

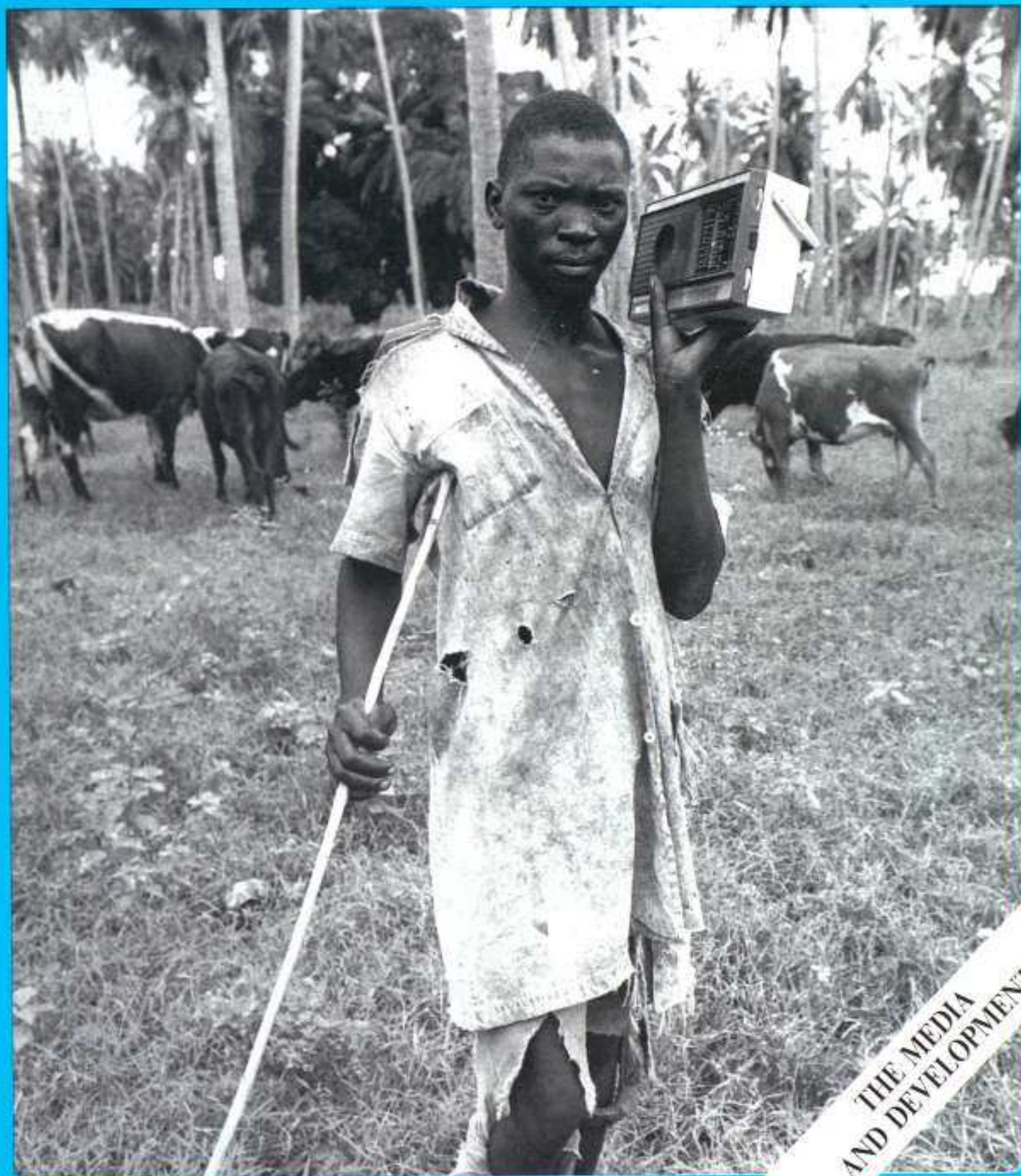


The Courier

AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC - EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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THE MEDIA
AND DEVELOPMENT

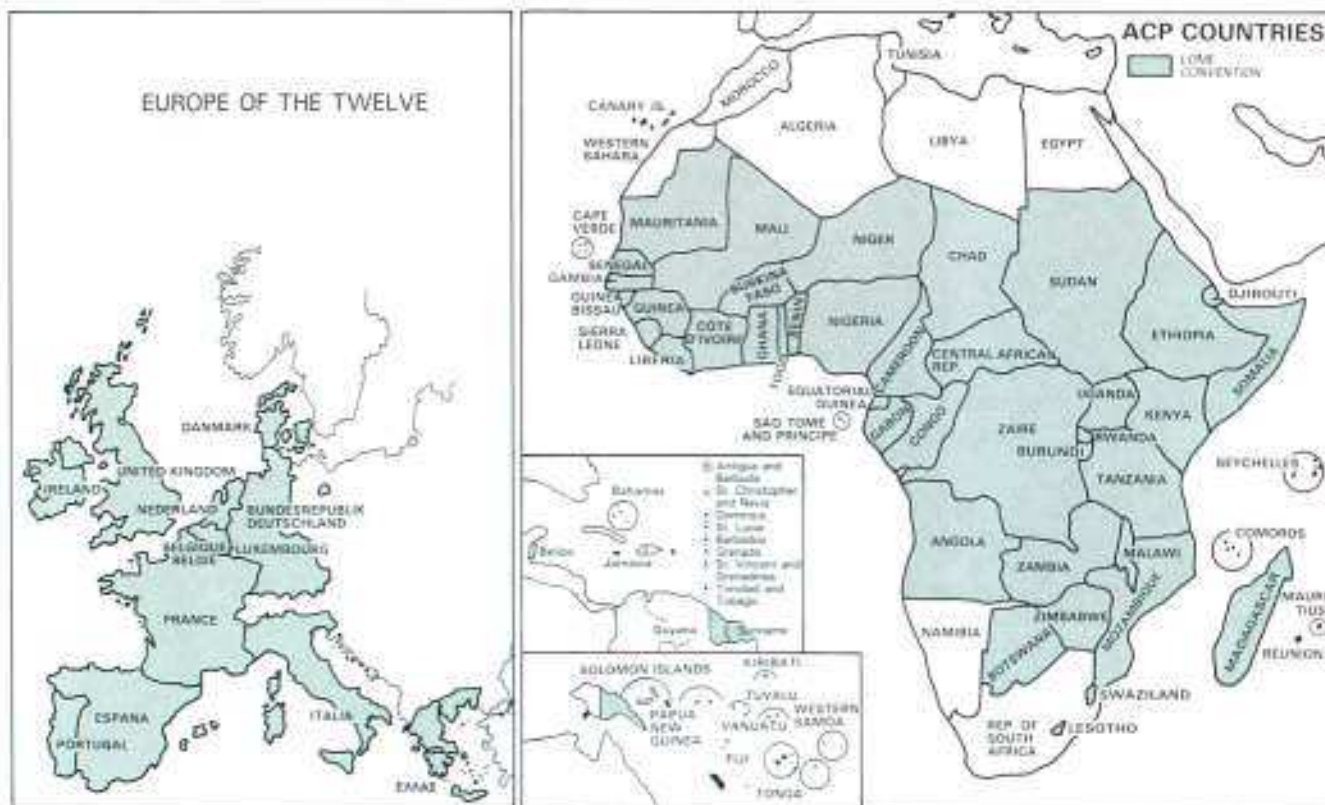
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Montserrat
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The Courier uses maps from a variety of sources. Their use does not imply recognition of any particular boundaries nor prejudice the status of any state or territory.

MEETING POINT: Gottlieb Monekosso

First perceived as the scourge of homosexuals and drug addicts, AIDS has now been recognised as a pandemic which affects every continent and which, in almost every country of the globe, poses a major problem of public health. The Courier interviewed Professor Gottlieb Monekosso, WHO's Regional Director for Africa, to learn more about this modern-day plague. Pages 2 to 5



COUNTRY REPORTS



RWANDA: Tiny and fertile, and almost bursting at the seams, Rwanda has been called the Switzerland of Africa. The skill of its peasantry and the prudent and austere management of its finances by the Government have succeeded in maintaining and improving living standards. And thus the country had something to celebrate on its 25th anniversary of independence this year. Pages 14 to 30

UGANDA: Fate must have been jealous of Uganda's fertile lands and spirited people; since independence the country has been riven by civil war and tribal opportunism. The NRM government of President Museveni has made a determined effort to put that behind it and, spurred by popular determination and the help of the international community, is laboriously rebuilding a country whose potential, human and natural, is perhaps the highest in the region. Pages 31 to 48



ACP — Regional cooperation

CARRIBBEAN: Over the past 25 years, a considerable number of regional organisations have been set up in the Caribbean. The Courier examines how three of them — the Caribbean Development Bank, the Cocoa Research Unit at the University of the West Indies and the West Indies Shipping Corporation — are fulfilling their objectives. Pages 49 to 58

DOSSIER: The media and development



The part played by information media and means of communication in the evolution of societies has always been an important one. This role has increased considerably with the complexity of modern economies and the backwardness of a large number of countries in their social and economic development. Our Dossier tries to outline the part that the media can and should play in the rapidly-changing process of social and economic advance in developing countries. Pages 63 to 83

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of the Courier's editorial department:
see inside back cover

Gottlieb L. MONEKOSSO WHO Regional Director



The Courier interviewed in Geneva, the WHO Regional Director for Africa, the Cameroonian professor Gottlieb Lobe Monekosso, former professor of medicine at the University of Lagos, former Dean of the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Dar-Es-Salaam, and of the University Centre for Medical Science of Yaoundé.

Perceived at first as a disease affecting only homosexuals and drug users, Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) has grown to pandemic proportions, affecting every continent and posing a major problem of public health in many countries in the world. To date, some 53 000 cases of AIDS have been notified in 119 countries to the WHO (World Health Organisation) which believes that this is only a fraction of the total number of those who are ill. Its own estimate is that between 5 and 10 million people are carrying the virus, of whom an important proportion will develop the disease in years to come (see box).

But over and above the alarming statistics, Dr Jonathan Mann, Director of the WHO programme on AIDS warns of "the fear and ignorance which surround this epidemic and which are causing as many tragedies as the disease itself. Today we see a wave of intolerance spread as AIDS becomes a touchstone for political prejudices and reveals barely-disguised superstitions. Fear of AIDS is even a threat to freedom of travel between countries."

It should be recalled that it was the Community which adopted a programme of measures to combat AIDS (See same issue page IV and The Courier No 104, page XII) with a budget of ECU 35 m; and at the moment a working group of the ACP-EEC Joint Assembly is studying the problems related to infectious diseases, among them AIDS.

For an up-to-date point of view on this modern-day plague,

"I hope that AIDS will never become as widespread as malaria"

► *Mr Monekosso, after long hesitation in admitting that there are AIDS victims in their countries, some Africans, are now saying that AIDS is not a more serious problem than, say, malaria or measles. Isn't this attitude preventing the necessary mobilisation of African public opinion?*

— I think the first thing is to believe what people in Africa are saying. In other words, the world should not assume that they are being untruthful. There were no AIDS cases in Africa prior to 1982, and when the authorities in 1985 were stating that they did not have AIDS cases, most of them were speaking the truth, because there was no AIDS in their countries at that time. There were AIDS patients in three or four countries, and these countries were sensitive to the question, because already the international press was beginning to point fingers at them. However, we took the initiative of explaining to those countries, and indeed, to all our leaders across the continent the impor-

tance of declaring any disease that may be within their frontiers including AIDS. Since then many have come forward as AIDS cases have begun to appear in their countries. As someone who hasn't had the doubtful privilege of watching AIDS spread in Africa, I myself have watched the disease go from one capital city to another at intervals of roughly every three or six or nine months to one year. So that if you take the middle of the continent, the disease has spread from West to East, so that you now have it as a serious problem in about 10 countries. It is prevalent, increasingly so, in another 10 or more, and there are still at least a dozen African countries that have up till now practically no AIDS infection.

► *How many cases have been brought to your knowledge so far?*

— Officially, we have had over 4 500 cases declared by 10 or 20 countries, out of the 37-odd countries that are participating in our programme,

► *But how many people have been tested positive?*

— It is not possible to tell how many people have been tested. Firstly, because testing for AIDS is not widely available and secondly, because of the costs involved and the limited laboratory facilities.

► *But what are your own estimates?*

— It is not possible to estimate the number of people who have been tested. What I can say, to answer your question differently, is that we have collaborated with countries in carrying out serio-epidemiological surveys: taking statistically valid samples of populations in order to try to determine what the prevalence rate might be, and that is probably what you wish to know. We have done that, say in the Central African countries between Chad and Cameroon, Gabon, Central African Republic, Congo, the Equatorial Guinea, the countries of the OCEAC. The results were that we have something between 2% and 6% positive prevalence in

the cities — only in the cities — and something like 0 to less than 1% in rural areas.

► *I wish to go back to my first question. Would you say that AIDS is not after all a more serious problem than malaria?*

— Let us be careful how we express this. The AIDS phenomenon is a changing dimension. At this moment in time, in most of the countries, it is still possible to say that malaria, diarrhoea, measles and other child infections, yellow fever, meningitis are more important than AIDS and certainly when you look at the number of women who die in child-

birth, these for us remain the more worrying problems. But we have to be careful. The priority ratings of any disease — not just AIDS — can change. If the prevalence continues to rise, then the priority rating would clearly change. It is my hope that AIDS will never become as important as malaria, but there is no way this can be stopped from happening. So that it is really for certain localities, for example, many of our countries are divided into small administrative units — there are districts, departments, cercles and so on. You could say that even for a country the situation may not be the same throughout. You can say that in a

particular location or district AIDS has become very important for that particular location. This is the case for certain parts of Uganda, where in a particular location the problem has become very serious. But this may not be the same throughout, and as I stated earlier, it seems to be particularly limited in the first instance to the cities, and within the cities to particular neighbourhoods.

► *Is it linked to prostitution?*

— In many African countries, it is linked to prostitution, but in saying so I think it is better to put it in a more general sense that AIDS is most often found

The global AIDS situation (*)

The numbers of reported cases of AIDS and countries reporting AIDS have increased dramatically. As of 1st July 1987, 53 121 AIDS cases have been reported to WHO from 119 countries. The number of reported cases, however, represent only a fraction of the total cases to date, which are estimated to be in excess of 100 000.

WHO estimates that between 5 and 10 million persons may be currently infected with HIV. It is estimated that by 1991, one million AIDS cases will have occurred worldwide.

In North and South America, Europe and Australia, most AIDS cases occur among young (20-46 year old) homosexual or bisexual men and intravenous drug users. However, the estimate of the proportion of cases of AIDS acquired through heterosexual contact has increased from 1% to approximately 4%. The United States Public Health Service has estimated that, by 1991, 270 000 cases of AIDS will have occurred in the USA — more than 8 times the approximately 33 000 cases of AIDS since the beginning of the epidemic.

In Europe most countries are now considered to be facing an epidemic situation, with an estimated 500 000 to one million persons infected with HIV throughout the continent. The highest rates (cases of AIDS per million population) have been reported from: Switzerland (30.1); Denmark (25.6); France (22.3); and Belgium (20.9). On the basis of current trends, between 25 000 and 30 000 cases of AIDS are expected to have occurred in Europe by the end of 1988.

(*) WHO Press Services.

The number of African countries reporting on AIDS to WHO has increased substantially in the past year. Transmission occurs in the same manner as in other parts of the world (sexual, parenteral, perinatal). Heterosexual transmission in both directions (male to female, female to male) is the major source of HIV infection in Africa. Also important is parenteral transmission (transmission from blood transfusions and injections with non-sterile equipment). Prenatal transmission (from mother to child) is a significant source of transmission especially in areas where 5-10% of pregnant women have been recorded as HIV seropositive.

There is no evidence of transmission through casual contacts (including within households), and there is considerable evidence against the hypothesis of insect vector transmission of the disease. While the exact number of HIV-infected persons or AIDS cases in Africa is not known, an estimate of one million infected persons — with an extrapolated annual rate of 10 000 AIDS cases — has been advanced; this is however considered as a minimum by some scientific observers.

Relatively few AIDS cases have been reported in Asia, and most of those confirmed have been associated with exposure to blood products or persons of western origin. Though there is evidence of local HIV transmission, studies suggest that, so far, HIV has not widely penetrated the general population.

Earlier estimates of the rates of progression of HIV infection without symptoms to AIDS and other AIDS-related syndromes have been revised

upwards. On the basis of current information it appears that 10% to 30% of HIV-infected persons will develop AIDS and 25% to 50% more will develop AIDS-related syndromes during a five-year period. The annual risk of progressing from HIV-infection without symptoms to AIDS appears to increase with time (i.e. the risk during the fifth year of infection appears greater than the risk during the second year). Current data suggests that the majority of HIV-infected persons may develop AIDS during the first 10 years after HIV infection and that the remainder may have AIDS-related syndromes.

The AIDS virus also affects the nervous system, both central and peripheral. Approximately one-third of AIDS patients have clinical neurological disorders attributable to HIV infection. These include progressive dementia, aseptic meningitis, encephalitis and peripheral neuropathy.

A recent clinical trial treating AIDS patients with Zidovudine (Azidothymidine or AZT) found that the drug prolonged life and improved patients' condition. There were, however, side-effects, including bone marrow suppression. Longer-term benefits and risks are currently unknown, but AZT may represent a first major step towards the development of safe and effective drugs for treating the disease. A pharmaceutical company has advised WHO that it is using WHO official statistics on AIDS as a basis for allocation between countries of available supplies of AZT after product registration.

The first clinical studies for several prototype vaccine preparations against HIV will start during 1987. Current scientific consensus, however, is that no vaccine will be available for widespread human use for at least five years. ◻

in those who have problems with society, who are living on the fringe of society — drug abusers and prostitutes alike. In some countries where homosexuality is not an accepted phenomenon they are also on the fringe of society, and so on.

► *But in Africa, you have mainly the heterosexual mode of transmission?*

— Yes. As far as we know most of our transmission is heterosexual; although I think it is important not to forget that Africans very rarely would admit there are homosexuals among them. Yet we know there are African homosexuals. So that, although the spread is predominantly heterosexual, we should not exclude homosexual transmission in Africa.

► *What are the countries in sub-Saharan Africa most seriously affected. You talked about Uganda, are there others?*

— At this moment in time, the countries that have notified the gravity of the problem, and which have invited WHO teams to visit them to discuss the matter and to make plans, include Uganda, Rwanda, Congo, Central African Republic, Tanzania and Zambia.

► *Not Zaïre?*

— I did not mention Zaïre specifically because the Zaïrians have not formally informed us of the occurrence of AIDS in their country. But we know, it is common knowledge worldwide, that the disease occurs at least in the capital city itself.

► *Some people point to Africa and the Caribbean as the birthplace of the virus. Is there any evidence to substantiate that?*

— I know of no valid evidence to substantiate that allegation. In the case of the HIV⁽¹⁾ patients, it is fairly admitted now that illegal Haitian immigrants in Florida got caught up in the homosexual AIDS transmission that already existed in America. These were illegal immigrants who were there unofficially, who had no other means of earning their livelihood. In the case of Africa, those of my generation who practised medicine and public health in Africa in the last 30 years and when I say my generation I mean Africans and non-African experts, Europeans, Americans who worked with us, none of us saw a single case of AIDS prior to 1980, even in university hospitals where we had all the facilities for investigation and where we discovered new diseases — diseases which were named after some of us because they were new discoveries. We certainly did not find AIDS. We know,

for example, some of the symptoms that go with AIDS: severe fungal infections of the chest, diarrhoea. The records of one university hospital have shown that the occurrence of those infections was at a very low level until about 1982, when those infections became frequent with the arrival of AIDS. From the epidemiological point of view you can almost date the arrival of AIDS in Africa this way. Those who are more interested in the matter have tested men over 65 in a part of Africa where AIDS is now very prevalent, and these tests have proved negative. If AIDS was there when they were sexually active, it is difficult to see how they could have escaped a disease which is now af-



"As long as the AIDS virus exists anywhere in the world, nobody is safe"

fecting the younger generation in the same geographical location.

► *So, for you, clearly AIDS is foreign to Africa?*

— As far as I'm concerned I don't know where the AIDS virus originated. I think it's probably a mutation — a natural mutation of one of the retroviruses⁽²⁾, because there are many retroviruses. These viral mutations occur. It could have happened anywhere in the world. But there is the balance of epidemiological evidence — in epidemiology you look for tracking cases, asking yourself where the first case was seen and where the second, third, fourth, tenth, etc were seen. And if you look at this from the factor

(2) Enzyme which allows genetic material from the RNA chain to be transformed into DNA genetic material.

point of view of where the first cases were seen, you will not look at Africa. But what I would like to say is that in the real world pandemic we now have, it is really of no importance where the virus might originally have come. The only reason why people of African origin object to these statements is the social impact on them, because other people of other races begin to look on them as possible carriers of the disease, and I know that some already suffer a degree of social ostracism here in Europe.

► *A new form of the virus has been found in West Africa that is called HIV2 for which tests are not available apparently. How prevalent is this?*

— We don't know. It has been found for the first time in a country in Western Africa. But we don't know at this moment how prevalent it is. But it's still a minor variant so to speak, in relation to the main AIDS virus which is more prevalent everywhere.

► *There are, here and there, news of major breakthroughs in the search for a vaccine or for a cure. Is there any truth in these reports?*

— As far as I know we cannot yet speak of a breakthrough. We are in close contact with our colleagues and friends who are researching actively in the world's major laboratories, and it does not seem as though it is reasonable to expect any vaccine or effective drug in under five years. My hope is of course that modern bio-medical technology being as advanced as it is, somebody will make a breakthrough before long. But as far as we can see, there is not a great deal to expect in under-five years.

► *But even if a cure is found, what can be done to ensure that it would be available to everybody, and not only to the rich, as happened with the vaccine against hepatitis B?*

— Well, let us even take simple vaccines like these which are used to protect children against measles, tuberculosis and so forth. Those vaccines, although comparatively cheap by European standards, are still very expensive to the extent that many African countries seem to be unable to afford them. The cost of developing these vaccines for AIDS, for example, as the cost for developing the hepatitis vaccine is such that, from an economic point of view, those who invest must expect to have returns for their investment, and therefore the vaccines are likely to be very expensive, and they are likely to be

(1) HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus.

beyond the reach of our governments and most of our people. For that reason, I hope there will be some kind of international solidarity which will enable the vaccine to be used for the cause of all humanity, just as we did in the case of smallpox. We vaccinated across the world, and put a stop to that particular disease, and the WHO Director-General signed the death certificate of smallpox. My hope is that a similar kind of human solidarity will arise, and funds will be raised so that lack of money will not be an impediment to communities in Africa being protected from AIDS. And in the case of a virus like AIDS, as long as the virus exists anywhere in the world, nobody is safe.

► *In the meantime, what does WHO do to fight the spread of the disease in Africa?*

— We are very active indeed. I have personally gone into what I consider a war. We have a regional AIDS task force, which comprises a number of specialists who are not just thinkers, but who are active, and we mount missions to countries. Since we got into action in April, we've done over a dozen countries, and there are another dozen or more planned for between now and August — going for the countries that are of the highest risk. But we are also going to those countries that don't yet have AIDS. The countries have been encouraged to form a national anti-AIDS committee, and we are helping with improving the blood transfusion services, with devising health education materials and programmes to inform people without frightening them. We are working on strategies for prevention of transmission by injections through contaminated syringes because most of our work is done in health care with that method. But we are limited in our resources, and WHO, as you know, now has, since February this year, a special global AIDS control

programme. It's a portion of the money raised from the international community that is used for this AIDS programme in Africa.

► *The AIDS virus is transmitted notably through blood transfusions as you've just said, and yet only a handful of African countries do test blood. Why? And how can that be remedied?*

— Well, firstly, it's only recently that a handful have started. Firstly, the cost of testing is very expensive. If you look at the health budgets of many of our countries, it's largely between US \$ 10 and 20 per head, per annum; and in one or two countries that I know well, it's US \$ 5 per head per annum. US \$ 5 is hardly enough for you to do an Elisa⁽¹⁾ test. So you can imagine the financial difficulty countries have. There is also a technical difficulty — many of our hospitals outside the main urban centres have no laboratories, are very poorly equipped and this again is a constraint. We have laboratories, where there are no blood transfusion services, so this is a real constraint.

► *But there are complaints that some test kits are almost no longer effective by the time they are received in Africa. Can't the kits be produced locally and cheaply?*

— Well, we have been looking into that and in fact we are contracting two laboratories within two African universities where we have research workers to work on this particular problem.

► *Where?*

— In the University of Ibadan, in Nigeria, and the University of Yaoundé in Cameroon, where they have immunologists working, and we hope that they will work towards finding ways of producing reagents locally. This applies not only to the reagents for the AIDS testing, but even other reagents for blood testing, because blood testing reagents are expensive anyhow, and one of the constraints for even cross matching blood for transfusion is the cost of these reagents, and local production of them is one of the possible answers.

► *So Africans are beginning to be involved in the research against AIDS?*

— Yes. We have people who have become interested in the fight against AIDS. For example, let us take the relationships of AIDS infection to malaria for example, and other tropical diseases. We are not sure, for example, the extent to which

people might be protected against AIDS because of the presence of another infection. One big question mark, for example, is why a country of the size and density of population like Nigeria has escaped AIDS until very recently; there have been no AIDS cases in Nigeria until a month or two ago.

► *Maybe because there was no testing, or nobody notified?*

— No, no, no. That is not the reason. This is a country that has the technological capability for testing almost anything you like, and these are people who travel as much as any Africans: North, South, East and West, and it seems difficult to understand why Uganda should be affected, and not Nigeria, and the possibility of other infective diseases, these are being researched. There is also in Kinshasa now a well-known Zaïrean professor, who is doing some very useful basic work on the possibility of using serum, convalescent serum, and variants of this, in protecting animals against AIDS infection.

► *In the case of Nigeria, you seem to rule out the possibility of non-notification of previous cases to WHO. You seem to think that there were no cases?*

— Let's put it this way. In WHO we depend on official reporting, on what the governments report. We also have means of knowing what goes on in countries. We have representatives in countries. We have professional colleagues in countries who are working in hospitals and institutions everywhere and who will tell us if there is a case, and also people whose integrity we have no reason to doubt. If I have a Professor of Clinical Medicine, at the University of Ibadan, who has looked and looked and up till now hasn't seen a single case, I have little reason to disbelieve him because I also sat in that chair and from that chair whatever a government may or may not say, I would still tell a colleague and say: this is the position.

► *That could be a very interesting clue?*

— Yes, this is what I'm saying, that in fact we should not generalise. We are very much at the beginning of our knowledge of AIDS. We know practically nothing about this new disease, and we have a responsibility in WHO, the international scientific community, to carefully study every little detail to put the jigsaw puzzle together, and not allow generalised assumptions, before we have really proper scientific evidence to back them. ◻

Interview by Amadou TRAORE

Continent	No cases	Number of countries reporting		
		total	0 cases	1 or more cases
Africa	4584	42	12	30
Americas	42009	44	4	40
Asia	161	24	5	19
Europe	5846	27	0	27
Oceania	521	4	1	3
Total	53121	141	22	119

(*) Source: WHO; date 1st July 1987

(1) ELISA: Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays; an enzyme-based technique for showing the presence of antibodies.

Is Lomé policy political?

The political aspects of the Lomé Convention have always generated real interest. People have seen it differently, depending on their approach and, on the angle they have viewed it from. Some, for example, have seen the EEC-ACP cooperation agreement as a way for Europe to ensure potential markets (the "collective clientelism" idea) and to maintain a political presence in the former colonies, while others have called it a balanced form of cooperation relations

between two major groups of sovereign countries with what are often different economic and political systems.

Dieter Frisch, Director-General for Development in the EEC Commission, gave a lecture dealing with some of these questions in Germany recently. And in an interview with *The Courier*, he agreed to take his analysis of the political aspects, implicit and explicit, of the Lomé Convention further.

► *Mr Frisch, is Lomé a political agreement between the Community and the ACP countries?*

— The answer to a question couched in those terms has to be no. The cooperation we have under the Convention does not have a political aim—either in the sense of seeking concertation on our partners' external policies or of bringing them into line with our own political and economic options. It must be clear—and this is one of the fundamental principles of Lomé—that the Convention fully respects the ACP States' choice of economic and political systems and development models. So from this point of view, the agreement is clearly a non-political one. Quite simply. If the partners' choices were not fully respected in all their diversity, there would be no Lomé Convention.

► *So you see Lomé as more a technical agreement aimed at helping the ACPs develop their economies first and foremost, is that it?*

— The aim of the Convention is economic and social development, but we are not hiding naively behind these technical aspects! Obviously Lomé does have some not negligible political aspects—and above all political effects: Cooperation between 66 developing countries and the European Community is a major political fact. As far as the Community is concerned, having stable, constructive relations with 66 countries, including all the independent States of sub-Saharan Africa, is quite naturally a political phenomenon. The Convention even has a noble political objective—as Article 1 says, to "create, with a view to a more just and balanced international economic order, a model for relations

between developed and developing states and to work together to affirm in the international context the principles underlying their cooperation", which is an ambition the political value of which must not be underestimated. But we have to be clear about the difference between refraining from political interference and the political phenomenon which this cooperation represents.

► *Man was the focus of ACP-EEC cooperation during the Lomé III negotiations. A lot was heard about human rights and especially the situation in southern Africa. Do you think that constitutes grounds for calling Lomé political?*

— Strictly speaking I don't call that political. The fact that we, as partners at the negotiations, agreed to found our future relations on something essential—the fulfilment of man as the agent of development and the subject of all our cooperation efforts is a moral and "developmental" choice—is not political in the usual meaning of the word. What it is in fact is a return to the source and the very foundations of development. One has to read the texts carefully. One needs almost to have followed the negotiations to understand that the notion of human rights, as they appear in the Convention, is a very broad one. Instead of a narrow concept of legal and civil rights, what we have is an idea covering fundamental economic and social rights as well. So the idea some people might have that the reference to human rights means the Community can set itself up as the watchdog of its partners' political ethics is not in the Convention. Flagrant flouting of fundamental human rights would obviously be another thing.

► *Does the Community agree to discuss, say, apartheid problems from this angle?*

— Yes. That has to be put in the same context. The fact that the new Convention contains not just a general reference to the fulfilment and dignity of mankind but a solemn commitment by the partners to work to eradicate apartheid, that flagrant, permanent violation of fundamental human rights, has indubitably been something that has politicised Lomé. But it is a specific political element that is very close to the development problems and concerns of those of our partners who are South Africa's neighbours, because of all the destabilisation the apartheid policy creates. There can be no question of cooperating with independent countries south of the Sahara and ignoring the problems that arise from having South Africa as a neighbour. The Convention has explicitly provided the possibility of discussing apartheid because of the geographical context and the serious consequences of South African policy for the development of southern Africa.

However, neither can there be any question of going to our institutional meetings and bringing up such things as East-West relations, negotiations on disarmament, the Middle East conflict or any other major international political problem which does not have a sufficiently direct bearing on ACP-EEC cooperation. This shows you the scope and the limitations of the political discussion.

► *Do you think that, given the very different types of political situation in the ACP States—which hasn't stopped 66 of them from signing the Convention—accession is in some cases a political act on their part?*

— You could look at it like that. I think that joining a group like the ACP Group and the Lomé Convention is in some ways a political decision for each of these countries. That is not to say that the country has to decide to join the western system or take the economic choices of the European Community, but simply to join with it in a structured kind of cooperation. It is a choice which is made with the clear idea that cooperation under Lomé allows for a wide range of political and economic options. The new partners certainly saw what happens in Lomé first and were convinced by it.

► *Can you give us one or two examples of ACP countries which have actually said that joining the Convention was a political act as far as they were concerned?*

— I can give you the example of Angola, which only decided to join after Lomé III was signed in late 1984 and became the 66th signatory in April 1985. When I went out on my first mission to Angola about a year ago, the political leaders of the country publicly announced that joining Lomé was the result of deep discussion at all levels of the power structure and that it was a political choice as far as the Angolan Government was concerned.

► *Would it have been a political failure for the Community if some countries which have been profoundly marked by their economic and political options—since the two go together—had not joined?*

— I don't think one can talk about political success or political failure. The Community, I believe, is pleased that the ACP circle has been completed. The fact that there are still new candidates wanting to join simply shows that it is a successful policy, maybe because the Community isn't suspected of political interference... which brings me back to where I started.

► *Is it also right to see the common front of the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries from the word go as a political act to negotiate Lomé?*

— It certainly was a major political act. The challenge of negotiations with the enlarged Community as it was in 1973 got the ACPs to group together, first the Africans and then the group

of Caribbean and Pacific countries which joined forces with the Africans for the combined negotiations. That, I think, was a highly significant political act. Today, I believe, with a little distance between us and 1973 when these discussions took place between the French-speaking and English-speaking countries of Africa (the Portuguese speaking Africans have joined in since) who were not used to living and working, practically, together, we can say that it was a great political success and one we tend to lose sight of. It was the result of the need to go to the negotiations with the Community with

fairs with the Community. Group-to-group relations introduce a balance—another politically significant aspect of Lomé.

► *Claude Cheysson used a very imaginative expression to describe this. He said that going from a chosen unit to a bigger unit comprising all the independent countries of sub-Saharan Africa plus the Caribbean and then the Pacific, was a political fact, since these countries defined themselves in relation to an external group. Although the ACP Group is structured as you just said, its future could well be mortgaged*



Mr. Frisch interviewed by Lucien Pagni

a better balance of power. I think that is an indirect contribution the Community made both to African unity and to the unity of the ACP Group—which has become highly structured since. It is an undeniably political aspect of our cooperation!

Another political thing I should like to mention is the fact that what we have here is group-to-group relations. On one side there is the Community with its 12 Member States, a strong economic power in the world, the biggest international trading partner and the biggest trading partner for the developing world too, and on the other there is the ACP Group—which has consolidated.

In North-South relations, aimed at striking a better balance, it is important not to have individual countries opposite an economic power like the Community, but a group that can speak with one voice in negotiations or in the management of everyday af-

because it exists above all in relation to the Community. What do you think?

— I think that the ACP Group formed and took shape—and this is an historical fact—because of its relations with the Community. But at the same time, it is clear today that the ACP Group has gained its true weight on the international scene. It is not yet an entity functioning as a conventional international organisation, but the ACPs are there as a unit at some international meetings, representing the Group and defending its interests. And this entity, I think, is going to be increasingly its own justification, whereas at the beginning—and there is no doubt about this—the Group was formed to organise its relations with the Community. But since the Community is going to continue, this is maybe only a question of theory!

► *The Convention isn't political, but it does, you suggest, have what you call nobly political aspects. When the policy*

dialogue was suggested at the negotiations it was a dialogue on development policies, yet it worried the ACPs a lot. Why do you think this is?

— There was a great deal of misunderstanding over the idea of the policy dialogue.

Here we have another level of politics. When we discussed this policy dialogue at the Lomé III negotiations, what we meant was development policy and very often the sectoral idea of rural development or a thematic approach like food security. Our partners started the negotiations by seeing this idea of policy dialogue as perhaps meaning that the EEC intended to break with what seemed to be the Lomé tradition of not interfering with our partners' political choices. At one stage, the ACPs thought that we had abandoned that hitherto respected principle. But this was a misunderstanding. We explained, and during the programming of Lomé III financial cooperation we showed that this dialogue was aimed at something much more restricted and at the same time something much more normal between adult partners.

One of the characteristics of Lomé III is that it concentrates financial and technical cooperation on a small number of areas in each country, on one or two major priorities if possible. This is contrary to what happened in the past when traditionally there was a range of projects in all areas of the economy and the social sector, each there on its own merits, but in a relatively isolated way. With Lomé III, we want more impact, we want to concentrate on one thing, one sector. So it is vital—and we realised this during programming—to start by talking about the policy the Government intends running and then how the Community, with the financial and technical means it has available, can back it up. If we are talking about rural development and food security, then, quite frankly, without any desire to interfere or infringe on our partners' sovereignty, we have to talk about price policies and marketing and agricultural credit facilities, for example, to see whether the external support aid brings is likely, in conjunction with the national policy, to reach the aims decided on together. That is the policy dialogue. Nothing other than that. The idea is to organise

the joint effort to reach a target that the Government sees as a priority.

Once we had explained this, we stopped meeting any real problems. Let me give you an example. We talked with some countries about choosing between State farms and peasant smallholdings, not with an ideological axe to grind, but to see, practically and from an economic point of view, on the basis of years of experience, whether a given economic system could produce the desired results. I found no problem in holding this discussion in the socialist countries. The same goes for price policies. A well-paid peasant farmer produces more than one paid just or not even enough to cover costs. That is an economic truth that can be discussed with any partner regardless of his ideological standpoint. So the policy dialogue, which loomed like a black cloud over the negotiations, turned into something absolutely normal.

► *How did this idea of policy dialogue come about?*

— We on the European side—and our ACP partners on theirs—took a fundamental, scrupulous look at the way the results of cooperation had evolved. We frankly and honestly learned the lessons of our past cooperation, with its plus points and its failures and we realised that some projects had foundered because there was external input which had no logical reflection in the national policy.

Another reason—and this is why we put man at the very centre of our thinking—was that, in the past, we had not always taken enough trouble over investigating the real needs and the real expectations of the populations we were trying to help. These lessons were such that we wanted to change various things in Lomé III. The idea of sectoral concentration in our development effort in fact derives from this evaluation of past achievements.

► *There is also a problem of concertation and coherence between the Community's policy towards the ACPs and that of the Member States bilaterally speaking. How do you see this concertation and coherence?*

— There was a time when some Europeans thought that the Community policy would gradually absorb the

national bilateral policies of the Member States in the medium term to make one big Community policy. In the field of trade, this is in any case what happens because of the Community's competence in this field. When it comes to financial and technical cooperation, I think it is no longer within our scope. So we have to organise coexistence that is as harmonious as possible between 12 bilateral policies and the Community policy.

And that is no small thing, because, for historical reasons, some of our Member States concentrate their aid on certain regions. And, for economic and political reasons, they have preferences for certain sectors and subjects. So there is no convergence at the beginning.

And then there is the fact that, quite naturally—and this isn't a criticism—national development cooperation policies tend to be closer to foreign policy and therefore less in step with the Community approach which can allow itself to be guided by development considerations alone, as it doesn't have to be a part of an external Community policy—which doesn't (yet) exist. You could almost say that this unfinished entity, this European Economic Community of ours, which doesn't yet have its foreign policy dimension, in fact protects us from influence or intrusion by "denaturing" political elements in our Community development policy.

The stated aim of the Member States is gradually to achieve convergence, the greatest convergence possible, between the national policies and the Community policy. We have made progress. But we are far from having a policy we have really orchestrated. We try to bring our points of view together by discussing priority topics, food security for example and the anti-desertification campaign. Recently we talked about the role of the private sector in development policy. For us here in the Community, the first step along the road to harmonised development activity is to coordinate our development schemes with those of the Member States. Coordination with the World Bank and some third countries follows.

► *How does the Common Agricultural Policy affect trade relations between the Community and the ACPs*

and how far is it a cause for concern in the ACP countries?

— There are always a certain number of conflicting aims in different policies. The Community's agricultural policy has certain aims and the development policy has others and the job of those in control is to try and make for some sort of coherence between them. When aims conflict, honest compromises that take account of the various interests have to be sought. The Common Agricultural Policy poses certain problems for those of us who are responsible for development policy — although they aren't as serious for our ACP partners as people usually suggest. A simple analysis shows that, given the structure and production potential of our ACP partners, direct competition from European products only crops up in a very few cases. There may be a problem for a few products from some — not all — ACP countries because of the competition we (EEC and ACP) might enter into on the world market. Sugar is maybe one of the rare cases where there really is a problem, in spite of the Lomé protocol whereby 1.3 million tons of sugar can be imported from the ACPs to the EEC at internal Community prices every year. So conflict between the CAP and ACP exports to the Community and to third markets is rare. But it must be reduced and the reform of the Common Agricultural Policy will help this.

► *There is something else...: the trend towards the total liberalisation of world trade under GATT and the erosion it could lead to for the ACPs in the GSP...*

— There we have a real dilemma. Seen from the Community side, we have three systems for the outside world. We have the system for all the third countries which is negotiated under GATT. This is the normal system. Then we have the preferential system for all the developing countries within the framework of what we call the generalised preferences. And then we have a third system, the most favourable, and one which is contractual, for our ACP partners and, to a large extent, for the countries of the eastern and southern Mediterranean too, which also have preferential arrangements with the Community.



Signing of financing agreements between the Director-General for Development and Mr. Yaovi Adodo, Minister of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation of the Republic of Togo

This preference means the ACP get, overall, the easiest access of all our external partners to the Community market. When we are involved in international negotiations such as the GATT Uruguay Round just beginning now, there is a slight risk of the preferential partners seeing their preferential margin whittled down following a lowering of the system of protection in relation to the world as a whole. That is true, of course, but at the same time you have to see that the ACPs are not involved in exclusive relations with the Community. They too have other markets and they too have to see that these other markets develop for their benefit. Indeed some ACPs export a large percentage of their products to third countries. So you also have to see the improvements international negotiations of the GATT type can bring to the ACPs on other markets, because if everyone reduced their customs duties as far as the outside world was concerned, our ACP partners could have extra facilities on these markets. And this may well make up for any reduction in their preferential margin on the Community market.

It is a difficult process to manage and the ACPs have every interest in following negotiations of this type closely, so that during the talks their overall advantages are improved as far as possible. They shouldn't just be looking to the Community and saying they want to defend their preferences.

It is not easy for them to take this sort of stand at Geneva because the developing countries, as a group, are asking for the freest access to all markets.

► *Does the ACPs' defence of their advantages on the Community market in some way betray a lack of commercial aggressiveness on the international scene?*

— Obviously the world economic trends over the past few years have revealed the structural strength and weakness of the international trading partners. When markets wane, when demand stagnates or dwindles in our countries, prices usually tend to drop because supplies are plentiful. And in difficult competition of this sort, it is the highest-performance producers who win. There is nothing surprising about the fact that the least developed countries over the past few years have also been those with the biggest structural weaknesses. And in spite of a preferential system for the Lomé partners for certain exports that have to compete with South East Asian goods, they have sometimes lost market shares because the preference they get has apparently not been enough to make up for the difference in competitiveness between them and certain competitors who do not have the benefit of preferential arrangements. In conditions like this, the ACPs see every point in at least hanging on to the preferential system they have at the moment, and we are doing our best to

see that there are as few changes as possible when it comes to products that are really sensitive. But, fundamentally, I believe that the ACP efforts should not be so exclusively geared to what is a rather static defence of the system of customs tariffs and access to our markets. The main drive should be for basic structural measures that will bring or bring back maximum competitiveness so they can stand up to other partners on the world trade scene. What I tell the ACPs is that 5% protection of their export products is not enough to guarantee them a market if they do not also make a big effort at rock bottom, in the production structures themselves, to become competitive or to stay competitive.

► *Mr Frisch, can we talk about Lomé's effect at international level. Is the Convention an example?*

— It's the outside observers and not the people directly involved who ought to be answering that one! The people who created Lomé, our partners and we ourselves, have a certain reason to be proud of what we have done—although we have to admit that, like any human endeavour, it has its imperfections. But I do think that Lomé is an example from many points of view. Don't forget that some of the instruments we created in the Lomé framework have become references in international negotiations in frameworks far greater than ours. Stabex, for example, the export revenue stabilisation system which we devised together under Lomé I and which is now a concept that they discuss at UNCTAD and want to see extended internationally, with other industrialised nations joining with the Community in this campaign to provide financial compensation when export earnings drop.

I should also like to say that Lomé has created relations of confidence, intimacy almost, between the partners, since we so often act together on the international scene, beyond Lomé, to get certain ideas across. Take the recent conclusion of the new International Cocoa Agreement, which saw the light of day thanks to the initiative of some of the ACP countries and the action of the Community, the Commission especially, which were decisive. The Cocoa Agreement is an indirect consequence of Lomé. I should

also mention private investment in the new Lomé Convention. This was a breakthrough and we made it together when we drew up Article 240 laying down various basic concepts in the matter of private investment. Our Lomé text has been a reference which very quickly enabled the World Bank to unblock the multilateral investment guarantee agreement (MIGA) for private investment. The World Bank practically took over Article 240 of Lomé to get broader guarantee machinery working.

► *A book that came out in the United States after Lomé III was signed said the Convention was a kind of "collective clientelism" system. What do you say to this?*

— I would rather the ACPs answered the Americans on something like this. Our partners chose these relations with us freely. They cannot really feel exploited by a Community which, since Lomé I, has no longer asked for any reciprocal preferences. And they aren't exclusive relations either. We have demonstrated an ability to build our cooperation policy beyond Lomé, one that now takes in Asia and Latin America too. We no longer have exclusive relations with a few countries of Africa, as we did 20 years ago, before Lomé. Many countries, I think, would be happy to see others, the United States for example, offer cooperation that is so fundamentally motivated by development considerations alone, not political ones, to such a large group of partners. An objective comparison between the Caribbean Basin Initiative, which is the USA's unilateral and selective way of offering non-contractual trade advantages—and they can be withdrawn overnight—to a few partners shows the far greater benefits of Lomé's contractual system, on which all the partners, regardless of their political or any other circumstances, can count for stable cooperation relations. The ACP are our partners, not our clients!

► *What about the consultation between the Community and the ACPs?*

— This is important and it should be the subject of a discussion in which contradictory opinions are clarified by us and our ACP partners.

