São Tomé
Tel. (239) 21780
Telex (0967) 224

Costa Rica (HQ of the Delegation for Central America)

Centro Calon — Apartado 836
1007 San José
Tel. 332 755
Telex 3482 CCE LUX

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

Indonesia (HQ of the Delegation for Brunei, Singapore, and ASEAN) Secretariat

Wisma Dharmala Sakti Building, 16th floor
J.L. Jend. Sudirman 32
P.O. Box 55 JKPDS Jakarta 10 220
Tel. 578 0081/578 0181/578 0159
Telex 62 043 COMEUR IA

Pakistan

House n° 8, Margalla Road, F 6/3,
Islamabad
P.O. Box 1608
Tel (051) 82 18 28 — 82 26 04
Telex 54044 COMEU PK

Thailand (HQ of the Delegation in Indochina, Thailand, Malaysia and Philippines)

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 South America)

Calle Orinoco
Las Mercedes
Apartado 67076, Las Americas 1061A
Caracas
Tel. 91 51 33
Telex 27298 COMEU
Telefax 918876

Seychelles

P.O. Box 530 — Victoria Mahé
Tel 23 940
Telex 2213 DELCAM SZ

Tonga

MAILE TAHA
Taufa'ahau Road
Nuku Alofa
Tel 21820
Telex 66207 (DELCEC TS)
Telefax 23869

Vanuatu

Pilioko House 1st floor,
Kumul Highway
P.O. Box 442, Port-Vila
Tel. 2501
Telex 1093
Telefax 3282

Western Samoa

c/o Private Mail Bag
Chief Post Office, Apia
Telex 204 CECOF SX
Telefax 24622

Commission of the European Communities Representation Office in Turkey

15, Kuleli Sokak
Gazi Osman Paşa, Ankara
Tel. 37 68 40-1-2-3
Telex 44320 ATBE TR

the aims and means of a cooperation policy which, although a considerable burden at the moment, offers France a golden opportunity of affirming its international vocation in the future, as it has done in the past.

ooo

Stephen HARDING and David PHILLIPS, with Michael FOGARTY – **Contrasting values in Western Europe** – Unity, Diversity and Change – Studies in Contemporary values of Modern Society (Macmillan, Basingstoke, UK, 1986) – £ 9.50

This book reports on a major international survey into the nature of values, attitudes and beliefs in contemporary Western Europe. It draws on results from more than 12 000 interviews in nine European countries.

The book describes the ways in which people from these countries view important areas of their lives: their attitudes towards family life, marriage and divorce; attitudes towards work; beliefs regarding religion and morality; their political views. Within each area, the authors seek to uncover the patterns of values and preferences with which individuals identify, consider the social context in which these values occur, and examine how they vary within the population.

There are powerful unifying forces at work in Western societies, yet the values of a nation are also the product of centuries of social development, political and cultural experience, unique to each nation. With this in mind, a second aim of the book is to consider how far values, attitudes and beliefs are shared or differ across Europe.

Are values changing? Widespread differences in reported attitudes and values are seen among certain groups in the population on a wide range of social issues, such as attitudes towards authority, political change, attitudes towards family ties and responsibilities, attitudes towards morally acceptable behaviour. These differences are seen across Western Europe, and are suggestive of the kinds of social change occurring in contemporary Western societies. The authors present evidence for such social change and reflect on its implications.

ooo

A. SAWADOGO – **Un plan Marshall pour l'Afrique?** (A Marshall Plan for Africa?) – Editions Harmattan, 5-7 rue de l'Ecole Polytechnique, 75005, Paris – 120 pages

Does Africa need a Marshall Plan? – Mr Sawadogo, former Ivorian senior official, asks in a book which came out at the end of 1987. That is the question, but it suggests an answer which leaves no doubt as to what anyone responsible for Africa's economic development problem would want.

If Africa does need such a plan, then how does Mr Sawadogo suggest going about it? He fails to give us a convincing demonstration of the effort involved in such an undertaking, which would require considerable amounts of money and will. He bases his thinking on the positions taken up by Heads of State in Europe (France) and Africa and cannot fail to see that it would be very difficult to set up such a plan since, he maintains, "everything or nearly everything in Africa has yet to be built".

But development is not just a question of money or technology. It is also a question of the general policy whereby people can be mobilised with the minimum amount of discouragement – hence a lengthy discourse on human rights and democracy (Chapt-

er 5), which Sawadogo thinks are vital if the Africans themselves are to be more involved and if they want, as their leaders hope, to "start by counting on themselves". But the countries of Africa have not fulfilled the moral conditions of development and they lost valuable opportunities in the '60s and '70s. "Africans would do better to think about the differences between their own political systems and those of the countries to which they are looking for massive amounts of aid – in the capitalist West", he says. For this might help them grasp at least some of the conditions of eligibility and the content, the machinery and the reciprocal commitments of the Americans and Europeans when US aid was given after the war.

Mr Sawadogo's book sets out some important facts about the "ailing" African economy. Although a Marshall Plan would be a good thing for Africa, he maintains, the countries themselves have to create the internal conditions for development if they are genuinely anxious to make the most of their financial and technical cooperation with the rich countries. This is the tone of his chapter on "a new will of the people", bringing the book to an optimistic conclusion on a note of hope for the future of the continent of Africa.

Address

Correspondence and requests for the magazine should be sent to:

**10-12 rue Guimard
(2nd floor)
B - 1040 Brussels
Belgium**

*Visitors are always welcome to call at the offices
(Monday to Friday, from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.)*

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 Mahy-van der Werf (235 76 39)

An underwater photograph showing a diver in silhouette against a bright blue background, swimming above a large, textured, reddish-brown rock formation. The rock is covered in coral and other marine life. A dark fish is visible on the rock's surface. The overall scene is vibrant and captures the beauty of a tropical reef.

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES — Bonaire