What is positive here is that, in Lomé, the Community has undertaken

to consult the ACPs before it takes certain internal decisions in areas that may affect their interests. To the best of my knowledge, nowhere in the world is there another system where an industrialised country agrees to consult its external partners before taking certain legal decisions. I am even told that some outside observers don't believe it! But it does exist—and that is a major political aspect of the Convention! We have even strengthened the Convention when it comes to mandatory consultation on agricultural, commercial, industrial, technological and other policies that may affect the interests of our ACP partners.

But the ambiguity starts when our partners confuse consultation with a search for agreement at all costs. We are usually in a situation where the aims of the Community's development policy are at variance with the aims of its other policies and the aim of the consultation is for the different points of view to be explained and for us all to make an effort to take the partner's interests into account. The result of consultation can only be a reasonable level of compromise—which of course will never entirely satisfy either side. So let us not seek to make consultation a procedure of agreement at all costs. That would change something exemplary into something frustrating.

► *Is Lomé a model that will last?*

— As I see it, Lomé will last. And it will last because the Community and its ACP partners will want the cooperation to continue. Every time we negotiate—and I hope in future it doesn't have to be every five years—we will have an opportunity to review what we are doing, to improve on our forms of cooperation and bridge gaps and make up for imperfections. The Convention is a human undertaking and there is room for improvement, but it is, I think, a model and a reference. However, instead of giving you my own thoughts on this, I would rather quote an eminent ACP personality, the President of Mali, who recently said in an interview with an African magazine that "Lomé is an outline of what ideal North-South cooperation should be"... Now if that isn't political what is it? ◊

Interview by
LUCIEN PAGNI

"The significant role of the Lomé Conventions must be recognised"

An interview with G. Berhane, Ambassador of Ethiopia

Ambassador Ghebray Berhane is leaving Brussels. Having represented Ethiopia at the EEC and in the Benelux countries since 1979, he has become, over the years and along with his colleagues Sy of Senegal and Chasle of Mauritius, one of the most familiar figures at ACP meetings. Doctor of Laws and a polyglot, equally at ease in English and French, Italian or Amharic, he has created for himself a reputation among those who worked on the Conventions, as an inflexible negotiator; particularly in the areas of financial and technical cooperation which he has marked with his own stamp. He has presided over not only the Committee of Ambassadors but the ACP sub-committee on financial and technical cooperation, the Investment Working Group and the Article 108 and 193 Committee on the implementation of financial and technical cooperation, for which latter he was the ACP spokesman during the Lomé III negotiations. Before leaving Belgium, he gave the following interview to *The Courier*.

► *Mr Berhane, you have been on the ACP Committee of Ambassadors for almost 10 years now and, as such, in constant contact with the representatives of the Community. What has this taught you about relations between the developed and the developing countries?*

— I have been in Brussels for about nine years and, overall, it has been a very fruitful experience as far as I am concerned, very full professionally speaking, because the kind of subject they deal with in Brussels and the level of the discussions they have there mean that you always get the benefit of the contact and daily intercourse that are part of the diplomat's way of life. Personally, too, this long period has been an opportunity to get to know a number of colleagues and appreciate their human qualities, their willingness and their open-mindedness.

Before I answer your question, there are three things I should like to say. First of all, that no-one doubts the principle of cooperation. Second, that the high standard of the discussions are due to the competence, the devotion and the integrity of the people who work to promote ACP-EEC cooperation. And third, that in the definition of relations between the developed and the developing countries, it would be wrong to underestimate the role of public opinion.

Relations between the industrialised and the developing nations of the world are going through an extremely bad patch. The critical state of the African economies, even the ACP's, is well known and it has been exacerbated by

the size of the debt, the collapse of commodity prices, the decline in official development aid and the cycle of natural disasters which have hit the ACP countries.

Take just the first three of these. No satisfactory answer has yet been found for the debt. Only two of the 12 Member States have so far agreed to channel more than 0.7% of GNP into development assistance and there is a clear general trend towards reducing it. Look at the ACP position on the world market and you can see that the prices of the raw materials most of our countries depend on for their foreign exchange are still dwindling, although the price of manufactured goods goes up year after year.

► *Do you mean to say that cooperation is ill-balanced?*

— If the ACP countries, those in Africa particularly, see their incomes dwindle while the price they have to pay for their imports goes on going up, then the outcome is bound to be imbalance. I ought to add that this is not solely due to relations between the ACPs and the Community. It's a problem between industrialised and developing nations the world over.

► *But aren't relations between the ACPs and the Community equal?*

— Of course they are officially speaking, and the principle of equality has been asserted once again by the Lomé Convention. But that is not the problem.

When the ACPs talk about striking a



fresh balance, what they really mean is the effort everyone needs to make to get a better correlation between the price of raw materials and the price of manufactured goods. And they also mean complementarity between the economies of the two partners and the fact that the development and economic growth of the ACPs will inevitably have a good effect on the economies of their partners.

► *Some people say that the ACP situation has got constantly worse in spite of the Lomé Conventions — which are the most advanced expression of the North-South Dialogue. Other people say the situation would be even worse without this policy of cooperation. What do you think?*

— I think that there is room for a view half way between the two ideas. First of all, you have to realise that the Lomé Conventions do play a significant part in the economic development of the ACP countries — and I say it all the easier for Ethiopia being one of the nations to have benefitted most from Lomé. But there is a tendency for some people to think that the Conventions have done it all and all we need to do now is make sure they are applied properly. What we think — and many Europeans agree with us — is that the Community has the means of doing more and better in all areas of ACP-EEC cooperation. On the other hand, the ACPs realise it is up to them to define and apply an economic and social development policy that takes their own resources into account. That is to say that the cooperation policy is still significant.

It is vital, you might say, in many cases, but it is a policy of support rather than replacement.

It is probably because these two aspects of cooperation have been lost sight of that there has not been much progress over the past 25 years.

And both the EEC Commission (in its memo of 1983) and the Economic Commission for Africa (in its Lagos Action Plan) have come to the same conclusion.

► *But that doesn't actually answer my question about whether the situation would have been even worse without the Lomé cooperation agreements...*

— All cooperation agreements without exception are based on a certain amount of joint interest to the partners. The Lomé agreements, like the agreements that preceded them, the Yaoundé Conventions, contain financial and technical provisions which reflect Europe's needs as well as those of the ACP countries.

Without suggesting Lomé has a monopoly on good or evil, let us say that both the ACPs and the Community are attached to the system of cooperation that they have devised together and are determined to maintain it — provided it can be adapted to new situations and improved to give a better response to the demands of the various people involved.

► *The ACPs are Europe's privileged partners and they want to stay that way — hence their frequent appeals for maintenance of their preferences. Do you think the ACP privileges have been eroded over the past decade?*

— The preferences the ACPs get involve two things — reduction of customs tariffs and quotas for certain products that are deemed to be sensitive on the Community market — and there is no doubt that they have been constantly reduced, to the point where very little remains.

► *Is this due to the extension of other people's preferences?*

— The extension of GSP. Don't forget that the privileges you talk about were granted to the ACPs at a time when they were Europe's main suppliers of raw materials, if not its only ones. The system of generalised preferences, as the name suggests, applies increasingly widely to an increasing number of products and so there are very few preferences still reserved for the ACP countries alone.

► *Is defence of these preferences compatible with the need for solidarity between the developing nations?*

— Of course it is. Solidarity doesn't mean aligning all your interests. Many countries that do not belong to the ACP group are quick to defend their interests and to defend them stoutly. What the ACPs are trying to do is maintain what they have acquired, as there has to be solidarity in areas where interests converge.

► *When it comes to implementation of the Convention, which two or three subjects have emerged as most important during your time in Brussels?*

— There have been a lot in eight or nine years. Something that at one stage seemed vital for Ethiopia was Stabex. In 1981, the year the annual Stabex allocation wasn't enough to cover ACP export revenue losses, Ethiopia's earnings were particularly badly down. And the loss was aggravated by the transfer being calculated in a not very orthodox way. It had never been used in the past and when it was used for Ethiopia, we immediately complained because there was no legal basis for it or any provision to justify its use.

► *But it was the system that had always been used...*

— The system that had always been used, but not for Ethiopia, which had never applied for a transfer. When it lost its export earnings, it applied a different method from the one used by the Commission. According to its own figures, Ethiopia was entitled to claim a transfer of almost \$35 million. But the method actually used came up with a transfer of only \$4 million.

► *How do you account for that?*

— At the time, and afterwards, it was put down to the way the exchange rates were worked out. That is to say that the loss was calculated in national currency and the drop in income was then converted into ECU, which we did too. But the Commission thought the best way was to work out the figures, but not the final results, on a year-by-year basis, so when there were changes in the exchange rate over the four years, particularly when in the case in point the dollar rose, the loss incurred was artificially reduced.

► *But the opposite could also happen... the dollar could drastically drop...*

— What Ethiopia did — and this is why the subject is an important one — is

manage to agree with the Community and the ACPs during the negotiations for the Third Convention on finding a protective mechanism. So now if there is a more than 10% change in the exchange rate, things are brought down to controllable proportions. But obviously it was no good for Ethiopia's loss of export revenue at that time. Another interesting thing is the application of Protocol No 6 on the tax and customs arrangements for Community-financed contracts in the ACP States. As you know, Ethiopia's Lomé I and II indicative programmes contained major infrastructure projects — roads, hospitals, HT lines and so on — carried out by both Ethiopian and European firms. Under Article 3 of Protocol No 6, profits accruing from Community-financed works and service contracts are to be taxed under the domestic tax arrangements in the ACP country in question. Unfortunately, even provisions as clear as this one can sometimes be interpreted differently. We tried to exonerate the firms involved which obviously should have been subject to the Protocol 6 arrangements. The discussions went on for several months and prices escalated, but ultimately the fact that the Convention wasn't available for unilateral interpretation had to be accepted.

The other subjects aren't as important as this, but there are things like, say, the allocation of resources to particular fields, the use of the regional funds, for example, for projects that appear to be national ones but are in fact used in other countries. A road between two countries may already be partly built. This was what happened with the Kenya-Ethiopia road, where the Ethiopian part already existed. Ethiopia, which wanted to expand its trade with neighbouring Kenya, which still hadn't built its part, wanted to present this road project as a regional project because, in the end, the aim was to promote the development, since the Ethiopian part had already been built, this wasn't a regional project at all because all that was left was the Kenyan stretch of the road, so the project was a Kenyan one. This is an interesting point. Is a road project regional when both sections have to be built from scratch or can a stretch that has already been built be incorporated in a regional project?

► *The policy dialogue provoked a lot of controversy during the negotiations, didn't it? Do you think it tends to go well in practice?*

— Let us get one thing straight. Pro-

gramming, which is what we are referring to when we use the term policy dialogue, has worked out very well in practice. As we agreed during the negotiations, there are exchanges of views, based on the individual countries' draft indicative programmes, between representatives of each ACP nation and the Community. It is also nice to see that, in the vast majority of countries, programming is done within the time set by the Convention.

However, the indicative programmes — which have all been thoroughly discussed by the representatives of each ACP and the Community itself — are apparently not well received by the Community authorities, particularly the representatives of the Member States.

► *Doesn't this mean that the dialogue on policies doesn't work for the ACPs?*

— The ACPs have tried to make it work, but the misgivings are now proving founded with the indicative programmes drawn up together being blocked initially and implementation certainly being held up. It would be just one of those things, of course, that will end up being settled to everyone's satisfaction, but meanwhile it has to be admitted that, two years after Lomé III took effect, very few dossiers have been approved. So it is reasonable to wonder whether the new method of programming will speed up the application of the indicative programmes.

► *Do the ACPs want to go back to the old system?*

— No, they don't. Not at all. But as they see it, maintaining the old system as an introduction to the present system is no way of reaching our aims. If the dialogue on policies proves to be a way of implementing the Convention rapidly and efficiently, then the ACPs will be delighted. But recent experience — which is of course by no means conclusive — suggests that some Community authorities are not too pleased with the new system and would like to go back to the old one. As the ACPs see it, the important thing is to put the indicative programmes agreed on jointly with the Commission into practice rapidly.

► *The Committee of Ambassadors has an important part to play in the decision-making process in the ACP Group... But doesn't the rapid turnover of Ambassadors in Brussels (your case is by no means typical) and the perpetual initiation into the mysteries of the Convention that this involves hamper the work of the group?*

— The job of the Committee of Am-

bassadors is to ensure that the Lomé Convention is applied and to present a report of activity to the Council of Ministers — which meets twice a year. It does this with the help, not just of the Secretariat General, but of a dozen sub-committees and several working parties. Given the diversity of fields that there are to cover and the complex nature of some subjects, there is no doubt that the rapid turnover of diplomats in Brussels doesn't help when it comes to keeping up with topics that have been under discussion for what can be a long time.

Many ACPs realise the need to keep experienced diplomats and experts in Brussels, and Ambassadors stay relatively longer in Brussels than elsewhere. The usual period of service for an ACP Ambassador is the length of the Convention.

► *What other possibilities do you see for improving the functioning of the ACP Group whose meetings, as the President of the Council said again recently, are veritable marathons because of the long agendas?*

— The problem of diplomats in Brussels being replaced too quickly would not be serious if the ACP Group's rules of operation could be systematically institutionalised. At the moment, there is a consensus as to the fact that a certain amount of rigorousness in the rules of procedure wouldn't go amiss.

And people are wondering whether the length of the chairmanship, currently six months on both the Committee and the Council, is the right thing for the ACPs. They think that better work organisation would mean putting the term of office up to a year, so, on the Committee of Ambassadors at least, members of the enlarged bureau, who tend to be the chairmen of the sub-committees, can serve together for a reasonably long period.

Another field for potential improvement now being investigated is the preparation and distribution of dossiers.

Since the Ministers only meet twice a year and the Committee of Ambassadors, which has to prepare the meetings, depends on the work of the sub-committees and the other working parties, there is no doubt that the dossiers and documents have to be particularly carefully drafted so that the decision-making bodies can give proper guidelines and directives.

Lastly, better coordination between the ACP Group in Brussels and the capitals

would make for considerable improvements in the standard of the group's work. Vital questions are often left unanswered too long and there is nothing unusual about dossiers being held up because some countries or regions have failed to give precise directives.

► *You were Ethiopia's Ambassador at a time when certain aspects of your country's policy were the subject of controversy in the European press. What do you think about these events?*

— You know, I have lived in Europe for a long time and I am not surprised to see some people and some journalists homing in onto something they think is sensational. But I have to admit that the virulence of the verbal attack and the entirely gratuitous nature of the statements of people seeking an easy path to fame made a big impression on me.

They even tried to create a gulf between Ethiopia and the Community by getting European public opinion going against cooperation with my country. Fortunately, the attempt failed and the fund of sympathy for Ethiopia and the extraordinary solidarity that was shown during the drama triggered by the drought were not seriously affected.

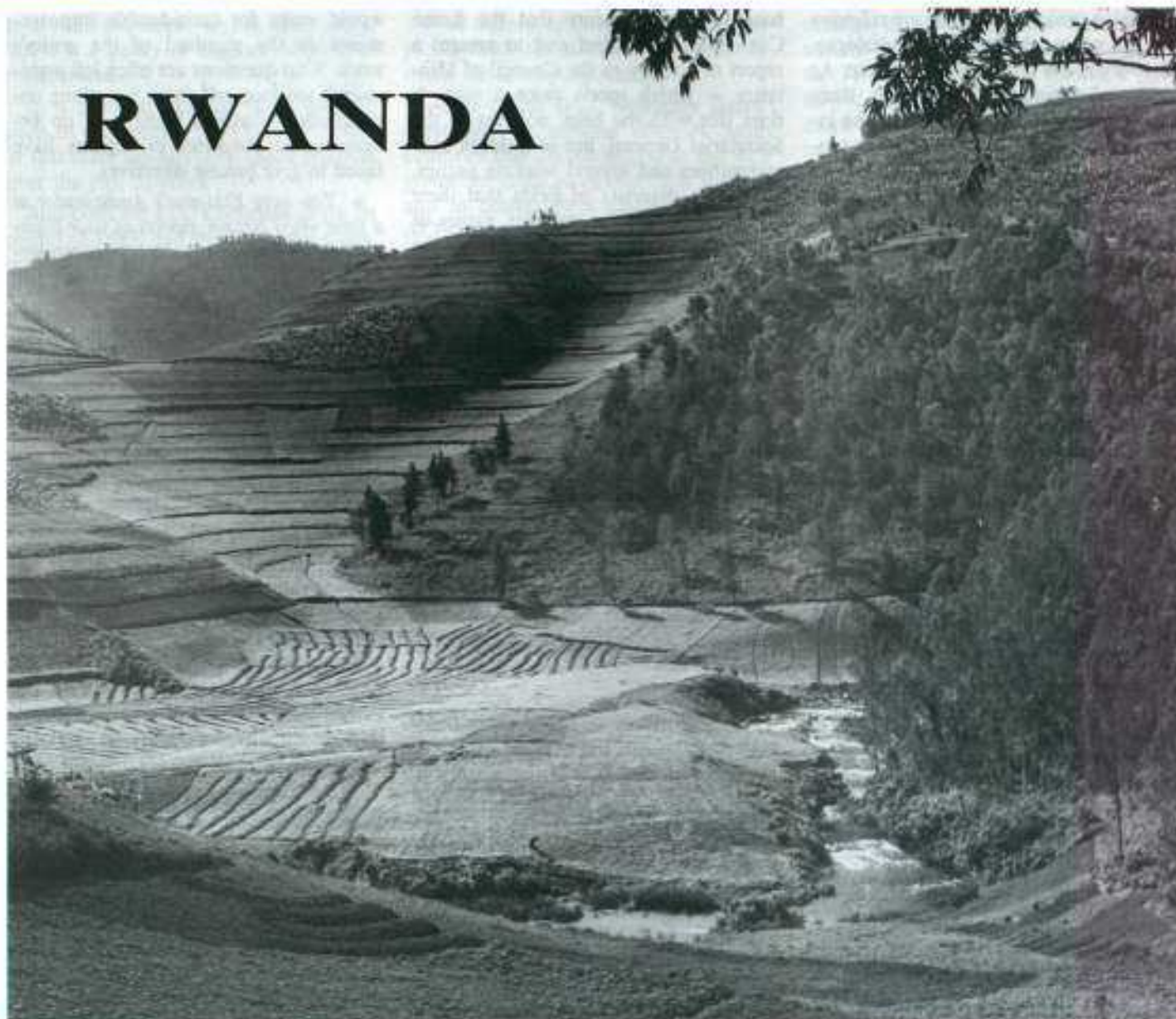
The Community, I have to say, made a huge contribution to our drive to explain what was happening. The top authorities in the Commission were *au fait* with the different aspects of Ethiopia's policy and the Government always took the trouble to give detailed explanations when any points were raised. It was a time when many visitors — from the European Parliament and the national parliaments too, politicians, journalists and artists, as well as representatives of the Commission and the Council — went out to Ethiopia to get first-hand knowledge of what was going on.

And let us not forget the various types of Commission intervention. The *Courier's* publication (1986) of a series of articles on Ethiopia was particularly significant.

In conclusion, I should like to say that the events you referred to were painful, but they didn't spoil cooperation between Ethiopia and the EEC and the fact that Ethiopia's EDF-financed projects and programmes were subjected to careful scrutiny was perhaps an opportunity for all those who were in any doubt to see that the agreements between equal parties were being applied in the usual way.

o Interview by A.T.

RWANDA



A thousand hills—a handful of options

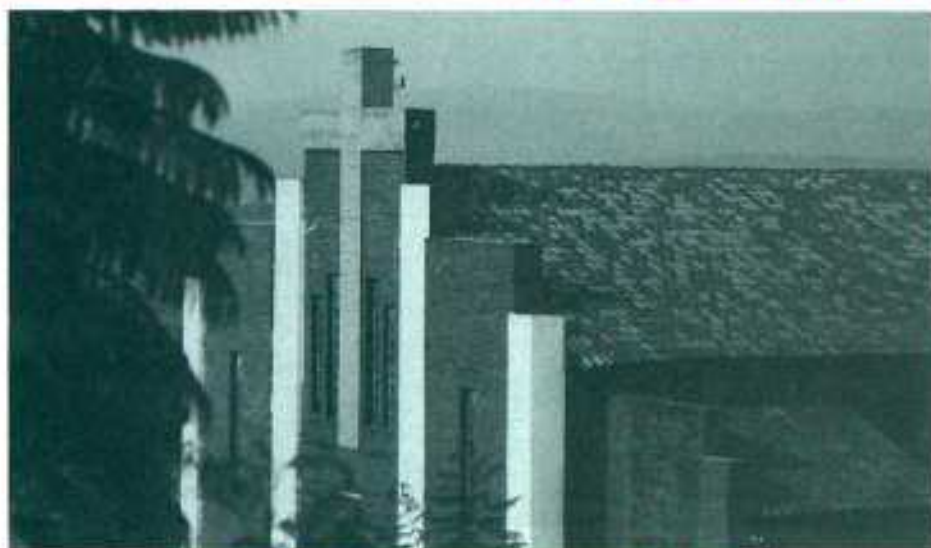
After the aircraft bearing him has touched down at Kigali's modern and handsome airport and as the taxi bears him to his destination down handsome boulevards, the visitor will be struck by a number of conflicting impressions. Rwanda is a well organised and seemingly prosperous country, green and well-watered, with an industrious and homogeneous population. Even in the capital, it seems, the country's devotion to farming is continued—stands of sorghum and banana line clean-swept boulevards where, in most African countries, there would be shanty towns and small workshops. And the capital itself, Kigali, is, like Rome, built on seven hills, modern hotels and ministries dotted among trees or outlined on the hills. Distances in the capital are large, though the population, estimated at between 150 000 and 250 000 is not.

And yet, one of the few well-known facts about this "land of a thousand hills" is that it is overpopulated; its 26 338 square kilometres now contain an estimated 6.5 million people. And 95% of them are farmers. Small, self-sufficient, agricultural, prudent, reserved, landlocked. It is then that the visitor realises that he is in Africa's Switzerland, a Switzerland without the capital and banking skills of the Swiss. (It must be recalled that in 1924 the per capita GNP of the Swiss was the lowest in Europe and the resources upon which they relied to become prosperous were all extraneous ones). Like Switzerland, Rwanda must face a future in which changes must be wrought and in which options are limited. And change, especially for its own sake, is not dear to the Rwandan people. After a turbulent past, the present suits them very well.

A turbulent past

Rwanda's history is that of feudalism. The country today is said to be composed of two major ethnic groups; 85% are the Bahutu, a Bantu people with strong agricultural roots, and 15% are Tutsi, a Nilotic people whose traditions are pastoral. They are not tribal—in both societies, it is the family-based clan, numbering, say, 20 families which is the basis of social organisation. During the 16th century the pastoral Tutsi descended from the north into what is Rwanda today and rapidly enslaved the Bahutu who became herdsmen, guards and growers of food for the Tutsi, seemingly without any coherent resistance. The Bahutu were not permitted to own land and, when they owned cattle, given as gifts for good service, they lost their status, being no longer Bahutu, but not accepted as Tutsi. The exchange, in cultural terms, was by no means one way. The Bahutu, over the centuries, educated their masters (as the Ottoman Turks were absorbed by the peoples they conquered) and the Tutsi adopted the language of the Bahutu, Kinyarwanda, and their domestic architecture and customs. It was only the fact of their lineage which stood in the way of complete absorption, and even here, there was so much intermarriage (admittedly in one direction only) that Tutsi racial purity had become largely a myth. But their total dominance remained.

European colonisation did little to alter this state of affairs. The German colonisation lasted only for a generation, from 1886 to 1916, and the territory of Rwanda-Urundi (today the two states of Rwanda and Burundi) was given to Belgium as a mandated territory by the League of Nations in 1919. The traditional feudal system operated by the Tutsi for several centuries was overlaid by three Western importations, none of which served to change the system and two of which merely added to its complexity. The most enduring of these importations was Christianity, more specifically, Roman Catholicism, whose spiritual message was avidly received by the Bahutu in particular, and which has resulted in a profoundly Catholic country to this day. There are eleven dioceses in Rwanda, and a number of seminaries which produce priests for much of French-speaking Africa. The Head of



Over 80% of Rwandans are staunch Catholics...

State, President Habyarimana, is a devout Catholic. And the economic ramifications of the Church are widespread, ranging from printing, carpentry and vehicle repair to education, transport and gold-mining.

The two other importations were the administrative system, whereby the country was divided into prefectures and communes and the educational system, which concentrated on the production of a tiny French-speaking elite whilst effectively ignoring the requirements of the rest of the population, who were still landless serfs, working for the still-dominant Tutsi aristocracy which had developed into a monarchy which the Belgian trustees had accepted.

After 1945, the anti-colonial currents which swept Africa, and the Church's own growing social con-

science combined to create an atmosphere in which continued Tutsi hegemony became unfeasible. When the last monarch of Rwanda, King Kigeri V, died in 1959, he was not succeeded and the Belgian authorities began to cast about for an alternative political system. Before Independence was granted in 1962, the Bahutu had, to some extent, taken matters into their own hands and, with a regrettable amount of bloodshed, the ancient Tutsi hegemony was overthrown.

Independence in 1962 was followed by a period during which the bases of the country's social system were established. But party strife led to the intervention of the military, led by Major-General Habyarimana, in 1973 and to the foundation of the Second Republic. With the creation of the National Revolutionary Movement for Devel-



... and the population rises by 3.7% each year



The thousand hills are denuded and carefully planted

opment⁽¹⁾ in 1975, the country's political structure was complete. The land was granted to those who worked it; the educational system was reformed to suit the needs of an agrarian economy and the MNRD was established to weld all Rwandans into a single, proud and self-confident people. A measure of the success of twenty-five years' independence is the profound reluctance of all Rwandans to engage on changes in the country's economic and social systems even when the consensus of expert (but external) opinion is that it may be necessary. After a turbulent past, and with an admirably stable present, this is not hard to understand.

A mountain people

95% of Rwandans live and work in the countryside, and even urban work-

(1) Rwanda's sole political party, of which all Rwandans are members from birth.

ers are likely to have some land and a cow or some goats; either nearby or in their place of origin where other members of the family will look after it against cash payment. Attachment to the land is very profound indeed. After all, for the vast majority of Rwandans, ownership is only one generation old, and what they now have, they will maintain. Unfortunately, the birth rate stands at 3.7% and the amount of land is limited. Although statistics show that the average farm size in Rwanda was 1.2 hectares, in fact 51% of the farms are of 1 hectare or less, and 44% are between 0.2 and 0.8 hectares. Large families and small landholdings mean further subdivision. Even today, the thousand hills of Rwanda are covered like patchwork quilts with the individual holdings and their well-marked boundaries, and resemble not so much farms as the neatly-tended gardens of a European suburb. These "gardens"

present a green and flourishing picture—but one fraught with a certain amount of danger. The natural forest cover has, in many cases, been almost totally removed, and the risks of serious erosion increase each year. The public which cut the trees down is that same public which has, between 1974 and 1983, spent almost 5 bn RWF on reforestation. Note the term public—this money is the monetary value of voluntary collective labour—*Umu-ganda*—conducted under the auspices of the MRND. In 1982, the MRND's Year of the Fight Against Erosion, the proportion of terraced land had increased by 26%. In 1983, Year of the Tree, 27 157 hectares of land were reforested. The Rwandan, jealous of his garden, is also aware of the future.

Centuries of serfdom and the mountainous nature of the country have combined to make the national psyche what it is. Rwandans are fiercely individualistic, suspicious of what lies over the next hill, resistant to change and to movement. As in other mountainous societies, this "montagnard" mentality has effectively slowed the growth of urban, and even rural centres. The living unit is the "coline", hillside, where each small garden is strictly delimited and each house surrounded by an impenetrable fence, behind which, at nightfall, the family and livestock are secured from all outsiders. Until recently, villages were uncommon, and attempts to improve the lot of the peasant through the provision of water, health care and agricultural inputs were very costly and largely unproductive. However, the political motor of the MNRD has begun to create a consciousness which stretches



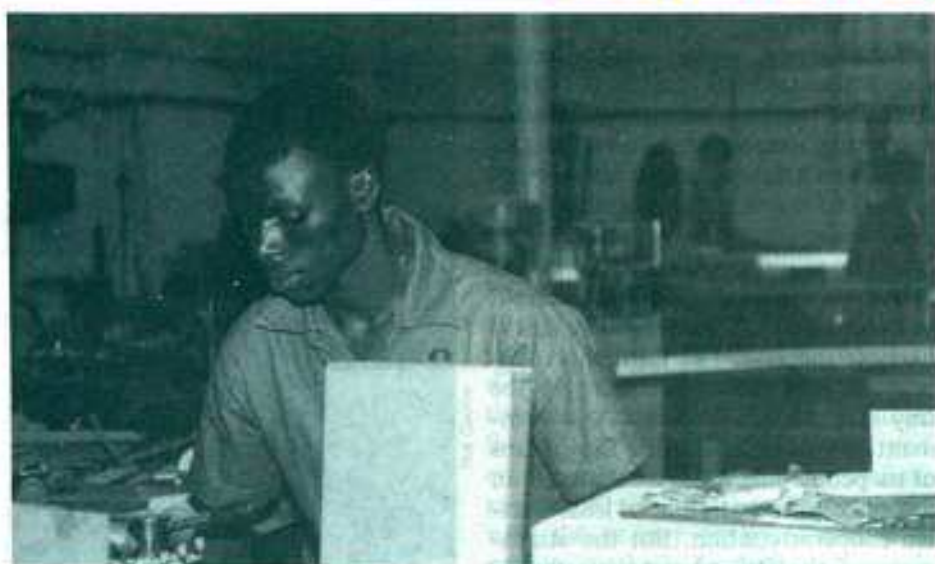
Markets are springing up in town (left) and country (right) alike

beyond the hillside, and the creation of an infrastructure, in terms of roads and bridges, has led to the creation of markets, and with markets, of villages where the markets are held.

In a subsistence economy, markets may not seem so vital. Each "garden" produces the manioc, beans, yams or white potatoes that are needed to feed the family. Bananas and sorghum go to distilleries and breweries to provide the small cash flow that even self-sufficient proprietors need. But markets are important because they do two things—they open up new economic horizons, however limited, to people unaccustomed to them; and they serve to break down the social isolation of the montagnards. This opening-up of social and economic horizons can be spotted by tracing the changes in production between the mid-1960s and the present day. Maize and beans have grown steadily but recently bananas (for cash) have grown rapidly and the goat has now been adopted by 56% of households who value it for its meat and the cash value of its skin. Already 20-30% of agricultural produce is being marketed. However much it goes against the grain, villagisation and new economic incentives are filtering through.

Education—town and country

The central position of the Catholic Church in Rwanda is not due solely to the undoubted spirituality and fidelity of those 80-85% of Rwandans who are Catholic. It is due, in part at least, to the educational legacy which it left behind, particularly at a time when perhaps the only escape from serfdom for a Hutu was in the ranks of the Church. The Church lycées, small seminaries, undoubtedly furnished the bulk of the educated Rwandans in the colonial period, in contrast to the secular schools who furnished high-quality education in French to the few technocrats who were needed. At Independence, it was decided to break with the traditional external models and to create a genuinely national form of education. This system, which covers 60-70% of primary-age children is based on the national language, Kinyarwanda, and adapted to the rural environment to which the children will return. The curriculum is largely practical, and this practical bent has been reinforced by the creation of over 300 Integrated



For most Rwandans, education is a practical matter

Rural and Handicraft Centres (CERAI) which provide a rural alternative to secondary education. Considerable efforts have gone into the primary sector. School construction and refurbishment have been undertaken to cope with the extension of primary schooling by 2 years (it is now from 7 to 14) and the number of primary teachers has risen from 7 854 in 1974/5 to 14 005 in 1983/4. All district (arrondissement) and sector (secteur) inspectors have undergone refresher training as well as a third of headmasters and all teachers teaching French. Secondary education is in French, and there, strict limits have been applied. Only about 15 000 secondary pupils (2.5% of the eligible population) were enrolled in the school year 1983/4, an increase of only some 30% over 1974/5. The reason is the relative scarcity of jobs awaiting these people when they leave school.

Until the announcement of the programme of austerity in 1983, the public service was the ultimate guarantor of employment. This led to an increase in the costs of the public service without any corresponding rise in efficiency, and was a powerful factor in the urban drift which currently stands at 6.6% annually, almost double the rate of population growth. However, it must be stressed that urban drift is not one of the country's major preoccupations—most urban dwellers retain their rural roots and the country's administrative structure is largely decentralised. Indeed, the system of prefectures and communes, with residence permits for each area, means that ur-

ban drift can be, and is, controlled to a large extent. Periodic sweeps are made, and those without the right papers are sent back to their communes. Education, administration and the current phase of austerity have all combined to ensure that most people will continue to find most of their opportunities on the land, in line with their traditions, their culture and, very largely, their aspirations.

Agriculture—the whole story

Rwanda lies below the equator and possesses three distinct topographical zones—in the east is the vast lake and savanna countryside which contains the Kagera National Park, lying at between 3 500 and 5 000 feet. In the centre of the country is the central plateau, 6 500 feet high, with its thousand hills and its patchwork of intensely-cultivated gardens. In the west is the Zaïre-Nile rift valley, 8 000 feet high, running 100 miles from north to south, largely covered with forest. The country's climate is temperate, and there are two rainy and two dry seasons.

Agriculture in Rwanda is characterised by the pressure of population on available land. 47% of the country's surface is useful for agriculture, and this means that it must sustain 500 people per square kilometre. And that is now. The rate of population increase is of the order of 3.7% and that increase is almost entirely rural. By the year 2000, the available land per head of population will have almost halved. The second characteristic is

that Rwanda's agriculture is based on self-sufficiency, with only limited scope for internal trade. However, there has been an increase in internal marketing, notably of the Irish potato, due to the great popularity of this staple and to the fact that it, and increasingly, rice, can grow only in certain areas. Even if the marketing at present is only on the level of barter, it cannot be denied that it is already there and is likely to increase. The third characteristic of Rwanda's agriculture is the tiny size of family plots. A government less in tune with the aspirations of its people might have embarked on forced collectivisation or at least forcible cooperativisation. But the attachment of the Rwandan to his family plot is a potent factor in the government's calculations and while there have been tentative moves towards the creation of cooperatives notably by means of "centres d'appui", lack of resources and of political will have meant that little progress has so far been made. The objective of these centres is to encourage commercialisation of products, and, using the cash from these transactions, to provide banking and credit facilities and to spread the use of modern inputs such as pesticides, fertilisers, seed varieties and tools. But the initial resources have not been sufficient to ensure overall acceptance. Another characteristic of agriculture is its vital contribution to exports and to foreign exchange. In 1985, coffee and tea accounted for 85% in value of Rwanda's exports (about US\$ 140 m). This means that, on the one hand, the land must support not only the population but the export drive as well. There is no miracle solution in sight for Rwanda, no mineral deposits under the soil, no tracts of virgin land to put under the plough. There are two things only which the country has: one of them is a high level of external aid (standing at about US\$ 180 m a year, or \$ 30 per capita). The other was highlighted by President Habyarimana at the Independence Day celebrations, where he said that the basic resource of Rwanda is its peasant, hardworking, pragmatic and willing to adapt.

All this is true. The peasant's familiarity with his soil and his crops means that intercropping is successfully and widely practised, and the land is yielding 1.8 crops a year relative to



New cash crops are being developed. Here, grafting avocado seedlings

surface area. The visitor sees this everywhere—avocado trees and greens growing in banana plantations, coffee trees in small plots surrounding the sorghum. The government is also doing its best. It is one of four ACP governments to adopt a Food Strategy in conjunction with the EEC. It has presided over a doubling of food production between 1966 and 1983, from 2.3 to 4.7 m tonnes. It is true that the population has also nearly doubled in that period, but the average citizen is better off in terms of variety and value in his daily diet, despite a slight decrease in the proportion of legumes in relation to roots and tubers. During that period, therefore, the intensification of agriculture has not been accompanied by drastic soil erosion or a reduction in fertility, which can be at-

tributed to the wise deployment of scarce resources by the government.

But experts, both inside and outside the country fear that the limits of cultivable soil and of traditional methods have been reached. The fuse on the population bomb is short, and there is a corresponding shortage of options.

Options for survival

Rwanda does not give the impression of a country under threat. It is assiduously courted by donor countries for a variety of reasons—the political stability of its government; the international links of the Roman Catholic Church; its prudent and austere economic management; the assiduity and ingenuity of its peasants. The per capita GNP is about \$ 290, which means that foreign aid provides 10%. Rwanda is now reducing, as part of its Food Strategy, its dependence on food aid, which may have acted as a disincentive to agricultural production in the past. The government has also welcomed wholeheartedly the integrated development approach which was underlined in Lomé III. As President Habyarimana has written: "Isolated actions and piecemeal reforms are condemned to failure: only a global approach, the definition and implementation of well-thought-out, operational strategies, the integration of policies, the most intensely coordinated, rigorously managed resources can pave the way for real self-development and thus guarantee long-term self-sufficiency in food".

What are the options? And how severe are the problems when donors



And older crops supported. Tea nursery in the North-East



Tea picking on the Mulindi Estate

East and West, from Libya to the USA, are willing to underwrite Rwanda's economy and social order? The first option is a frontal attack on Rwanda's population growth. It must be said that nothing that is done now, not even the most draconian legislation, can prevent the country's population from reaching 9.5 to 10 million by the year 2000. Two thirds of the population have been born since Independence, and the traditional sanctity of the African family is central to the doctrines of the MRND. Its manifesto states unequivocally: "The family, the matrix of the Nation, will always be protected. Those conditions which can bring increased harmony and well-being to the family will be improved...". The creation of a National Population Office in 1981 was the first step towards creating a unified approach to the demographic problem. (See *Courier* no. 103 for a detailed description of the work of this Office, ONAPO). But traditional African reluctance to embark on direct methods of birth control is still strong. President Habyarimana, whilst fully acknowledging the gravity of the problem, has repeatedly stated that, "the vast investments and organisation required to prevent the birth of children could surely as easily be used to ensure that, when born, they are properly fed." To normal reluctance and scepticism must be added the religious scruples which count for a great deal in a country which is so fervently Catholic and in which the Church has played such an important role. This is not to say that the Church is not understanding; indeed, there are encouraging signs of both concern and comprehension for the problem by senior

dignitaries of the Church. It would be unlikely to oppose any campaign proposed by the Government, short of compulsion or coercion. But its importance in Rwandan life makes it that much more difficult to do much more at this juncture than create a network of qualified staff (558 family planning auxiliaries and some 400 extension officers of various sorts who have been given awareness training) and the equipping of health care centres with family planning aids.

Population control must be approached sensitively. Would planned migration be an answer? Alas, it would not. Whilst neighbouring countries could accept colonists, they could not guarantee to accept them in regions contiguous to Rwanda's borders and, since Rwandans are fiercely nationalistic, they would hardly wish to find themselves hundreds of miles from "home". Could the area of available land be extended? Yes, but to a very limited extent. About 50 000

ha of marsh could be drained by the year 2000, and about 150 000 ha of pasture could perhaps be made available, if one conceded some 15 000 to the intensive production of fodder crops. But, at current rates of land-holding and land use that would only provide a livelihood for a million people, and by the year 2000, there would be at least three million more. The answer must surely be to increase the yield of present farmland by non-traditional means, to encourage co-operatives, to extend lines of credit to small farmers, to improve their social and economic prospects and powers of organisation, to bring them into contact with the money economy and with modern methods. In short, to intensify the application of the Food Strategy and the integrated approach predicated by Lomé III.

The economy: central management or private incentives?

As has been stated above, there is a high level of foreign involvement in the Rwandan economy. This involvement is all the more remarkable when the country's natural disadvantages are clearly set out. Rwanda's mineral resources are very small: until the collapse of the international tin market in 1985, about 7% of the country's export resources came from tin or cassiterite the tin-bearing mineral. These exports have all but stopped. Pyrethrum seemed at one time to have promise, but the development of artificial, non-toxic alternatives by the chemical giants of the developed world have cut the feet from under



Sorghum is a staple crop

that possibility too. For the foreseeable future, Rwanda must rely on primary products, coffee, tea and hides and skins, which are vulnerable to fluctuations in the international market and which remain at the mercy of powerful customers. Furthermore, Rwanda is completely landlocked, 1 700 km from the most convenient Indian Ocean ports. Transport costs are high, adding between 30% and 40% to the costs of its exports—and giving it no respite when world prices ease. Rwanda has seen little benefit from the fall in world oil prices, since road tankers from Mombassa effectively eat up the savings. As has already been said, the domestic market is small, with the vast majority of the population on the very fringes of the money economy. And, finally, there is only a small managerial and entrepreneurial class which could make a success of the enterprises already set up or spot opportunities to be exploited. Thus, the current account balance between exports and imports be-

tween 1980 and the present time has always been made good by a high and steady input of aid, with the result that the overall balance has been able to register positively in most of the years 1980-85. Real GDP growth should, in the short term, keep pace with population growth and, under favourable conditions even surpass it. But it is true that Rwanda is peculiarly vulnerable to external forces—disruptions in its long overland route to export ports, downturns in the market for its two or three prime exports, and so on.

When the terms of trade swung against Rwanda in the early 1980s, the Government responded with admirable swiftness, if not always in the most effective way. It imposed a regime of austerity, protected local industries with high tariffs and, with the aid of the EEC, set up a central Accounting and Organisation Office (*Centrale Comptable et Organisation*). This last initiative was designed to make changes in the management of a number of State industries, where, as the

Minister of Industry admitted in 1985, there were "an oversized labour force, high costs, deficits and persistent need for financial support." The CCO was set up, partly in order to shake up management, to produce accurate accounts and to point the way forward—in some cases towards the relinquishing of government control and the creation of mixed companies. But protectionism was also part of the Government's response. There are a number of companies which are benefiting from import prohibitions, including those making cement, soap, candles, pasta, insecticides and corrugated iron. Moreover, a number of other companies are clamouring for similar protection. The most profitable enterprises in Rwanda, and those which account for the largest share of industry, are the wine and beer industries and these use local materials and provide the government with 20% of its revenue.

Given this situation, in which direction should the Government proceed? The Minister of Industry has stated that it costs 4-5 m Rwandese Francs (RWF 80: US\$ 1) to create one job in industry, but only RWF 200 000 to create one in the small handicrafts or SME sector. There are Rwandans with the money to invest, and the Kigali Industrial Estate (set up with EDF funds and run by the Rwandan Government) is full of examples of small industries doing well: mattresses, stoves, building materials, motor vehicle repair. But the Government still hangs on to the commanding heights, with public enterprises, mixed enterprises, joint ventures and "régies" dominating food and food product marketing and distribution, transport, drinks, banking, tobacco, cement, plastics, tourism and metalworking. Industry represents 17% of GDP, a high percentage for sub-Saharan Africa and a very high percentage considering the predominantly rural nature of the country. But a quantitative advance would require clearer policy guidelines from the government and an improvement in the technical capacity of Rwandan management. Possibly the answer would be to encourage small and medium-sized enterprises by a revision of the 1964 Investment Code and to concentrate on adding value to agricultural output. At all events, the government has boldly addressed the major problems of reduc-



The Kigali Industrial Estate, built with EDF funds

The Northern Corridor, lifeline or stranglehold?





Rwanda's wildlife—a precious asset, economically and spiritually

ing its external indebtedness and improving public-sector management, and will be able to search for new economic opportunities from a more promising point of departure.

Enclave or heartland?

Rwanda is landlocked. Its people are to some extent psychologically landlocked as well, by virtue of their history. They are independent-minded, proud and self-sufficient. If they attach importance to their international relations, it is because they are proud that nations east and west, north and south seek them out to cooperate with them. But they are increasingly aware of the fact that their future lies not with Kuwait or Japan, the EEC or the USA. Foreigners have been helpful at times, and perhaps irritating at others. They have perhaps much to teach, but the best lessons are learned at home. How long can Rwanda compete on world markets when transport costs eat up so much of its profits? Economic progress, like charity, must begin at home.

This is why the Government is putting much of its hopes for the future on organisations in the region, notably on the Economic Community of the countries of the Great Lakes (CEPGL), comprising Zaïre, Rwanda and Burundi, and the Preferential Trade Area⁽¹⁾ which covers the old East African Community and a number of other

(1) See a description of PTA in "Courier," no. 99 (Sept.-Oct. 1986).

contiguous states. Among the most pressing needs of regional cooperation are transport infrastructure and energy research and Rwanda is already deriving benefits from efforts in these directions. The Northern Corridor passes through Rwanda and the country's road network is expanding quantitatively and qualitatively. Research into the possibility of natural gas from Lake Kivu is proceeding apace (see Courier no. 102 for an article on this and on the progress in general of the CEPGL) and would ease the country's almost total dependence on imported fuels.

But more important either than transport or energy is the possibility of regional trade. Once the psychological barrier of entry into the money economy has been broken, and the Rubicon of agricultural modernisation crossed, Rwanda's fertile soil and skilful, hardworking farmers will guarantee it markets in neighbouring countries less favoured by nature. The current barriers to exporting to countries of the north will not be present. From its present position as an enclave, Rwanda could become a heartland. President Habyarimana is fully aware of this, and the most applauded guests at the Independence celebrations were, after King Baudouin and Queen Fabiola, the Heads of State of CEPGL and PTA countries present. President Habyarimana has demonstrated that it is perfectly feasible for a nation to remain unique and proud whilst opening the doors to cooperation with neigh-

bours. The parallel with Switzerland is again reinforced.

An intrinsic wealth

As far as economists are concerned, Rwanda is not a wealthy country, nor one with the potential of many states in sub-Saharan Africa. As far as development experts are concerned, Rwanda is a country with limited options and numerous constraints. As mentioned before, one might have said the same of Switzerland at the turn of the century. And, as with Switzerland, one must then add that the culture of the people and the beauty of the country are aspects of intrinsic wealth which transcend the calculations of economists and development planners.

Over a quarter of a million hectares in this densely-populated country are given over to the Kagera National Park in which lions, zebra, impala and buffalo roam at will. In Northern Rwanda is to be found the last refuge of the mountain gorilla, for whose preservation President Habyarimana received an award from the World Wildlife Fund in 1986. And the dances and music of the people are preserved, adapted and supported by the MNRD, not as picturesque folklore but as living symbols of the country's common heritage and its future. Tourism, of a discriminating and selective nature, is encouraged, but not a tourism which could damage the nature of the country or its resources. In the Kagera National Park, zebras and lions are not immediately surrounded by minibuses full of pink tourists and whirring cameras, or overflowed by balloons and light aircraft filled with honeymoon couples. There is no desire to turn Rwanda into a Costa del Fauna.

What there is, however, is a strong will to develop in an authentic African manner, adapting imported methods and technologies to the needs of a people who are conscious of, and attached to, their land and their heritage. If the problems are numerous, and the options limited, the problems have been recognised and the options are being tested. Prudent economic management and sound political judgement have characterised the second Rwandan republic and they are just the sort of qualities which will best serve it in the years to come. ◻

Tom GLASER

“Our objectives... have never changed; but the circumstances... have deteriorated”

President Habyarimana speaks on the 25th anniversary of National Independence in Kigali on 2 July

Born in 1937, Juvenal Habyarimana was brought up in a staunchly Christian atmosphere, and obtained his classical secondary certificate from the Barnabite Brothers Institute in Bukavu. He obtained a place at the Louvanium University in Kinshasa to study medicine but the events in the (ex-Belgian) Congo in 1960 obliged him to cut short his studies. Returning to Rwanda, he joined the newly-formed Officers' Academy, and passed out top of the first class. He was named Minister of the National Guard and Police in 1965. In 1973 he took power in order to end party and sectarian strife, and proclaimed the 2nd Republic. In 1975, he founded the MRND, Rwanda's sole political party. He was elected President in 1978 and reelected in 1983. In the following extracts from his speech, President Habyarimana outlines the challenges to development and sets out his ideas on how to meet and overcome those challenges.

“A quarter of a century ago, we began by shouldering our responsibilities. For a quarter of a century we have tried to shoulder them, to the best of our ability, taking up the challenges, accepting the aims and meeting the time limits that are those of our society. (...)

... But what does shouldering our responsibilities, before the people and the world, mean? What was the real challenge our people took up when they fought for independence 25 years ago?

This challenge is one the 1st Republic and — better still — the 2nd Republic has always accepted bravely. This challenge is to ensure that Rwanda, this country of ours, can, through its own efforts and with the support of proper international cooperation, meet our basic needs, both material and spiritual, a little better every day and promote social justice for all as the veritable foundation for any proper national development.

Saying that is saying something both banal... and revolutionary.

Banal, because how can proper progress in any society mean anything other than the ever-greater satisfaction of the material and psychological needs of all its members through its own efforts at guaranteeing that achievements are maintained, with a view to authentic social justice?

And revolutionary, because who can claim to have made a complete success of this task? Where is the country that can demonstrate that the constantly evolving material and spiritual needs of all its inhabitants are totally satisfied?

Trying to meet basic needs is in fact a very complex task. Even defining them and how they interact and, harder still, identifying the best policies in the light of the dynamics of each society at each stage in its development pose very delicate problems of theory and practice.



Social justice for all cannot be decreed. It is the result of a mass of strategies that need constantly to be devised, of priorities judiciously defined and of attitudes that reflect the expectations.

The task awaiting our country's leaders on the dawn of Independence may have seemed huge. And it was. We had the whole way to go. The task was an immense one and the forces yet fragile. And armed aggressors threatened our young Republic on all sides. (...)

Another thing that made our task a difficult one was what we call the development model which we were offered.

What we then called development, just development — the wild hopes it generated, the way it was designed and the harsh conceptual reduction it became — proved to be an illusion. (...)

In fact what we had to do was learn it all from scratch and it wasn't easy.

There were so many obstacles, so many vested interests. The whole context of our peripheral situation was against it, as was often the system of training, most of which we got abroad — in the west and in the eastern bloc — and it demanded an effort most of us were not prepared for, as it meant looking at all the truths we had learnt abroad in the light of our national reality.

But the word development leads to confusion. In our country, here in Rwanda, development means what we call taking a step forward. That is our way of seeing progress, our way of looking at life. A step forward every day — by which we mean a permanent, never-ending process of thousands of little gestures that add up to a step forward every day. Development, in our eyes, is not a state to be attained or a finishing post to be raced to.

It is clearer to us today than it was yesterday that those who suggested we use their development model and their way of thinking were not the only ones who were right. Are they not after all often the first to change their minds? Those who were so sure of market forces and free competition seemed only to believe in them while they acted in their favour. What used to be considered development no longer has this certainty, as:

- new contradictions have emerged to unseat the initial certainty;
- the rush to accumulate possessions, apparently the aim of the so-called advanced societies, can only pilage the basic resources of the globe which we feel should be the heritage of us all;
- international trade, perforce unequal, between industrial goods with high added value and our unprocessed raw materials — not to mention the spiralling consumerism generated by the science and technology that is totally inaccessible as far as we are concerned — are only widening the gap between the average levels in the industrialised countries and our countries. (...)

In spite of these factors whose gravity as handicaps it is hard to measure today, Rwanda is, and has been, blessed with one extraordinary trump card.

This winning hand consists of our peasants, men and women alike. It is their daily devotion to their task, their exceptional sense of self-sacrifice, which have every day, made it possible, in often very difficult conditions, for one of the fastest-growing populations in the world to get enough to eat.

They have an astounding capacity to adapt themselves to changing situations, they are pragmatic, and they have an in-built scepticism about those "miracle solutions" which are regularly put before them. Their genius, their intimate knowledge of our ecosystems, has enabled them to garner from their tiny plots of land, resources which can only be described as astonishing. But it is also their open-mindedness and spirit of innovation which has enabled them to absorb rapidly the facts and techniques which, in their eyes, are marks of real progress. (...)

The coherence we have tried to give to the effort we have made to bring the right sort of progress to our country we have called self-reliant development.

This is no slogan. It is no attempt at theorising nor a vain desire to espouse a particular doctrine or school of thought. Self-reliant development, as far as we are concerned, is a conviction that progress has to be made through our own forces, a certainty that we cannot live beyond our means and that the answers to our problems have to be found at home. (...)

Our objectives over the past 25 years have never changed, but the circumstances in which they have to be achieved have deteriorated. We need to ensure that:

- our economy always gives us enough to eat, in quantity and quality, although the population is expanding at breakneck speed and land is in short supply;
- our resources can cover the bulk of our basic needs, although our needs are constantly expanding and our resources are limited;
- our cultural heritage improves, so it can guide us in our development, thanks to new tools, to new science and technology and to the solidarity we get from outside, although the world seems to be moving on and leaving us behind, making for increas-

ing egoism and every man for himself.

We have always considered that self-reliant development, as we conceive of it, and the achievement of our basic objectives in relation to the balance I mentioned just now had something to do with our practical management of what we call the poles of action, our essential paths of progress.

The first of these has always been between the promotion of justice and a State where law prevails. For we are all convinced that development is first and foremost a matter of social justice. Without social justice, there can be neither development nor progress! (...)

A second path along which we must progress is that of our economic policy of development.

Although a genuine State of law and proper justice is, to our mind, essential if we are to make an efficient job of mobilising all our forces, the material and spiritual progress of our people also depends on an appropriate economic policy of self-reliant development.

We are all aware of the considerable progress we have made with our economy. The long period of peace and harmony at home has indeed enabled us to take many major steps forward. (...)

The third path along which we must advance is closely linked to control of the population: food ratio, in other words, self-sufficiency in food.

This is something we define very broadly as being more than production as such, as it tends to be the consequence of so many actions in so many fields, particularly those whereby our peasants can raise their standard of living.

Once the peasant realises that his output brings him goods that improve his standard of living, he will want to produce more. The concept of self-sufficiency in food has something to do with greater purchasing power in the rural world and with the creation of productive, non-agricultural jobs.

Self-sufficiency in food is directly linked to the endogenous industrialisation that capitalises on national resources by processing them and sustaining the demand for the peasant's

products and facilitating a policy of incentive prices. (...)

What I should like to do, in view of the acute nature of the problem, is to underline our demographic policy.

We have set up a system of birth control through information, training, persuasion and direct assistance.

The question today, is whether we have done enough or whether our strategy in this field needs revising.

Birth control — if it can be controlled, as the subject is a very delicate one that defies mechanical treatment — is an emotional subject to us here in Rwanda.

As our great philosopher Kagame says, the *raison d'être* of our people has always been children. Our children are the most precious and the most important thing we have and our greatest attachment is to them.

Is it conceivable for the very basis of our world view and the meaning of life to change radically overnight? The demographic explosion took us entirely by surprise. Its size and its violence were such that, while it was going on, we were still wondering how it was possible for our greatest wealth, that which gave our life meaning, to turn against us and threaten the achievements we had fought so hard to obtain.

But today, we have to tackle the problem in all its seriousness, directly and without prejudice. Today we have to see the situation as it really is. That is where our responsibility lies. We believe every individual should examine his conscience for the key to his own behaviour on this national issue.

We shall continue to oppose and reject the idea of forcing our compatriots' hand. We believe that every individual must examine his own conscience and decide on his own solution — for which he must take responsibility.

But if he is to act according to his conscience, then he has to realise that he can and must do so.

And here I appeal to the Catholic Church, to the Protestant churches and to all the religious communities of our country to reflect, in the name of the dignity of each and every one of us, on their influence over the people's conscience, so they legitimise that su-

preme arbiter, the conscience of the individual, so each couple can apply the dictates of its conscience when it comes to size of family and the serious problem of the population explosion and the physical survival of our children. (...)

The thoughts that come to mind on this 25th anniversary, a serious occasion, would not be complete without a word about the international cooperation which has contributed so much to our progress, so much to our development, to our hopes and our achievements. (...)

Rwanda, it is true, could not do without international cooperation. It has been a vital factor in our development and it will continue to be so for some time to come.

We must always see that our strategies and our aims — and we hope they are as coherent and as integrated as possible, so any wastage of our precious resources can be avoided — are successful by ensuring we hold as many trump cards as we can. (...)

Our international cooperation must involve intense, transparent, coherent and concise concertation with our partners in what should one day be considered as a veritable contract of solidarity.

Genuine cooperation means reciprocal interests and common objectives. In the present historical situation, the developing countries seem to be getting the most from cooperation. It may be inevitable, the historical situation being what it is, and we have nothing to lose by admitting it.

Nevertheless, some developing countries have rare and enviable resources, interesting geopolitical situations and large markets that can absorb part of the glut from the industrialised world and they can often bring reciprocal interests to bear and more easily justify international cooperation to public opinion in the so-called donor countries.

In Rwanda's case, these reciprocal interests are harder to justify, as we have neither a large market nor rare resources nor the slightest edge in any geopolitical bargaining.

We haven't much to offer — other than effort, the promise of solving a

certain number of our basic problems ourselves, thus not worsening the world's already considerable difficulties and maybe, very modestly, helping to create a world in which there are fewer problems between nations.

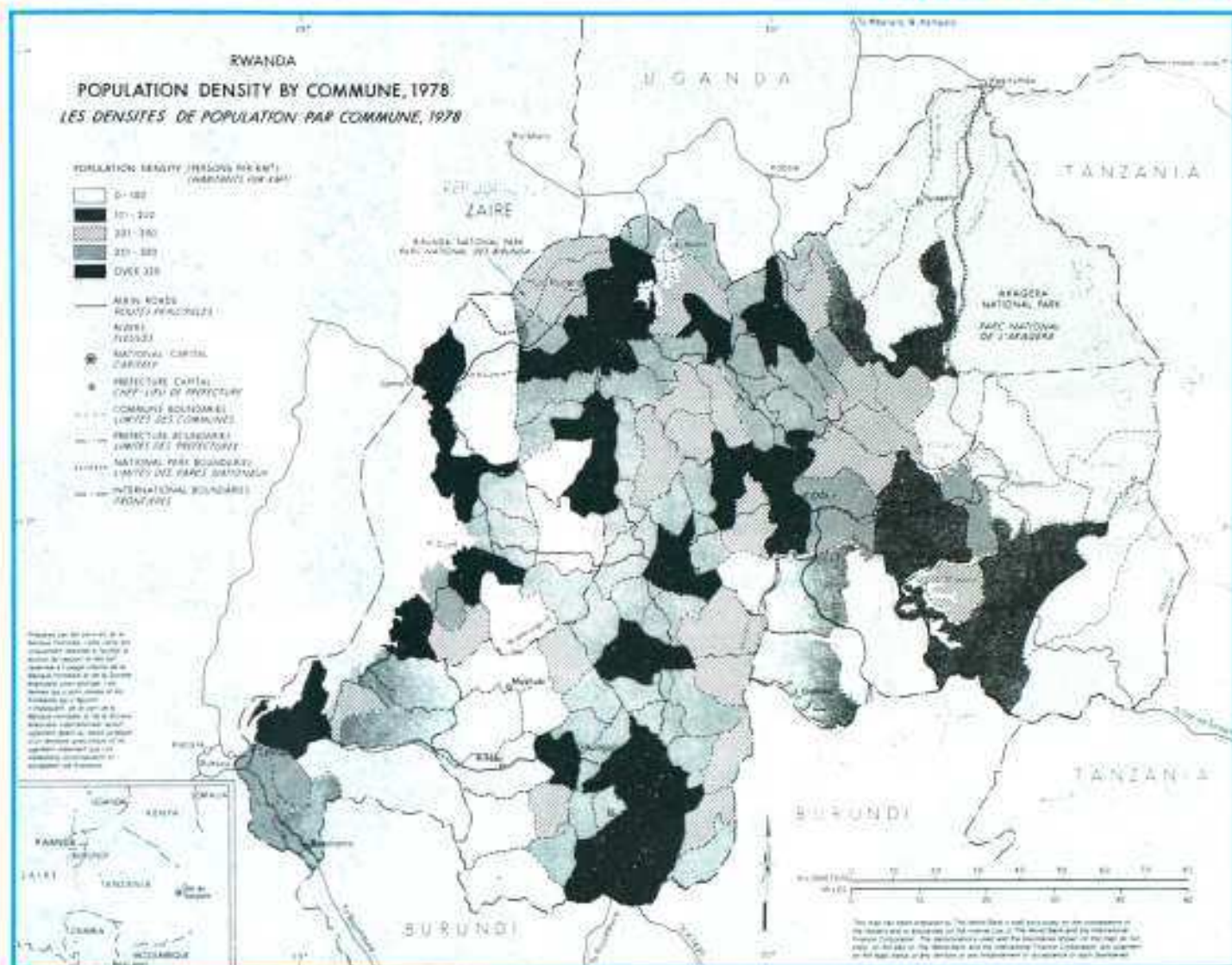
The aim of development in our country, as we would like to see it, is, through our own efforts, with the help of international and regional cooperation, to solve our problems so as not to impede peace or create further difficulties in the world.

If cooperation is to contribute more to this than in the past, if it is to become more cooperative, then perhaps the time has come to review some of its practices. If it is to be a greater stimulus to progress and not to pave the way for the failure of its aims, perhaps certain of its aspects should be reviewed. Can we seriously dismiss today the principle of co-management, that idea of co-responsibility, the elementary principle of shared responsibility, of constantly renewed agreement, of permanent dialogue, of transparent commitments, of recognition of other people as able to reason and of acceptance of the right to err — on both sides — in the certain knowledge that the sights are set on a joint, sincere search for solutions to problems that have been identified together?

Is there still any justification for running up debts for services we have neither sought nor endorsed? Or for continuing to put up with hundreds of missions every year with the possible risk of paralysing the sound workings of Government?

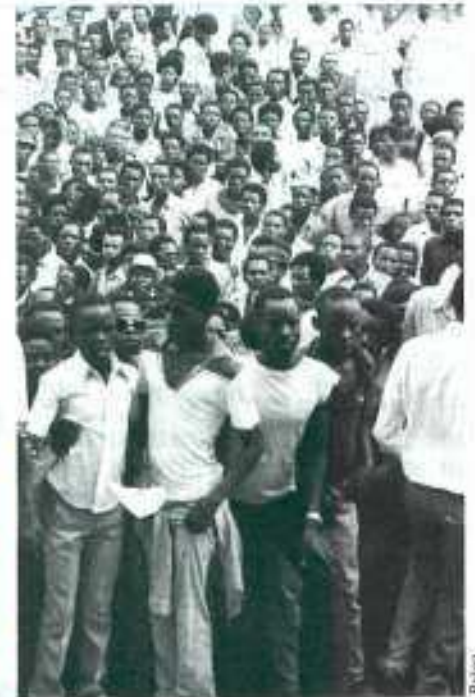
Can we go on agreeing to interest mounting up before we get to use the loan? Or having changes in the structure of our ministries forced upon us? Are we to go on accepting supervision of our Government spending by the funders and coordination of the Government's policies by the financing agencies before any cooperation agreement can be signed?

As we well know, ours is one of the least developed countries in the world, but we are very sensitive about affronts to our dignity and national sovereignty. We only want one thing and that is to have relations of mutual respect and sincere friendship with our funders. (...)" ◊





The Courier



Belgia



The Courier

Schoolchildren, workers and peasants (top left) paraded before a crowd that had waited since before dawn (top right). The Armed Forces (below) also put on a stirring show for the people and for foreign guests that included King Baudouin of Belgium (bottom left)



Belgia

25 years of independence

20 000 Rwandans crammed the Amahoro Stadium in Kigali on 1st July, queuing patiently from before dawn for the opportunity of a seat at a spectacular gala, a mixture of folklore, military parade, consciousness-raising exercise and circus, with overtones of American rdeo and Chinese opera but which was uniquely Rwandan.

East and West were represented (on the one hand by M. Iskouliev, Chairman of the Supreme Soviet of Turkmenistan and on the other by Maureen Reagan, the US President's daughter) while the EEC was represented by Fisheries Commissioner Antonio Jose Baptista Cardoso e Cunha. The most tumultuous reception was however reserved for King Baudouin and Queen Fabiola, of Belgium, who had arrived for the celebrations at the start of a four-day official visit. The Presidents of Zambia, Zare, Tanzania and Uganda also attended the festivities amid acclamation.

President Juvenal Habyarimana, for whom this first week of July was pregnant with significance (1st July 1962—twenty five years of independence; 5th July 1973—fourteen years of the Second Republic; and 5th July 1975—the foundation of the MNRD), delivered an address lasting an hour and a half (extracts of which are on page 22).

All sections of society, children, workers and peasants paraded past the President and his guests with floats and banners, and the Rwandan Armed Forces made a stirring march-past in which tight discipline and rigorous training produced some very fine displays. But the highlight of the celebrations was undoubtedly the historical tableaux put on by the Imbonezamihibo Group which traced Rwandan society from primeval beginnings to the present day. Brilliant design, exuberant mime, spectacular costumes and some wild dancing were much appreciated by guests and Rwandans alike. ◊

T.G.



The Courier

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Belga

The Courier

The story of all mankind, acted out as a pageant. Clockwise from top left, first, the primeval jungle, then the primitive hunters, after which settlers clear the trees, and agriculture is born. The tableau ended with traditional dancing and modern acrobatics



The Courier

The Courier

From the AASM to Lomé III: 30 years of Community cooperation

by Daniel GERMAIN (*)

'Any great policy must aim to last, but cannot afford to sink into immobility.' These seemingly paradoxical words of a former Development Commissioner describing Lomé can easily be applied to the history of the almost 30 years of cooperation between Rwanda and the EEC. And on more than one count.

Right from the start, back in 1958 with the AASM⁽¹⁾, the European Community, true to the Treaty of Rome, confirmed its solidarity with Rwanda in the drive for self-sufficiency in food. And 30 years on, the Lomé III indicative programme is still boosting this support and adapting it to Rwanda's food strategy.

The constancy of the Community's policy has resulted, practically speaking, in schemes designed to seize the country's two alternatives (as the former Commission delegate to Kigali⁽²⁾ put it) of food crops and export crops. The first five European Development Funds, combined with the various other instruments at Rwanda's disposal (food aid, Stabex transfers and the World Hunger Campaign), were all geared to this.

Did we ever deviate from this aim? Once, under Lomé I, when we concentrated on infrastructure to strengthen the basis of this cooperation and give it fresh life. A new lease of life in fact.

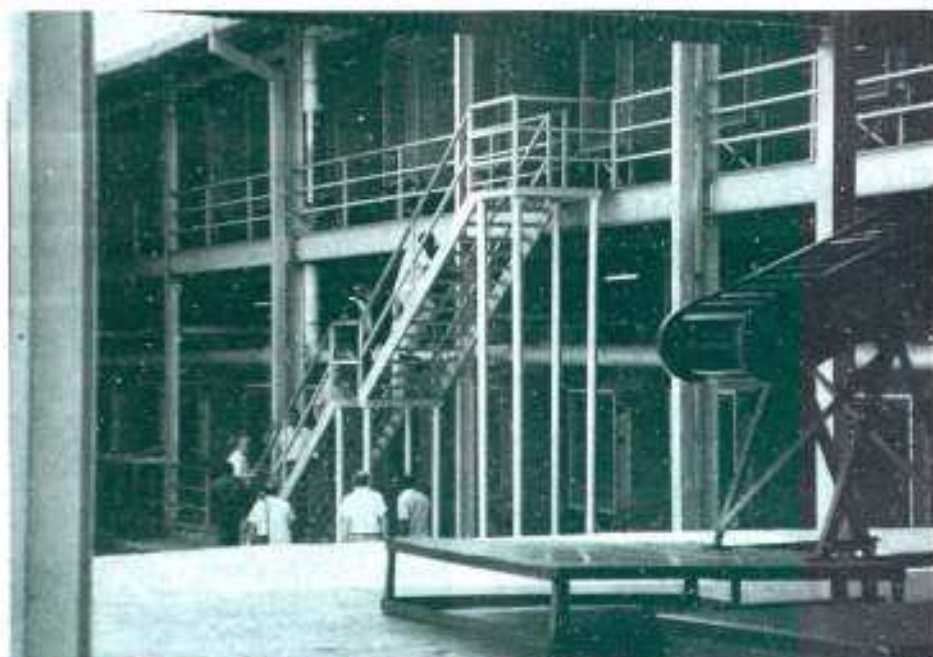
Here is an outline of this history of cooperation we have gone through together.

It was in 1958-63 under the AASM arrangements, that the Community lent support for peasant farmers in what was then thousands of hectares of virgin territory — the Bugasera-Mayaga. The aim was to instal a coffee crop, encourage people to grow food

crops and generally organise the region. (Lomé I and Lomé II completed the drinking water network, improving the standard of living of the people and boosting food output.) It was also at this stage that the big tea complexes (Mulindi, Gisakura and Shagasha),

zone was set up in Kigali. Training was to the fore, with 20% of the financial allocation.

Yaoundé II (1970-75) continued along the path of Yaoundé I. Tea was very important — a third of the Indi-



It was in the early '60s that the country's major tea complexes were set up; this one at Mulindi

still the backbone of the country's productive apparatus, were set up. Rwanda's tea, a high-quality product, is the country's second export product today. (An OCIR-Thé⁽³⁾ budget/accounting rehabilitation and rationalisation plan was run under Lomé II).

With Yaoundé I (1964-69), the second cooperation programme pursued this drive, particular stress being laid on promoting export crops (tea, of course, but pyrethrum as well). Other sectors — energy, industry and infrastructure — were also covered, electricity supplies were laid on to the south (Cyangugu and the surrounding area, and Butare-Gikongoro), to the north (Ruhengeri) and the centre (Gitarama-Gatumba) and an industrial

Programme was earmarked for it — and so was training. The 3rd EDF paved the way for Lomé I in the infrastructure sector and completed the job of linking up the two HE stations at Ntaruka in the north and Mururu in the south, an essential contribution to the subsequent supply of energy throughout the country.

Under Lomé I (1976-80), 86% of the Indicative Programme went on major infrastructure works — the HE station at Mukungwa, the Kigali-Butare road and the construction of the Faculty of Medicine at Butare and the National Institute of Education at Ruhengeri. There was also an important multi-annual training programme. Lomé I also continued Community support for the tea sector, with the building of the tea factory at Mata.

(*) Desk officer for Rwanda, Commission of the European Communities.

(1) Associated African States and Madagascar.

(2) I should like to pay tribute here to Michel Courtier, whose article on EEC-Rwanda cooperation, a story of solidarity (The Courier, 1982) inspired my own thinking.

(3) OCIR-Thé is the Tea-marketing branch of the Industrial Crops Marketing Board.

The European Investment Bank intervened for the first time in Rwanda with support for a mining project.

The Lomé I infrastructure development policy — involving opening up Rwanda with the north-south Kigali-Butare highway, which was extended with regional funds to Burundi (the Northern Corridor from Mombasa to Bujumbura), building the Mukungwa HE station and exploiting the HE resources of the region (the Ruzizi station) as part of a regional programme — meant that Lomé II could concentrate on integrated rural development programmes meeting Government priorities in the field of self sufficiency in food.

The big thing under Lomé II was the beginning of two very ambitious rural development programmes and the continuation of Community backing for the geographical and economic opening up of Rwanda (the Butare-Cyangugu road).

— The first programme covered the Zaïre-Nile Rift area and aimed at settling and rationally exploiting relatively inhospitable highlands by moving in peasant farmers, running agricultural research and intensification drives, associating crops and livestock and encouraging a secondary sector (craft, food and agriculture and timber).

— The second, for the Prefecture of Butare, was to protect the forests and improve food output and productivity in eight communes of the prefecture and promote craft and agri-food activities.

These two projects were directly related to the food strategy which the Government decided to implement (and which the Community has been



Improving living standards for the rural community; potato crop in Nogomu Prefecture.

supporting since 1983 as part of the plan to contain world hunger, particularly when it comes to marketing, agricultural intensification and extension work and food security).

Lomé II also involved supplying northern and central Bugesera with water and assisting the Office of the President of the Republic with rationalising and rehabilitating public firms, a project offering a pertinent, pragmatic approach to improving the performances these firms put up in the national economy where, in view of the very marginal contribution from the private sector, they have a very important part to play.

These five projects, plus a major training programme, are part of the drive to continue and back up previous schemes and account for more than two thirds of the Indicative Programme.

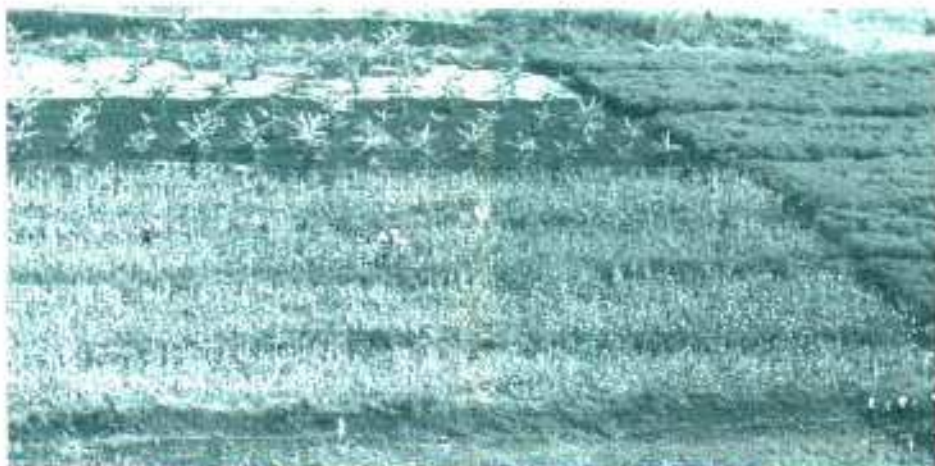
Regionally speaking, Lomé II co-financed (with, among others, the EIB) the Ruzizi II HE project which sup-

plied electricity to Rwanda, Burundi and the Kivu area of Zaïre and financed (with the EIB) a feasibility study on exploiting methane from Lake Kivu. Both these were carried out within the framework of the Economic Community of the Great Lakes, an organisation set up by Burundi, Rwanda and Zaïre in 1976. The Convention also made an active contribution to improving the Northern Corridor, adding to work financed under Lomé I. And lastly, the African and Mauritian Institute of Statistics and Applied Economics was built in Kigali.

Lomé III of course follows the trend set by the previous EDFs. The Indicative Programme, signed on 9 December 1985, channels 80% of the funds into backing up the nation's food strategy and rural development drive. It aims to raise the standard of living of the rural population, achieve food security (via research schemes, extension work and agricultural intensification schemes), promote craft and small and medium-sized businesses, protect the land and forests and make better use of human resources.

The Community will be making a significant contribution to the national Government's own efforts when it comes to the Food Strategy, which will, the President hopes, be a framework for the nation's development drive.

The other action programmes cover training, protection of the Lomé-financed road infrastructure, selective support for the industrial development of methane from Lake Kivu and further rationalisation and rehabilitation of public firms.



The EDF-financed seed multiplication centre at Kibayi

RWANDA

An initial food strategy support programme has just been agreed to by Rwanda and the EEC. It involves selective, substantial support for thematic operations (agricultural intensification, extension, anti-erosion, natural balance maintenance, cooperative movement support etc.) defined by the Government at national level. It will be extended locally with practical action, in particular continuing the schemes developed on the Zaire-Nile Rift and in Butare under Lomé II.

A large percentage of the Indicative Programme will go to this.

The EEC is anxious to go on encouraging the integration of the whole region, a desirable objective, in the light of the particular situation of Rwanda and its wish to be involved in this regional development (as is illustrated by the fact that it belongs to the OAU, the Great Lakes Community and the Community of Central African States, the Kagera Basin Office and the East African preferential trade zone) and will be making a further contribution to Rwanda's drive to improve its communications. It will continue improving traffic conditions in the Northern Corridor and help diversify Rwanda's outlets. It will be financing the Isaka Terminal in the Central Corridor with this in mind. In the energy sector, previous schemes, in particular those related to methane from Lake Kivu, will be pursued.

* *

Since it began, the Community's solidarity with Rwanda's drive for development has been lasting and it has



The Courier

The Bugesera water supply scheme, begun under Lomé II and now in full swing

had an eye for continuity. This is borne out by the complementarity of the six different EDFs and by the interplay of the other instruments from which Rwanda has benefitted under Yaoundé and Lomé.

It is reflected in the food aid (more than 24 000 t wheat since 1973), with the counterpart funds going to priority schemes to improve and develop land, expand wheat production and build sheds for storage so as to achieve the vital intensification of agriculture.

More than 100 projects have been run with NGOs since 1976. They have been geared to the rural world and had a considerable effect on the people involved, a highly original and flexible form of aid which will be more involved in EDF schemes in the future. It is something to be encouraged.

Stabex transfers have been made five times — for coffee and hides and skins — since 1980 and will no doubt

be called upon for tea tomorrow.

Lastly — and this is most important — support has been provided for the Food Strategy which the Rwandans themselves have decided, defined and implemented. It was first offered in 1983 thanks to the plan to contain world hunger and it will mean operations to support and organise marketing, prepare agricultural intensification, study food marketing and inventory of the nation's land resources.

* *

From the development of peasant farming in the Bugesera-Mayaga in 1958 to the support of the Food Strategy today, through improvements to the nation's internal and external communications (that essential basis for the development of agriculture and trade), tea growing, intelligent use of the highlands and the more rational use of overpopulated land, Rwanda's two alternatives have been largely exploited. And the knot has been tied.

Duration... continuity... permanency... but not immobility... Community solidarity has done its best over the decades to provide a response to the different challenges and new problems Rwanda has had to cope with. And to its new priorities. It is already time to come together to reflect on the answers the Community can give to tomorrow's problems. They are already taking shape.

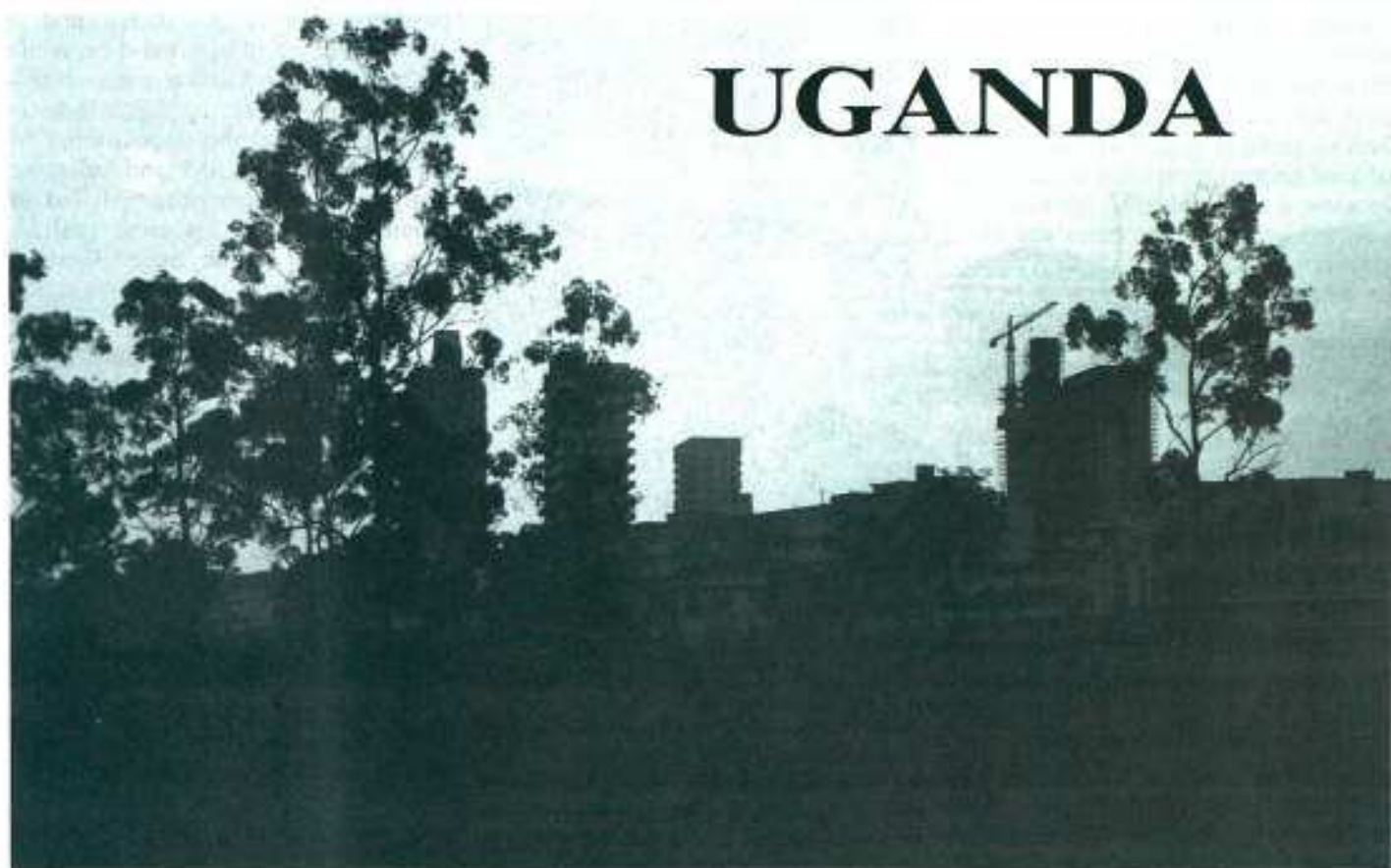
A few years back, a journalist said that Rwanda was no Eldorado. No it is not. But the courage of an entire, admirable nation has made the country of a thousand hills a land of work. And a land of hope. ◊ D.G.



The Courier

Road improvements are vital for a landlocked country; a stretch of the Northern Corridor

UGANDA



The Courier

Five minutes to midnight

The injudicious demonstration of the power of a Gatling gun to the Kabaka of Buganda by a young English officer in the late 19th century ushered in the modern age for the nation that is Uganda today. It is an ironic curtain-raiser to the story of a country which has become a byword for senseless violence and the rule of the gun. Yesterday, the Gatling; today the Kalashnikov. And tomorrow? Ugandans, of all sorts, are aware of the fact that the hands of the clock stand at five minutes to midnight — the efforts, bravely undertaken by the NRM government, and loyally supported by the international community, simply have to succeed. If they do not, if the tribalism, the economic disintegration, the flight of capital and talent, the growth of private armies and the paralysis of government return, there will be no more help. World Bank estimates of Uganda's total financing requirements to 1990 are of the order of US \$ 1 132 m, which is not something the Ugandans could raise without a certain amount of outside help. Disappointed by previous false dawns and international sympathy for them, the government of President Museveni is determined to steer a narrow course, relying where it must on outside forces, but determined to play at home the major role in transforming Uganda into a self-reliant and viable nation state. And still, in the north and north-east, the Kalashnikovs are chattering-splinter groups, disappointed and disbanded soldiers, tribalist diehards and the praetorians of ousted and intransigent military and political leaders continue to raid and terrorise. For an outsider, the initials are bewildering — UPDA, UFA, Fedemu, UNLA, FOBA. For the government, they are far worse: a threat to send Uganda back into the night.

The irony of it all is that Uganda is a potentially wealthy country. At Independence in 1962, it was confidently expected that Uganda would take the place in East Africa that, in fact, Kenya has taken. It had thriving agricultural exports, of coffee, tea, sugar and cotton. Almost 100 000 Asians dominated industry and the retail trade, sectors which Ugandans had shown

little interest in. Factories in Kampala and Jinja turned out blankets and textiles, tools and machines, cement and steel and transformed agricultural produce. Over 60 000 tourists a year came to the country's natural reserves and game parks where many rare species were to be found. Almost all that has to be rebuilt from scratch.

The colonial system must stand ac-

cused of much of the blame for Uganda's present state of affairs, according to senior NRM (National Resistance Movement) officials, including the President. The British practice of "indirect rule" had meant that Uganda was left at Independence with a federal constitution: traditional monarchies in the south and west and tribal groupings in the north and east. The central



Hindu temple in Kampala, a reminder of the strength of the Asian community in former times

government, adequate for the supervisory tasks of a colonial regime, had insufficient powers to create a nation. The whole world knows of the rule of Idi Amin, the African Caligula whose excesses dominated the headlines from the time of his coup in 1971 to his overthrow by the Tanzanian Army in 1979. It is he who is credited, single-handed, with the political debauch and economic collapse of Uganda. But in Uganda, these simplifications are deeply resented. It was Milton Obote, the darling of Western Leaders, who showed how the Army (under Amin) could be used for tribal ends. Himself



The Hon Chrispus Kiyonga, Minister of Finance

a Langi, (a Northern Nilote) Obote decided to abolish the southern kingdoms in 1966-7 and used the army to crush dissent. Amin went further — he used violence to expel the wealthy and powerful Asian community, and proceeded to distribute their wealth, their factories and plantations, to his henchmen. It was a popular move that proved to be economically suicidal. And because it was the Army, composed largely of northerners, a hand-gover from the colonial days of the King's African Rifles, which was the instrument of Amin's policy, it was gradually resented in the rest of the country. A two-year interregnum after Amin's departure did nothing to halt the country's fatal decline. Several governments, notably those of Lule and Binaisa, failed to control the Army, and Milton Obote was returned to power in a manifestly unfair election. Indiscriminate killings continued and intensified — all in all, Obote superintended some three times the number of deaths (800 000 at one estimate) that Amin had been credited with. He tried at first to manage the economy judiciously, and made some headway towards regaining control of foreign exchange by the introduction of an auction system through which the exchange rate was fixed by market demand. But Obote's efforts were thwarted by flaws in the country's social fabric. Military spending resulted

in a yawning budget deficit and a growing burden of external debt, coming to more than \$ 100 m p.a. in interest and repayments by 1985. Indiscipline, fraud, and the impossibility of ensuring a disciplined and effective army in such an environment led to Obote's ouster in that same year. A new military regime under General Okello took over, but failed to tackle fundamental problems.

It was in 1981, following Obote's rigged election that Yoweri Museveni took to the bush with a handful of men and a single overwhelming idea — to build a nation to which all Ugandans belonged, guarded by a disciplined national army which owed nothing to the colonial past or to tribal preferences. Slowly, the movement attracted more recruits, from all groupings and political parties. The army, the National Resistance Army, was disciplined and respected the rights of the civilian population. And it proved that it could fight. In January 1986, the NRA entered the capital, Kampala, and General Okello's regime was at an end. Museveni was declared President, and in order to demonstrate his credentials as a creator of national unity, he created a government of 31 ministers, less than half from his own National Resistance Movement, the rest from as many of the country's ethnic and social groups as possible. Names prominent from the time of Obote and Amin are there, as well as number of dedicated and talented people who have returned from exile or obscurity. Their goal, as Finance Minister Chrispus Kiyonga explained, is 'to heal the divisions which thrive on a low level of understanding, to free the country's human and physical potential and to create an economy national in character, self-sustaining, integrated and based on an equality of exchange with partners.'

The finances of illusion

Leaving aside the matter of internal security, which, as President Museveni has stated is a matter of 'bandits and cattle-raiders', Uganda's most pressing problem when the NRM assumed power was in the domain of public finance. When Obote was returned to power in 1981, and the international community rallied to rebuild a shattered economy, the initial prognoses were good — up to 1983, there were



Vivian Drovans

strict guidelines on government borrowing, and on domestic credit expansion. In 1982 and 1983, M1 and M2 (M1 is broad money supply — all cash, notes, bank deposits and government papers, M2 is the narrow money supply — money at the disposal of government) growth were both around 35% and the rate of inflation remained at a manageable 21-24%. But by 1984, the precarious internal situation began to deteriorate, government spending grew enormously and caution in public finance was thrown to the winds. The government resorted to heavy domestic borrowing to finance its increased expenditure, exports declined, and the tax base was eroded as farmers switched from cash to subsistence crops or engaged in cross-border smuggling. Printing money led to inflation which reached an estimated 150% in 1985, and the government was forced to resort to external funds. By 1986, the inflation rate was up to 300% and the Uganda shilling, whose official rate was fixed at 1 400 to the US dollar, was actually valued at something between 10 000 and 15 000 to the dollar on the 'Kibanda' or parallel, market. As the tax base contracted, and borrowing increased, Uganda's public finances became the finances of illusion. President Museveni's inheritance was an unenviable one.

On 15 May 1987, after extensive discussions with the IMF and the World Bank, the NRM government

announced a major adjustment and development programme covering the period 1987-90, whose aim was to raise real growth (to a rate of 5% per year). The major component in the programme was the currency reform which replaced the old Uganda shilling with a 'heavy' shilling (of 100 old ones), a devaluation of 77% against the dollar, (from a nominal 1 400 to the dollar, to 60) and a conversion tax of 30%. In essence, this meant the following: before the reform, a man with 10 000 Uganda shillings might — possibly — get US \$ 1 worth of goods, if he knew the right 'Kibanda' money-changer. This money was theoretically worth \$ 7, but unless he was able to convince the authorities of his need for \$ 7 worth of goods, it was worthless. After the reform, the man would have 70 new shillings — having



The Courier

The Hon Prof Yoweri Kyesimira, Minister of Planning

changed money and paid the conversion tax. This money would be worth \$ 1.15 at the exchange rate and, with the abolition of a dual exchange rate, means that the holder is likely to find goods at the right price coming back to the country. After less than a week of mild confusion and hoarding, the new currency and the attendant reforms have succeeded in putting a brake on inflation and giving the new shilling a solid backing. The 30% 'profit' which the government has made on the reform is a vital one — the partial collapse of the economy and the impossibility of revenue collecting meant that the government had no funds at all to meet its primary obligations. Half of the conversion tax will go towards the repayment of foreign debts, and the other half towards economic development within the framework of a national development programme. And the government is planning to increase its revenues in the future from an export tax on the country's primary exports. In order to do this, it has already encouraged production by raising producer prices — for coffee, the principal export, from 8.5 shillings to 24 shillings a kilo and for other export crops, cotton, tea, tobacco and cocoa by amounts ranging from 150% to 375%. Agriculture, according to Agriculture Minister Robert Kikomo Kitariko, plays 'the pivotal role in the country's economic and social development. It contributes 96% of export earnings, employs 93% of the population, contributes 56% of GDP and provides 60% of government revenue'. And, he adds, 'what was missing before, as far as the farmers were concerned, was leadership. Now they have it, and they are responding, and looking for markets.' But perhaps this aspect of the country should come later in the story — for the moment the emphasis is still on the sinews of government. If money is one of them, there is another one to deal with as well: the civil service. A quarter of a century of civil disorder has wrought havoc with public administration and President Museveni has that high on his list of priorities.

An administration of shadows

Efficiency and effectiveness in public administration are subjects notoriously difficult to approach without giving offence. They are even more



*The Hon Robert Kikomo Kiariko,
Minister of Agriculture.*

difficult in the context of most ACP countries whose systems are inherited from elsewhere and are being modified to meet genuine local needs against a chorus of external reproaches. That public administration in Africa has failed to meet the hopes placed in it was admitted for perhaps the first time at the UN Special Session on Africa in 1986. It is at least possible to talk about it now. In Uganda, perhaps in contrast to much of Africa, the talk is of nothing but the problem of public administration. Imagine a Permanent Secretary, responsible for the policy, budget and personnel of a large Ministry, who earns \$ 3 a month, enough to buy one packet of foreign cigarettes! Imagine a police force so ill-paid and untrained that, for over a year, the soldiers of the NRA were obliged to take over police duties. Imagine teachers without books, papers or lodgings; doctors without medicines or equipment; extension officers without even a bicycle to tour their area of responsibility. These were the people with qualifications, whose hopes were dashed, not merely by a crumbling infrastructure, and an increasingly worthless currency, but by fear for their very lives — intelligent, motivated people were often 'noticed' and attacked in the days when law and order had broken down. Add to that the corruption of desperation — who can live on \$ 3 a month? — and the list of recipients of civil service posts grew to accommodate the dead, the unqualified, and the wholly fictional. Doctors turned to private medicine, teachers to private tuition,

ministry transport to private enterprise. The Minister of Planning, Prof. Yoweri Kyesimira, acknowledges all of this. 'Adequate pay for the civil service', he admits, 'is a difficult question. In the immediate future, no optimum salary level is likely to be possible. The main incentives to remain at your post must be the return to law and order and the rise in the real value of money.' Prof. Kyesimira explained law and order further. 'Though their salaries are low, they know that they will not, as in the past, be hunted down and killed for their views'. That is the best offer going for Uganda's civil servants. It is a measure of how far back the NRM government has been forced to go. But Professor Kyesimira is not merely resigned — his Ministry is in charge of a Civil Service Manpower Survey, which began on 15 July and which, he is confident, will radically change the shape, size, structure and, eventually, the rewards of the civil service. 'The first thing we will do' he explained, 'is to have a head count. All civil servants will be asked to present their letters of appointment and their last month's pay slip. I expect we shall find a good deal of "air".' 'Air', he explained, is a common Ugandan expression. 'Selling air' means doing non-existent business, indulging in fraud. In other words, it is confidently expected that a very large proportion of those on the payroll are not actually working or were not properly recruited, or have died or were never there in the first

place. 'The human infrastructure' he said sadly, 'has suffered quite as much as the physical. You know that one pothole in a road is the direct cause of others — the effect on human behaviour is the same. Poverty and fear have led to widespread human demoralisation.' It is that demoralisation in the public service which Professor Kyesimira is hoping to cure. After the head-count, he explains, 'will come a comprehensive review and from that, we hope, will emerge a smaller and better-paid civil service.'

That smaller and better-paid civil service will be expected to play its part in the national recovery. Incentives to agriculture and industry will expand the tax base, and it will be up to the tax administration to ensure a free flow of revenue to the government. Dr Kiyonga, the Finance Minister, explained the importance of this in the plan for national recovery. 'Currency reform has attacked inflation; producer incentives, and raw materials and spare parts will revive agriculture and industry. A revival of the economy will expand the tax base and an efficient administration will be able to collect the revenue. At the moment, income tax is simply not collected. Customs officers do not have customs catalogues as a reference base: that means that imports are a matter of negotiation between the importer and the customs officer. All this means lost revenue to the government. And government expenditure must be better controlled: we have recently streng-



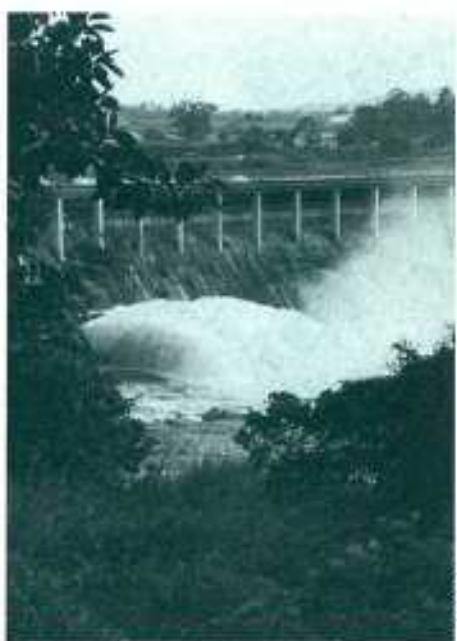
A rural water point. Public services in rural areas have almost ceased to function.

thened the staff of the Auditor-General and revised our procedures. Much government purchasing has now been centralised. These are major tasks; but the fact that they have been identified and are being tackled head-on is a measure of the government's determination. Properly administered, and adequately financed, Uganda would be a very rich country indeed.

The riches of a nation

In interview after interview one fact was reiterated: Uganda is a very rich country. The mere fact that, after two decades of internecine strife, there is little starvation in the country is proof of that. The country covers an area of 241 000 sq km, the population is at around 14.5 m and growing at a rate of 2.6 to 2.7% p.a. The country is divided into three climatic zones and of the 160 000 sq. km of arable land, only a third is currently in use. In the west and south-west, the soil supports perennial crops such as coffee and tea as well as bananas which furnish the basic diet of most Ugandans. (The bananas are steamed to form a paste called 'matoke' to which sauces and vegetables may be added). The west, centre and northwest grow annual crops such as sorghum and millet, as well as cotton. The north-east is dryer, savanna country and supports a considerable cattle population. Currently, the land supports more than 90% of the population, probably far more, since the country's estimated 300 000 wage-earners mostly do not earn a living wage and supplement their income out of private-plot farming. President Museveni made the interesting point that even the Army has engaged in agriculture — disabled and veteran NRA troops were being settled on vacant land and were growing crops to feed themselves and providing a surplus to buy equipment for the army 'so that' as President Museveni said 'we don't need to bother the Treasury with all our requests for equipment.'

But even agriculture requires inputs and efficient transport and incentive prices, and these have been lacking from at least as far back as the Tanzanian war of 1979. The return of two Indian-run companies — the Mehta and Madhvani groups — to their sugar estates of Lugazi and Kakira might well mean that Uganda will be self-sufficient again in sugar by 1988/9. In



Owen Falls dam and power station.

1970, the country produced 140 000 tons; in 1985 it produced nothing. Coffee production, which had been halved between 1970 and 1980, looks set to reach a target of 185 000 tons in 1988, and to better its own record at 220 000 tons by the end of the decade, according to Agriculture Minister Kitariko. Tobacco is currently produced only for home consumption — it may be that a small surplus will be available for export in 1988. The tea plantations are being restored — nothing looks sadder than an over-

grown tea plantation, and few things more inherently pleasing than one in operation. But tea production is still at half the 1970 level, and while cotton production could rise — it stands at around a quarter of the 1970 peak — the priority is to rehabilitate cotton ginneries, textile factories, animal feed producers and soap factories which can give added value to the crop. 'The potential is all there', explained Minister Kitariko, 'Even at the worst of times, we could export maize to Tanzania. When the NRM came to power there were 2.3 million bags of coffee which we couldn't shift, out of about 5 million, because the lorries had been removed by the defeated soldiers of the Okello regime.'

Minister Kitariko went on to enumerate the four main components of an agricultural revival — 'Firstly, input supplies. And we are very grateful to the EEC and the international community for seizing on this point and making it possible for us to get these inputs in quickly. We are getting a thousand tractors — some are here already — and our extension staff are being equipped with bicycles, motorbikes and pickups. We are now in a position to reopen some of the district farm institutes, too. Secondly, we must have high incentives to growers. The new price structure announced in May is a good first step, but we must make sure that the marketing structure



Only Ugandans' innate skill keeps the ancient machinery turning over.



View of Kampala

keeps pace and that the farmer gets the benefit. Thirdly, we must concentrate on training, research and extension, to maximise the value of traditional export crops and to seek new avenues for export, for example in the area of horticultural crops. And finally, we must recreate the infrastructure, the roads, railways, health, education and power services, which enable us to realise the potential of our good soils and climate and our hard-working farmers.'

Agriculture is not necessarily the only resource. Uganda exports hydro-electric power from the Owen Falls power station — 30 MW a year to Kenya at the moment, and a projected 15 MW to Tanzania after uprating the machinery at Owen Falls. There are fishery resources on Lake Victoria and Lake Edward (latterly renamed Edward after a decade as Lake Idi Amin) which had supplied two up-to-date processing plants, since closed down. Dr Kiyonga, the Finance Minister also saw minerals as a source of considerable potential. 'Copper is very promising. Iron ore, wolfram and gold are known to be there, but have not been properly evaluated. In addition, in 1985 we began petroleum exploration.' And a cursory glance at the industrial estates of Kampala, the capital, or of Jinja, the country's second city, show that the potential for an industrial base exists, second only to the agricultural one. But many of the factories are silent, and many more are not working to capacity. Everything depends on the infrastructure which is today in a parlous condition.

An infrastructure in ruins

Uganda is a landlocked country, and

a country riven by age-old divisions of tribalism. Thus, if there is one thing of which it stands in great need, that thing must be a solid infrastructure, to bind the country together and to provide an efficient channel for the benefits of economic progress. The human aspect of the infrastructure has already been touched upon in discussion about the civil service. But the physical infrastructure needs attention too. The country's health services had practically collapsed by 1980 — rural health centres were without staff or drugs or equipment. The proliferation of private schools in rural areas attests to the collapse of the public-sector efforts in education. During the fighting in Kampala in January 1986, the Treasury was burned down — the fire raged for four days. During the same period, the Nsambya Hospital in Kampala — celebrating its 80th anniversary — was the scene of fierce fighting, with many buildings damaged and

eleven people killed in the compound. In the country's national parks, game wardens looked on helplessly as heavily-armed soldiers of various factions decimated game, felled trees and turned these priceless national assets into robbers' dens. Most affected of all was the country's transport sector, that one potential unifying stand and single economic lifeline.

Uganda has a total road network of 27 540 km, of which 4 928 km are all-weather murrum roads and 1 274 km are bitumenised. Current plans include routine maintenance of 7 540 km, resurfacing 600 km and re-gravelling 1 000 km. Road reconstruction projects include the vitally-important Northern Corridor road linking Rwanda with Mombasa, and the EDF is funding the Kabale-Masaka stretch. The EDF has also tackled the problem of the roads in Kampala itself: some 30 km have been completed, and more are to be repaired as part of a programme to reestablish the City Council's road maintenance capability.

Uganda's rail network, of 1 240 km, is another aspect of the problem. The network is heavily dependent on Kenya and on Tanzania. Freight charges from the coast on the railways are less than half the charges made by (mostly non-Ugandan) road transport companies — typically \$ 52 per ton as compared with \$ 116 — and rail transport is better proof against smuggling. Uganda has a total of 1 280 freight wagons which should prove to be invaluable in shifting goods down both the Northern Corridor to Mombasa



The Treasury, which burned for four days after the fall of Kampala.

and, via the Lake Victoria rail ferry from Jinja to Mwanza in Tanzania, the Central Corridor to Dar-es-Salaam. Work still needs to be done on track and workshop supply and maintenance. A policy framework will have to be worked out with Kenya and Tanzania, since it is largely on these countries that the rail network depends. Powerful road transport interests in Kenya were aggrieved at President Museveni's decision to switch from road to the cheaper and safer rail, and, during the first half of 1987, there was some tension between the two countries, in part fuelled by the road transport lobby.

The management of the infrastructure is also something of a priority. For example, the Coffee Marketing Board was seen as a stumbling block, rather than an aid, to efficient coffee production, despite the ownership of the largest coffee transformation plant in the whole of Africa. A review of its functions has recently been carried out and a number of improvements are under consideration. The Lint Marketing Board (dealing with cotton) is no longer empowered to buy all raw cotton — cooperatives may sell directly to cotton mills and the Board's interest in the cotton-oil and soap industries has been reduced to a minority one. Many industries which had been owned by Uganda's Asian Community and which had been expropriated under Amin are now in the hands of the statutory body dealing with the restitution of confiscated property. While legal battles continue — especially over such aspects as improvements carried out while the business was expropriated — the management of the actual business is relegated to second place. The NRM Government has made strenuous efforts to divest itself of as many industries as possible to which there is clear title, and to streamline the management of those which remain in public hands.

President Museveni's populist approach seems to have occasioned tremors of fear among some Western journalists (though not, it seems among the hardened capitalists of the IMF) and there has been much excited writing about 'African socialism.' President Museveni is abundantly clear on the subject (see Interview p. 39). He and his Ministers want an infrastructure that works, whether it is in



The Coffee Marketing Board's plant, the largest in Africa.

public or private hands. He has castigated the 'business' community, to be sure, but for 'selling air.' He has never shown himself an enemy to the entrepreneur, the manager or the rational economic operator. Nor has he shown himself to be a friend of the inefficient state corporation or the lax bureaucrat. For the infrastructure, the priorities are clear — a road network that is up to date (for the free-enterprise freight companies), a rail network to keep the truckers on their toes (run by the URC, a State body) power generation and transmission and social, especially health, services that can arrest the downturn in human and animal health that has occurred in the past decade. His policy echoes the Marshall Plan and not the collectivisation of Stalin, and it meets the most profound needs of his war-torn country.

An ingathering of talent

Apart from those resources with which Nature has blessed Uganda, there is the human factor. Uganda's population is one of the most hard-working, adaptable and skilful in the region. One has only to see the artistry with which ancient machinery is kept going, decrepit motor transport still on the road, to realise that the average Ugandan has the skill to transform his environment, given two preconditions: internal tranquillity and external inputs. President Museveni and his broadly-based administration are guarantors of the first and the World Bank, IMF and many multilateral and bilateral donors are auguries of the second.

Nobody who did not live through the various regimes can fully under-



Kampala Railway Station, a vital link in both the Northern and Central Corridors

stand the human damage that was done. Just as in the decadence of the Roman Empire, the malice and envy of the rulers fell principally on the educated, the talented or the prosperous. Men and women with qualifications were killed, or emigrated, or went underground. Doctors refused to practice, lest their popularity was construed as a political threat. Teachers preferred not to teach: the University of Makerere, the oldest and grandest seat of learning in East Africa is today in a tragic situation of decline. The Asian community was driven out and has found outlets for its talents in the UK and North America.

The broad-based Government of the NRM has succeeded in gathering in the talent, not only from all corners of Uganda, but from New York, London and Nairobi as well. Occasionally this makes dialogue with donors somewhat bizarre. These returned exiles remember the thriving, sophisticated society and economy which they left behind, and talk of computers and large-scale industrial ventures while the donor stares at the holes in the window made by bullets and RPG rounds. During the Makerere Donors Conference, the senior staff were almost berated by Prime Minister Kisekka for their tender feelings towards the student body — they were no longer the pampered undergraduates of East Africa's Oxford or Cambridge. Prime Minister Kisekka reminded the staff. Students would have to do more



A rural clinic. Uganda needs internal peace and external help to make it flourish as it once did

for themselves and the priority was for training and materials which neither students nor professors could obtain for themselves.

But the whole story is more heartening. With the return of a broad measure of stability in public finance and security in public life, the energies of the people are being released. Visiting the source of the Nile, your correspondent engaged in conversation with a Ugandan family of Asian origin picnicking on the spot where Speke 'discovered' the great river ('We did not need Speke to discover it' said President Museveni, 'we Ugandans knew where it was all along.') The paterfamilias, who had kept a 'low profile' during successive reigns of terror, spoke with optimism of various investments he was making, in various industrial ventures. They were not inconsiderable, and the fact that such investments were not merely at the planning but at the execution stage was a pointer to the vitality that is waiting to be unleashed.

Women, too, have a part to play in the new Uganda. Mrs Betty Bigombe, Deputy Minister in the Prime Minister's Office makes a telling point. 'Women make up nearly 60% of the population, but they have been ignored up to now. Perhaps it was our fault — we have always taken pride in being very feminine and concentrating on our roles as mothers and home-makers. The NRM government has given us the opportunity to pull ourselves up,

and it is very encouraging to note the number of women who are now active in self-help schemes.' She feels that women professionals have targeted the right areas, since health and education are likely to be priority areas for some time to come.

Ugandans' intellectual drive and sparkle were all too often diverted into the sterile wastes of political struggle in the past. In a sense, their dialectical skills were their undoing. President Museveni, in his interview, stressed ideological clarity repeatedly; this is not a call to toe some party line since the NRM is not a party, it is a national movement. In fact, it is quite the contrary — a call to put the nation's energies into construction, rehabilitation and sound administration, and to forget the polemics which have torn the country apart for so many years. He echoed the English poet Alexander Pope, who in the 18th century wrote:

'For forms of government let
fools contest:
Whate'er is best administered
is best.'

Now that Uganda's talent has been gathered in, the hope must be that it will administer the beautiful country, with its wealth of natural and human resources, in the best possible way. Just as war-torn Europe needed a Marshall Plan in 1947 to unleash the 'Golden Sixties', a major effort, internal and external, would doubtless soon restore the lustre to the 'Pearl of Africa.' □ T.G.



Mrs Betty Bigombe, Deputy Minister in the Prime Minister's Office

“To know what laws govern the development of society”

Interview with President Yoweri Museveni

President Yoweri Museveni is something of a man of mystery. He rose to power, not through some praetorian coup, nor yet through a rigged election. For twelve years, he ‘went into the bush’, according to his own account with 27 men, to fight the injustice and divisiveness of the Amin and Obote regimes. Called to a round table conference to end the civil war in mid-1985 by General Okello, he saw that no compromise between warlords would solve the country’s fundamental problems. In January 1986 his National Resistance Army scattered the forces opposing it and Yoweri Museveni was made President of Uganda. He heads a movement, not a party, and those who seek a political ‘line’ which aligns him with right or left, seek it in vain. In this interview with *The Courier*, he makes it clear that he is not a man of left or right, nor even his own man. He is a man for Uganda.



The Courier

► *Mr President, Uganda has always suffered from an unequal distribution of military, economic and political power. How is your Government tackling this problem, and what success has it achieved so far?*

— It is true that we have had those imbalances from the first; the military was drawn from certain parts of the country, and also, in the past, some sort of economic development was concentrated in other parts of the country. But the easiest problem has been the military one. We have ensured that we have built up a national army; although our army was originally recruited from the South and the West, we have rapidly recruited soldiers from all over the country, and right now we’ve got a national army. In fact, each district was given a quota of people to contribute to the national army. At first, some of the areas could not fulfil their quotas but we insisted that whether they could fill the quota or not we had to ensure that they did. So, as far as that one is concerned, detribalisation of the army, we have made very good progress. Now, as for the economy, of course that takes longer, but our line is the same. We want

development for the economy as a whole, not parts of it, and that itself will force us to distribute economic facilities all over the country; for instance, if you want cotton — cotton is grown in certain parts of the country. So you must, whether you want to or not, grow in that part of the country. If you want fertiliser — fertilisers are in another part of the country; if you are talking of cement, limestone deposits are in another part of the country. So by the mere commitment to an all-round development of the economy, we’re really committed to balanced economic development of the whole country. In the past, it was possible to develop only certain parts of the country economically, because the colonial administrators were not interested in all-round development of the economy. They were more interested in the extractive type of activities; for instance, extract copper, and go away, and not bother about the rest of the economy, or take coffee: that’s what was needed by the colonial system, for instance. After the Second World War, when Britain had debts with America — America had lent a lot of money to Britain, under the Lend Lease pro-

gramme to enable Britain to fight Germany — now, after the Second World War, Britain did not have enough dollar-earning capacity, so it had to resort to its colonies to produce the types of commodities that it could sell in America, and earn some of the dollars with which to pay the United States. That’s why, for instance, coffee was promoted here so that it would be sold in America, or the groundnuts which were encouraged in Tanganyika. Now that’s why there was imbalance in the development of the economy in the past: because it was not envisaged that the economy of Uganda would be developed in an all-round, integrated way. But the moment we are committed — as we are — to the development of an economy which is integrated and able to sustain itself, then without even talking about equity, in terms of distribution of wealth, the mere commitment to an all-round development would force us to develop all parts of the country equally because you need various aspects of each part of the country.

► *The North remains a centre of opposition. What steps can you take to*

reassure the population there, and thus revive agriculture and trade?

— The North is not a centre of opposition. The North has been a victim of banditry. There is a big difference, because if you say that the North is the centre of opposition, it means there is political opposition which is supported by the people. But this is not the case. The fact of the matter is that that part is near Sudan, and that's where these fellows had run to, when we chased them from here. Now they have been crossing from Sudan and coming back and causing insecurity in the country. So it is more of a security problem than a political problem. There was an attempt to mobilise the population in Acholi area, and to some extent in other areas of the North, on a certain platform — a certain linguistic platform. But this did not succeed because, first of all, the bankruptcy of the rebels was quickly exposed; the indiscipline, the primitivity, the belief in witchcraft, was quickly exposed to the people; and secondly our own good intentions, and clear-headed objectives were also quickly made apparent to the people, so that the combination of those two factors has completely undermined the platform which the other fellows wanted to use — the platform of ethnicity, the platform of linguistic groupings. And the proof is in the fact that there are so many refugees — so many displaced persons in the North who have been running away from the very rebels who have made them their platform; because if they were insecure with us, if they were more secure with the rebels, they would not run away and come to us. But you can go and see for yourself the situation of many of these northern towns, in that there are many people who have run away from the bandits, and are in the towns, or even in the southern areas, there are a lot of people from the North who have run away from the bandits. So there is no political problem, therefore, in the North, but there has been a security problem. As far as the security is concerned, we know who are causing it — they are the remnants of the old army. This old army has a colonial background, it was part of the King's African Rifles of the British until they left here, which was a very backward group culturally: low level of education, some elements of

fascism, which was instilled in them by the repressive role they were playing in the colonial times. For instance, people like Idi Amin were involved in fighting the Mau Mau in Kenya. So for many years they were anti-population, and when eventually they were given the authority to run the army, without the European officers who were more culturally developed (although they were serving colonial interests, at least they had the advantage of cultural development, education and things like that) — once they were removed, once that influence was removed, they became merely brutes, — criminals. Now, when we defeated them they ran into Sudan, and they have been trying to come back. That's the only problem we are facing — the security problem, but not a political problem.

► *Mr President, in a country where so many remain under arms, your own human rights record is considered excellent. What lessons could others learn from this achievement?*

— Well, it is simply being clear-headed, that's all. The only other recommendation I could make is ideological clarity, because, you see, the repression comes from misdefinition of the enemy. The moment you are not able to define who the enemy is, you are bound to make a lot of mistakes. If, for instance, we were to make the mistake of thinking that people from the northern part of the country are the enemy — merely because some elements from the north are the ones who instigated this trouble, we would have made a very big mistake. But because we were clear-headed, we know who was the source of all these problems, that there were some elements who historically came from the north, but who did not represent the north and even if they may confuse some elements in the north into thinking that those criminal elements represented them, still we don't take that as final, we take those confused people as misled, and we work to retrieve them. So therefore that shifts our tactics, that shifts our methods of work, and eventually we solve the problem. But if we did not have that clarity, there would have been a lot of mistakes, and we could easily have degenerated into a repressive force — using indiscriminate violence on the population, and the problem would have become more

complicated. So, my answer is that the real answer is ideological clarity, ability to know what laws govern the development of society, what dynamics govern the evolution of events; now if you don't have that clarity, you are bound to make a lot of mistakes, and I think that is what has been happening in many situations including Uganda — Uganda does not really have such big problems, but, because of mismanagement, it has come to have a lot of problems. For instance, if you look at Uganda — Uganda is first of all fairly homogeneous — many of the peoples in the west, the centre and the east practically speak one language, more or less; about three quarters of the country. Another one eighth or so speak another language, another smaller group speak another language. So in terms of homogeneity, it is really quite homogeneous. For instance, when the British first came here, they translated the Bible into Ugandan, and all over, many, many people in the east, in the west, in the south here were using that Bible. You cannot say this of many other African countries. Now, in addition, Uganda is very well endowed in terms of natural resources, so we don't have problems like starvation and so on. The climate is quite dry. But in spite of all this, in spite of these advantages, we have gone through a lot of problems, merely because of mismanagement; mismanagement has resulted in all this — mismanagement of politics; mismanagement of the economy has brought us where we are now and this all goes back to what I call ideological clarity. I think that is what is missing in many situations, and that's why in the past we were misunderstood. For instance, when people say that we should have reached an understanding with the Okellos who were here, we knew we couldn't solve the problem by allowing ourselves to be a subsidiary group — a subsidiary element to the Okello Government, because it had no direction; it had no direction and would have added to the problems and even compromised ourselves. So that is really crucial: ideological clarity. These elements, we just ignore them; for instance there are a lot of subversive elements, even in the government. We just ignore them, because we concentrate on the essential points and even the groups which are opposed to our

Movement, we categorise them. If you are merely subversive and just attending meetings and things like that, we ignore you until you reach a certain stage where you are starting carrying arms or planning to start shooting. So that also enables us to deal with the worst elements, and ignore the intermediate types of opposition groups.

► *Do you regard the intermediate types as people to be won over in the end?*

— Oh yes. They will be won over: either by ignoring them, until they get tired and come, or by actually winning them over through positive steps taken by us.

► *You've said, Mr President, that economic rehabilitation was your government's priority. Now, will it be possible to reduce the budget deficit while providing adequate pay for the Civil Service?*

— It's a problem. It's a problem to eliminate the budget deficit, especially if you have got a narrow tax base, as we do now, given the fact that our industries are not working to full capacity. But we shall do everything possible to eliminate all the possible expenditure that could be eliminated, and I'm sure that then the deficit would not be very big. Also we have introduced very strong, very rational disciplinary measures and anybody who works outside the measures will be penalised.

► *Years of civil war have done enormous damage to the infrastructure. Do you foresee there being sufficient resources to repair the damage, and at the same time to invest for the future?*

— Well the resources are never enough, but we shall manage, because our country is fortunately rich, you know, and, really, what was damaged was the infrastructure, and factories. But otherwise the economic basis, the agricultural base, is sound, and it can easily be reactivated. In any case, it has ensured that we feed ourselves even at the worst of times. Now, that saves a lot, because with the repairing of the infrastructure and the repairing of the industries, the economy will start functioning normally, and if it wasn't that we were spending a lot of money to pay debts left by past governments, we'd already have done a lot, even on our own resources. But we have been spending quite a big chunk



"I am very happy with the EEC." President Museveni with Commission Delegate Karl Harbo

of our money to pay debts left by Obote. However, we have now agreed with the international agencies to extend us some new loans on good terms, and it's quite easy for us to repair the economy.

► *Mr President, the Makerere University Donor Conference is in session right now. What are your hopes for a successful outcome?*

— That programme of theirs which they have worked out; they call it projects or something like that: it's just to raise money to meet the anticipated expenses involved. But I have also emphasised to them that they should try to rely on themselves, for example in the construction of houses. I have told them that they should set up their own construction unit, so that they can build houses for themselves, rather than disturbing our friends abroad with such petty requests. We need outsiders to donate some machinery like cranes, and things like that, but they themselves should be able to set up their construction unit. Now about other things, which we don't make here, like computers, like laboratory equipment, and so on, we hope that that would be donated by friends. But building, which is the biggest, one of the biggest components, should be done by them. There is nothing they are lacking; we've got cement here, we've got bricks and tiles, we have got engineers of all types — civil engineers, architects, we've got manpower — it is not a problem for that type of

work. So one thing they do need is equipment, that is cranes and concrete mixers, some tippers, that type of thing. If the University takes that line, I'm sure it will be even easier for our friends outside to help us.

► *In your speech on the 15th of May this year, you called for international solidarity with Uganda's economic struggle. Are you satisfied with the EEC's response to your call?*

— Yes. They have contributed quite a lot; ECU 125 million over the next 3 years plus the regional funds. I'm very happy with the EEC — there is no doubt about it.

► *What would you like to see improved in future Lome Conventions?*

— Well, the speed at which the money is disbursed. If that could be quicker, expeditious implementation of projects would follow. Some projects have been taking a very long time. But that's where the EEC has also been flexible: the other time when I talked with Mr Natali in the EEC, he did not object, he did not say no. We even agreed that we could flexibly transfer some of the money to quick disbursement projects. I don't see any resistance. In fact sometimes I think our people are a bit slower than the EEC. Take the case of the Karamoja money, that \$6 million must have been lying around for quite a time. So even there I don't see much of a problem with the EEC. ◊

Interview by T.G.

'A global answer to a global scourge'

Almost every day, the Western press, much of it sensational but a good proportion of it quite serious, recounts a new facet, social or scientific, of the spread of AIDS, the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. That it is a global pandemic is barely disputed. That its effects, in the West, have been highly dramatic is also not in doubt. At first, in 1981 and for a few years thereafter, it was conveniently labelled 'the gay plague', since the vast majority of sufferers were either homosexual, or intravenous drug users or Haitian immigrants to the USA who were a prey to both, and almost all cases were confined to US cities which had large homosexual and drug-using populations.

The initial effects of the disease were felt largely by the medical community—the victims were hard to isolate and impossible to cure. But the homosexual community in the USA soon felt a wave of hostility—colleagues refused to work with homosexuals; nurses to treat them for anything without protective equipment; and the general public, rendered fearful of anything to do with blood or needles, refused either to donate blood or to have anything to do with tests. Then, by 1983, AIDS spread to Europe, and, almost at the same time, was recognised in a number of African countries. Although the AIDS victims in Europe were, by and large, members of the same 'target' groups as in the USA, those in Africa were not—neither drugs nor homosexuality being prevalent there. The swiftness of the pandemic, and the powerlessness of the medical and scientific communities to contain it, provoked some hysterical reactions both in Europe and Africa. In some parts of Europe, the discovery of AIDS in Africa became the reason for racially discriminatory administrative measures—the compulsory blood-testing of African students, the deportation of affected students, visa requirements, and the like. In Africa, the reaction was somewhat different. Whilst most African governments accepted that AIDS was now worldwide, and that it affected hete-



rosexuals as well as homosexuals, the fiction was maintained that the problem was largely confined to homosexuals and drug users in the developed world and was magnified by a hysterical Northern press and sentiments of racial bigotry. This defensive posture was maintained by certain governments to the extent of non-notification of cases inside their borders, whilst their nationals in Europe or the USA formed a significant proportion of the cases notified there.

Uganda is different—the government is committed to openness in all areas of national life, and AIDS, or 'slim' as it is called in Uganda, is a matter for debate, discussion and argument, as well as action. The Minister of Health, the Hon Dr Ruhakana Rugunda is emphatic about public discussion and involvement. 'The NRM believes that problems must be in the open—it is a feature of life—political life—in the country. You must also be aware that in view of the lack of tech-

nical and financial resources in the country, we are obliged to use to the full our human ones. Thus, on the one hand, political, civic and religious leaders address the problem in churches, at rallies, at meetings, and, on the other hand, the Ministry is doing all it can in the way of health education with the dissemination of posters and pamphlets, broadcasts on the radio and meetings'.

Openness is not, however, to be seen as a licence to print horror stories

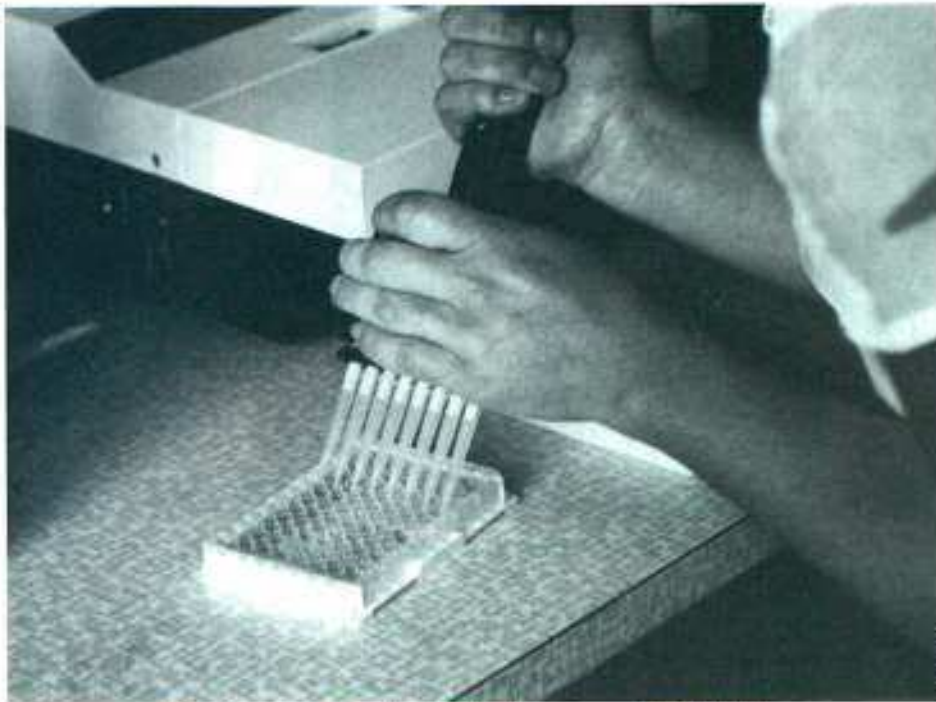
or to point the finger of blame; and the case of numbers is a case in point. Figures available to the Minister have pointed to 1138 cases confirmed in Uganda but, the Minister stressed, 'we have handled AIDS as just another disease in terms of the relation of confidentiality existing between doctor and patient.' Journalists, he felt, were sometimes too concerned to sell stories without due regard for fairness and accuracy, and concentration on numbers or percentages was counter-



The Kampala Centre of the Uganda Blood Transfusion Service, which is to be renovated as part of the EDF's campaign in the country.

productive. 'No country' he said, 'wants to be in this particular Top Ten, and figures can push you into a corner. The main thing is to know that the problem is a serious one and to treat it as such.'

This attitude was confirmed on several occasions by senior medical staff in hospitals round the capital. Figures varied from day to day, and of course, they were figures derived from those already ill, which weighted them. Thus, head-counting was generally discounted as an effective means of quantifying the problem. What Dr Rugunda — himself a medical man — saw as the beginning of wisdom was not an assessment of numbers but a recognition of the existence of a problem. 'To me it is common sense, even for countries which say they do not have a problem, to assume that a problem exists or will soon do so, and to start on a massive campaign of information. Now that 130 countries have reported it, the assumption that your country has an AIDS problem is not an unwise one.' Every country, he added, had the minimum resources to embark on an information campaign to contain the disease. 'That in itself is not enough' he said, 'but it is a start and it will save lives. What we require is a concerted global effort to contain



Blood testing for the AIDS virus on an ELISA kit

and control the problem, Mankind should defeat AIDS — not the other way round.'

AIDS, when it struck Uganda in 1983, found the country in poor shape. Twenty years of civil war, pillage and neglect had overwhelmed the medical infrastructure. Doctors had been killed or had fled abroad. Contrary to rumour and journalistic 'inflation', the disease was first identified at a fishing village on Lake Victoria, away from highways (where truckers on the Northern Corridor have been accused of spreading it) or the capital (where wealthy businessmen were accused of spreading it). 'AIDS doesn't discriminate on a regional or social basis' said Dr Rugunda.

Currently, Uganda is running a serious study to determine levels of infection in parallel with the health education campaign. While the latter concentrates on changing sexual habits and on tightening up on medical procedures (meticulous sterilisation of needles and syringes, and screening of blood samples and stocks) the medical research teams cover the country to analyse blood from potential donors, schoolchildren and selected samples of the population in order to establish a reliable percentage of seropositive individuals. Reliable data and correct methodology are the keys to success. Research skills and tools are essential to the operation but Dr Rugunda in-

sists that it is not a capital-intensive one.

One of the problems of the disease is that it is still in the process of evolving. Since it is most probably a mutation of a retrovirus, it can still assume both new shapes and new symptoms. One hospital director spoke of a burgeoning of AIDS-induced symptoms. The familiar ones of Kaposi's Sarcoma and gastro-intestinal ailments had been joined by new diseases related to pulmonary and even cardio-vascular disorders. And a new strain of the virus has been discovered in West Africa.

All this means that an international effort was indispensable to success in finding what Dr Rugunda called 'a global approach to a global scourge.' And he had no hesitation in saying that the WHO was the most appropriate body to coordinate the effort and provide the leadership. (See interview with Dr Monekosso in this issue). The EEC was singled out by Dr Rugunda for its swift response to the challenge. ECU 400 000 have been made available to the government for the purchase of ELISA blood-testing machines, emergency purchases of sterilisation equipment and protective clothing and, in the future, help in re-equipping the national blood transfusion service and refurbishing its rather battered headquarters. The total EDF funding for the campaign against



The Courier

Without the ELISA, blood testing is a laborious task



The Courier

An EDF-supplied refrigerator for blood samples

AIDS will be of the order of ECU 2 million, and, Dr Rugunda said, 'I must salute our friends in the EEC for having taken the lead in this area.' But now the rest of the world is taking note. Dr Rugunda had recently chaired a meeting at which institutions, countries and international agencies had all expressed their interest in helping to combat the pandemic. And he paid tribute to the WHO leadership and hard work which, he said, was commendably making up for a 'late start.'

Dr Rugunda was very insistent on the fact that the Western press, in its

pursuit of the sensational, had overlooked the general state of health and health care provision in Uganda. Infant mortality in Uganda is 120 per thousand. The children are not dying of AIDS—they are dying of measles, diarrhoea, whooping cough, TB and kwashiorkor. Their parents are dying of malaria and sleeping sickness. 'By far the most important causes of mortality and morbidity in the country are those which simple drugs can cure and simple measures like water, food and sanitation can prevent. Each year, 90 000 children die of vaccine-preventable diseases. It is erroneous to

concentrate all the talk on AIDS and to ignore this palpable reality.'

And Dr Rugunda's actions are as good as his words. In the clinics, hospitals and health centres, there are five posters on nutrition, sanitation and disease identification for every one that is aimed at AIDS prevention (headed by the words 'Love Carefully'). And Minister after Minister stressed health care as being a vital part of Uganda's infrastructure, which was receiving as much of the Government's limited funds as was possible. When President Museveni addressed the National Resistance Council on 7 April this year, he took pride in announcing that 'on the basis of self-reliance, we have partially rehabilitated Mulago Hospital (the main government-run hospital in Kampala) and even bought some new equipment...'

Just as the influenza epidemic of 1919-21 struck at a Europe weakened by war, privation and social dislocation, disease has struck at a weakened Uganda. And while it is not the only killer Uganda must face, AIDS is particularly horrific in that it strikes from the unknown. Dr Rugunda is grateful for international help but stresses the virtues of self-help, too. Information, rigorous adherence to standards and self-sacrifice are being demanded of the members of his ministry. The Ugandans see themselves in the front line of the fight against AIDS, surely a better position to be in than on the sidelines. As Dr Rugunda stressed, AIDS is everyone's problem now. □

T.G.

Love Carefully!

Learn Facts About "Slim" AIDS Disease!

Protect Yourself and Those Whom You Love!

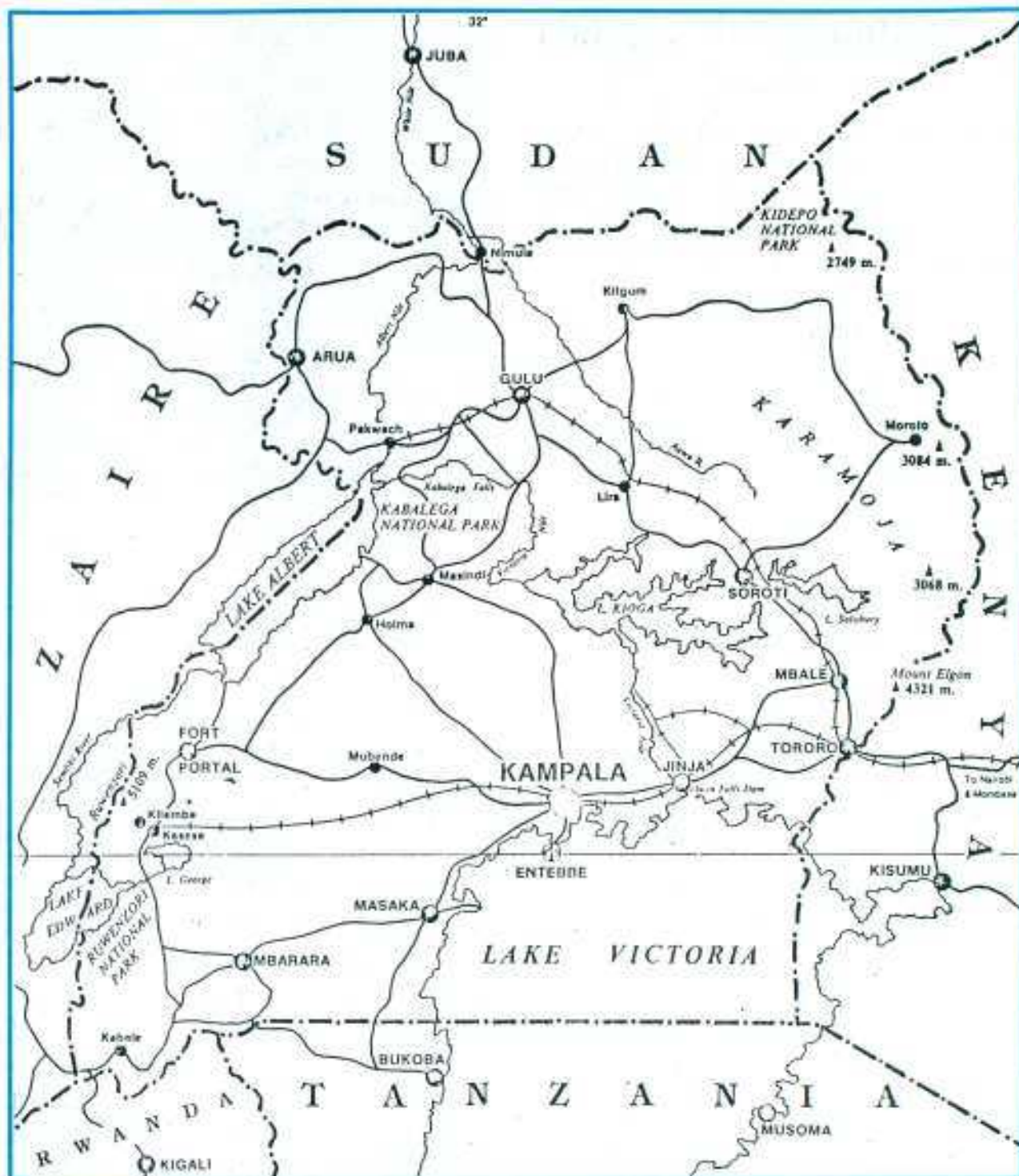
What Does "Slim" AIDS Look Like?

- Fever which comes and goes
- Throat white coating in the mouth
- Diarrhoea which lasts a long time
- Hilly skin lumps which appear anywhere on the body
- Weight loss which cannot be explained
- Skin rash (itching) rash anywhere on the body

BE CAREFUL—a person with TB, typhoid, malaria, cancer or severe abdominal pain be watched for a slim AIDS. Only qualified medical people know if you really have AIDS. If you have any of the slim signs, check with a doctor.

How Do People Catch "Slim" AIDS?

The Courier



Uganda Profile

Head of State: President Yoweri Museveni

Land area: 241 000 Sq.Km

Total population (est. 1983): 13.7 million

Density per sq.km: 57

Growth of population p.a.: 3.2% (1969-1980); 2.8% (1980-1983 est.)

Proportion of rural population: 93%

Proportion of urban population: 7%

Proportion of illiterates: approx. 50%

Life expectancy: 53 (1977)

Capital: Kampala (458 000 - est. 1983)

Other main towns:

- Entebbe - former administrative centre; main airport
- Jinja - pop. 45 000 est - second largest town and main industrial centre; Owen Falls hydro-electric scheme
- Tororo - Some industry and rail link with Kenya

Religion: Christian religion 60%. Traditional religion 30%, Islam religion 10%.

EEC relations with Uganda

by Karl HARBO (*)

Apart from the Arusha Agreement and the Cheysson Fund, cooperation between the EEC and Uganda originated from 1975 when Uganda became a signatory to the Lomé I Convention. A delegation was subsequently established in Kampala during 1976 to assist the implementation of the provisions of the Convention.

Since 1976 Uganda has seen six different regimes of which two were removed following extensive armed conflicts. As the articles of this issue make clear, over extended periods the conditions for successful development cooperation have not been present, due to the political and security situation. At times the delegation staff was reduced to a bare minimum and activities brought to a standstill. This is important to keep in mind when assessing the impact of the assistance provided since 1976.

At the end of June 1987 disbursements within the Lomé Conventions amounted to ± ECU 145 million. Of this, 70% of the disbursements originated from



In the South-West, an integrated project is under way which will combine help for artisanal fishermen...

the indicative programmes. Details of the assistance provided to Uganda are illustrated in the tables and are summarised as follows:

Lomé I and II Conventions

The Lomé I and II Conventions provided ECU 73.6 and 87 million to Uganda respectively. Both have been implemented in parallel as the implementation of the Lomé I financial and technical cooperation protocol did not start before late 1979. By mid-1987 all the funds have been committed and disbursements have reached 83% and 52% respectively. Disbursements will continue for another couple of years with respect to Lomé II for projects being approved as late as this year.

The Lomé I programme was dominated originally by the Short Term Rehabilitation Programme (ECU 19.3 million) aimed at a variety of activities to alleviate the effects of the 1979 liberation war and subsequently by the Coffee Rehabilitation Programme (ECU 25 million) whose objective was to assist the rehabilitation of the coffee sector which accounts for 90% of foreign exchange earnings.

A livestock project (ECU 7.3 million) was implemented to rebuild the veterinary service and to enable it to control livestock diseases. Support to the reestablishment of the national parks was included within a natural

resources conservation project (ECU 3.1 million) which is still ongoing. Among the components is assistance to a project to study and protect a species of colobus monkey whose habitat is limited to a small dense forest area in Western Uganda.

Rehabilitation of economic infrastructure has been the main feature of the Lomé II programme. The sections for a total of 110 km of the Northern Corridor Road have been or are under reconstruction as well as approximately 30 km of Kampala City Roads. Regional funds (ECU 7 million) have also been committed for upgrading of the Northern Corridor road. Three water supply and electric power projects have also been included for a total of ECU 14 million.

Rural development has been dominated by two projects in favour of the remote Karamoja region (ECU 11 million) and ECU 6 million have been allocated for an artisanal fisheries project.

The EIB has so far granted two loans from risk capital resources for a total of ECU 10.3 million. Of these ECU 10 million have been for the Uganda Development Bank.

Assistance from the regional funds have been concentrated on the trans-

port sector with ECU 2.5 million allocated for the purchase of tank wagons for Uganda Railways Corporation and ECU 7 million for upgrading sections of the Northern Corridor Road.

A number of emergency aid allocations have been granted to Uganda to alleviate effects of war and civil unrest. A total of ECU 8.6 million has been allocated for refugees, returnees and displaced persons.

Lomé III Convention

The programming exercise for Lomé III in Uganda did not follow the usual pattern for the ACP countries. The programming mission did not take place before January 1987 which in reality means that the period of operation of the Convention has been reduced by one third. The reason was that pre-programming discussions had taken place with three different governments during undoubtedly the most tumultuous period in Uganda's history. ECU 125 million is available for Uganda under the Lomé III Convention.

Nevertheless there is reason for a certain amount of optimism with regard to the implementation of the Lomé III Convention as well as the balance of the previous ones:

(*) Commission Delegate in Kampala.



...wildlife conservation...

— the conditions necessary for successful development cooperation have improved since the NRM government took power.

— the start of the implementation has coincided with the introduction of significant macro-economic policy measures, most notably the preparation of a rehabilitation and development plan covering the period until 1990 and a package of policy measures agreed with the IMF and World Bank including monetary reform, devaluation, adjustment of producer prices, budgetary reform, civil service reform, etc.

— the programme document itself went far in terms of identification of specific projects and a detailed implementation timetable for the duration of the whole Convention was agreed upon.

— both parties agreed that projects and programmes with a fast rate of disbursement should receive priority in order to maximise the effect of the assistance.

The Lomé III National Indicative Programme will concentrate on two major economic sectors.

a. *Agriculture and rural development* which will receive about 40% of the resources. The following sub-sectors

have been identified so far:

— farming systems support project which will support production and processing of coffee as well as various food crops through the provision of farm inputs, extension services, cooperatives, coffee processing, research, etc. Project identification is underway.

— tea outgrowers project aimed at restoring smallholder tea production. Project is expected to be approved before end of 1987.

— forestry conservation project. This project is also expected to be approved before end of 1987.

— conservation of natural resources in continuation of the current project.

b. *Economic and social infrastructure* will also receive about 40% of the allocation for Lomé III. The main projects have been identified as follows:

— Masaka-Mbarara-Kabale road rehabilitation, being part of the Northern Corridor road. The section is 280 km long and the works are expected to cost ± ECU 45 million. Of these, ECU 25 million will be contributed from regional funds. Construction will commence by the end of 1987.

— Kampala City Roads Phase II which will include repairs of about 30 km of urban streets as well as measures to improve the maintenance capability of the City Council. Survey and design work is underway with construction to follow upon completion.

— Kampala Water Supply Project Phase II which will involve the construction of additional water treatment capacity to cater for increased demand for water in the capital area. Works are expected to commence during 1988.

Finally, funds have been earmarked for interventions in the field of rural health and training.

c. *Outside areas of concentration.*

The major project outside the areas of concentration is the rehabilitation of Makerere University to which ± ECU 8 million have been allocated. It will involve the rehabilitation of 9 major buildings, staff housing and funds for maintenance of buildings and grounds, printing and library services.

d. *Import Support Programme.* In June 1987 an Import Support Programme (Art. 188 i) was approved for an amount of ECU 15 million for the import of much-needed inputs for



...and upgrading the tourist amenities for a better future



Roads are an urgent priority in Kampala...



...and on the vital Northern Corridor. A high proportion of EDF funds are going to this aspect of the infrastructure

Table 1
Uganda — 4th EDF National
Indicative Programme

Project/Programme	Amount in million ECU
<i>Short Term Rehabilitation Programme</i>	19,245
<i>Agriculture and Rural Development</i>	36,986
Coffee Rehabilitation Project	25,000
Animal Disease Control Projects	7,300
Conservation of Natural Resources Project	3,100
TA and studies	1,586
<i>Economic and Social Infrastructure</i>	8,930
Lake Katwe Road Project	1,512
Kampala/Masaka Road Project	5,165
Rural Health Project	2,253
<i>Lines of Credit</i>	5,000
Uganda Development Bank	1,500
Rehabilitation of Uganda Hoes	3,500
<i>Miscellaneous</i>	3,439
Multiannual Training Programme	2,843
TA and general studies	215
<i>Reserve</i>	381
SUB TOTAL	73,600
Disbursements end of June 1987	61,175
<i>Actions Outside National Indicative Programme</i>	
STABEX	20,595
Emergency Aid	3,305
EIB Risk Capital	300
SUB TOTAL	24,200
TOTAL	97,375

Table 2
Uganda — 5th EDF National
Indicative Programme

Project/Programme	Amount in millions ECU
<i>Agricultural and Rural Development</i>	28,016
Rehabilitation of Seeds Industry	9,500
Artisanal Fisheries Project	6,000
Karamoja Development Project I	5,060
Karamoja Development Project II	6,000
TA and studies	1,456
<i>Economic and Social Infrastructure</i>	46,039
Kampala/Masaka Road Project	4,450
Kampala City Road Project	12,100
Kampala Water Supply Project	5,270
Rural Electrification Project	5,900
Rural Health	1,100
Kampala/Masaka Road, Section d	7,000
Kabale/Katuna Road project	2,500
Kilembe Power Project	3,100
Sleeping Sickness Control Project	2,000
TA and studies	3,019
<i>Lines of Credit</i>	4,300
Uganda Commercial Bank	4,300
<i>Miscellaneous</i>	6,422
Multiannual Training Programme	4,400
Microprojects Programme	1,100
TA and studies	922
<i>Reserve</i>	2,223
SUB TOTAL	87,000
<i>Actions Outside National Indicative Programme</i>	
Emergency Aid	5,310
EIB Risk Capital	10,000
SUB TOTAL	15,310
TOTAL	102,310

the economy, mainly within the sectors of general industrial raw materials and spares as well as equipment and spares for the transport sector. The programme is of the balance of payment support type, aimed at fast disbursement. The funds are expected to be disbursed by end of 1987. The counterpart funds will be available for other EDF-financed projects. The programme is the first of this kind to be financed by the EDF.

Outside the NIP

To date, two actions have been approved under this category and which deserve to be mentioned.

— Assistance to returnees in West Nile (Art. 204) under which a total of ECU 4.5 million have been allocated for a programme to assist the return of Ugandan refugees in Zaïre and Sudan.

The assistance will concentrate on rebuilding of social infrastructure of the area in question (education, health) and the creation of income-generating activities. The actual resettlement exercise will also be supported through financial assistance to UNHCR.

— AIDS. As mentioned elsewhere in this edition of the magazine, Uganda is the first country to formulate a comprehensive AIDS control programme. The EEC has supported AIDS control in Uganda since mid-1986, first through two emergency aid actions for a total of ECU 400,000 and, most recently, with an allocation of ECU 2 million from the special AIDS control programme. The majority of funds will be devoted to rehabilitation of the blood transfusion system.

The Lomé III Programme in Uganda has been tailored to the special circumstances prevailing in Uganda at

present. It is ambitious in its aim of fast disbursement, which is attributable to the fact that it is necessary to stop a long period of decline and to start a process of recovery. Finally, maximum use is being made of the various new provisions of the Convention whenever applicable.

The implementation of the Lomé Convention in Uganda has in the past proceeded along a very rocky path with many setbacks and disappointments along the way. The NRM Government will be facing a difficult period ahead before stability and growth can be achieved. The EEC and the international donor community in general have so far played an active role in assisting the Government's efforts to revitalise the economy. For the first time in years there is a hope that the result of the collective local and external effort will bear fruit. ○ K.H.



THE CARIBBEAN

The bank, the genebank and the shipping corporation

It is now an accepted fact that regional cooperation is indispensable to national development. In pursuit of this goal, regional organisations have sprung up over the past 25 years in great numbers in the developing countries, not least in the Caribbean where the collapse of the Federation of the West Indies in 1962 meant different forms of cooperation between the islands, some of which are widely separated by sea, have to be established. The extent to which these organisations are achieving their objectives is increasingly becoming a matter of debate.

In this special report, The Courier looks at how three of these organisations—the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB), the small Cocoa Research Unit (CRU) at the University of the West Indies, which is of a wider ACP interest, and the West Indies Shipping Corporation (WISCO)—are fulfilling their functions.

The Caribbean Development Bank

The financial and economic think-tank of the Caribbean

From whatever angle you look at it, whether in terms of provision of finance, in guidance of countries in their economic policies or in working towards regional integration, the Caribbean Development Bank has played a tremendous role. Its overall impact on economic development may not be visible on the surface because of the prolonged recovery from the recent world economic crisis which hit the Caribbean particularly hard, on the ground, it is unquestionable, particularly for the least developed countries in the region. What more could the founding fathers have asked for?

Obviously the most successful of all the regional institutions in the Caribbean, the CDB was the end-product of an international search in the 1960s for a viable Commonwealth Caribbean. It began in 1962 following the demise of the West Indies Federation and the subsequent independence of Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. The British Government, faced with what to do with the smaller territories of the Eastern Caribbean, i.e. the seven Windward and Leeward islands and Barbados, attempted without success to form another federation. In 1966 an economic survey of the eight

territories carried out by the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States recommended, among other things, the creation of a Regional Development Bank to provide financial backing for their development. But a Conference of Canada and the Commonwealth Caribbean in Ottawa later that year decided instead to set up a team to study the possibility of a financial institution that would serve all the Commonwealth countries and territories in the region. The team reported in 1967, recommending the creation of a Caribbean Development Bank with an initial capital stock of US\$ 50 million (made up of US\$ 25 million of paid-up subscriptions and US\$ 25 million of callable funds). A draft Agreement was adopted at a Ministerial Meeting in 1968 and, on 18 October 1969, was signed in Kingston, Jamaica, by sixteen Commonwealth Caribbean countries and territories⁽¹⁾ and two non-regional non-

borrowing Commonwealth countries, namely the United Kingdom and Canada. The Agreement, which entered into force on 26 January 1970, promised to pay special and prompt attention to the needs of the less developed members in promoting regional economic cooperation and integration.

Financial resources

Two financial resources were provided for in the Agreement: the Ordinary Resources composed mainly of subscribed capital and borrowing, from which hard and soft loans are made available, and Special Funds which can be set up by the CDB as and when necessary. One of these, the Special Development Fund, was immediately set up to receive contributions and concessionary loans. The Fund is aimed primarily at guaranteeing loans "of higher developmental priority, with longer maturities, longer deferred commencement of repayment and lower interest rates than those determined by the Bank for its ordinary operations".

The Bank's general lending policies issued by the Board of Directors at its first meeting in 1970 saw agriculture and tourism, and the infrastructures that are directly linked with them, privileged. The Bank could make or participate in direct loans to regional member governments and to their agencies, to public and private enterprises within the region and to regional agencies of development.

(1) Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, Bahamas, Guyana, Barbados, Antigua and Barbuda, Belize (formerly British Honduras), Dominica, Grenada, St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Montserrat, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands.

REGIONAL COOPERATION

It did not take the CDB long to establish its credibility as it went into operation in 1970, attracting an enormous amount of interest from potential borrower and non-borrower countries. Barely two years after coming into existence, the Board of Governors authorised an increase in its capital stock by another US\$ 50 m (half paid-up and half callable). In 1974 the callable shares were increased by US\$ 92 m bringing the total authorised capital stock to US\$ 192 million. Regular increases brought this to US\$ 290 m in 1985 (US\$ 66 m paid-up and US\$ 224 callable). The Special Development Fund, on the other hand, which now receives only contributions, stood at nearly US\$ 200 m in 1985. Other Special Funds totalled US\$ 192.6 m, the latter made up mainly of the Venezuela Trust Fund, contributions from Canada, loans from Canada, Nigeria, Trinidad and Tobago and the United States, contributions and loans from Inter-American Development Bank, International Development Association and the European Development Fund and grants from United States aid and other sources. Contributions to Special Funds, it should be noted, bear no interest and normally do not have specific dates of maturity. Loans, on the

other hand, are long-term with interest rates that range from 3/4 of 1% to 3% per annum.

Interest and other charges levied by CDB on loans

"In making or guaranteeing a loan the rate of interest, the schedule of repayment and other charges are such as are, in the opinion of CDB, appropriate for the loan concerned", according to Bank sources.

"The interest charged by CDB on its loans inclusive of a commission in ordinary operations and a service fee in special operations, is computed on the amount of loan outstanding. On loans made from Ordinary Capital Resources, the Bank also levies a commitment fee of 1% per annum on the amount undisbursed and a preparation/appraisal fee equivalent to 1%.

On guarantees given by it, CDB charges a commission (comprising a guarantee fee plus a service charge) on the outstanding balance of the amount guaranteed.

All loan repayments are ordinarily made in the currency loaned except for loans made from the Special Development Fund in which cases the currency of repayment is United States

dollars. Amortisation and grace periods are such as are, in the opinion of CDB, appropriate for the loan concerned.

Beginning from 1 April 1984, CDB adopted a variable interest rate policy, reviewed semi-annually.

At present, lending terms on loans financed from Ordinary Capital Resources are 10.25% interest rate per annum (inclusive of a commission of 1% per annum), a commitment fee of 1% per annum on undisbursed balances, and a preparation/appraisal fee equivalent to 1%.

Loans are repayable over a period of 15-18 years after an appropriate grace period, except in the case of loans for industry and tourism which are repayable over a period of 10-18 years after the grace period subject to any source of funding constraints.

In Special Operations the lending terms are 4% to 6% interest per annum depending on the borrowing country (inclusive of a service fee of 1%) with a grace period of up to 5 years after which the loan is payable over a period of 15-20 years".

Principles that guide lending

The Caribbean Development Bank cannot "finance an undertaking in the

Approvals of loans, contingent loans, equity and grants (net by country and by year (1970-1986) (S '000)

Country	1970-1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	Total
Anguilla	—	—	—	—	1 927	715	1 671	2 249	6 562
Antigua and Barbuda	10 996	2 524	357	32	690	503	845	440	16 387
Bahamas	6 097	—	—	1 007	—	—	8 970	6 356	22 430
Barbados	16 333	2 223	8 777	5 034	1 129	9 134	7 002	174	49 806
Belize	32 961	1 192	1 498	1 577	2 072	122	878	11 938	52 238
British Virgin Islands	2 390	880	770	—	1 062	—	56	56	8 732
Cayman Islands	4 638	2	2 493	6 243	—	7 000	1 100	2 075	23 551
Dominica	18 313	1 884	6 809	2 490	1 483	2 033	6 284	1 569	40 865
Grenada	8 796	1 177	3 135	676	3 125	1 601	8 358	537	27 405
Guyana	34 440	76	5 000	270	—	—	—	15	39 801
Jamaica	51 394	4 996	7 049	21 384	19 491	—	6 081	4 300	114 695
Montserrat	2 429	762	220	205	6	11	540	182	4 355
St Kitts and Nevis	10 211	994	1 538	120	1 264	3 394	1 299	3 269	22 089
St Lucia	15 717	3 256	3 136	2 807	2 366	15 589	962	2 959	46 792
St Vincent and the Grenadines	15 810	3 187	4 479	5 322	273	5 902	1 366	11 484	47 823
Trinidad and Tobago	1 850	—	—	—	—	—	19	14 569	16 438
Turks and Caicos Islands	761	1	700	10	2 399	200	—	453	4 724
Regional:									
LDC focus	13 451	8 948	302	29	238	14 133	81	61	37 243
MDC focus	2 358	—	—	—	—	1 200	4 00	—	7 558
LDC/MDC focus	1 382	428	7 245	386	267	134	82	261	10 185
Total	250 327	32 530	53 508	47 592	37 992	61 671	49 594	66 465	599 679

Note: Cancellations are deducted from the years in which approvals were made.

territory of a member if that member objects to such financing.

Its operations provide principally for the financing of specific projects, whether forming part of national, sub-regional or regional development programmes in such fields as agriculture, livestock, fisheries, forestry, marketing, manufacture, mining, tourism (particularly small and medium-sized regionally-owned hotels), transportation, housing (low and lower/middle income), student loans, and infrastructure and services related to the development of these sectors of economy. High priority is given to the financing of regional projects.

The listing does not necessarily exclude proposals in other sectors which are in conformity with CDB's purposes and come within its functions.

Specific private development projects, whose individual financing requirements are not in the opinion of CDB large enough to warrant the direct supervision of CDB, may be financed through loans or guarantees of loans to national development banks or other suitable entities.

The Bank may also make or participate in loans to facilitate pre-investment and feasibility studies and project preparation if it considers the project to be worthy of detailed investigation.

It may also guarantee, whether as primary obligor or secondary obligor, in whole or in part, loans made by other investors for the economic development of member countries".

The Bank has raised well over US\$ 616 million in its 17 years of existence.

Enlargement of membership

Membership of the CDB has risen from 18 to 23 (twenty regional and three non-regional members). Venezuela, Colombia and Mexico joined the original sixteen as non-borrowing regional members in '73, '74 and '82 respectively. Anguilla, which was part of St Kitts and Nevis when the Agreement was signed in 1969, became a member on its own in 1982. France joined Britain and Canada as a non-regional non-borrowing member in 1984, opening up the prospect of enlargement to French-speaking Caribbean territories. Italy's application for

membership was approved by the Board of Governors in 1985.

The enlargement of membership has, no doubt, brought increased resources through subscriptions and callable shares. Non-regional members, in principle, cannot hold more than 40% of shares and regional members not less than 60%. With the Commonwealth Caribbean countries determined to retain majority control of the Bank, their subscriptions have increased over the years and will increase further if enlargement is extended to French-speaking countries.

Operations

As the CDB's financial resources have increased, thanks largely to its ability to mobilise them, so have its commitments. Between 1970 and 1986, some US\$ 600 million were committed in loans, equity participation and grants to finance a wide range of development projects. The Bank has a high rate of disbursement on loan approvals. In 1981 it was as high as 62%.

The bulk of loans, of course, go to the Least Developed Countries in accordance with the provision of the Agreement setting up the Bank. Of the total financing approvals from Ordinary Resources amounting to US\$ 269 m made between 1970 and 1979, for example, 56.7% or US\$ 152.5 m went to the LDCs. A higher proportion of Special Funds—about 80%—are also used in projects located in the LDCs.

Concentrating on agriculture and infrastructure (particularly roads and feeder roads), the CDB has helped strengthen the economies of countries in the OECS (Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States), overcoming not only the effect of such natural disasters as floods and hurricanes which have

befallen them in recent years, but registering significant growth in key areas of their economies—bananas and tourism—despite ups and downs in international demands.

The CDB favours projects that promote regional integration. It is for that reason that regional transport has retained its attention, providing loans to LIAT (the Leeward Islands Air Transport) to purchase aircraft and spare parts for the maintenance and operation of an inter-island air transport service in the Eastern Caribbean. The CDB's appraisal report on the feasibility of WISCO (West Indies Shipping Corporation) opened the way to funding from the European Development Fund of the purchase of two vessels (see page 57). It should be noted that the Caribbean Development Bank is the designated National Authorising Agent for the EDF's regional programme for the Caribbean. Although CARICOM (the Caribbean Common Market) has been given the responsibility of co-ordinating national development programmes, the CDB's Charter requires it to do the same, providing countries with advice on better use of resources, making their economies more complementary and promoting the orderly expansion of their intra-regional and extra-regional trade. The CDB does these through the provision of technical assistance. First, to projects directly related to specific loans by (a) identifying those that are suitable to financing by the CDB or by others (b) assisting in the preparation of feasibility studies (c) implementing the projects especially in the initial period and (d) following up the projects after they have gone into operation. Second, it provides technical assistance to projects not directly related to specific loans like: giving advice in specific fields of eco-



Aircraft of LIAT (the Leeward Islands Air Transport), which has benefited from CDB loans as well as EDF funding

REGIONAL COOPERATION

Distributions of loans, contingent loans, equity and grants approved
(net) by sector and by fund (1970-1986) (\$ '000)

Sector	Ordinary capital resources	Venezuelan trust fund	development fund	Other special funds	Total
Total - All sectors	186 076	17 665	188 937	207 001	599 679
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	13 352	-	10 815	13 470	37 637
Crop farming	8 765	-	7 695	8 630	25 090
Agriculture (excluding crop farming)	4 214	-	101	3 520	7 835
Fishing	-	-	2 232	889	3 121
Land settlement and rural development	373	-	771	431	1 575
Forestry	-	-	16	-	16
Mining and quarrying	-	-	4 143	886	5 029
Fossil fuels	-	-	-	100	100
Non-metallic minerals	-	-	4 143	786	4 929
Manufacturing	26 251	2 205	31 920	42 896	103 173
Food, beverages and tobacco	92	-	5 155	32 559	37 806
Sugar	4 256	1 500	3 688	2 719	12 163
Textiles, wearing apparel and leather goods	-	259	241	13	513
Wood and wood products	-	-	49	16	65
Paper and paper products	3 651	-	-	10	3 661
Chemicals and chemical products	-	446	11	18	475
Non-metallic mineral products	3 009	-	73	68	3 150
Miscellaneous manufacturing and repairs	-	-	-	43	43
Industrial estates	15 144	-	22 703	7 450	45 297
Tourism	14 507	4 725	3 011	873	23 116
Hotels and lodging places	10 262	4 725	64	48	15 099
Cruise ship piers and marinas	3 896	-	-	-	3 896
Integrated tourism facilities	349	-	2 887	-	3 236
Tourism supporting services	-	-	60	825	885
Transportation and communication	59 275	-	65 483	44 920	169 678
Transport					
Road transport	16 089	-	21 547	16 705	54 341
Water transport	12 138	-	28 097	17 307	57 542
Air transport	22 748	-	15 839	10 908	49 495
Communication	8 300	-	-	-	8 300
Power, energy and water	12 372	3 248	23 442	13 227	52 289
Power and energy					
Electric power	5 447	-	14 763	2 767	22 977
Alternative energy	-	-	528	2 501	3 029
Water supply	6 925	3 248	8 151	7 959	26 283
Social and personal services	5 401	-	498	39 943	45 842
Housing	201	-	-	12 834	13 035
Health	5 200	-	283	6 893	12 376
Education	-	-	215	20 041	20 256
Personal services	-	-	-	175	175
Multi-sector and other	7 145	-	4 158	29 229	40 532
Urban development	-	-	-	5 540	5 540
Disaster rehabilitation	7 145	-	3 796	1 089	12 030
Distributive trade	-	-	13	2 659	2 672
Other	-	-	349	19 941	20 290
Financing and distribution	47 872	7 487	45 467	21 557	122 383
Agriculture	19 975	4 760	11 929	13 337	50 001
Manufacturing	12 630	2 727	17 769	4 983	38 109
Housing	15 267	-	6 364	3 112	24 743
Education	-	-	9 405	-	9 405
Multi-sector and other	-	-	-	125	125

conomic activity as well as in overall planning of economic development be they national, sub-regional or regional; implementing operations arising from advice or recommendations previously rendered; providing training; and co-ordinating activities of all these technical assistance operations which are of a non-reimbursable nature. The costs are charged to CDB's net income and to special funds.

The CDB holds dearly to efficiency in project management. It was for this reason that a Project Administration Training Unit (PATU) was set up in 1982 within the Bank to, first and foremost, "strengthen the institutional capability of Caribbean Governments and institutions to more effectively utilise available development funding, and to improve their levels of efficiency in the investment process, through the improvement of skills and the availability of personnel in the project administration fields". The Unit trains public and private sector personnel both in Barbados and in their home countries in every aspect of project administration. Phase I ended in 1984 and another began in 1985 with emphasis now on training of trainers so that "skills could be passed on and thus reach a much larger number of persons". Evaluations carried out on its effectiveness have been encouraging.

The CDB, it must be pointed out, prefers emphasis on development programmes than on projects. Its interest in programmes goes as far back as 1978 when it nudged the Caribbean Group for Cooperation in Economic Development (CGCED) into accepting the concept of programme financing rather than project financing on the ground that borrowing members were encountering severe economic and financial difficulties and that, under the circumstances, project funding was inappropriate. Programme financing, it felt, would enable Caribbean Governments to have reasonable levels of development expenditure and thus stabilise their economies and maintain reasonable growth. This led to the establishment, under the aegis of the Group, of the Caribbean Development Facility within the CDB which provided external financial help to Caribbean countries in implementing their development plans. The Bank, as just seen, has ever since given assistance to

programmes not tied to specific projects and to those aimed at bringing economies back on their feet, for example, loans to Dominica, St Vincent and the Grenadines, and Jamaica for reconstruction after floods and hurricanes had devastated their economies.

These efforts notwithstanding, the world economic recession has created serious budgetary and balance of payment problems in the region. In these areas, the Bank admittedly has not been very effective. CDB President William Demas admits in an interview with *The Courier* in March: "Quite frankly we haven't given much finance to enable member countries to meet their budgetary and balance of payment problems. What we have contributed on so far, and the borrowing member countries welcome it, is giving advice in formulating their development plans and policies, and of public sector investment programmes. We have been giving that kind of technical assistance, particularly to smaller islands, those of the OECS, and we are continuing dialogue with them on matters of micro-economic policies. We are about to take part in a consortium of financing for the island of Dominica for its structural adjustment programme. The World Bank, the IMF and United States AID are involved. We have had a special programme funded by US AID for balance of payments and budgetary support to some of the bigger countries. We got a series of such loans up to about five years ago. These loans required the three borrowing governments—Jamaica, Guyana and Barbados—to meet the local costs of development projects. So by providing foreign exchange, they help the balance of payments".

Sluggishness of trade

There is no doubt, however, that the fall in of the volume of trade (both intra-regional and extra-regional) has a great deal to do with the Bank's apparent lack of success. The fall in trade is attributed largely to the collapse of the Caribbean Multi-lateral Clearing Facility following the adoption by two member countries of exchange rates that were prejudicial to CARICOM trading arrangements and massive defaults of another. CDB President Demas thinks it is not fair to say the

facility has failed. "It has been suspended", he says. The CDB and the CARICOM Secretariat were, in fact, mandated in July 1986 by the 7th meeting of CARICOM Heads of Government in Georgetown, Guyana, to formulate a scheme for a regional export credit facility which will finance trade, in the short and medium term, within and outside the region. The report, presented to the CARICOM Heads of Government summit last year, resulted in a decision to set up before the end of the year a trade credit facility for the region. The CDB will almost certainly be involved in establishing it. Such a close involvement of the Bank will give the CDB the opportunity to pinpoint areas, particularly in the private sector, that have potential for exports and deserve the Bank's assistance. But until then borrowing demands for infrastructural projects remain very high, outstripping by far demands for productive projects for which the Bank in recent years has been advocating a shift of emphasis.

The years ahead may not be as smooth as the past 17 years for the CDB. It has certainly been successful in mobilising resources but demands for financing from its more advanced borrowing members will almost certainly double as a result of cuts in international aid and the increasing reluctance by many Caribbean countries to accept the IMF medicine. The World Bank is already threatening to stop soft loans to a number of them on the basis of their per capita income. The CDB, for example, expects to provide more financial assistance to Trinidad and Tobago, which, for the first time, borrowed from the Bank last year following the downturn in its economic fortunes in the wake of the slump in oil prices.

The Caribbean Development Bank, so far, has had only one defaulting member to which it has applied the stipulated sanctions: viz., refusal of new loans and suspension of disbursement of those already approved or in the process of being approved. The possibility of others joining the lone defaulter cannot be ruled out. Some countries are now so much in arrears and there has been a "relatively high level of loan cancellations" says the Bank in its 1986 Annual Report. □

A.O.

Organisational structure of the CDB (*)

The CDB has a Board of Governors, a Board of Directors, a President, two Vice-Presidents and other officers and staff.

Board of Governors

The Board of Governors is the highest policy-making body. Each member country nominates one Governor and one Alternate Governor. For this purpose, the member territories of Anguilla, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Montserrat, and Turks and Caicos Islands are regarded as one member. Each Governor casts the votes of the member territory or territories which he represents. Except as otherwise provided in the Charter, voting power is roughly proportional to shares subscribed, with a slight weighting in favour of the smaller member territories (see table). At a special Meeting of the Board of Governors held in 1971, the Board decided that Commonwealth Caribbean Members should always have a majority of the voting power in CDB and a majority of the number of Directors. All the powers of CDB are vested in the Board of Governors which may delegate its powers to the Board of Directors, except on certain matters, such as admission of new members, change in capital stock, election of Directors and the President, amendment of the Charter, and termination of the operations of CDB.

The Board of Governors meets once a year, but may also be summoned as required. Meetings of the Board of Governors other than the annual meeting may be called by the Board of Directors whenever requested by a majority of the members of CDB. The Board of Governors at its annual meeting elects from among its members a Chairman and two Vice-Chairmen to hold office until the next election.

Board of Directors

The Board of Directors comprises thirteen Directors, ten representing the regional members of CDB and three representing the non-regional members. Directors hold office for a term of two years and are eligible for selection

for a further term or terms of office. Each Director appoints an Alternate with full power to act for him when the Director is not present.

The Board of Directors is responsible for the general policy and direction of the operations of CDB.

The Board exercises all powers delegated to it by the Board of Governors, and, in conformity with the Charter, takes decisions concerning loans, guarantees and other investments by CDB, borrowing programme, technical assistance and other operations of CDB; it also approves the Administrative Budget of CDB and submits accounts pertaining to each financial year for approval by the Board of Governors.

President

The President, under the direction of the Board of Directors of which he

is Chairman, is responsible for the organisation and operation of CDB, including appointment of staff and investigation of loan proposals. He serves for a five-year term and may be re-elected.

Vice-President

The ranking Vice-President exercises the authority and performs the functions of the President in the absence or incapacity of the President or while that office is vacant.

Staff

As at April 30, 1986, CDB had a professional staff of 82 drawn from 15 countries, and 106 non-professional staff mainly from Barbados.

The President is advised by a Vice-President (Operations), a Vice-President (Corporate Services) and Bank Secretary, and four Directors of the four Departments: Projects, Economics and Programming, Finance, and Legal. □

Voting powers and Board of Governors (1)
(Article 32 of Agreement)

Governors for:	No. of shares + 150 =	No. of votes per member =	No. of votes per governor	% of total votes
REGIONAL				
Jamaica	9 640	9 790	9 790	16.05
Trinidad and Tobago	9 640	9 790	9 790	16.05
Bahamas	2 844	2 994	3 572	5.86
Belize	428	578		
Colombia	2 080	2 230	2 230	3.66
Venezuela	2 080	2 230	2 230	3.66
Mexico	2 080	2 230	2 230	3.66
Guyana	2 077	2 227	2 227	3.65
Barbados	1 808	1 958	1 958	3.21
Dominica	428	578	2 312	3.80
Grenada	428	578		
St Lucia	428	578	1 831	3.00
St Vincent and the Grenadines	428	578		
Antigua and Barbuda	428	578	675	
St Kitts and Nevis	428	578		
(Anguilla)	105	675		
Montserrat	105			
British Virgin Islands	105			
Cayman Islands	105			
Turks and Caicos Islands	105			
NON-REGIONAL				
Canada	6 940	7 090	7 090	11.63
United Kingdom	6 950	7 090	7 090	11.63
France	4 160	4 310	4 310	7.07
Italy (1)	4 160	4 310	4 310	7.07
Total	57 970	60 970	60 970	100.00

(1) Assumes Italy is a member.

(*) Source: CDB.

The Cocoa Research Unit

An invaluable asset

It is not generally known that ACP cocoa-producing countries have one invaluable asset tucked away in Centeno, Trinidad. The asset is the Cocoa Research Unit (CRU) at St Augustine's campus at the University of the West Indies, the result of over 50 years of efforts by dedicated scientists with foresight. Indeed one can go as far as to say that, if all goes well, the asset could turn out to be one of the most successful conservation exercises ever carried out for humanity, for it involves basically the collection of as many species of cocoa as possible from the Amazon before that great South American jungle disappears under the bulldozers of mineral prospectors and developers.

Historical background

The foundation of the Unit was laid in 1927 when a Committee set up by the British Government recommended the creation throughout the tropics of agricultural research stations to carry out researches that were beyond the scope of the agricultural departments of colonial governments. What eventually sprung up in Port of Spain in 1930 was a cocoa research scheme jointly financed by the governments of Gold Coast, Nigeria, Grenada, and Trinidad and Tobago, and by the chocolate manufacturers Cadbury Bros Ltd, J.S. Fry and Sons Ltd and Rowntree and Co. The scheme was under the overall control of the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture.

Initial research focused on the usefulness of cocoa and on diseases such as witches broom, growth flushes and cherrille wilt. In the 1950s it centred on the performance of clones with emphasis shifting from cuttings and buddings to crosses towards the end of the decade. These experiments were made even more interesting in 1952/3 following a successful expedition to Colombia which enabled scientists at the Station to acquire new information on many types of wild cocoa and allied species and their breeding potentials.

In 1960 the British Government made a gift of the Station to the Uni-

versity of the West Indies where it was incorporated into the Faculty of Agriculture. This administrative change affected somewhat the continuity of research programmes. As funds dried up, so did research which, furthermore, began to focus more and more on West Indian problems. The germplasm collection exercise virtually ceased.

The Unit, however, was brought back on track in the early 1980s when it was re-established as an independently funded research institution within the Faculty of Agriculture of the University. It attracted support from the Governments of Trinidad and Tobago and Jamaica, from the Cocoa, Chocolate and Confectionery Alliance of the UK, the European Development Fund, the International Board for Plant Genetic Resources, and the University of the West Indies.

Main activities

The Unit's research works have been re-organised under three major

programmes — disease management, agronomy and genetic resources. The disease management programme still concentrates on the three disease organisms present in Trinidad and Tobago: Witches Broom (*Crinipellis perniciososa*), Black Pod and Canker (*Phytophthora spp*) and Wilt Disease (*Ceratocystis fimbriata*), while under agronomy, projects are undertaken both in Trinidad and Jamaica on rehabilitation of varieties, their establishment and management (ie spacing, shading, application of fertilisers, etc) and methods of propagation.

These researches are specifically directed to the situation in Trinidad and Tobago and in Jamaica. The result, for Trinidad in particular, has been the production of cocoa of the highest quality, all of which is usually exported, as it fetches higher prices abroad, and the importation of lower grades of cocoa for the domestic chocolate and confectionery industry. The country's overall cocoa production has, however, been on the decline since 1982. The disease management and agronomy programmes are not geared towards commercial production in other countries. The Unit's essential role is that of assessing characteristics of varieties — suitability of crossing and resistance to diseases — and putting the information gathered at the disposal of cocoa-producing countries. It is up to



Anthony Kennedy, Head of the Cocoa Research Unit, examining the stem buddings of crossed varieties

The Courier

the country which has received the information to carry out further research in so far as its particular problems are concerned whether of pest and disease control or of yield.

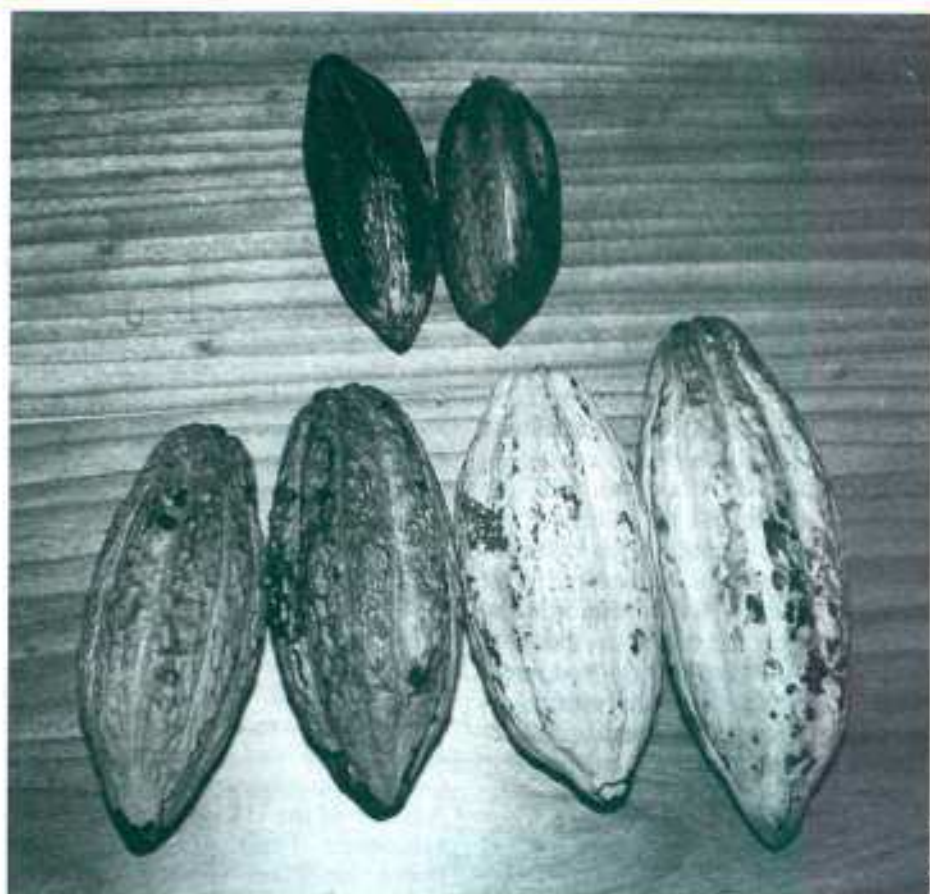
The CRU's international reputation is, no doubt, based mainly on its germplasm collection and associated research on genetic resources, which has resulted in a genebank that contains over 2000 varieties of cocoa. The largest collection of this kind in the world, it has been recognised as a global centre for cocoa germplasm by the International Board for Plant Genetic Resources.

As already mentioned, the collections are done mainly in the South American forest—in Ecuador, Peru, Colombia and Costa Rica. These collections are grouped into "populations" either as genotypes, that is, those that share a particular attribute such as resistance to a particular disease, or as intermable genotypes that can be cross-bred to produce better varieties. Some of the wild varieties have very small pods with seeds which are not suitable for commercial cultivation but which, when crossed with others, yield bigger bods and seeds (See photo). Consideration is also given to their origin or geographic collection site.

Called the International Cocoa Genebank Trinidad (ICGT), all that is left for the Unit is to expand and operate efficiently. The Government of Trinidad and Tobago in 1982 allocated a site for germplasm collection at the former La Chaguaramas Estate, abandoned land once used for cocoa cultivation. A welcome addition to the needs of the Unit, the land nevertheless did present reclamation problems with its overgrowth of weed and bamboo trees. These are being solved.

Managing the CRU efficiently is now a major preoccupation, with some experts suggesting the use of the latest equipment that technology offers. Mr Anthony Kennedy, Head of the Unit feels that the genebank should be associated with an accessible and relevant data bank and, to this end, a system based on a micro-computer is being developed. Initial documentation will be based on the IBPGR⁽¹⁾ Descriptor

(1) International Board for Plant and Genetic Resources.



The result of cross breeding

The small "dark" pods in the background gave rise to the bigger pods in the foreground

List which will be expanded as more experience is gained in handling data.

An ACP asset

Aware of the importance that the Unit represents for ACP cocoa-producing countries, the European Development Fund, in 1979, financed a project to continue collection of species and to repropagate varieties that date as far back as the 1930s and which are in danger of being lost for ever through age. To this end, a safe and well-managed nursery has been set up at St Augustine's campus. When these varieties are brought completely under control, as it is hoped in a couple of years, they will be made available to countries that require them. The EDF-financed project also foresaw the establishment of a quarantine in Barbados to facilitate the gathering exercise and the efficient and fast transfer of germplasm. There is now no longer need to use the quarantine facilities in Kew in England or in Miami. Barbados was chosen for the quarantine station because it has no cocoa industry

which can be threatened if diseased plants are brought into the country. Barbados provides furthermore good tropical conditions under which plants can be kept at lower costs. Its agreement to the siting of the quarantine in its territory can only be seen as an act of solidarity with ACP countries on behalf of whom scientists at the Unit believe they are running the resources and through whom they hope to obtain more financing under regional cooperation. Phase II of the project launched in 1979 was approved by the EDF in 1985. This came into operation in January—a measure of the belief in the usefulness of the work being done.

Another important activity of the Unit worth mentioning is its Training Programme in which research students from all over the world follow courses leading to Ph. D and M. Phil degrees of the University of the West Indies—a programme many see as having the potential to attract new recruits for careers in cocoa research, especially in the ACP States. ○ A.O.

WISCO

Trials of a shipping corporation

Regional organisations in the Caribbean have, at one time or another in their existence, come under criticism but none has had so much of it in recent years as WISCO, the West Indies Shipping Corporation, one of the oldest in the region. Accused of losing money and ineffectiveness, it is the very existence of the Corporation that is being called into question.

WISCO was established in 1961 by the then Federal Government of the West Indies to provide shipping services to territories widely separated by sea and whose economies are historically dependent on trade. Its fleet consisted of two passenger/freight vessels donated by the Government of Canada. Operated and managed by the shipping company Furness Withy and Co, WISCO was placed under a Regional Council of Ministers in 1962 when the Federation was dissolved. In 1970 a General Manager was appointed and the Corporation assumed full responsibility for providing, on its own, mail, goods and passenger services to member countries. It became the official carrier of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) in 1973 when the latter was founded, giving the Corporation a wide area to cover: from Jamaica in the north through Antigua-Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica, Grenada, St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines, St Kitts and Nevis, Trinidad and Tobago in the east to Guyana in the south and Belize in the north-west.

WISCO has so far not lived up to expectations, particularly with the least developed countries in the region. Not only do these countries feel that the Corporation is not providing the services for which it was set up, they resent having, as share-holders, to make contributions, to support it. Recently, Dominica, Belize, St Vincent and the Grenadines and St Kitts and Nevis withdrew from it.

With the volume of cargo carried by the Corporation declining between 1981 and 1986 by 40%, has WISCO really any future? What exactly are its difficulties? The *Courier* had the opportunity of talking to the General Manager, Mr Sherman Thomas, during a recent visit to Port of Spain where the Corporation has its headquarters.

On the difficulties

Mr Thomas: "Basically WISCO's present difficulties stem from a couple of factors. One has to do with the kind of territories we serve—basically small territories. It was known that the level of trade among the territories was not very substantial, and, in fact, the Corporation has a role to develop that trade and promote regional integration. That role calls for the Corporation to maintain certain services that are not remunerative. Over the past few years, a number of the states that are shareholders who provide funding and have been provided with this service have been somewhat concerned that it is not remunerative. Now, within that basic position and with the general trading situation in the region deteriorating, the task of the Corporation is even more difficult. There is now less cargo moving and there is more competition from shipping lines that really do not belong to the region and do not have a commitment to the region. These ships just come in and operate relatively unhindered without any real commitment, providing serious competition for WISCO. The decline in regional trade is the result of the world recession and of some specific regional problems such as the disappearance of the trade facilitating mechanism called the "Multilateral Clearing Facility" which allowed credit to member states in terms of their trade. That was dismantled in 1982 or 1983. There were the restrictive licensing arrangements adopted by some of the countries and, of course, the foreign exchange problems. So in a situation where trade is not buoyant but on a downward trend, we have sought to maintain an adequate level of service and the only way it could be done is at some additional costs. That is really the kind of background in which we have been working.

Now we have not simply sat back. We have taken a couple of initiatives. We've widened our service in the area. We're still serving the states that we are committed to serve or have been mandated to serve. We are serving them now in a wider context both in terms of transshipment and direct calls in one of the major trading areas, which is the United States.

We are generally building up a network of services so that the States can use this both to diversify the areas from which they get cargo and the areas to which they ship cargo, because the region has embarked on serious export development. We have been facilitating that.

The early '80s have basically been years when we were trying to establish new services and it takes quite a while to get established. We think that we have made some significant progress. We are working very very strenuously to ensure our situation improves in 1987 compared to what it has been in the past two or three years."

This is a much more cautious stance from the General Manager who predicted last year that WISCO would break even financially in 1987 and cease to rely heavily on funding from member states. *On what basis did he, in the first place, make that prediction?*

Mr Thomas: "Breaking even this year is what we are aiming at. The basis on which we are aiming at that is that, in the early '80s, what we have been doing was to get involved in new areas, in particular in the United States and Canada trade, and also building up transshipment network cargoes from Europe, from the Far East, and so on. The early years have been the years of launching all these services and consolidating them. We think we have now reached a point where this effort is beginning to pay off. Secondly, we have streamlined our operation in serving regional trade. We have changed somewhat the structure that we were using and we feel 1987 will be a year where we can show some significant improvements. Furthermore, one or two of the territories that in '84, '85 and '86 had a pretty bad time in terms of foreign exchange have now reached a point where they are beginning to show slight improvements—particularly in their export performance. We hope to capitalise on that and to derive benefits from that development."

WISCO does not only face competition from foreign shipping lines within the Caribbean, it is also facing competition from smaller boats. Is the job of inter-island sea transport best left to these boats? What about the charge that WISCO is not playing the role for which it was set up, particularly with regard to the least developed states—a charge which has led a number of them to withdraw? *Would WISCO cease, as a result, to serve the islands in question?*

Mr Thomas: "Maybe it's not generally known, that WISCO has transported some products from Dominica to Belize by using the interline arrangement. We have transported pharmaceuticals from Guyana to Belize, again by using the interline arrangement, and we have moved some cargo from Belize to several of the Caribbean islands. We can move Belize beef to Dominica, and any other CARICOM state. I am not sure, but my understanding of the criticisms that have been levelled against us was that we do not provide direct services. On the one hand, we're being asked to run services at a lower cost. To call directly at Belize would mean higher cost. All we are trying to do is to keep costs to the minimum and still provide services. It is not absolutely necessary to have a direct call in order to provide an adequate or an acceptable service. Maybe it is one of the bits of mis-information in some parts of the Caribbean that unless a direct service is provided no service is provided. That is a fallacy that I think has to be debunked. A tremendous amount of cargo in the world is moved on interline or on transshipment basis, and it is done in order to be cost effective. As for the countries that have withdrawn we will continue to convince them that their best interests would not be served by being outside. It makes sense for us to continue to serve them. We will, and hopefully they will come back in. There is one thing that needs to be said at this point. In 1980/81, one member withdrew from WISCO. We continued to serve that state, and in 1982 it came back into WISCO".

WISCO normally has a fleet of three vessels and regularly charters others as the situation demands. Two of its vessels, "Caricom Venture" and "Caricom Express", were purchased in 1983 with EDF funding, at a cost considerably higher than planned when the financing agreement was concluded in 1981. Questions have arisen as to the wisdom in acquiring the bigger Lo-Lo (load-on load-off)⁽¹⁾ vessels which require not only the purchase of more containers, but also the provision of port handling equipment such as tractors and trailers. The original financing agreement involving a loan of ECU 5.9 million foresaw the purchase of 540 containers, 12 trucks and 90 trailers. What was eventually obtained were two second-hand vessels with a capacity of 122 containers instead of 90. There were no funds left for the



"CARICOM Venture", one of the two vessels purchased with EDF funding

containers. This was not only due to the fact that WISCO had to pay more for a different and bigger type of vessel than originally planned, it was also because between 1981, when the financial agreement was concluded, and 1983 when the two ships were bought, the dollar had risen considerably against the ECU, resulting in a loss of some ECU 600 000, according to analysts. The delay therefore in purchasing the ships has cost the Corporation a lot of money. Even more costly is the fact that WISCO has had to rent containers and port handling facilities ever since.

In the eyes of many experts, it was an error of judgment in the first place for WISCO's authorities to have chosen to buy the load-on load-off model. The roll-on roll-off⁽²⁾ model, they said, would have been preferable because it is more convenient and economical. With that model there are no need for containers and port handling equipment. The recent disaster involving the "Herald of Free Enterprise" in the English Channel, though, casts doubt on the wisdom of using roll-on roll-off ships, because of the inherent dangers. The disaster presents the WISCO authorities with justification for their decision.

As things stand, however, WISCO operates under capacity with the two vessels in question and it is noticeable that voyages between the least developed countries have become less frequent because of stiff competition from both local small vessels and foreign shipping lines.

WISCO's problems are multifarious but are they not compounded by lack of political commitment to the Corporation?

Mr Thomas: "We have drawn the attention of member states to the situation

(1) Vessels that require cranes to load and unload.

(2) Vessels that do not require cranes, into which trucks can enter directly.

of unfair competition and the disruption that it causes in regional trade. As recently as 1982 at the CARICOM Heads of Governments' Conference in Ocho Rios in Jamaica, the governments agreed to take certain steps to protect and to promote WISCO. Those steps have not been taken. WISCO can be assisted significantly by member governments if they do take these steps which have been brought to their attention. The shareholders of the organisation are the members states and, to some extent, one would feel that they have a responsibility to take certain measures to protect and to foster it. These are essential if our operations are to attain commercial viability".

Fortunately, though, for WISCO there is no shortage of goodwill for the Corporation among the principal shareholders (Trinidad and Tobago which has 40%, Jamaica which holds 30% and Barbados and Guyana which hold 10% each). Indeed as recently as March, the late Prime Minister of Barbados, Errol Barrow, reaffirmed his country's support for the Corporation in the wake of the withdrawal of some of the smaller island states.

It is generally agreed that a regional sea transport organisation of one kind or another is imperative for the Caribbean if trade between the countries is to be promoted and their economic integration attained.

It is clear that WISCO, as it now operates, cannot viably meet the challenge. Admittedly it has managed to use its profitable service to Miami to reduce costs and losses resulting from its inter-island services. The solution seems to lie in that direction, in the suggestion made by Mr Barrow, for example, for the formation of a full-blown multimillion dollar regional shipping line for the Caribbean which could compete effectively with foreign shipping companies not only in the Caribbean but also throughout the world. ○ A.O.

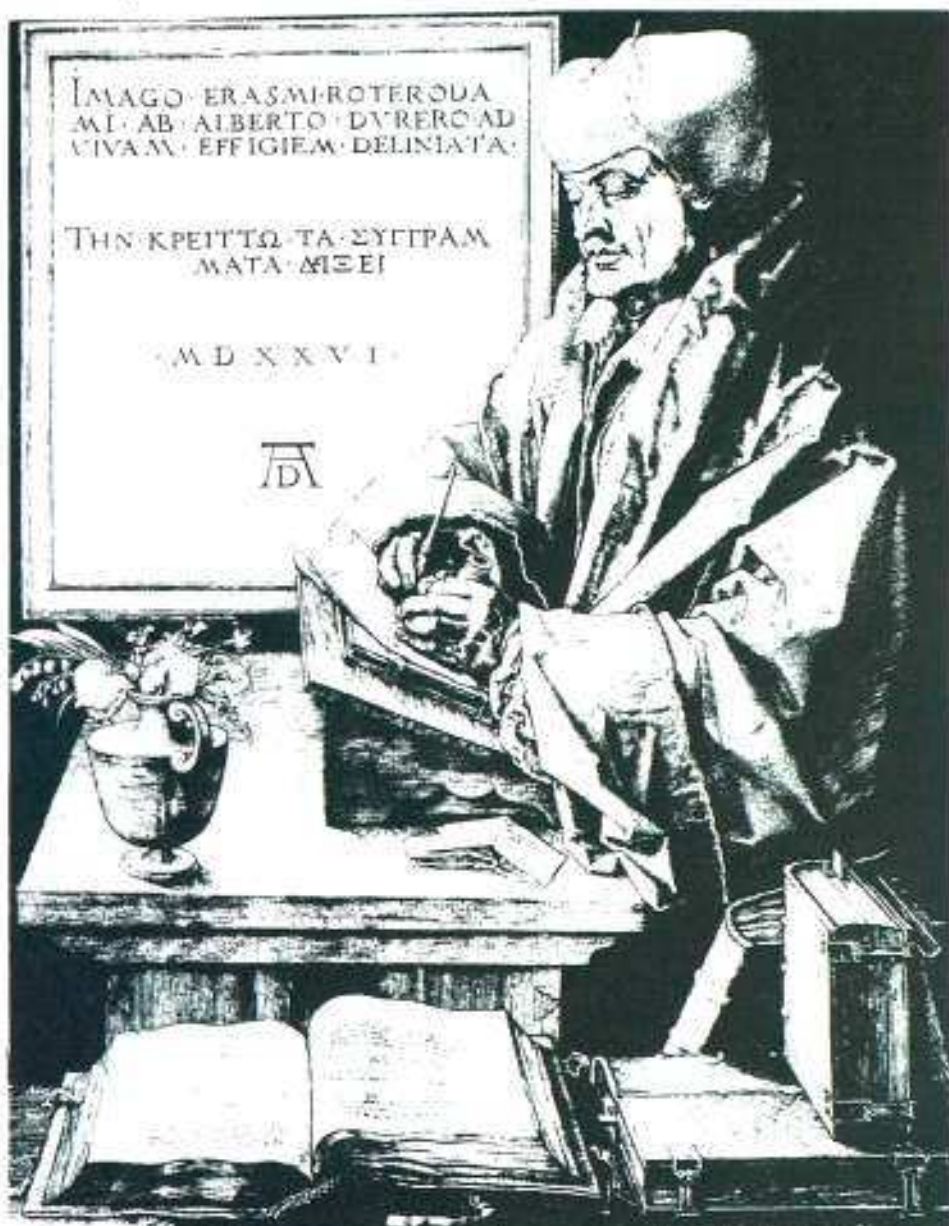
ERASMUS — or, the past up to date

by Alan SMITH^(*)

In medieval Europe, there were no frontiers for those seeking knowledge. Students and professors moved freely from one great university city, Bologna, Paris, Oxford, to another, in search of the best conditions in which to study and to teach. Philosophical currents, and the quality of the taverns, patronage, and wanderlust dictated these movements which gave to medieval society an underlying harmony which has since been dissipated. Now, the tide is beginning to turn again—Europeans are more conscious of their common past and their common future and the age of wandering students and teachers is dawning again alongside the era of the science park.

On 14 May 1987, the Education Council reached agreement on the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS). A total of ECU 85 million will be available in the initial phase of the programme (1 July 1987 - 30 June 1990). In the following article, Alan Smith, Director of the Office for Cooperation in Education, which assists the Commission in the management of its higher education grant schemes, outlines the actions envisaged in ERASMUS and discusses some of the implications of the programme for the future development of higher education cooperation in the Community (**).

May 14, 1987 will go down in the history books as a milestone in the development of Community education policy—and perhaps in the long-term development of the Community as a whole. When the Education Ministers of the 12 Member States, meeting in Brussels, reached agreement on the ERASMUS Programme, they not



only created the basis for giving a significant boost to the level of student mobility within the Community, but also laid one of the main foundation blocks in the edifice which has come to be known as the People's Europe. As Commission Vice-President Manuel Marin put it at the press conference which followed the Ministers' meeting, "ERASMUS is a programme of hope for the young people of Europe".

Agreement on the Programme had not been easy to reach: the Commission's proposals for ERASMUS were submitted to the Council early in 1986, but while all Member States had

welcomed the objectives of the programme, a number of them (notably France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United Kingdom) had raised serious objections to the overall budget envisaged and the legal base upon which the Commission's proposals rested. In November last year, when the Council of Education Ministers failed for the second time to reach a satisfactory agreement on the Programme, the Commission even withdrew the proposal altogether, fearing that it might be adopted with such a small-scale budget that the objectives of the Programme would be seriously jeopardised. However, after the Heads

(*) Director, Office for Cooperation in Education, Brussels.

(**) Readers are asked to remember that the ERASMUS scheme applies only to students and teachers at institutions within the Member States of the European Community.

of State and Government, meeting within the European Council in December, had reiterated the importance which they attached to ERASMUS, the Commission's proposals were retabled in an unamended form, and top-level pronouncements in favour of the Programme which then followed, such as President Mitterrand's broadcast on French television in March, suggested that the chances of a successful outcome were more favourable this time.

The ERASMUS Programme finally agreed does every justice to its objectives—and to the memory of the "mobile" European scholar from whom it derives its name. Far from being an uneasy compromise on which several parties have serious misgivings, the programme was agreed unanimously by the Education Ministers of all Member States, and, given the wholehearted support which the universities of the Community have given the Programme from the very start, there is every reason for confidence in the ability of ERASMUS to make a real impact on inter-university cooperation in the Community. True, the Commission—and those Member States (the majority) which had supported the Commission's stance—had to make significant concessions on the budget, but the design of the Programme has remained intact and constitutes a comprehensive instrument for developing a wide range of inter-university cooperative activities, on a voluntary basis, between all Community countries.

The main objective of the programme is to help boost *student mobility* between the 12 Member States well above its present unsatisfactory level, by providing far more students than hitherto with the possibility of spending a recognised period of study in another Community country. The significant increase in the number of graduates with first-hand experience of other Member States to which this will give rise, will not only be a cornerstone in the construction of the People's Europe, as indicated above. It will also be an essential component in helping to raise the awareness of interdependence within the Community, thereby contributing to the completion and consolidation of the internal market which will be the key to ensuring EEC competitiveness on the world stage

in the years ahead. For this reason, one of the main actions envisaged within ERASMUS is the creation of a major scheme of *grants to students* to enable them to cover the extra "mobility costs" of studying in another Community country.

But in addition to the support to be given to students, ERASMUS will also promote—through the progressive creation of the *European University Network*—a wide range of other academic activities with a European dimension, notably by providing support to facilitate exchanges of *teaching staff* between higher education institutions throughout the Community. An overview of all the actions contained in the Programme is provided elsewhere in this present article.

The intensification and long-term consolidation of higher education cooperation in the Community is not something which can be produced overnight. It will take time to develop and mature. For this reason, it is particularly significant that in agreeing the ERASMUS Programme the Education Ministers have not imposed a time-limit on its duration. ERASMUS will therefore be an ongoing programme, through naturally with a built-in procedure for regular review (in the initial phase from 1987-1990, there will be an interim report to Ministers each year, and a more in-depth evaluation will be conducted after three years on the basis of which certain adaptations to the programme will be possible).

Not that ERASMUS will be starting from scratch. The programme will be able to build upon the results of a full decade of experience with the Community's pilot programme for inter-university cooperation—the Joint Study Programme grants scheme, introduced in the framework of the Community's Education Action Programme of February 1976. In all, some 586 joint ventures for student and staff exchange and the development of common curricula have been supported since the grant scheme began, and demand from the universities has been increasing dramatically over the years. This year, over 600 requests were received—25% more than 1986 and ten times the number of applicants who came forward when the programme first began.

The first foundations of the European University Network have therefore already been laid, and Ministers have felt it prudent to develop this network further before embarking on the award of grants to students on a large scale. Priority will therefore be given to the Network in the early years of ERASMUS, and it is expected that a large proportion of the ECU 10 m earmarked for the 1987/88 academic year will be spent in the form of grants to higher education institutions to enable them to develop the necessary infrastructure for the management of substantial and ongoing programmes for student and staff exchange.

Already from the academic year 1988/89, however, the ERASMUS budget will increase sharply, to some ECU 30 m, and at this point the number of students receiving ERASMUS grants will correspondingly grow. A further ECU 45 m are earmarked for the 1989/90 operation (almost two-thirds of which will be spent on student grants), bringing the total budget for the initial 3-year phase of ERASMUS (1 July 1987 - 30 June 1990) to ECU 85 million. With this budget, it is provisionally estimated that it will be possible to award some 2 000 grants to universities, 4 000 grants to teaching staff and administrators, and over 20 000 mobility grants to students in this initial phase of the Programme.

In order to implement a programme of this magnitude, full commitment from those involved in the central coordination of the Programme in Brussels will not be enough. For the Programme to realise its full potential, it must be carefully attuned to the situation, systems and needs of each Member State, and this is reflected in the management structure envisaged. To assist the Commission in the implementation of the Programme, an "ERASMUS Consultative Committee" will be established consisting of two members per Member State, at least one of whom will be drawn from the academic community. The Committee will be a purely consultative body, but its role will be crucial for achieving the best possible interface with Member State policies and programmes and for ensuring the full involvement of the higher education community in the implementation of the Programme. Furthermore, as far as

the student grants are concerned, the programme agreed by the Ministers provides for a decentralised administrative structure: students will not apply for financial support directly from Brussels, but rather the responsibility for administering the grants will lie with appropriate authorities in each of the Member States—either a central organisation at national level designated for this purpose, or—at the discretion of Member State governments—with the universities themselves.

This structure, which was adopted at the Commission's proposal, reflects Commissioner Marin's commitment to ensuring a transparent and flexible administration of the Programme, and it is also a clear indication that the adoption of ERASMUS does not in any way signify an intention on the part of the Commission to intervene in areas of higher education policy-making which are properly the responsibility of the Member States.

The development of links between the higher education systems operating in the Member States, ensuring greatly enhanced cooperation across the national boundaries, is, however, a matter of crucial concern to the future well-being of the Community as a whole. Coming as it does just one year after the adoption of the COMETT Programme for the promotion of links between higher education institutions and industry, ERASMUS therefore takes its place in a more comprehensive Community policy designed to achieve the maximum possible Community-wide exploitation of the intellectual resources available in the 12 EEC Member States. As a long-term investment in the development of the Community's future human resources, it is predicted that ERASMUS will have an impact on Community development which is out of all proportion to the meagre percentage of the Community budget which it represents. The policy-makers have responded to the universities' call—expressed with such eloquence and vigour at the 1985 Conference on Higher Education Cooperation organised at the instigation of the European Parliament—for a major EC initiative in this field. It is now up to the universities themselves to take up the challenge which ERASMUS presents. ◊

A.S.

The ERASMUS Programme at a glance

European University Network. Each institution participating in a joint programme may receive a grant of up to ECU 25 000 per programme per academic year. It is envisaged that the average grant per institution will be in the order of ECU 10 000 per programme per year.

Grants to help cover the travel and subsistence expenses of staff members carrying out teaching assignments in another Member State. The grants will vary according to the duration of the period to be spent abroad and the travel costs involved. For example, a teaching assignment lasting 3 months will carry an average grant of around ECU 3 500. In addition, the home institution of staff members going abroad on ERASMUS teaching assignments may receive financial support to facilitate the temporary replacement of the staff members concerned. The average grant awarded for this purpose will be ECU 2 500 per month for each staff member to be replaced.

Grants of up to ECU 1 500 to facilitate visits to other Member States by members of the teaching and administrative staff of higher education institutions with a view to establishing contacts for future cooperative programmes and/or for the purpose of acquainting themselves more thoroughly with aspects of the higher education system in the countries visited.

Student grants. ERASMUS will provide grants of up to ECU 5 000 per year (average: 2 000) to help cover the "mobility costs" (travel, language preparation, cost-of-living differential etc.) of students spending a fully recognised period of study (normally between 3 and 12 months) in another Community country. First priority will go to students participating in programmes funded under the European University Network.

During their period of study in another Member State of the Community, students receiving an ERASMUS grant will continue to be able to utilise any home country grant or loan from government or government-funded sources for the purpose of study in their own country.

ERASMUS grantholders will not pay any tuition fees at their host university. However, any fees normally payable to their home university may continue to be levied during their ERASMUS-supported study period abroad.

Academic recognition. Establishment of a pilot scheme for the academic recognition of degrees and course units, known as the European Community Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS). The system will be worked out in collaboration with a limited number of higher education institutions selected for participation on the basis of voluntary expressions of interest, each institution receiving grants of some ECU 20 000 per annum.

Consolidation of the EEC Network of National Academic Recognition Information Centres (NARIC), each national centre concerned to receive Community support of around ECU 20 000 per year.

Grants of up to ECU 20 000 per year for the development of common curricula between higher education institutions in different Member States.

Additional measures. Grants of up to ECU 20 000 to facilitate the organisation of "Intensive Teaching Programmes" of short duration involving students from several Member States.

Grants to university associations and consortia operating on a European basis, notably with a view to making innovations in particular areas more widely known throughout the Community.

Support to enable top-level experts to give a series of lectures in other Member States.

Publications and other information measures designed to raise awareness of opportunities for study and teaching in other Community countries and to disseminate information on innovative models for inter-university cooperation.

Prizes for students and higher education staff members who make particularly outstanding contributions to furthering inter-university cooperation in the Community. ◊

EC trade with the ACP countries in 1986

by Douglas KOSZEREK*

Last year was a year ACP countries may wish to forget. In common with most exporters of primary products, they recorded a steep fall in the value of their exports. This was almost entirely due to price changes. Oil prices halved. Many other commodity prices also declined in dollar terms and the dollar fell in value. The ACP countries reacted to their loss in export earnings by importing less, and so the level of trade was lower in both directions. The Community continued to be in deficit with the ACPs, though its trade deficit was down from the ECU 11 billion recorded in 1985 to ECU 3.5 billion.

EC imports from ACP were ECU 19.6 billion in 1986. This represents no change in volume terms compared with 1985, but an enormous 35% decline in value. As the first graph opposite shows, the US market behaved similarly; American imports from ACPs declined 37% to ECU 8.6 billion. Since Japan buys virtually no petroleum from the ACPs, its imports from them held up somewhat better, falling 8% to ECU 1.5 billion.

EC imports from other developing countries declined by 29% in 1986, not quite as bad as the ACPs' result because of a more favourable product mix. The volume of imports of manufactured goods from ACPs rose 26%, compared with a 24% rise for other developing countries, but this sector only accounts for 9% of EC imports from ACPs.

The value of the Community's imports of petroleum and petroleum products was very much less in 1986. Purchases of these products from ACPs were just 41% of their 1985 value. Their share in total imports fell sharply from around half in 1985 to 31% in 1986.

The second graph shows how the other major ACP exports fared:

— Coffee was one of the few commodities whose prices rose in 1986. This helped EC imports from

ACPs to rise 15% to ECU 2.8 billion, compared with a 4% rise for American imports to ECU 0.5 billion.

— Cocoa prices fell 29% in ECU terms, and this was the principal reason for the 16% decline to ECU 1.6 billion in EC cocoa imports from ACPs.

— Copper and other metal prices were also weaker, contributing to declines of 16% for EC copper purchases from ACPs, and 25% for iron ore and aluminium.

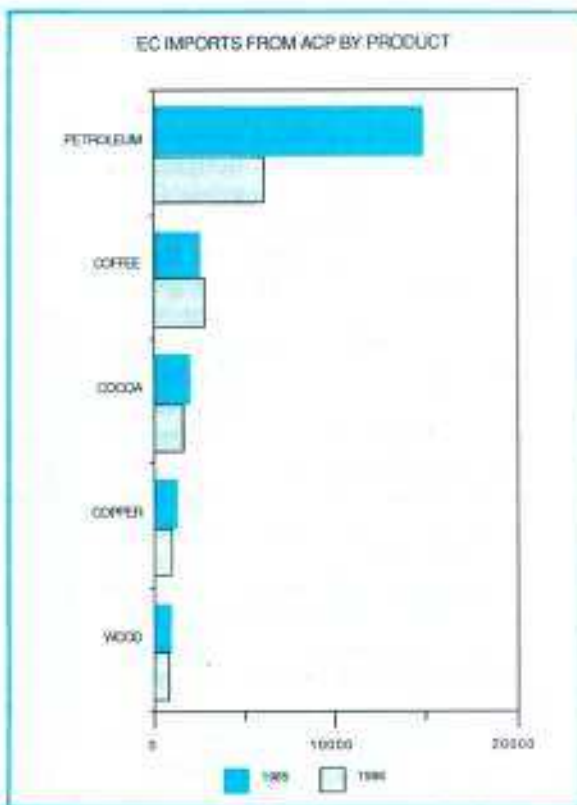
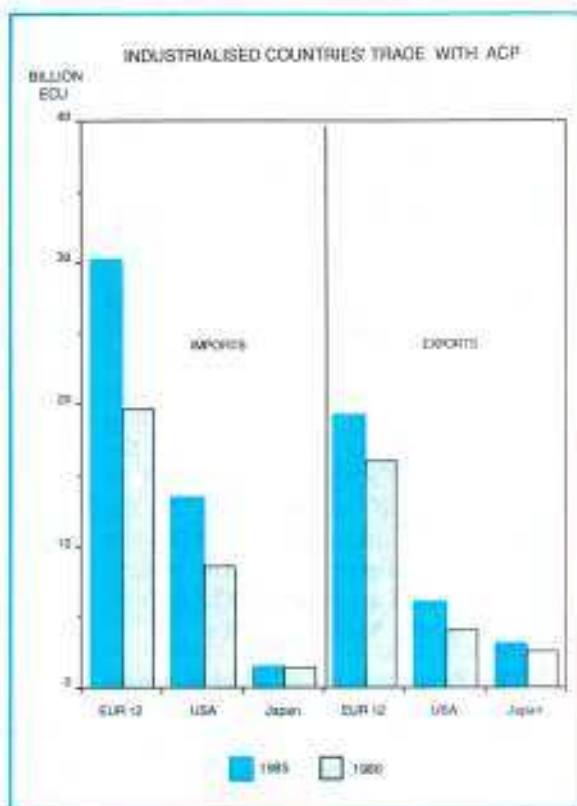
In general, food items (e.g. coffee, sugar, bananas, fish) did better than other primary products (e.g. copper, iron ore, aluminium, cotton).

Naturally the ACPs' oil exporters were hit hard. In particular, the EC's imports from Nigeria fell 60% to ECU 4.6 billion, which contributed to a fall of 44% in imports from West Africa. Lower fuel prices also affected exports from Central Africa, down by 32%, and from the Caribbean and Pacific regions, whose 23% decline is partly due to a large fall in the value of exports of refined petroleum products. Being less dependent on oil exports and with coffee being a major export, Eastern and Southern Africa suffered 'only' a 14% drop in the ECU value of their exports.

EC exports to ACPs fell 17% to ECU 16 billion, equivalent to a 14% decline in volume terms. This was not as severe as the 35% reduction in American exports to ECU 4 billion, or the 24% decline in Japanese exports to ECU 2.5 billion. EC exports to other developing countries declined by about the same percentage as for ACPs.

Manufactures represented 75% of EC exports to ACPs. Export prices were static, but the volume of manufactures sold fell by 9%. Within manufactures, exports of machinery declined the least, down 4% by value.

(* Article provided of the Statistical Office of the European Communities.



THE MEDIA AND DEVELOPMENT



A young Tanzanian farmer. Precious advice on the care and development of his herd can be communicated to him through the medium of radio

That information helps development is clearly the case in countries where the idea is applied in the light of practical experience. But it is still only theory in others, in spite of an enormous need to know and understand the secrets of technology and organisation. Although in the '60s the developing countries were quick to proclaim their faith in the importance of communications in the drive for progress, the results are certainly not all they might be today. In the northern hemisphere, the media are considerably advanced and information strategy is the forerunner of any economic or political initiative. But in the South, the media are still looked upon as the old fourth estate, competing with the political power instead of acting as a stimulus for economic programmes and bringing to light the various factors that help or hinder the development of the economy and of society as a whole. History, of course, has shown that the press—and the new media likewise—has acted as a counterbalance to an excess of authority or, conversely, has acted in the service of such authority.

The media's many tasks in the development process

The media contribute to development in many fields and in many ways—in the economy, of course, and education and culture, as well as political and social affairs.

If economic progress was simply linked to the quantities of raw materials produced in any given country, North-South relations would have long since been reversed. Commodities, of course, were—

and still are—necessary to industrial development in the countries of the North—hence the great secular migratory movements towards the South, the territorial and cultural conquests that followed and, today, cooperation—but they are no longer enough to explain the North's economic lead. Take Japan and, closer still, the Federal Republic of Germany or Switzerland, which are clear illustrations of the fact that brainpower is the vital commodity. And brainpower is developed through the analysis, understanding and dissemination of the phenomena behind the process whereby the developed countries have been able to achieve their present standard and be seen as examples—inspirations, but not blueprints.

This is where the media come in. They are the only things that can, in an ideal world, carry out this objective analysis of the causes of and reasons for the success and failure of development projects, put most of those involved in the economy in the picture and thereby encourage general reflexion with a view to learning lessons that are of use in the pursuit of genuine progress. Development is also a battle of ideas and the media contribute to it by relaying and being a source of information to fuel the discussions that may shed light on vital choices. "A greater knowledge, a fuller picture and rightness of design and judgement emerge from a synthesis of thesis and antithesis", says Serge-Christophe Kolm in *L'homme pluridimensionnel* (The multidimensional man). And only the media can combine ideas in such a way as to yield elements of general appreciation to determine the

success of any action. How, for example, is it possible to understand the state of the market, misunderstanding of which may ruin any, even the most powerfully-equipped, businessman? And here is another example: the consequences of two oil shocks in 1974-75 and later on in the industrialised countries were only kept under control and overcome thanks to public opinion, fed by the media, which encouraged people to think about the problem and got the Governments to decide on and finance the production of substitute energy and nuclear power in particular. And, in the same way, it proved possible to react to the oil price surge thanks to the drive to develop sales of manufactures and the movements on the international financial markets, where both healthy and unhealthy trends can be influenced by the media. So, between 1978 and 1983, 75% of the increase in the real price of crude borne by the industrialised countries was due to the reversal of the trend observed on the international financial markets and described by the financial press. This change of direction produced more negative effects on the demand for oil than positive effects on the purchasing power of the exporting countries. This led OPEC to say in *Economies et sociétés* in 1986 that "in international economic relations, the dollar is better indication of how things are going than oil". Now we know that most of the advantages derived from the fivefold increase in crude in 1974-75 were minimised by the economic strategy of the importing countries, backed up by the media, which clearly reflected the dominant ideas of consumers anxious not to drown in the rising tide

of the price of a commodity on which all the western economies were based.

What would have happened if the media in the oil-producing and other countries of the Third World had carried out prospective analyses of oil price strategies or on development options and economic cooperation? The economic forecasts and results would perhaps have shown the limitations of the turnkey factories earlier—and hence the need for massive investments in agriculture first.

But economic victories also depend on the development of outlook, in which the press has an important part to play in rapidly communicating the methods of education needed for an understanding of the new data and in the cultural education that goes with it. The path trodden by the industrialised and developed countries, be they "new" or long-established, shows to just what extent economic vitality depends on the culture of each individual country and sometimes, in Africa's case, on a particular section of the population of a given country. The factors of growth are not just economic. They are to a large extent cultural, too.

A question of organisational ability and understanding economic data

African countries realised this when they launched an operation to get Africa to revive through festivals of black arts and culture in Dakar in 1966 and in Lagos in 1977—when the then Head of State of Nigeria, General Obasanjo, linked culture and modern technology when he said that "to succeed, we have to restore the link between culture, creation, mastery of modern technology and industrialisation... This technology, which is the basis of western predominance, has to be given its rightful place. It is vital for our march forward, but acquiring it must not mean breaking with the past... Technology has to be an integral part of our culture and our world view, not the other way round. The answer is in our mental emancipation". And this emancipation can happen easiest, first of all, through the media, especially television, which can combine sound and vision, and the written press, whose inimitable ability to take the analysis further makes it possible to overcome the fleeting nature of the image. And, much more than this, in the countries of the Third World, where the concept of development is like a dream of effortless ease because of the image of

false ease that is developed to capitalise on the superiority of the industrialised countries, the media are faced with a heavy burden when it comes to informing, explaining and teaching people even industrial culture and organisation rather than to be happy as delighted consumers of products which were made somewhere else and may not, in many cases, have any obvious use. Development is "more a question of organisational ability than of natural resources", wrote Louis Armand (*) in 1968. And it is still a matter of organisation today, certainly, but also of the countries' ability to grasp basic economic facts and the way the development choices are highlighted by the media—whose job as a yard-stick increases in importance with the complexity of national and international economic issues.

Today's debate on economic models between the media in the industrialised



TV transmitter at Bouaké (C.I.)

countries is an old one and today the Greens, the ecologists, are lined up against the pro-productivists or pro-industrial faction. The media have managed to put the ecologists' anxiety across and this has meant that governments have been able to put the protection of nature in their programmes. The campaign against pollution has become an international cause for concern with considerable technical repercussions (in the shape of engines with silencers, catalytic exhausts, and energy-saving devices, daylight saving etc.).

Discussion by the media in the Third World mainly focuses on ways of implementing development. Its extension would also make a decisive contribution to envisaging solutions for social, techni-

(*) In *Le Part Européen* — Fayard, Paris, 1968.

cal and administrative problems. It could even help with the environment, which is under considerable threat, yet is not a major source of concern for the authorities of many developing countries.

Administrative and economic questions frequently conflict, and the problem is a cruel one in some countries of Africa where the centralised administrative structures they have inherited have been made considerably more cumbersome by the wholesale adoption of rules and regulations which look like a statement of the primacy of the State over everything that makes it up. But "the major defect of administration is that, although it is geared to managing the community, it is often an obstacle to its development", said Louis Armand. And as it is the nature of the administrative machinery never to look ahead, the media have a vital part to play in anticipating the consequences of administrative acts. So we know that the countries that put up the best economic and technical performance are those whose authorities "fear" the media and appear more as forces that organise society and create development facilities rather than manage the economy.

So the media have many tasks to carry out in the general development of society, particularly in developing countries. But because there is no competition to act as an incentive or any financial or technical means or—and this is most important—a liberalised policy, they (the written press) could well disappear or become clearing houses for what are essentially external productions (radio and television).

At a recent conference in Yaoundé, the French scientific journalist Michel Chevalet said that Africa was going to come face to face with a new, more pernicious kind of colonisation if it failed to face up to and get involved in "mondiovision", of which "Eureka 95", a European project for worldwide broadcasting of television programmes starting in 1995, was the culmination.

And as Michel Chevalet says, Africa should, like the Arab countries are doing with "Arabsat", have an "Afrosat" satellite to enable it to exchange programmes and ensure direct broadcasting of television pictures throughout the territory of every country on the continent and to considerably simplify the telecommunications problems. It is easier to phone Bonn or New York from Yaoundé or Paris or Washington from Abidjan, for example, than to make a local call within

either of these two cities or between them and a provincial town. Telephone communications between the countries of Africa are a matter of chance.

A satellite costing \$ 500 m may seem exorbitant for a single African State. But the continent could afford one if channels were shared, particularly since, as Chevalet makes clear, satellites are one way of developing the economy and technology and of protecting the independence of the countries concerned.

"Intelligence is measured by the number of consequences it is able to draw from a single fact and not by the number of facts it is able to deny on the strength of a doctrine". The media have this intelligence whereby politicians, economists and even scientists can get a better idea of the scope and effects of their decisions and discoveries. And finding out more from a series of broadcasts on counter-progress in the developed countries and the causes of lack of success in the developing countries can make for better choices in the matter of development and the utilisation of resources.

Our dossier is not a scientific study of the relations and inter-reactions of development and the media as thorough analyses of this are not yet available. What it does is to set out one or two case studies with the main aim of triggering reflexion on the role information and communications have to play in the pursuit of the economic, social and political aims of young states in search of their identity.

The various articles explain how different forms of communication can contribute to social and economic development, particularly, for example, by alleviating the problems associated with isolated or dispersed populations such as can be the case in island or landlocked states. An article by CIERRO, a branch of URTNA (the African Union of National Broadcasting) gives an insight into the sort of educational role that can be played by rural radio networks in Africa. Another describes the aid given by and the position of the European Community in general with regard to the African media. And finally, some statistics published by UNESCO demonstrate just how far behind the continent is in the field of media communications.

As far as the media are concerned, says Michel Chevalet, "the first, the Americans, are the best". But they can be caught up. It is a question of method and determination. ◊

LUCIEN PAGNI

Means and methods

by Hilary PERRATON (*)



Fascinated by radio as such, children would be even more entranced by radio programmes devised specially for them

In Tanzania, against all the advice from outside experts, the government decided to go for universal primary education. There were not enough teachers and Tanzania could not wait to train them in the conventional way. So they took school leavers, gave them a basic introduction to teaching in a six-week course, and trained them on the job, using a combination of correspondence courses, radio programmes and intermittent spells of face-to-face study. An evaluation found that they taught as well as those trained more conventionally but that their training cost only about a quarter as much.

In Colombia, forty years ago, a parish priest realised that he could not reach all his scattered parishioners unless he used radio to do so. He set up the first radiophonic school to broadcast programmes geared to both religious and secular education. His idea spread throughout Latin America and many thousands of peasant families have been learning about better health, better agriculture and the ordinary stuff of formal education, through one or another radiophonic school.

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In Mauritius, the College of the Air has fifteen years of experience in using radio and television, backed by printed materials, to support formal education inside schools and for non-formal purposes outside. It used these distance-teaching methods, for example, in a campaign for mother and child health which reached mothers through 50 centres throughout the island.

Using mass media

These programmes, and the many others like them that use the mass media to support education and development, differ in their aims and their organisational structure. But they have important similarities in being rooted in significant educational needs rather than being based on a pre-conceived curriculum, in their attempt to overcome shortage of manpower, and in the methods they use to do so.

Much formal education reflects well-learned, and often well-founded, ideas about what should be taught at school. But education for development, and education for adults, often has quite different ends. The radio schools of Latin America, for example, have offered adults the opportunity of studying for the equivalent of school

courses. At the same time they have also run programmes on land ownership and use, on agricultural practice and on better health—programmes that derived from the needs of students in their everyday life.

There is a major difficulty in mounting educational programmes of this kind: there are not enough people to do so. Many developing countries face shortages of educational and extension staff. Even in countries which have attained universal primary education there remain many untrained and undertrained teachers. Agricultural extension agents are so thin on the ground that they can reach only a small proportion of the total number of farm families in their area. And in many countries there are even fewer extension workers concerned with family planning, health and nutrition or with community development. Adult education that depends on face-to-face support has no chance of meeting the needs of most people. Of course the mass media are not a substitute for individual discussion, or help, or demonstration. But they can be a valuable supplement to it.

This is where the methods developed in programmes like those in Tanzania, Colombia and Mauritius are important. For they can balance the strength of print, unrivalled for clear, carefully prepared explanation and for its permanence, with broadcasting that can bring an immediacy and a personality that is necessarily lacking in a printed text. If both these media can be linked in some way with face-to-face discussion, then we have a powerful educational technique. All three programmes made use of group meetings and discussions that enabled individual learners to discuss with their family or neighbours what they were learning.

Similar techniques have been effectively used for formal education by open universities, starting with the British Open University set up in 1969 and followed by others using similar methods in countries as different as China, Costa Rica, India, Spain, Thailand and Venezuela. These programmes have attracted wide support and publicity and reached large numbers of students. Their distance-teaching methods are, however, at least as important for non-formal education, or for development support communi-

cation, as for formal courses leading to degrees and diplomas.

Many different kinds of institution have used mass media in this way. In the pluralist societies of Latin America the radiophonic schools, working with church rather than state backing, have been in the forefront. In Africa, government departments and universities have made most use of mass media. In some cases ministries of education have developed specialist distance-teaching institutions with a responsibility for both formal and non-formal education. The Botswana Extension College, now incorporated in the Department of Non-formal Education, and the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre were established for this purpose. The strength of an institution of this kind is that it can develop expertise in the techniques of distance education which can then be applied across a whole spectrum of educational activities. Thus the National Correspondence Institution in Tanzania which developed its expertise in providing out-of-school secondary-level courses was then able to adapt this expertise to the needs of the teacher-training programme. In other cases a Ministry of Agriculture has developed a media section in order to back up its work in agricultural extension. In Malawi the Extension Aids Branch of the Ministry of Agriculture uses radio, print and mobile cinema vans to reach a scattered audience of farmers. Universities have sometimes developed important distance-education pro-

grammes; the University of the South Pacific has based much of its extension work on satellite communication in order to reach audiences in the archipelago countries which it serves. In many cases, agencies have worked together to develop programmes of distance education. Among the most striking examples are the radio learning campaigns organised in Tanzania, Botswana and Zambia. Temporary structures were set up to run these short intensive campaigns of public education which linked the work of distance educators with that of the extension services.

Do the methods work?

Educational evaluation is notoriously difficult and there is only limited hard evidence on the comparative success of distance-teaching methods. (There is a similar dearth of hard evidence on the effectiveness of more traditional methods of adult education and extension.) Conclusions can be drawn about costs and about the effectiveness of both formal and non-formal programmes.

Distance-education allows for economies of scale so that it may be possible for students to be reached and taught at a lower unit cost than is possible for conventional education. The British Open University is the best documented and has shown that it can produce graduates more cheaply than conventional universities. While direct comparisons of cost are more difficult



A radio technician in Senegal

The formulation, as well as the actual technical creation of messages and their broadcasting, determines the impact of the information put out

in non-formal education, dramatic contrasts have been demonstrated between, for example, the cost of contact between a farmer and an extension agent and the cost of reaching the farmer by radio; in Malawi the costs differed by a factor of about 3000.

Distance-teaching programmes for formal education have demonstrated their success in terms of examination results and course completion rates. In Tanzania 35 028 or 77% of the 45 534 trainee teachers successfully qualified by studying at a distance. In four other African teacher-training schemes where, as in Tanzania, successful students were guaranteed qualified teacher status, between 88-97% of students completed their course successfully. Similarly, the Open University in Britain and the distance-teaching departments of universities in Australia have demonstrated the effectiveness of their methods for formal qualifications.

Non-formal education does not have apparently simple measures of success like examination results. There is, however, ample evidence that distance-teaching programmes of various kinds have succeeded in reaching rural audiences, often on a larger scale than those reached by conventional means. In a handful of cases evaluations have gone beyond measuring audiences and looked also at effects on the lives of participants. Evidence from Guatemala, for example, on the cost effectiveness of radio for agricultural education, from Honduras on health education through a radiophonic school and from Tanzania on changes in health practices after a radio campaign all confirmed that these widely different distance-teaching programmes had direct effects on their students.

What makes for success?

There is no simple recipe for success in distance education. But experience suggests that four elements are crucial to a successful programme. First, there are considerable advantages if more than one medium is used. In particular, a link between mass media and face-to-face study is a potent one. In some cases this link may mean that mass media are used to support the work of extension officers. In others group study enables learners to discuss together and agree the relevance of a national educational programme to

the particular circumstances of their own lives.

Second, the media components need to be well-produced and based on a knowledge and understanding of the learners.

"A well designed flipchart can be more effective in conveying information to a particular audience than a poorly produced television programme costing infinitely more. Good quality media production requires special talent and relevant training, but more than this it requires adequate field research. Producers must know their target audience before they begin and this requires a study of locally prevailing knowledge, attitudes and practices, and how these relate to felt needs and priorities".

Third, a multi-media programme demands effective organisation and the careful orchestration of its differ-

ent component parts. The logistic details of organisation are at least as important as its pedagogical design. If the programme depends on flipcharts being delivered to learning groups, it will fail if there is no transport to get them there; if it depends on radio, then learners need access to radio sets and to batteries for them.

Finally, feedback is all-important. The weakness of mass media is that they can be used simply to deliver messages from town to country. The programmes that have demonstrated their effectiveness have been those with an organised system for feedback from learners to programme designers and tutors. Channels for feedback need careful design and maintenance. They make costly demands in terms of time and organisational skill. But they are essential if distance-teaching is to give the substance of education and not its shadow. ◊ H.P.

Radio broadcasting in developing countries

by George WEDELL (*)

The impact in recent years of television in Europe and North America, as well as in the urban centres of many Third World countries, has tended to mask the fact that sound radio remains by far the more important mass medium throughout the world. This is the case particularly in the rural areas of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific Basin. In Africa there are estimated to be about 100 radio receivers per 1000 population, whereas there are unlikely to be more than 10 television receivers for the same number, and these are concentrated in the towns. In Central America and the Caribbean the smaller size of the countries concerned makes television coverage easier. But even so there are about 400 radio sets per 1000 compared with 100 television sets. Figures for the Pacific area are more difficult to estimate on account of the wide dispersion of countries. But it is evident that radio continues to be the principal instrument of mass communication, particularly between islands often separated by huge distances.

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The conclusion of a UNESCO Commission in 1972 considered "Radio is the only advanced communications technique which has formed its proper place in the developing countries (...) yet it seems that insufficient use is made of this virtually universal method of distribution. People often seem to have been deterred by the reputedly greater efficiency of other media which, however, have the major defect... of being unable to hope for such widespread distribution (...) for a long time to come. The very low cost and adequate reliability in all climates of miniature transistor radios mean that radio broadcasting should more and more be recognised as a particularly suitable medium for educational purposes".

In the 15 years since 1972 the technology of television broadcasting has advanced as far as transmission facilities are concerned. The advent of satellite broadcasting has overcome, in principle, some of the problems of territorial transmission over large areas and mountainous terrain. But the cost of reception remains high, particularly bearing in mind the low power of the present generation of satel-

lite transmitters. The economic circumstances of many ACP countries do not allow large-scale investment in the high cost equipment involved. Hence radio remains the mass medium providing the best ratio of cost: benefit in the use of mass communications for national development.

In this short article we consider the various uses of radio for development purposes. We consider first certain questions affecting radio broadcasting policy: the design of the radio network and the relationship between national and local services. The problems posed by multilingual broadcasting are briefly considered, as are the logistic issues which arise when a number of agencies are involved in the management of a particular strand of programme output. We then consider the use of radio for specific national developmental purposes: education, health, agriculture, home economics, industrial development and national unity.

Radio policies for development

"Development in the context of the new states has twin objectives. On the one hand there is the need for national integration. The majority of the developing countries have become independent in the last 20 years. Nationhood is a new phenomenon. It cannot be taken for granted. It has to be built. Along with the building of nationhood there is the added task of raising the living standards of the people. Both objectives require the support of powerful media" said Daudi Mwakawago (Zimbabwe)⁽¹⁾. This identification of the objectives of radio policies in Tanzania by a former Minister of Information and Broadcasting of that country fairly represents the position of the governments of most ACP countries. The development priorities of establishing a national identity and of improving the standard of living of the citizens combine to define quite specifically what broadcasting services can, and cannot, do.

The objective of national identity renders it imperative for broadcasting services to promote the integration of different tribal, ethnic and linguistic groups into a single national entity whose members consider themselves citizens of the country first, and members of the different groups making up the population only second. Thus the need for a national radio service whose signal can be received

well in all parts of the country is paramount. The arguments for regional and/or local radio services are correspondingly much less attractive than they are in those countries whose national identities are well established. Indeed, many ACP countries take the view that the regional or local autonomies in matters of broadcasting which have in recent years become widely accepted in the USA and in European countries would be quite unsuitable for them at this present stage of development. A significant experiment in the field of local radio, conducted jointly by *Voice of Kenya* and UNESCO at Homa Bay in north-west Kenya appears to have been abandoned after four years, due partly to a lack of interest on the part of the local population, and partly to a feeling that it was not conducive to the policy of national integration which remains an essential tenet of Kenya government policy.

A serious functional obstacle to national integration in many ACP countries is the presence of a multiplicity of languages. This is the case in francophone and anglophone Africa. It is less so in the Caribbean where countries tend to have few, if any, language diversities within them (though the different linguistic groups of countries render Caribbean integration more difficult). In the Pacific countries, also, the languages imposed by the former colonial powers appear to have survived the arrival of independence. On the other hand, Arabic in the Maghreb countries, Wolof in Senegal and Kiswahili in East Africa have been reasserted as the national languages over against the ex-metropolitan languages on the one hand, and regional and local languages on the other. But "linguistic pluralism" is a phenomenon that is common to most African countries south of the Sahara. There are just about half a dozen countries in which an indigenous language is used as a medium of instruction to a high level and for official and administrative purposes. In fact this is the case only in Ethiopia, Somalia and Tanzania which use Amharic, Somali and Swahili respectively. In the vast majority of countries the language used for government business is the language of the (ex-) colonial power (...). The existence of a large number of languages within one national unit does not mean that many African nations consist of isolated communities... there is a considerable amount of bilingualism or multilingualism that facilitates inter-community



A studio journalist at the "Voice of the Sahel", the broadcasting company based in Niger, a country in which the role of the radio and television would seem to be even greater than elsewhere

communication. This prevents a breakdown of communication in countries like Ghana (with 44 languages) and Uganda (with 18 languages). In Uganda it is the policy "to reach any listener through his own dialect, irrespective of distance from the transmitter". This, of course, has significant implications for the cost of programmes and for the allocation of limited transmission time. If a language or group of languages is concentrated in an identifiable region of the country, the distribution of languages becomes easier. Thus, in Liberia the language groups are divided among three regional stations each of which broadcasts in three or four different languages.

Scoring specific development objectives

Radio has accumulated a strong record in the service of specific development objectives. It is not, of course, the only medium supporting the development process. It takes its place in a battery of media, some traditional, some modern, which interact as agents of change and innovation:

Some Agents of Change and Innovation

Traditional
Opinion Leaders
Teachers
Doctors
Public Meetings

(1) In "Radio as a tool for development" - 1986.

Folklore (singers, dancers)
 Feast Days
 Modern
 Extension Workers
 Cinemas
 Radio
 Newspapers
 Books and Magazines
 Television
 Sound and Video Tapes.

The main areas of intervention of these agents tend to be general education (at various levels), preventive health education, agricultural extension, home economics and women's interests, political and community development and the development of indigenous arts. In each of these activities it is of the essence of success that there is close and constructive co-operation between the broadcasting organisation (which makes and, usually, transmits the programmes) the subject specialists (who determine the content of the programmes) and the government department concerned (which usually contributes to the cost of producing the programmes and arranges for support activities, both written and oral). If one or another of the links in this chain breaks down, the usefulness of the programmes is much impaired. Although such a break in the chain should be rare, it is, in fact, quite frequent. As a result the record of radio broadcasting in this field could be even better.

In country after country, reports indicate that the brave hopes pinned on the results of the introduction of educational broadcasting have been disappointed, for two main reasons. The first is the problem of ensuring adequate and reliable reception. In Nigeria, a country where educational broadcasting was introduced as early as 1953, only 3900 primary schools and about 750 secondary schools were listed as listening in a report made in 1971. Of these it was estimated that 50% were not, in fact, using the broadcasts because the receiver was out of order or because of poor reception or because the teachers had not received the support materials. In the 15 years since this report was written, the number of schools using sound programmes has no doubt risen. By now it is likely that use is made of sound tapes as much as of live broadcasts, since tape recorders have become a cheap and reliable piece of school equipment. In radio, as much as television, the development of tape cassettes has done much to liberate schools from the tyranny of the timing constraints on

live broadcasts. Instead of being tied to a specific time "slot", and to the loss of the programme if the slot were missed, tapes now enable the particular programme, to be used at the teachers' convenience and to be stopped or repeated at will.

There are, of course, constraints on the availability of tapes, due to transport difficulties, the possible failure of a recorder/replay unit due to mechanical faults or the absence of batteries. In these respects also radio continues, however, to have the advantage over television. A sound tape costs less than a television tape (by a factor of 1:10). A recording/replay unit similarly is much cheaper for radio than for television (by a factor of 1:50). And a sound tape recorder is much less subject to mechanical failure than a video cassette recorder. The availability of tapes also liberates the school and the individual teacher from dependence on other agencies which cannot always be relied upon to join satisfactory service. A successful school broadcasting radio service used to involve a producer, teacher, inspector, headmaster, a maintenance system, a supplier of batteries, a reasonable engineering system to produce a signal, a producer of acceptable support material, a distribution system, an effective feedback system, a personnel training system and an organisation that sustains, harmonises and finances all these items. Today, the use of tape cassettes reduces the immediate dependence of all these agencies and persons on each other. To this extent the use of audio-aids to teaching and learning has become less difficult. But the problem of tape distribution remains, and for this reason, live or recorded broadcasts continue to be much used in most ACP countries.

A good example is The Gambia where the institution of a regular daily space for the development-oriented programme *Agric Bantaba* at 20.30 hours has made possible the transmission of a wide range of such programmes. The format varies, and includes interviews, discussions, straight talks and drama.

Some of the drama programmes are recorded in the villages and the villagers participate as actors. The government departments involved in these programmes are those of Animal Health and Production, Forestry, Co-operatives, Agriculture and Fisheries. In the context of this pattern of broadcasts the government of The Gambia decided, with the help of the US Academy for Educational Development at Stanford University, to promote a pro-

gramme to combat oral dehydration caused by diarrhoeal infections. This is identified by UNICEF as by far the biggest single cause of death among the world's children.

The use of radio as a patron of a country's culture is often ignored because cultural programmes are regarded as part of the radio station's general responsibility. But in countries where the arts have traditionally been a spontaneous, and voluntary, activity generated within the village on the occasion of a feast day or a rite of passage, such cultural expression tends to atrophy in the course of modernisation. When this trend obtains, the broadcasting organisation can act in support of the continuation and development of a tradition by using the material in its programmes and providing the necessary financial support. Radio-Télévision Algérienne is an organisation which sponsors cultural weeks in various parts of the country; the Senegal broadcasting organisation has contributed to the survival of Senegalese "Praise Singers" in a similar context.

Broadcasting in the hierarchy of development priorities

The analysis of the need for effective broadcasting has only in recent years begun to be given serious attention in national development planning. Communications figured as an independent issue for the first time in the text of the Third Lomé Convention. It is to be hoped that the useful start made during the currency of the present Convention will be carried forward into the Fourth Convention.

Given the many other calls on the limited resources available for development, it is not surprising that communications have hitherto been accorded low priority in many ACP countries. As the educational level and, with this, the participative capabilities of the populations of many countries grow, the need increases for information and education relevant to the development process. Because of the greater impact of the combination of sound and vision represented by television there has been a tendency to undervalue the role of radio. This is a mistake which now appears to be in the course of correction. Accessibility of radio and its low unit cost continues to make it the most cost-effective instrument for development. It is to be hoped that the ACP countries and their partners in the European Community will act on this insight.

G.W.

Contribution of television to development ⁽¹⁾

In developing countries, the mass media are the main vehicles, and in some countries perhaps the only vehicle, for wide and rapid transmission of information, for the acquisition of skills and changes of attitudes necessary for social and economic transformation.

At the same time they are an aid to ensuring the free flow of information within a country and between countries. They are a means of putting people in touch with the modern world and of maintaining cultural identity through pluriform connections. They are catalysts for disseminating information and the discussion of ideas between leaders, administrators and people over wide distances. Information can thus reach the populace faster through the media than through bureaucratic channels.

The quality of change is affected by the way the media are used and by the selection of an appropriate medium and media mix for development goals. The television medium is especially suited for achieving a number of important development goals. Therefore television training programmes could include courses for specific development themes for a number of reasons.

Television has an affinity to all the other mass media because it synchronises the different message systems used by the other media. Meaning is expressed through depth, perspective, shapes, valence (intensity of meaningful parts) form and content.

In addition, there is the use of space, volume, movement, music, sounds and speech, and graphics. These message systems are synthesised to show a view of life which is reflective of the total environment. Sound and print images can also be associated with a whole environment, but in radio the voice is still divorced from the environment. Neither print nor radio media can achieve the same degree of immediacy as that of live television transmission.

Television can be easily co-ordinated with other media to disperse in-



Television adds a visual image to the spoken word: if properly used, it can be an efficient media form, and a continuing and unifying one in developing countries

formation as widely as possible and supplement the work of fieldworkers, thus stimulating a two-way communication.

For instance, after a common experience-knowledge base has been established through television programmes, programmes can be discussed on radio and feedback views recorded by outside broadcasters. Tel-education can be supported by print media.

Functional illiteracy and lack of functional numeracy are two of the most serious obstacles for mastering skills needed for employment in viable industries. The number of illiterate adults is 70 million, but the figures for functional illiteracy are higher.

Literacy and numeracy are essentially visual forms which cannot be taught by radio. This has been shown in Tanzania where it is reported that literacy campaigns by radio failed. As Mr Type of the European Broadcasting Union (EBU) put it: "You cannot write letters with your ears".

The most successful literacy campaigns to date have been through television. Two examples are Telescuola — "It's never too late"—in Italy and Kenya's literacy programmes.

In the 1960s there were still almost two million illiterates in Italy's rural South who certainly resisted the idea of going back to school. Using the

method of Professor Neri, the Ministry of Education cooperated with Italian Broadcasting to create a continuing television series called "It's never too late", supplemented by a multimedia kit of graphics, photos and print.

In the first stage, some 60 000 registered of whom 45 382 attended the courses until the end. The lyrical comments of Radiotelevisione Italiana (RAI) testifies as to its success: "A poor and unknown world entombed in silence, lost in remote valleys and miserable farms has been approached and reached, has entered into contact with the modern world, has found itself rich in a dignity of its own, has opened doors to hope. Here the magic persuasiveness of television has been able to act with all its power. The poor old signs of the alphabet became, under the wrinkled and sun-tanned hands and before the attentive eyes of the peasants of the South, the fabulous symbols which enabled them to take part in the modern world."

Radiotelevisione Italiana also notes that the educational series as a whole made a qualitative contribution to the classroom, and at the same time supplies classroom teachers with extra material of a recreational, informative and cultural kind, "which he can use to make his work speedier and more thorough."

(1) Extracts from a report of Radio Nederland by Dr Sylvia Moore.

Kenya literacy programme

The Telescuola model was applied in Kenya between 1962 and 1964 in an ingenious and successful manner. The man in charge of its introduction first followed the Telescuola literacy course. In Kenya, foreign missions were persuaded to donate 5 000 television sets which were placed in rural community centres.

Literacy programmes were run from 5 to 7 p.m. before the evening programmes of news, documentaries and features. The latter were now also available to village viewers and simultaneous interpretation was provided in Swahili by radio broadcasts from the studio. These were received locally because radios were placed on top of the TV sets in the village halls.

This educational literacy campaign was extended to include rural health, agricultural and veterinary educational programmes. Thus knowledge and skills were upgraded and channels were opened for links and cooperation between town and country areas.

Project implementation

Project implementation can be accelerated by filming the progress achieved. This is an important aid in the case of regional projects.

For example, the Caribbean Agricultural Development and Advisory Service arranged to film the work of its projects in the Eastern Caribbean islands, Montserrat and Antigua in particular. Sixteen features were filmed to show the problems of the small farmers—the traditional producers of food on the islands. A number of key issues were discussed by farmers in different work situations. These included marketing, quality, land tenure and security, agricultural extension services, irrigation, livestock harassment, cooperatives, young people in agriculture.

Through this format, different work situations could be compared and contrasted; the programme co-ordinator could synthesise the problems as part of an overall development strategy; personalities are seen in their own environment on their farms so that they can demonstrate the problems they have. In this way they communicate their problems and search for solu-

tions faster than through the regular inter-island communications system.

Format flexibility

Television lends itself to the possibility of using formats in keeping with the majority identity of different cultural groups. Of all the mass media, formats can be used which are nearest to the systems of oral traditions and the vernacular art of living, still the blueprint of the majority identity in most developing countries. Just as in the West formats for television have developed which reflect western society, formats can be developed which are a vehicle for vernacular forms of expression.

Examples of this are: an educational film—*The Lute Turtle*—a film made in Mexico by Filmateca de la UNAM in 1983. It shows the life of the turtle of the Mexican fauna in its natural and social environment. Through music about the turtle and market scenes an image is given of the community's traditional knowledge concerning the natural environment.

Traditional formats common to a region and understood by a wide pub-

lic are especially suited as information carriers and social transformers. This is so in the case of traditional theatre forms and story telling, such as the popular *conte* form known throughout the Caribbean.

In Dominica, the People's Action Theatre combines this form with modern theatre. Real life situations created along the lines of popular story-telling modes are used with gaps left for audience and actors' response. As a medium for change technical advisers work with the writer, as in the case of Alwyn Bully's radio drama series "Green Gold" dealing with problems of the banana business, and "Winds of Change" written after Hurricane David.

As a widely accepted form of traditional media, the social drama format adapted for television can incorporate information on current events, political and developmental issues.

For long term planning of training programmes, future technological developments could be incorporated into courses, such as computer graphics which could be adapted in different cultural environments for educational goals. □



To see the subjects being taught is an excellent way of putting theory into practice, as here in a lesson on nutrition and agriculture at the University of Swaziland

CARIBBEAN NEWS AGENCY

Highlights on its programme of economic development and regional integration ⁽¹⁾

The agency believes that the information which flows from this programme is helping in a very real way to alert Caribbean peoples to common objectives and common problems, and possibly to solutions.

Fifteen radio stations presently subscribe to this programme, seven subscribe to the weekly "Sports Caribbean" programme, and approximately six link up with CANA's studios in Barbados every month to participate in the discussion and phone-in programme entitled "Caribbean Cross-fire", which gives the regional public a chance to call the station free of charge and question decision-makers on topical issues.

The programme has covered subjects such as West Indies cricket; the AIDS problem; political union of the Caribbean, militarisation in the region and the question of cultural identity. Other regular productions of the radio service are the "Business report" and "Forging ahead" both targeted at the Eastern Caribbean islands.

Radio stations in the Caribbean, most of them with limited financial resources and no resident correspondent in the various countries, have come to rely on CANA's coverage for regular as well as special events.

CANA's Chief Editor says the Caribbean News Agency's operations facilitate the swift exchange of news across the region, both audio and printed. The availability of news about developments in the Caribbean allows for a cross-fertilisation of ideas and policy concepts among the countries of the Caribbean Community. CANA, with a headquarters staff of about a dozen, has about 50 correspondents covering the 13 countries of the English-speaking CARICOM, as well as Suriname, St. Thomas in the U.S. Virgin Islands, Curacao, St. Martin and Venezuela.

(1) Extract from background information provided by Ms Sandra Baptiste, journalist of CANA.

On a regular basis, CANA highlights economic developments, including major projects and covers comprehensively the annual budgets of each of the countries it serves as well as their major parliamentary debates. It also carries reports from the various central banks, statistical digests and covers news conferences about major economic and social developments. The regional news agency each year provides subscribers with the Caribbean Development Bank's country reports on economic performance.

In addition there are on-going sector reports on major sectors of the economy such as sugar, rice, bauxite and mining, tourism and manufacturing.

CANA takes the service of the Reuters news agency, which puts out about 60 000 words daily, but is very selective in what it puts out for its subscribers.

The Barbados state-owned Caribbean Broadcasting Corporation—CBC Radio and Television, established in 1963, last month moved to substantially increase the local content of its programming to about 20% of overall programming, reflecting an increase in the use of local material by 100%.

The station, which has listeners across the Eastern Caribbean, recently introduced a new format which features a number of discussion and magazine-type programmes focusing on local issues, including those directly related to economic development (the economy and social and political issues).

News programmes also highlight national projects and their impact on the island and its economy, particularly those which generate employment. Daily government information service programmes, aired on radio and television also devote a lot of attention to national programmes and projects. In addition, there is a television magazine programme, "Horizons" produced by teenagers, which seeks to sensitise the youth to social and economic problems. Some of the con-

cerns addressed include AIDS, drug-abuse and teenage pregnancy.

The station cannot afford to produce many local programmes, because of the high cost of production and the lack of manpower and technical resources. A half-hour programme can be purchased from overseas for US 300 to US 400 dollars, costing the overseas producers between US 80 000 to US 250 000 to produce, which is recouped from the sale of the programmes to a large number of stations, locally and internationally. CBC would have to spend at least Bds\$ 15 000 to Bds\$ 20 000 dollars⁽²⁾ to produce a half-hour local programme.

The move by the station to increase the local content of its programming has not been popular with everyone, CBC General Manager, Sam Taitt, said. Nevertheless the media has a social and moral responsibility to inform and educate the public about things that are happening in their own country, especially when it is a state-owned entity in a developing country.

Mr Taitt, commenting on the four hours of live broadcast daily on weekdays (6.00 am to 10.00 am) and two hours daily at weekends from the US Cable News Network (CNN), said Barbadians were well-travelled people who needed to be informed about developments in the rest of the world. He noted that advertisements in the CNN live broadcasts are deleted. Satellite programmes have been introduced, he said, because of the demand for more information programmes by the station's estimated 120 000 viewers. "The disadvantage is that the flow of information is only one way. We can't afford the technology and we are not powerful enough anyway to influence the larger media to take our programmes", Mr Taitt said.

There has been participation in a television news exchange through satellite, with neighbouring Caribbean countries, in particular Trinidad and Tobago and Jamaica, keeping viewers in Barbados abreast of economic and political developments in the region, on a daily basis.

Seventy percent of the programmes on CDC's AM station, regarded as an information service, are local, while the FM service is essentially a music station, with 75% of the music foreign. o

(2) 1 \$US = 2 Bds.

THE CIERRO

Ouagadougou's Inter African Rural Radio Study Centre

by Samba Ousmane TOURE^(*)

When the Union of National Radio and Television Organisations of Africa (URTNA) was set up in 1962, it comprised a dozen independent countries of Africa. Now, with the latest arrivals—the Central African Republic in 1985 and Swaziland in January this year—there are 44 active members.

The organisation, a professional, regional, non-governmental one, has the job of consultant and coordinator, helping the members achieve collective solutions to their broadcasting and television problems through a drive for African cooperation and international collaboration. It has four permanent centres for this purpose: — the Secretariat-General in Dakar (Senegal); the Technical Centre in Bamako (Mali); the Programme Exchange Centre at the Kenyatta Centre in Nairobi (Kenya), and the Inter-African Rural Radio Study Centre in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso).

Aims and objectives of the Ouagadougou Centre

The Centre, which was opened in 1978 and is the only one of its kind, aims to promote study of and research into communications in the rural world, providing students (staff recruited internally and young people selected by external examination) with the training they need to carry out their jobs.

It also investigates any educational questions tied up with professional training that are put to it by radio and television organisations in Africa and elsewhere and offers the latter advice on any problems.

The Government of the Federal Republic of Germany has provided the Centre with regular assistance with operation, through the GTZ, its technical cooperation agency, which cov-



Recording cultural heritage — a vital need for the countries of Africa where oral traditions are rapidly disappearing due to the break-up of the family and the necessary transformation of social systems. Practical exercises by CIERRO (Burkina Faso)

ers 75% of the CIERRO operating budget.

The Government of the host country (Burkina Faso), provides a further grant of 10% of the operating budget every year.

The URTNA and the Agency for Cultural and Technical Cooperation (ACCT), which has its headquarters in Paris, give 10% and 5% respectively to the CIERRO budget.

Achievements

Between opening in 1978 and July 1986, when its fourth batch of students graduated, the Centre turned out 46 professionals for the programmes sector and 31 broadcasting technicians for 12 countries — Benin, Burkina, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Gabon, Gambia, Mali, Mauritania, Senegal and Togo. On 10 November

1986, 14 students from the programmes sector and eight technicians began following courses there for the university years 1986-88.

The broadcasting organisations involved in CIERRO training have said how keen they are on the Centre and the type of courses it offers—which, educationally speaking, are given in socio-economic conditions similar to those the students will encounter once they graduate and guarantee very good results.

Considerable stress is laid on the practical side and there are many field trips into the Burkinabe countryside. In 1986, for example, students covered 20 000 km, giving 100-odd broadcasts on Burkina's national radio in 20 villages.

Graduates find it very easy to adapt to the working environment, so they

^(*) Director of the CIERRO, BP 385, Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso).

are immediately operational and can perform the tasks for which they have been trained—i.e. the organisation, production and recording of programmes.

Research is an important aspect of life at the Centre, which is in close contact with the rural world, the research institutions and the inter-State bodies so it can keep its teaching programme in line with trends in communications. With this in mind, four major meetings have been held. In 1981 and 1983, CIERRO and ACCT ran two seminars on local rural radio, each bringing together 11 French-speaking countries of Africa. The third seminar, for rural radio users in the Sahel, was run in 1984, with the help of the FAO, and the CILSS (Inter-state Committee against drought in the Sahel) etc., and the fourth, from 29 September to 11 October 1986, financed by UNESCO, catered for broadcasting staff from nine countries of the sub-region and dealt with "The endogenous production of messages for use by community media—the specific case of local rural radio".

Problems and prospects

The URTNA has never lost sight of radio as a way of informing, teaching and training Africa's rural masses and this is why it decided to set up a permanent centre to train rural radio technicians in Ouagadougou in 1978.

In less than 10 years, the Centre has proved itself to be vital to the African countries—which are all anxious to put the rural world in the picture by using the immense potential of broadcasting.

The essential problem which the Union has to cope with is that of convincing its German partner to go on assisting CIERRO, as any withdrawal on its part would threaten the survival of the Centre. URTNA is also continuing its action with partners already involved in the Centre and with others likely to be, with a view to protecting this precious contribution to African rural development. This is the only way that the Union, whose means are limited, can respond to its members, who are increasingly looking to CIERRO to train their rural communications staff. ◊



Collecting tales in authentic conditions: at night, by the light of a storm-lamp... (Burkina)

Villages in Burkina Faso welcoming the bus belonging to CIERRO, their rural radio station



Côte d'Ivoire sets an example

A few years ago, "Koutoukouakou"—the Improvident—a programme about the need for people in rural areas to save, was shown here on television. The central character, Koutoukouakou squandered all his money after he had harvested his coffee and he was unable to pay his bills. He had nothing to give to his employees and his children could not go back to the village school either. The moral of this series, which went out to all the villages in the country, was that you have to save to meet your obligations, even unexpected ones. As the village chief told all Koutoukouakous everywhere: "Don't throw the banana skin away when you've eaten the banana—you may be hungry tomorrow", which is a local saying. And next season, it was Koutoukouakou who told prodigal peasants how to save. The message was passed on thanks to that powerful medium, television.

National radio and other organs—*Fraternité Matin*, the daily paper, for example—are involved in education for development in much the same way. In the vast campaign to vaccinate pregnant women and children up to the age of four, organised jointly by the Ivorian Public Health Ministry and the World Health Organisation, there were frequent slogans and publicity spots on radio—whose impact on a population with a high proportion of illiterates is easy to imagine—inviting and encouraging the people to go along to the various centres. This operation was an efficient support that helped make the campaign a success.

Radio competitions are run with the same aim in view and "The National Progress Cup", that find of Ivorian broadcasting, is one of them. This programme tells the peasant farmers, sometimes in the national language, how to use fertiliser, create and develop fish farming tanks and so on and at the same time has stimulated a dynamic movement for progress among them—hence the title of the show. There are various prizes—tractors, motorised cycles, packs of fertiliser etc, as well as cash—and the broadcast has a considerable following.

The written press regularly produces long articles on the village grouping drive, people's experience in setting up and running cooperatives, the point of getting youngsters back to the land and the obstacles to doing this efficiently. And more.

The growing interest in the national press in news for or about the rural world and the peasant farmer reflects the importance of agriculture for the development of Côte d'Ivoire, which is known mainly for its coffee and cocoa.

The farmer's specific problems and how to cope with them are also dealt with in the urban areas too. National television has publicity spots on energy saving, the need for a clean and healthy environment and using the telephone.

All these practical examples show the importance of the work the Ivorian media are doing for development.

Press organs in Côte d'Ivoire

"*Fraternité Matin*" (Daily)
Created: 7 December 1964. Distribution: 65 000 copies.

"*Ivoir' Soir*" (Daily) Created: 11 May 1987. Distribution: 50 000 copies.

"*Ivoire Dimanche*" (Weekly)
Created: 14 February 1971. Distribution: 80 000 copies.

"*Agence ivoirienne de presse*" (AIP-information agency) Created: 2 Jun 1961

Audio-visual:

Radio: Radiodiffusion-Télévision Ivoirienne created: 31 October 1962.

Television: created: 7 August 1963 and August 1973 (colour TV-Secam)

And they too have developed considerably since independence in 1960. □

Yao NOËL



Community aid to the ACP media goes principally to the audio-visual sector. Here, a television studio in Côte d'Ivoire

INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION

The Commission's position

The situation in the information/communication sector in developing countries is far from satisfactory on the whole; in some places, especially in Africa, it falls critically short of what is needed both in general and more specifically in connection with development. Radio is the most common media: the number of radio sets per 1 000 population is 249 in Latin America, 77 in Asia and 55 in Africa. The pattern is the same with the other media, more particularly the press and books. There is little intranational flow of information and just as little exchange of information among developing countries. The media in those countries tend to rely on the developed nations for their programmes, the setting up of technical infrastructure and personnel training. In addition, the national media in developing countries are usually state-controlled.

Besides all this, developing countries have their own difficulties such as language and economic disparities among their public, or rather their publics, or the high cost of maintaining their capital investment, which may be ill suited to its objective.

It is for this reason that support for the rationalisation of the media is one of the fields of action covered by Lomé III. Its Article 121 suggests two guidelines for Community aid:

1. Increasing the ACP States' ability to contribute actively to the international flow of information and knowledge; for this purpose it shall support, *inter alia*, the setting up and strengthening of national and regional communication media;
2. Ensuring that the people of the ACP States are better informed for the purposes of mastering their own development, through projects or programmes focused on informing the population and enabling it to express itself and making wide use of communications systems at grassroots level.

The Commission has little experience in ventures that achieve the first aim, but it is at an advantage with regard to the second. In 1983, for example, it financed a short study on audiovisual communication and de-

velopment⁽¹⁾ out of its budget. From this and other available analyses, the following conclusions may be drawn.

The value of the media to development: the constraints

If they are to be of value, the media must:

- allow for "multi-directional" communication, not only from the centre (the capital) to the rest of the country (towns and villages) but also among towns and villages and from these to the centre;
- secure feedback (to check that the information transmitted has reached the target public and has been used, so that the messages transmitted may if necessary be redirected or modified);
- be backed up by "personal" action: commentary by a village leader, well known person, nurse, school-teacher or the like and then discussion;
- be obviously suited to the audience culturally (in language, the type of people shown in slides or film and the way they dress, respect for local traditions and structures, etc.);
- be designed bearing very much in

mind the potential for maintenance and running (manpower and credit);

- be on the optimum scale for the target audience (it may be fairly easy to cover 50% of the potential audience, expensive to reach the next 25% and virtually impossible to attain the remainder without spending a quite disproportionate amount of the budget);
- be introduced gradually where appropriate (mixing "education" and "entertainment" in radio programmes).

The sectors concerned

As information project may support any economic or social sector.

Experience has shown that it is most useful when it is in support of:

- education, especially rural education;
- agriculture, livestock farming and reforestation;
- health and hygiene.

The resources

Simple resources, which have already proved their worth, may be considered, especially when informing local communities:

- informal discussions or lectures;
- flannelgraphs, slides, photographs, records, cassettes, posters, leaflets, films, strip cartoons;

(1) Perraton Report, available (in English) from DG VIII/A/1 of the Commission (Tel. 235.14.07).



The written word was the basis of progress, and its level has been falling in developing countries. But the word to be spread by radio and television must be expressed well if it is to achieve its educational and developmental objective

- workshops (discussion groups) using scrap materials;
- travelling exhibitions, traditional entertainments, people's theatre;
- radio broadcasts, "rural telephone", communal press, etc.

These may be components of a broader integrated project.

In producing this first category of resources, it should be possible to use Community aid to encourage the creation or expansion of small local industrial or craft firms such as printworks, slide-making workshops, radio set assembly shops, etc.

Besides this aid to small-scale local enterprise, thought could be given to training personnel, creating infrastructure and supplying equipment, spare parts and possibly (during the launching phase) inputs such as filmstock and paper and the making of programmes.

More sophisticated resources should be used only in exceptional circumstances because of the maintenance problems they raise.

Facilities such as these should relate more to the "external communication" aspect and any investment projects should almost automatically include the training of maintenance staff, a stock of spare parts and the introduction of a stringent system of technical and financial management.

The choice of these resources cannot be governed by hard-and-fast rules. Media will be more expensive in one situation, less costly in another, depending on such factors as how widely scattered the audience is, whether the infrastructure already exists and whether programmes can be exchanged among regions or countries. In very general terms, radio appears to be the least expensive medium per person reached, but the community has to obtain batteries for radio sets and a skilled commentator is often needed for educational broadcasts. For instance, a film on rural development is not necessarily expensive to produce but it takes a fleet of film-projection buses to show it in rural areas. A strip cartoon will be understood only by a readership which is accustomed to cartoons: if it contains drawings without text, it usually calls for someone to explain it, whereas cartoons with words assume that the recipients can read. ◊

EEC Assistance to Third World Media

by Barbara NOËL^(*)



Radio and television enable whole populations to share the experiences and opinions of society's various economic groupings.

The countries of the European Community together provide a very substantial share of all media assistance to the developing countries. While assistance at Community level has gone to a variety of media projects in various fields, countries and regions, the bulk of European assistance has been carried out through national programmes. Consequently, member countries' programmes display very distinct national styles and, at least as far as France and the United Kingdom are concerned, a geographical distribution reflecting historical and linguistic associations.

Cooperation between European countries in the field of media assistance to developing countries has been very restricted. Indeed, the report produced by the "European Institute for the Media" for the Commission of the European Communities⁽¹⁾ has been the first attempt to provide an inven-

tory of this kind of assistance and to make a first assessment both of the quality and the suitability of its orientation.

It should be kept in mind, however, that this survey has concentrated mainly on the provision of media infrastructure and the training of media professionals. Little attention has been given to the methodological and organisational aspects of development support communications and the inclusion of a communications component in development projects in the fields of health, agriculture, and education. In addition, Spain's and Portugal's assistance to the media has not been taken into account, since all the data for the report were collected in 1984 and 1985 before these two countries became members of the European Community.

In the following lines, some of the findings of the report are reviewed:

Responsibility for assistance to the media in developing countries varies widely. Although in some Member States the ministry responsible for

^(*) Principal Administrator, Directorate-General X-A-2 (Development), Commission of the European Communities.

⁽¹⁾ "EEC Assistance to Third World Media", Europe Information-Development, DE 53, January 1986.

overseas aid has a clear policy on the place of the media in development assistance and a detailed inventory of what is being done by national organisations in this field, in the majority of Member States, responsibilities for media assistance are divided between several government departments. But these government departments or ministries rarely implement their projects themselves. Agencies, broadcasting organisations and a large number of other bodies are involved. Some of them deal exclusively with media assistance, such as the Thomson Foundation in the UK or the Berlin International Institute for Journalism, and others deal with media assistance among other areas of development cooperation, such as the Institute for Social Studies in The Hague or the German political foundations such as the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

In four Member States there are substantial programmes of media assistance. The Federal Republic of Germany has expenditure of roughly ECU 40 million a year, France some ECU 30 m, the United Kingdom between ECU 10-20 m, and the Netherlands more than ECU 5 m. It is unlikely that expenditure for the other Member States exceeds ECU 2 m a year.

The *Commission of the European Communities*, for its part, committed some ECU 34 m under the fourth EDF (1975-1981) and some ECU 29 m under the fifth EDF (1981-1985).

Thus, EEC assistance to the media is approaching some ECU 100 m a year⁽¹⁾.

Media assistance falls into expenditure on *capital equipment*, on *training* and on the *provision of programmes*. The latter seems most significant in the case of France, where it represents some 20% of assistance, and of Germany, where the cost of Transtel represents some 10% of all assistance. *Training* both in Member States or in the developing country makes up a proportion ranging from a third to a half in the four main donor countries and a much higher proportion in the other Member States where training represents their main activity.

The *geographical distribution* of media aid recipients shows that France

(1) See also the graphs on p. 00 which indicate the sources of media assistance to ACP countries.

and the United Kingdom have continuing links with their former colonies and, more generally, with English-speaking and francophone countries respectively. Belgium has normally assisted francophone countries and Ireland English-speaking countries. There is no clear pattern for the other countries, though Radio Nederland Training Centre (RNTC) and Sender Freies Berlin Television Training Centre (SFB TTC) have provided courses predominantly in English. More than half of the European media assistance goes to Africa and of the remainder three quarters goes to Asia and the remaining quarter to Latin America. Practically all aid to Africa goes to ACP countries. Aid to the Caribbean is very dispersed, and, except from the UK, little assistance goes to the Pacific ACP countries.



Capital assistance has helped to build studios, transmitters, satellite downstations and in some cases communal receiving centres. In a number of countries, however, the initial television installation did little more than provide a television service in the immediate vicinity of the capital, in some cases only in black and white, and considerable expenditure is still required to provide coverage to larger parts of the population. In ACP countries recent French television capital projects were carried out in Benin, Burundi, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritius, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, Seychelles, and radio capital aid went to

Cape Verde, Central African Republic, and Djibouti, while recent German projects involving works on radio stations were carried out in Benin, Djibouti, Malawi, Mauritania, Rwanda, Somalia, and Togo, and television was assisted in Sudan. Capital aid has also helped to finance the establishment of *news agencies*, for example German assistance to China, Indonesia, Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, and Rwanda.

Communal reception centres were built in Niger and Senegal. Here television receivers have been powered by solar generators. More and more projects relate, however, to the provision of equipment for educational radio and television.

Training assistance has seen considerable change since 1970. Increasingly, professionals in both the audiovisual and written media were trained in their home country or at regional training centres. This has led to a reduction in the amount of training provided in Europe by organisations such as RNTC at Hilversum and the virtual cessation of activities in the United Kingdom by the Thomson Foundation, leading to the closure of its Glasgow television college and the suspension of courses at its Editorial Training Centre in London. On the other hand, there has been a continuation of a substantial volume of higher level training in Europe. Quite often, also, non-media professionals have received media training, where their development work, whether in agriculture, health or education matters, included a communications component.

Training courses in Europe fall into two categories: those designed exclusively for media professionals from developing countries and those courses primarily designed for students of the European country concerned, but which are also attended by participants from developing countries. The latter are particularly important for engineering training and for training in film production.

Training courses of the first category usually work with small groups of 10 to 20 participants; their duration is variable and they can be specially designed for particular needs. Including the long courses at INA, France provides up to 1 800 trainee months a year, the United Kingdom 1 000, Germany 500, and the Netherlands 220

trainee months a year. Training courses in film production are provided by INSAS and IAD in Belgium, IDHEC in France, the National Film School in the United Kingdom, and others.

A recent Danish study shows the importance of the European Community for Third World film and television students: six of the nine most frequently chosen countries are EEC Member States, with the UK ranking first, followed by France, the USA and Germany. Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy come in seventh, eighth, and ninth places respectively.

Training courses outside Europe vary widely. European training organisations such as INA (France) have on occasion taken one of their own courses and given it unchanged in a developing country. On other occasions, existing national or regional centres in developing countries have been assisted as for example, the Inter-African Rural Radio Study Centre in Ouagadougou in Burkina Faso. Training assistance is also provided directly to broadcasting organisations. Short seminars or workshops of one to two weeks' duration are another form of training. These have been organised by the Goethe Institute, the German political foundations, the British Council, the Thomson Foundation, and by the Dutch co-financing organisations.

Training attachments—most frequently in European countries where English or French is the principal language—have taken place in Irish, British, Belgian and French broadcasting organisations. Broadcasting organisations, on the other hand, have received special funds from their European governments to send staff to ACP broadcasting organisations to provide missing skills or to act as consultants to training programmes. "Training the trainers" programmes and the production of specific training material are very important. The Friedrich Ebert Foundation, for instance, has developed a series of mass media manuals covering press, film, radio, television, film animation, and how to organise a radio learning group. The British Council and INA regularly publish a catalogue of radio and television training materials from the United Kingdom and France respectively.



Amazing African television! Above, filming in Senegal.

The problems of communications policy and development planning are the subject of specific training courses developed by the Dutch Institute for Social Studies and they have also been the subject of a recent seminar held at the European Institute for the Media in co-operation with UNESCO and the British Government.

Programme assistance is made in the form of free or subsidised radio or television programmes by European broadcasting organisations to their counterparts in the Third World. It also includes co-production activities, encouragement for the distribution of films, books and radio and television broadcasts in European countries. A related activity is the organisation of festivals for films and radio and television broadcasts from the Third World which serve as a stimulus to improve production standards and to make European critics and media professionals better acquainted with the output of developing countries.

France has the most extensive activities in providing radio and television programmes both by satellite and video and audio cassettes. Some of the programmes are the results of co-productions between African countries and France: the daily satellite news service includes material which has been prepared by African broadcasting organisations. French programmes are widely used. Between 40-70% of the bulletins of French-speaking African countries was material from this source. Programme assistance also covers sports, entertainment, and general subjects.

Germany has extensive television and radio transcription services. Television features are provided by Trans-

tel, weekly news services by German Press Agency (DPA) and radio programmes by the Deutsche Welle transcription Service. Television programmes are transmitted by 200 television stations in more than 70 countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America, and DPA is sent regularly to over 50 stations. Programmes are dubbed in English, French, Spanish and Arabic.

The two Belgian broadcasting organisations RTB and BRT have a joint television and radio transcription service, "Radio Television Tiers Monde", which provides material primarily to francophone African countries, including a weekly news service.

While the BBC makes most of its material to Third World countries available on a commercial basis, some material, as for example the English language teaching courses for television, is made available at subsidised prices. The radio "Topical Tapes" service is provided weekly for a nominal subscription which covers the cost of the tape and the air mail postage. The remainder of the cost comes as part of the British Government grant to the BBC for its external services.

Co-production with developing countries is encouraged and German and French television organisations receive special assistance from their governments for co-production activities.

Distribution of television productions and films from the Third World is increasingly encouraged. The French Government has for some time made available a limited sum to assist the distribution of films from developing

countries in France. Non-governmental organisations such as the Organisation Catholique Internationale du Cinéma et de l'Audiovisuel (OCIC) are actively promoting the non-commercial distribution of films from developing countries. A number of film and television festivals in France, Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands have also provided a framework for the showing of Third world productions and have been a very useful stimulus to the two-way flow of cultural productions between the North and the South.

Many other non-governmental organisations provide programme assistance; the EBU (European Broadcasting Union) has created a status of "Beneficiary Associate Member" for broadcasting organisations in developing countries with a per capita GNP of less than \$ 700 per annum. These organisations have the possibility of obtaining Eurovision material at highly advantageous terms. Religious organisations such as the ecumenical World Association for Christian Communication (WACC) based in London, UNDA-International Catholic Association for radio and television, and OCIC mostly finance internal Church communications projects, though occasionally they consider and recommend more general projects related to social development. They are particularly important in providing the leaders for Christian communications activities in Africa and Asia.

EEC member states have also participated in important media projects of international bodies, such as UNESCO, the Agence de Cooperation Culturelle et Technique (ACCT), the Commonwealth, and the Nordic Council.

While UNESCO is the leading UN agency in this area, FAO has also had important projects in development support communication, and most of the EEC countries have supported both.

ACCT brings together French-speaking countries of the North and the South. Its European members, France, Belgium and Luxembourg, provide a substantial share of its finance. ACCT holds a number of training courses primarily related to educational broadcasting and has pioneered much of the initial work in educational radio and television in French-

speaking African countries. An increasing share of its work is now devoted to work in national languages (e.g. Wolof in Senegal) rather than in French.

The Commonwealth Media Development Fund, the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation and the Commonwealth Foundation—to all of which the United Kingdom contributes—have all supported media projects. The Commonwealth Broadcasting Association and the Commonwealth Press Union organise courses and conferences for broadcasters and journalists from developing countries of the Commonwealth, many of which are held in the UK.

The Nordic Council of which Denmark is a member has also sponsored media projects, as for example the Broadcasting Manpower Development Project which operated on a regional basis in seven East African countries from 1980 to 1983.

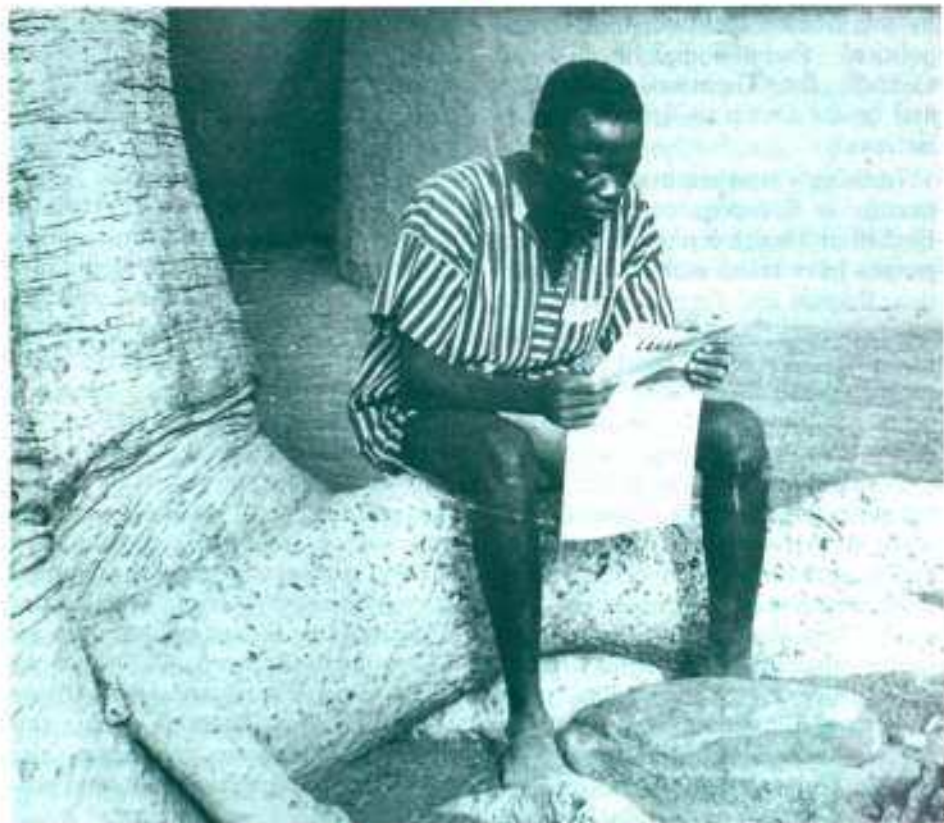
The role of the European Community

Compared to some of its Member States, the Community as such has fi-

nanced relatively few projects in the field of media and communications. Nevertheless, it can look back on a considerable number of actions ranging from infrastructure assistance to information exchange publications, radio campaigns, instructional films and training. In the more recent past it has even started to provide some programme assistance to ACP televisions and radio stations by its monthly television "Contact" magazine and bi-monthly radio programme "Dateline Brussels".

At the beginning, EEC aid for the media was confined to the development of telecommunications infrastructure. Under the first European Development Fund, for example, the EEC helped to establish radio links in Congo and in Côte d'Ivoire, and, under the second and third EDFs, in Somalia, Gabon, and Sudan.

While this type of project is still being financed, particularly for island countries such as Fiji, Tonga and Samoa, these initial efforts have gradually expanded and diversified. Only recently the media have become a



Ghana (photo), like Tanzania, has developed literacy in national languages, which has enabled local language newspapers to develop as a complement to radio and television programmes in local languages

theme in their own right and Community assistance to the media has been given in the form of a self-contained project. Sometimes, however, it has been integrated into a broader development project, especially in the rural development and training sectors.

Examples of Community assistance to the media are: — A *broadcasting project in Swaziland* — about 1 million ECU was spent under the Fourth EDF to tackle particular problems, such as disturbances caused by thunderstorms, competition from South African broadcasting stations and bad reception in mountainous areas. Broadcasting hours, coverage of the national territory was extended and programmes were diversified;

— A *press project in Niger* — With 5 million CFAF, the EDF contributed to Niger's National Development Council for its "Liaison Bulletin". This publication, which has a circulation of 6 000 copies, is a means of information exchange and raises public awareness of rural development issues by, in particular, providing space for articles in local languages.

— A *regional project* — The pre-feasibility study in the context of the AFSAT project for satellite communications in Africa was financed by the EDF;

— *Projects linked with rural development schemes*: radio campaigns organised in Burkina Faso and Mali concerning the treatment of seed and protection of crops, training fellowships were granted for the production of instructional films on rural development (Burundi) and scenarios and films on desertification were encouraged; support was given to the production of instructional slides on a coffee growing project in Tanzania;

— *Training* has been financed in Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria and Belize. In the latter case, training was highly specific: to provide early warning of hurricanes.

— The EEC also contributed to the financing of the third and fourth congresses of the Pan-African Federation of Film Producers (FESPACO) in Ouagadougou.

In future, EEC assistance to the media is expected to develop further. Recognised as an important instrument of development, media assistance finds explicit mention in the third Lomé Convention. ◊ B.N.

Some statistics

These graphics, taken from UNESCO statistics, show the wide gap between African countries and the rest of the world relating to all forms of communication media. For example, Africa publishes only 1.3% of books worldwide; 1% of daily newspapers, and possesses only 1.7% and 0.7% respectively of the world's stock of radio and TV sets.

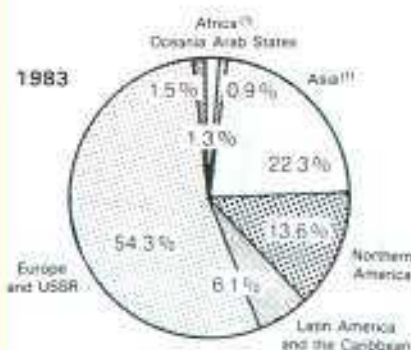
Despite the relatively long timespan since these figures were collected, the situation does not seem to have improved in any significant way since then.

Distribution of newsprint consumption by continents and major areas: estimated percentage 1982



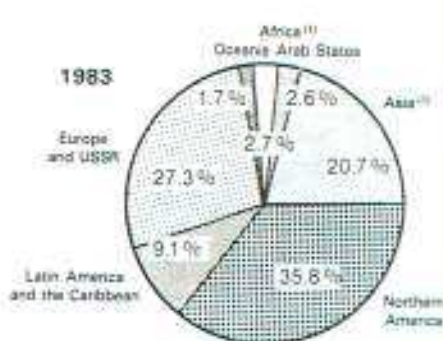
(1) Excluding Arab States.

Distribution of book production (in number of titles) by continents and major areas: estimated percentage 1983



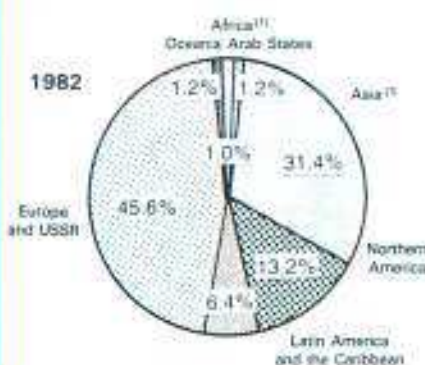
(1) Excluding Arab States.

Distribution of radio receivers by continents and major areas: estimated percentage 1983



(1) Excluding Arab States.

Distribution of circulation of daily general-interest newspapers by continents and major areas: estimated percentage 1982



(1) Excluding Arab States.

Distribution of television receivers by continents and major areas: estimated percentage 1983



(1) Excluding Arab States.

CONTACT MAGAZINE

Films for development

by Agnès HUBERT (*)

Contact Magazine is a 15 minute film series on development issues in the ACP countries. It is financed by the EEC Commission and the Member States and is produced on BVU (TV), VHS and 16 mm. Contact Magazine is distributed by the EEC Commission Delegations in the ACP States and by the Commission itself in Europe⁽¹⁾. Our article describes how it came about.

Kenya, 1983. General elections. Candidates waging their campaigns. Will the voters rush to vote in their thousands on D-day? And who will win? Who will sit in the new parliament?

An international press team is covering the event. A journalist is filming it all for a production and distribution company in the north, but in many other African countries, the pictures will never reach the TV screen... because Tino Rossi, former French singing idol, has just died and has hit the headlines in all the papers and on TF1, France's first TV channel that also sends Senegal its international new programmes.

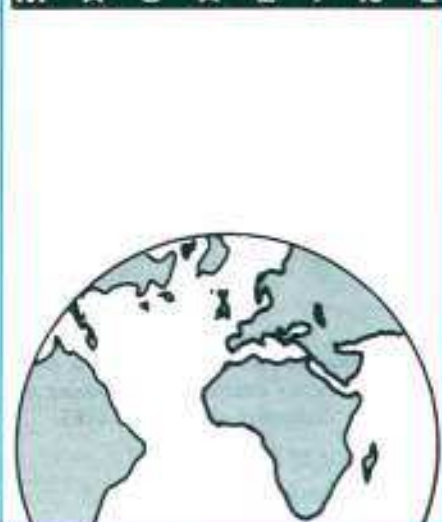
The first number of Contact Magazine, tracing the path of this film — which never crosses the continent — was launched nearly two years ago, illustrating the grounds for its creation, that South-South information circuits are poor. By October 1987, 24 15-minute documentaries on a variety of subjects⁽²⁾ will have been turned out by the European Community for TV channels in the countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific.

True to Lomé III

In October 1985, the heads of the ACP TV channels will be getting their

CONTACT

MAGAZINE



first Contact Magazine reel. The Lomé III negotiations are barely over. One new feature of the Convention is the provision on cultural cooperation, put in by a small team of negotiators. Signatories undertake, for example, to increase the "ACP States' ability to contribute actively to the international flow of information and knowledge" and the first thing is to know how to pass information on with existing techniques. Contact Magazine will be produced, as far as possible, by ACP film-makers and technicians, — includ-

ing Burkina's Gaston Kaboré — a practical example of the way Contact Magazine follows in the footsteps of the Lomé III negotiations.

The European Commission had been wondering about the future of a documentary film magazine on life in Europe, distributed mainly to ACP cinemas, for some time. This inheritance — originally a British production for the countries of the Commonwealth — had been transformed into a European review (on images of Europe), which left a lot to be desired. Its main virtue was that it paved the way for a Community-Member State audiovisual coproduction and got an audiovisual production going for a screen-keen public.

Distribution network + potential audience + method of coproduction + political stimulus from Lomé was all it took to create a monthly magazine providing original work for ACP TV stations. Contact Magazine was born.

Lomé opened wide the door and subjects as varied as the challenge of regional cooperation in southern Africa, children's illustrations of Lomé, profitable development schemes like cow-pea crops in Senegal, collective well-sinking in Tanzania, development of a millet transfer and sophisticated technology such as remote sensing for development have found their way into the Magazine. There are up-to-the-minute topics such as women in African farming and tourism as a factor of development too, described through personal experience. And of course special emphasis goes on creation in the ACP countries — fashion (African fabrics) and films and so on.



Contact Magazine n° 4 — Cultivating cowpeas in Senegal

(*) DG Information.

(1) A European Community Screen Production. Editor in Chief: H. Ferraton. Division Information & Development 200, rue de la Loi, 1049 Bruxelles, Belgium. Tel. 02/235.11.11, Telex: 21877 COMEU B.

(2) List of titles follows.

Co-production — an ideal

Contact Magazine is used by 37 of the 46 ACP States with at least one TV channel. It is also shown in cinemas in 13 countries and in many cultural centres too. But this gives no idea of the frequency of showings nor the way people react to the content. Obviously there are opportunities to meet people in television and sometimes one or two viewers as well and these provide rare but worthwhile details on attitudes to the Magazine. The fact that it is used in Europe, in cultu-

ral centres and by NGOs, to back up debates run to make public opinion aware of North-South relations, is ample justification for pursuing the operation.

Lomé III development ideas suggest that the success of Contact Magazine so far will generate genuine interest on the part of the ACPs as partners in coproductions rather than passive viewers of foreign images. Involvement by African film-makers has already made it possible to resist the temptation to indulge in Eurocentric-

ty. The Magazine works and it has an envious following.

Some people may wonder why the ACPs should be privileged, so the Magazine could still have its work cut out and only involvement by the leaders of ACP information can guarantee it will remain true to Lomé III. This year, Kenyan television agreed to coproduce a film on firewood and this may be the first step towards greater ACP participation in this audiovisual production for development. ◊

A.H.

Contact Magazine (1985-87)

1. News - Strange Network Channels. In Senegal, news about the 1983 Kenyan elections is obtained via London and Paris. Africa, therefore, relies on Europe to receive news about itself.

2. It happened at Lomé. Pupils of seventeen different nationalities talk about: the Third World, poverty, racism, aid, co-operation and solidarity. Development seen through the eyes of children.

3. A community - what for? The successes and failures of the European Community. The Lomé Convention is discussed and the question is asked; can the Common Market serve as a model for other continents?

4. Operation Niebe. Cowpea, a Californian plant, has changed the concept of aid in Senegal. The plant needs little water and grows in less than forty-five days. Adjusted to its natural surroundings, cowpea is nourishing and profitable. A development success story.

5. A country facing up to its options. Botswana, Southern Africa. The two principal resources; diamond mining and cattle-raising. In a predominantly desert country the protection of wild life is important and helps towards a developing tourist industry.

6. Health: Quite an extraordinary adventure. French actress Marthe Mercadier, and her team organise the transportation of this vitally needed second hand hospital equipment to hospitals throughout the Third World.

7. What makes famine? Researchers from NEW INTERNATIONALIST magazine set out to answer questions like; in a continent with vast agricultural potential, why must people die of hunger? Is drought the only reason for famine?

8. Thoughts on African cinema. Souleymane Cissé and Med Hondo explain the problems facing African cinema and the effort being made to change Africa and the World's perception of that cinema.

9. Water... a problem in Tanzania? DANIDA - the Danish International Development Agency - has perfected a technique to help the villagers of Sadani in Tanzania save their water.

10. African fashion: Why are designers needed? Africa is the least industrialised continent and hardly figures on the textile trade map of the world. SITHA and the trade provisions of the Lomé Convention have a role to play as well.

11. Filming in the Field. Burundi's new television and cinema network has decided to use the medium as a tool to aid development and has launched an ambitious rural cinema project. The exploits of two students making their first film are examined with the participation of the village people who see themselves on screen for the first time.

12. Bafut - a model in the making. Bafut, a small chiefdom in North west Cameroon is a microcosm of the problems facing rural Africa. Efforts are being made to break the vicious circle of rural stagnation and the exodus of the young. The Bafut project aims to provide higher living standards, social and cultural facilities in order to encourage the young to stay.

13. The key of life. Cairo is one of the fastest growing cities in the world with a population growth projected from 12 million today to 20 million by 2000 AD. Along with the problems of housing and employment, the difficulties facing the water-supply and sanitation systems are immense. The Cairo Wastewater Scheme is a response to this problem.

14. Southern Africa: The challenge ahead. The Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference has the aim to develop the regional resources of its nine member states; especially in transport and communications and thereby break South Africa's economic stranglehold. SADCC is gaining international recognition; sanctions are being imposed and South Africa is being isolated.

15. Remote sensing foresees tomorrow's harvests. Remote sensing is a new technique designed to measure the light reflected or the radiation emitted by the Earth's surface. The result is that harvests can be predicted and local people can be protected from a possible threat of famine several months in advance.

16. Do it yourself. Mati Maytama, director of the Centre for Rural Development, followed an ILO course in Italy on how to adapt agricultural machinery to Third World needs. The birth of the Tahoua Thresher. A millet thresher which cuts the farmer's working time in half and improves the lot of women in Niger's agricultural industry.

17. Tourism - how to succeed. Mauritius - a God-given paradise? No, a development success story. The film charts the progress of the island's tourist industry from the early seventies to the present day.

18. Building with earth. One person in three, in the world, is without shelter. By the year 2000 many millions of houses must be built. Concrete, steel and cement are too expensive... a possible solution lies in building with earth. Earth architecture is examined in Rwanda and France with the hope of finding an answer to a pressing problem.

19. Traditional medicine. Father Cesar in the land of the healers.

20. Cocoa, our heritage. Cocoa provides Sao Tome with 90% of its export revenue.

21. Count on yourself. Two examples of people taking responsibility for their own development.

22. Useful dromedary. Somalia discovers its fauna.

23. Making a living in Abidjan. System D, an efficient way of combating unemployment.

24. Firewood. Reconciling energy demands and respect for the environment. The example of Kenya.

NIGER

Transport in Niger's economy

by Roger GILLOT (*)



In a vast, landlocked country like Niger, where there are no railways, road transport is vital to the national economy. The economy is based on the rural sector, as it is throughout the Sahel, but Niger also has mineral wealth—uranium, which is mined in the north at Arlit, in the Sahara, and although the uranium production market has become much more competitive over the past few years, the metal still figures large in the economic life of the nation, accounting for around 15% of the State's operating budget.

An idea of Niger's transport problems can be obtained from the fact that the capital, Niamey, is 1 230 km from Lomé and 1 050 km from Cotonou, its nearest ports, and that the Arlit mining centre is 1 550 km away from Parakou, in Benin, where the ore is reloaded on to trains and taken to Cotonou. Lastly, journeys into the cut-off Saharan areas have to be measured in days rather than kilometres.

As things stand, the SNTN (Niger's National Transport Company) dominates the overland transport market, although it does not in fact have a monopoly. It is a mixed concern, with

(*) The author is a consulting engineer with Sirtès-Renault.

the State and the French Saga Transports holding more or less equal shares.

The SNTN, which has a great reputation in Niger, has taken over from the famous Transafricaine, the pioneer of the '30s, which developed trans-Saharan routes from the Mediterranean through to Black Africa via Algeria, Niger and Chad. The fact that the SNTN is a sound, dynamic company is worthy of note, given that it is in a part of the world that is hard hit by recession with few viable companies in the competitive sector.

SNTN means and activities

The company offers several types of transport:

- bulk (hydrocarbons);
- powdery products (cement, lime, granulated plastics);
- freight (uranium, sulphur, crated goods, cereals);
- cotton (seasonal trade);
- temperature-controlled transport;
- container haulage;
- urban (in the capital) and inter-urban passenger transport;
- special transport on request.

It has a range of vehicles, mainly French and German makes, and its

well-equipped, decentralised maintenance facilities mean that they are in first-class condition. The fleet comprises:

- 410 trucks for towing and haulage;
- 406 trailers;
- 32 intercity buses;
- 47 city buses.

They currently cover something like 15 000 000 km in the sub-region.

Management and commercial development are based not only at headquarters, but in various operation centres that are combined with maintenance workshops. There are 12 of these centres—Niamey Passenger Depot, Niamey Goods Depot, Dasso, Maradi, Zinder, Agadez, Arlit, Madagoua, Lomé (Togo), Parakou (Benin), Kano (Nigeria) and Gao (Mali).

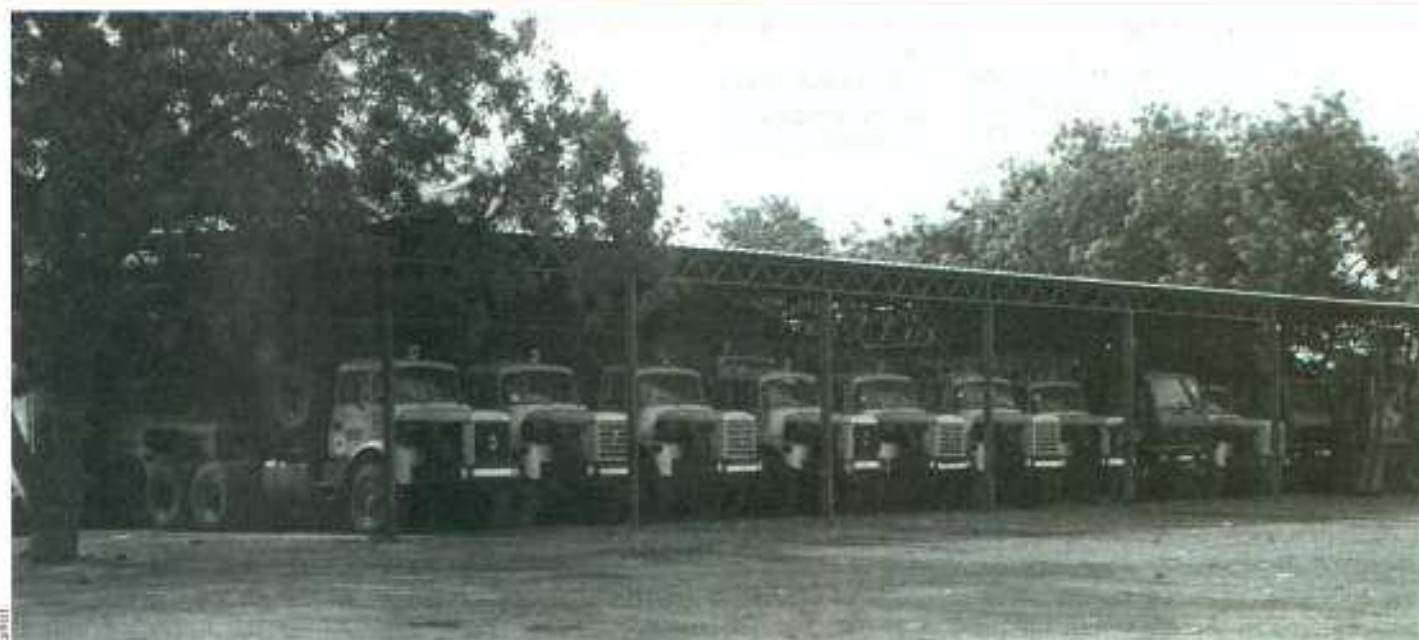
Staff must be trained

SNTN needs greater profitability. First, because, in spite of dominating the market, it has to cope with very active competition from small transport firms. Second, because the decline in general economic activity has a direct effect on transport. So profitability means greater productivity and more efficient staff. And the techniques of vehicle management and administration (with computerisation) change, and people must be prepared for this.

The SNTN has long been aware of the fact that training is a vital investment and is working along two lines here—finding grants for higher technicians and engineers to study abroad and running training schemes in the centre it opened in 1980 to teach vehicle maintenance and operational methods.

Priority on training heads of operation centres

People running operation centres have complex duties. They are responsible for administration and accounting, for commercial development, for managing staff and supplies, for supervising the maintenance workshop and for representing the company in the region, and the job is a key one as far as the functioning of the company is concerned. It must therefore be done by someone who is particularly competent... although this has not always been the case. What has happened so



As things stand, the SNTN dominates the overland transport market, although it does not in fact have a monopoly

far is that these posts have been filled by the internal promotion of only moderately educated staff, some of whom have had to be replaced, either because of age or because their intellectual abilities were such that they could not cope with the demands of more stringent management.

The SNTN felt that operating staff qualifications should be evaluated and that not only were ordinary staff needed but that operation technicians should be recruited to take over the supervisory posts, in particular those at the head of operation centres.

There is no establishment in Niger or elsewhere that offers exactly the sort of training required here. Such courses as exist in the West are not really what a company like the SNTN needs.

So the SNTN decided to train its own operation technicians under its own steam by recruiting youngsters with the *baccalauréat* (preferably in science subjects) and giving them methodical training over a two-year period.

The SNTN's answer and educational methods

The company had considerable experience of training, mainly in technical subjects, although particularly for skilled workers and the like. But the new operation was of a higher level (post-*baccalauréat*) than before and it

was to last a long time (two years), so the SNTN handed over the supervision to a French consultancy, Sirtès (a subsidiary of Renault), which had already helped with human resource management and training and was also involved with other organisations in Niger.

The consultancy's first job was to combine with the Directorate-General and the company managers to list the demands to be made of the operation technicians in terms of skills, know-how and behaviour. Since candidates had been educated to *baccalauréat* level, there were bound to be gaps in their knowledge that the educational programming would need to bridge. One thing was to break down the training into a certain number of units of identifiable and assessable knowledge and know-how. They were:

- Unit 1: Economic geography of transport and trade, 40 hours.
- Unit 2: Introduction to the economy of Niger, 35 hours.
- Unit 3: Company organisation, 40 hours.
- Unit 4: Civil, commercial, transport and labour laws, 60 hours.
- Unit 5: Techniques of finance and accounting, 40 hours.
- Unit 6: Introduction to computer science, 40 hours.
- Unit 7: Techniques of transport operation, 150 hours.
- Unit 8: Industrial vehicle technology, 100 hours.
- Unit 9: Upkeep and maintenance,

50 hours.

— Unit 10: Expression and communications in the firm. Group motivation, 80 hours.

— Unit 11: Organisation of personal work, 80 hours.

— Unit 12: English, 60 hours.

Each unit approached the subject from two angles—a general approach, usually by an external specialist from the university, the authorities or a specialised body, chosen for his ability in the field, and specific SNTN application, always taught by company cadres.

But it was by no means clear that SNTN cadres, with the operational duties they had to carry out and not necessarily any teaching experience, were suitable instructors. There was a certain amount of apprehension over this and the training department set about coping with it by giving individuals the sort of help they needed. It was agreed that any intervention, be it internal or external, would have to be formalised in writing first and discussed with the training department to ensure the best educational standards and to capitalise on SNTN know-how.

The course was designed over the three months leading up to January 1986, when classes actually started. The first seven months were programmed on a day-by-day, hour-by-hour basis, the instructors named and an indication of the content of the various training units set out.

The course

One of the crucial factors as far as the smooth running of the course was concerned was the selection of candidates, who were chosen through a competitive examination of science *baccalauréat* holders. The examination included psychotechnology, French comprehension and mathematics and there was an oral on motivation. The National Labour Departments were involved in the organisation. More than 50 candidates sat it and 12 of them were given places, as were three SNTN staff who had also taken the examination.

Selection took place in November 1986 and the course began in January the following year. There was intensive training in the classroom for the first seven months and then students underwent a series of traineeships, first to get to know the firm and then with a view to systematic furthering of the knowledge of the various aspects of operation and the duties that had to be done.

At the end of the first year, students had to write a paper on a subject of technical or commercial interest. They were expected to investigate and put forward arguments about their chosen topic and each had the help of a senior company manager. The subjects covered included:

— The conditions of operating controlled-temperature transport in Niger.

— A Zinder urban network creation project.

— Economic fuel management, analyses and proposals.

— Opening a transport route to Algeria.

— How the asphaltting of roads affects direct costs.

Lastly, since March 1987, students have been working satisfactorily in the various centres, as follows:

Arlit	2
Parakou	2
Niamey	4
Dosso	2
Zinder	1

EDF support

One of the EDF's priorities in Niger is to develop the roads, essential if trade is to be expanded and the people guaranteed proper supplies of food—which means an efficient logistical set-up to bring in international emergency aid if circumstances are as they were in 1983 and 1984.

So there is nothing surprising about the fact that the EDF had no hesitation in backing up an operation aimed at boosting the main transport company in the land and offering high-level training opportunities and an opening to young people. It financed certain investments (teaching materials and office equipment) and, above all, it covered the operating costs, the course grants, the external subcontracting and

the permanent extension staff, a total commitment of CFAF 111 153 000 (ECU 336 240).

But there is more to it than financial support. The Commission Delegate and the advisers in charge of the programme have had the opportunity to meet students and instructors. They have attended orals when students presented their papers and have thus been able to assess the level of the output. And lastly, the Delegation gets regular details of how the course is going from the SNTN's administrative and educational reports.

The key factors of success

1. The political will of the Director-General of the SNTN, Mr Ousmane, who promoted the operation and is monitoring it closely.
2. The very stringent groundwork and monitoring by the Sirtès consultancy.
3. The installation of a permanent coordinator in charge of the educational management of the course.
4. The objective method of selection through competitive examination.
5. The involvement of the whole framework of the SNTN which, at the instigation of its Director-General, has spared no effort in passing on all its knowledge.
6. Student status that has acted as an incentive by only offering permanent employment to students with the required results and record of conduct. Three youngsters from the original batch of 15 did not live up to expectations and were invited to drop out.
7. Financial help from the EDF, which meant that the training could be offered in optimum conditions.

Outlook

The EDF has backed up a professional training operation in Niger that is properly designed for the target trainees and carefully prepared and managed. It is in line with the needs of a firm working in a strategic sector and offers a stable outlet for young job-seekers. In view of the potential this kind of operation offers for the national economy and labour force, it should be encouraged. The human investment involved is, of course, an onerous one—but this is the price of success. ◊

R.G.



Technicians should be recruited to take over the supervisory posts, particular those at the head of operation centres.

Togo's fabric-makers —modernisation and return to source—

by G. DELAHAYE (*)



Weavers at Kri-Kri

Craftsmen who make and decorate fabric have always had an important part to play in the African domestic economy. Indigo dyeing techniques and the weaving of cloth and ritual garments are activities that are closely tied up with the cultural life of the people, the vast majority of whom are very attached to their traditions.

In Togo, for example, weaving is an integral part of the life of the Cotokoli of the central region. Combined with farming, it is still an essential source of income for many of the villagers.

African governments are aware of the importance that this kind of craft may have for the economic balance of some regions and they have often taken an interest in the future of these traditional activities.

For some years now, Togo has seen its fabric sector decline to a certain degree and for a number of reasons, the main one of which is certainly the increasing rarity of raw materials. Local yarn, which the weavers gradually dropped, was replaced by imported yarn of what was often poor quality and colour.

The craftsmen were faced with material problems and they had to survive as best they could, putting their threads further apart and using the cheapest labour they could find. So weak children of four to seven wove limp fabrics which had very little in common with the products of former times.

In this worrying situation, the Togolese Government called on the Euro-

pean Community for assistance from the 5th EDF to pay a craft textile specialist to help the authorities make a precise diagnosis of what was wrong and pave the way for a revival of this artisanal activity.

The technical assistance mission, under the authority of the Directorate for Industry and Craft at the Ministry for Planning (now the Ministry for Industry and State Companies) was successful.

It began with an inventory of what these craftsmen produced, region by region, collecting samples of the work and investigating the constraints and problems they had to cope with. The inventory became a catalogue, now housed in the Directorate for Craft, where it provides a picture of the wealth and variety of Togo's fabric making.

The cloth varies widely, with different characteristics in different regions and tribes — with the Cotokoli and the Ewe in the lead.

The Cotokoli, who are very marked by Islam, are mainly weavers of pagnes, ceremonial boubous and working clothes, which they produce in shades of indigo on rudimentary Sudanese looms which the Hausa, the Mossi, the Gando and the Yoruba have introduced over the years. These looms have four uprights banged into the earth and various cross pieces and the framework supports the moveable parts (the roll of cloth, the heddle, the shuttle etc) which the weaver takes

back into his hut every night after work. The warp threads, taut across wide spaces in streets and village squares, are held by flat stones which slide on the ground every time the cloth is rolled.

One of the features of the weaving of these men is the narrowness of the fabric they produce, which is rarely more than 12 cm across. The bands are then lined up side by side and sewn together to make pagnes or clothes. The main garment of the Cotokoli is the houbou, a wide tunic, often with (now synthetic) silk embroidery round the collars and sleeves.

The yarn always used to be local cotton hand-spun by the women. Dyers coloured it with wild or cultivated indigo and the colours were always very similar, contrasting ecru and deep indigo, for example, with one or two intermediate shades, but always blue. The Cotokoli of Togo have lost this tradition (which still thrives among the Bariba in northern Benin and the Hausa in northern Nigeria) and now only use imported machine-spun yarn which is, alas, not of the same quality.

The yarn used by the Ewe, in southern Togo, has always been imported. At the moment, it comes from neighbouring Nigeria and Ghana in the main. It is finer than the yarn used in the north and sometimes mixed to form mottled strips that are then sewn alternately with plain or horizontally-striped bands. These Ewe weaves, called "Glacévo" (glacé fabric) are

Data sheet on the craft technical assistance mission

Duration: January 1985 to April 1987 (one expert)

Duties: 1. To evaluate technical and economic requirements and inventory the craftsmen and their products.

2. To produce a technical and economic feasibility study of Togolese yarn and to test dye.

3. To start up Togolese yarn production and study the domestic market.

4. To test and distribute the new yarn, develop prototype looms and organise Togo's first national weaving salon.

Partners: About 1000 craftsmen/craftswomen.

Geographical areas: Mainly the north and south-west.

First indication of economic return: Togolese 1/10 yarn costs CFAF 1950, whereas imported 2/25 yarn (to the weaver) costs about CFAF 3500.

Marketing Handicraft from Developing Countries (*)

This is a simply-written, friendly, practical guide to the exporting of handicrafts, aimed at producers who know that they can produce, but who may be unaware of the complexities of exporting. It is aimed, in the first place, at "the non-professional person involved in a handicraft project" and is a veritable store-house of information. It would be no exaggeration to say that reading this book could well be decisive for many ACP handicraft producers. It may be that after reading the book, they will have confirmed their worst fears that exporting is too complex a matter for them, and leave it to an expert in their own country. But it may be that they feel that they could be justified in going ahead and, using the advice and contacts set out in the book's 180 pages, they will make a success of what might have been a perilous venture.

The book is divided into three parts: the first part is about the market, its structure, rules and methods of operation; these include product definition, market research, distribution systems, analyses of sales outlets, customs, health and safety regulations, and so on. It concentrates the mind wonderfully. Where would you sell wooden bowls? That depends on their size, their shape and the design; it might be a florist, an interior decorator or a tobacconist. Help is given to the potential exporter to define for himself what he wants to do. The second part of the book is about reaching the market, how to exploit the opportunities and avoid the problems to be faced. This section covers sales trips, trade fairs and so on, but begins right at home with hints on how to design clear, informative company letterheads and how to choose a name and a logo. The final section of the book is about organising for export; pricing, packaging, despatching, invoicing, credit terms and so on.

Because it reads easily and because the complex business of export marketing is set out in such a logical progression, the casual reader may be tempted to believe that exporting is as easy as reading about it. The author warns time and again that exporting comprises numerous steps and "it is impossible to master each step completely". The book is completed by several appendices which list sources of external assistance, trading organisations that specialise in handicrafts, trade promotion offices, specialist publications, trade fairs and even a facsimile EUR 1 form.

If there is a quibble about the book, it is that the EEC is barely mentioned and not mentioned accurately, while the CDI is not mentioned at all. Perhaps the third edition of this excellent book will remedy these two small omissions.

(*) B. Dembitzer: *Marketing handicraft from developing countries - A handbook for producers* (ed. Dembitzer, 82 Tachbrook street, London SW1 2NB, 2nd edition, 1987).

often decorated with brightly coloured motifs of artificial silk from Lagos, which the weavers can buy on the big market in Lomé.

Almost all the Ewe weavers are also familiar with the Kente technique of the Ashanti tribe in neighbouring Ghana. Kente pagnes are more colourfully worked and made of two alternate, repeated patterns. When the bands of fabric are assembled to make the pagne, the motifs fall in such a way as to form a staggered pattern.

Ewe looms are slightly more sophisticated than the Cotokoli looms. They consist of uprights nailed to a wooden base, so the Ewe weaver can move his loom about, whereas the Cotokoli has to stay where the uprights are banged into the earth. The Ewe weavers also work in a more comfortable position, seated on a small bench, while their counterparts in the north sit on the ground on a cushion.

There are other Togolese who weave—the Akebou, (who originally came from Burkina Faso), on the forest-covered plateau of the same name in the south west, and the Anufo, mainly in Mango, in the Savanes region.

In both the Savanes and Kara, in northern Togo, women weavers predominate. Kabyé and Moba weaves are different from cloth made by men in their width, the weaving techniques involved and the type of loom used to make them.

Some Kabyé women still weave on traditional looms made of two tree-trunks leant against the wall of the hut, crossed with palm ribs tied with cords. The yarn is rolled continuously around these cross beams and the cloth may be anything up to 1 m 30 wide.

Weaving is a much more recent activity among the Moba women of the Savanes area. Their looms are made of iron, so the threads can be pulled taut and closer-meshed cloth can be produced, looking rather like the mattress ticking we would use to cover, say, a chaise longue. This rep has multicoloured stripes and two panels 65 cm wide are usually sewn together to form a pagne.

A rapid conclusion after an overall look at the weaving scene in Togo is that the biggest brake on development



Dyeing a handwoven skein of cotton in a vat of indigo



Mr Lorenzo Natali, Vice-President of Commission of the European Communities being shown the prototypes of looms developed by Mr Gilbert Delahaye, the technical assistant in charge of implementing the project, during the exhibition of "Togolese weaving" on 15 April 1987. On his left, Jean-Paul Martin, EEC delegate to the Republic of Togo and Mr Kossi Konon, director Arts and Crafts at the Ministry of Industry and State Companies

is the poor supply of yarn. A technical and economic study clearly reveals the advantages attendant on creating Togolese yarn — better quality spinning and above all dying, lower production costs, lower transport costs and no customs duties to pay.

The project was run with all this in mind. The technical assistant who was at the Dadja textile plant for a short while, perfected the textures and colours of the yarn for the weavers in the light of their traditional weaves. The next stage was to get the weavers to test samples of the yarn and make cloth — which was bought by the project and proved to be of a far better standard than the fabric currently being turned out. Two selling points were opened for the weavers to get their supplies. The craftsmen's keenness to buy yarn produced in Togo, which was cheaper and better than imported yarn, is proof of the success of the efforts of the past two years. The training side of the project is an essential part of the development of Togolese weaving. The idea is to get the weavers to rediscover the know-how of times past and, with this in mind, to improve the looms and weaving techniques — without affecting the originality of a traditional craft rooted in the mists of time. The project also dealt with marketing the goods and, if production is encouraged and developed, outlets should be found on the national market and abroad.

Togo's hitherto non-organised craft weavers recently had the opportunity to display their talents at a sale of work in Lomé in April. The event coincided with the official visit to Togo of Mr Lorenzo Natali, Vice-President of the EEC Commission, and it was widely reported in the media, so the general public, which so often ignores the potential of these craftsmen, was able to be put in the picture. In particular, contact was established with architects, decorators and designers.

This Togolese weaving exhibition was also an opportunity for the authorities to respond to an invitation to take part in the Paris Fair at the World Craft Salon.

The export market will be reached once a "collection" worthy of the name has been set up to tour and inform foreign buyers and there is a cooperative to handle the orders. © G.D.

Africans taking their skills back home (*)

In its January 1983 issue (No. 77), *The Courier* took a look at a "brain drain in reverse" pilot project which aimed to help skilled Africans, trained abroad, to return to their home countries. The project was then just getting off the ground. In 1986 it was completed, and it seemed worthwhile keeping our readers informed of the results, as described in the following article by the Inter-governmental Committee for Migration, the body responsible for carrying out the project. Accompanying the ICM's description is an account of the project as told by one of its beneficiaries, based on his personal experience.

In spite of considerable efforts made by African countries to improve their national manpower capacity and promote economic and social development, shortages and imbalances of skilled manpower continue to hamper the implementation of national development plans.

An important potential source of qualified manpower, often insufficiently explored and used, is the considerable number of trained African nationals living in industrialised countries or in other developing countries with a surplus of certain categories of qualified manpower.

In order to promote the return of qualified African nationals residing abroad, ICM, set up in 1983 a pilot project — reintegration of qualified

African nationals. Financed by a grant of ECU 3 300 000 from the EEC, it covered Kenya, Somalia and Zimbabwe. Carried out by ICM, the project was to provide for the return to Africa, over a 4-year period, of 300 Africans who had received high-level training, or acquired specialised knowledge or skills in industrialised countries.

ICM's basic tasks under the project have been to identify the requirements for qualified personnel; to carry out recruitment campaigns in industrialised countries, to locate potential returnees; and to pre-select candidates, the final selection being made by the employer in the receiving country.

The EEC pilot project on the reintegration of qualified African nationals completed its 4-year term in December 1986. The Government of Kenya and ICM jointly organised a seminar to evaluate its results, which took

place in Nairobi from 1-4 December 1986. Attending the seminar were representatives of international regional organisations, i.e., EEC, ECA and OAU, as well as ICM. Not only were the benefitting countries represented, but also other African countries which have shown great interest in the project: Ghana, Uganda, Tanzania and Zambia.

From the inception of this project in January 1983, ICM has assisted over 300 African nationals to return to Africa.

Among the returnees:

- 41% have a master's degree or a doctorate, 29.5% are technicians, 25.7% possess a bachelor's degree;
- 57.9% are working in the public and semi-public sectors, 42% in the private sector;
- the majority (50.7%) have been placed in community, social and personnel services, 21.5% in financing, insurance and business services and 13.9% in manufacturing industry;
- 83% consider the jobs given them on their return to be commensurate with the professional experience they acquired abroad;
- 69.2% of the returnees consider that they transfer their knowledge and experience directly to their colleagues and 29.2% that their knowledge and experience is transferred indirectly to other persons;
- 34% of the returnees are women;
- the caseload of returnees covers a wide variety of professions such as business managers and administrators, economists/political scientists, chemists, engineers, nutritionists, accountants, social scientists/social workers, architects, computer analysts, geologists, veterinarians, lawyers, physicians, journalists/TV specialists, teachers, agricultural scientists, nurses and paramedical personnel, graphic designers, quantity surveyors, technicians and biologists.

The results of the pilot project have proved that the reintegration of na-

(*) Article provided by the ICM (Inter-governmental Committee for Migration), 17 route des Morillons, Case postale 100 - CH 1211 Geneva, Switzerland.

What is ICM?

The main objectives of ICM are:

- the processing and movement of Refugees and/or Displaced Persons to countries offering them resettlement opportunities;
- the handling of orderly and planned migration to meet specific needs of emigration and immigration countries; and
- the transfer of specialised human resources to promote the economic, educational and social advancement of developing countries.

Since its inception, ICM has arranged the processing and movement of 3.8 million persons — 2.8 million refugees and 1 million national migrants.

The organisation provides a wide range of services to refugees and national migrants in an economical and efficient manner and in accordance with the interests of both emigration and immigration countries. This task

is performed in both the departure and receiving countries. It includes the preparation of documentation, language training and cultural orientation, medical screening, travel arrangements, embarkation, reception, placement and integration assistance as may be required.

ICM functions on a global basis — in Europe, the Americas, Asia, Africa and the Middle East.

A part of ICM's programme for the transfer of specialised human resources includes what ICM calls Return of Talent. This programme, in fact, represents a reverse "Brain Drain". In meeting the requisites of this particular programme, ICM identifies specific needs for qualified personnel in developing countries, recruits suitable candidates in industrialised countries, effects the necessary documentation and processing, arranges transportation, reception and placement, and in some cases provides professional equipment and tops up salaries.

tional skilled manpower residing abroad is possible even under the difficult socio-economic conditions prevailing in many African countries. Also, the collection of over 550 job offers in Africa and more than 1 000 applications of qualified African nationals wishing to be assisted and placed in jobs in Africa demonstrates the need for this type of project.

During the evaluation seminar in

Nairobi, it became evident that the ICM programme for the return of qualified African nationals contributes to the self-sufficiency of the countries, and opens the bottleneck in the private and public sectors by returning nationals who represent key manpower — professors, managers, specialised doctors. The programme has a long term multiplier effect by stimulating greater use of national resources and enabling other

personnel to be more productive. The permanent return of national experts has more impact and is more economically viable than the temporary placement of foreign expatriates. The enhanced role and utilisation of qualified national personnel should therefore be supported further. Several African countries have requested from the EEC the continuation and extension of the programme. ◊

“My return home through the EEC/ICM Programme of Return of Talent to Africa”

I am Somali and had been living in the Federal Republic of Germany for 13 years continuously from 1972 to 1984. I came back home at the beginning of 1985 through the EEC/ICM Programme of “Return of Talent” to Africa.

During my stay in Germany, I was a student, although I did undertake some part-time work occasionally. In early 1981, I completed my studies at the University of Göttingen and attained a Master's Degree in Economics.

Having finished my studies, I began worrying about my future prospects. I was reluctant to leave a country in which I had spent a good deal of my time and which I had almost adopted as something like a second home. In that time, I had adapted myself to the characteristic way of life of that country and had cultivated deep-rooted relationships and acquaintances. On the other hand, I had alienated myself from my ethnic roots back in Somalia due to my protracted absence. During that long time I realised that the friendships and acquaintances of my schooldays had fizzled out and completely disappeared.

These facts combined to deter me from going back to my country of origin after graduating from the university. I tried to find any possible reason to defer my return home. Directly after my graduation, I enrolled in post-graduate courses for a further year and a half. I then started working in the Accounts Department of a construction company in Hamburg.

Towards the end of 1984, I came

to learn about the ICM returnee programme, specifically designed for the repatriation of professionally qualified Africans residing abroad. I immediately contacted their branch office in Bonn. There I met the Head of the office who explained the programme and the prerequisites of acceptance to me. He also informed me that the Somali Government had signed an agreement with ICM in 1983 which made Somali nationals eligible for inclusion in the programme and he recommended me to apply for it.

Following his advice readily, I seized the opportunity, as I saw that this offered me the best chance to be reintegrated in the work and social life of my home country. My documents were then forwarded to the ICM representative in Somalia who contacted a local consulting agency called Sahmis Consulting Company Ltd. which was looking for a qualified economist, preferably with foreign service experience. The ICM Head of Mission in Mogadishu acted as an intermediary between the Sahmis Company and myself and secured an employment contract for me. The security of employment in Somalia, together with guaranteed supplementary financial support for a specified initial six-month period through ICM, gave me the incentive to return home immediately.

In May 1985, I assumed my position with Sahmis Company Ltd. where I was responsible for the preparation of feasibility studies of projects for smallscale private enterprises. I also assisted the manager of

the company in counselling our clients on their systems of estimating costs and pricing products.

Having reconsidered the prospects for my future career, I deemed it right to shift my career to the public service sector. Accordingly, in April 1986, I joined the Ministry of Foreign Affairs where I am now an officer in the Department for International Organisations.

Now that two years have elapsed since my return, I feel that I am totally reintegrated into the fold of the Somali society and I can hardly imagine living abroad for a long time. I wish to mention here my appreciation for being included in the ICM programme.

If I may comment on the role the EEC/ICM returnee programme plays in assisting the repatriation of professionally qualified African nationals to their respective home countries, I sincerely believe that it is an excellent project which can help mitigate the acute shortage of qualified manpower which is a constant nagging constraint in those countries. In principle, it is quite safe to say that no country should rely in the long run on expatriates for technical assistance if it aims to achieve sustained national development. In the event that African professionals return home and replace foreign experts, they can contribute considerably to the economic and social development of their nations.

Lastly, I wish to express my heartfelt gratitude for the invaluable support and guidance extended to me by the ICM representative in Somalia, particularly during the transitional period of my homecoming. ◊

Salad Mohamed Geesey
Mogadishu, Somalia

WORLD BANK: World Development Report 1987

The World Bank has recently published its 10th "World Development Report", focussed on a study of the "barriers" to growth of the world economy, and on the relationships between industrialisation and external trade. Below is a summary of the Report prepared by the IBRD. The proposals are those of the World Bank, some of which call for discussion, e.g.: the correlation between "outward orientation of trade" and "growth". Is it — as the Report says — the proof of a causal relationship? Are there factors other than outward trade orientation (such as the geographical position, availability of skilled labour, wage levels, ...) which intervene decisively in the processes of growth? Is the choice of the countries in the sample studied by the World Bank significant? As it is set out in the Report, does not the way of computing the level of outward orientation of the markets cast doubt upon the conclusions which are drawn from it? Is it now possible to speak in terms of economic aspects of trade liberalisation, without taking into account its social costs?

Those are some of the problems raised by a reading of the Report, besides the one—dealt with in the box at the end—relative to the relations between the Lomé Convention and ACPs' international trade.

The global economic recovery that began in 1983 continues to slow down and, unless governments take action, economic stagnation, if not decline, lies ahead.

This prospect is presented in Part I of *World Development Report 1987*, published by the World Bank. Part II of the Report explores the role of foreign trade in the industrialisation process. It concludes that countries that followed outward oriented trade policies have, on average done better in terms of industrialisation and growth than those countries which have heavily protected domestic industries.

The world economy

The recent economic recovery produced real GDP growth of 4.6% in the industrial countries in 1984 along with a 5.1% increase in real GDP for the developing countries. Those growth rates had declined in 1986 to an estimated 2.5% and 4.2% respectively. During this period, current account imbalances among industrial countries have remained large, and real interest rates continue at historically high levels. On the positive side, inflation has been kept low in most industrial countries and many have also cut their fiscal deficits, although more needs to be done. But low commodity prices and

reduced lending by commercial banks have inhibited restoration of growth in the highly indebted countries. At the end of the year, the debt problems of both sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America appeared as daunting as ever.

High and low cases

The Report presents alternative paths of future growth based on policy changes that need to be adopted by both developed and developing countries. If such changes are adopted—and there are political constraints that might prevent their adoption—annual growth in real GDP in the industrial countries could average 4.3% for the period 1986-1995. Developing countries in this scenario could average annual growth in real GDP of 5.9% for the period. In the absence of reform, the Low case scenario projections are only 2.5% for the industrial countries and 3.9% for the developing countries.

The High case path is within what has been achieved in the past two decades but assumes a number of significant adjustments. Fiscal and international payments imbalances would need to be reduced in a way that maintains growth in the industrial countries. Unemployment in the in-

dustrial countries would have to be reduced substantially by 1995 and the recent advance of protectionism in the industrial countries halted. Developing countries would also need to pursue adjustment programmes that stimulate employment and income growth.

The Low case assumes, by contrast, no major policy changes. European unemployment would remain high and the United States would fail to reduce its budget deficit significantly. Protectionism would block further trade liberalisation. It is this set of circumstances which portends stagnation in the global economy and exacerbation of developing countries' debt problems.

Industrialisation

The Report comments that history reveals "no unique path to industrialisation", but suggests several elements that contribute to the process. Expanded agricultural productivity, for example, facilitates the process in four ways: higher rural incomes raise the demand for manufactures; high productivity improves the supply of agricultural raw material for industry; agricultural export earnings can be used to import inputs for industry; and higher productivity also allows new entrants to the labour force to be employed outside agriculture.

Governments, the Report asserts, play an important role in industrialisation. Only governments can provide the legal, monetary and fiscal foundations required, particularly by setting the rules of property and commerce and the respective roles of the public and private sector. They play a major role in building the economic infrastructure—transport, communications, health, education, etc.—on which the economy heavily depends. Governments often intervene to try to improve economic performance, to curtail abuses or to promote the welfare of the poor. But it is in these areas, the Report adds, that interventions prove difficult and efficiency often suffers.

One of the most durable arguments for government intervention, the Report says, is based on the "infant" industry theory, but "many developing countries have offered widespread import protection in the name of support for infant industries in ways likely to frustrate the objectives of the policy".

Figure 1: Classification of 41 developing economies by trade orientation, 1963-73 and 1973-85

Period	Outward oriented		Inward oriented	
	Strongly outward oriented	Moderately outward oriented	Moderately inward oriented	Strongly inward oriented
1963-73	Hong Kong Korea, Republic of Singapore	Brazil Cameroon Colombia Costa Rica Côte d'Ivoire Guatemala Indonesia Israel Malaysia Thailand	Bolivia El Salvador Honduras Kenya Madagascar Mexico Nicaragua Nigeria Philippines Senegal Tunisia Yugoslavia	Argentina Bangladesh Burundi Chile Dominican Republic Ethiopia Ghana India Pakistan Peru Sri Lanka Sudan Tanzania Turkey Uruguay Zambia
1973-85	Hong Kong Korea, Republic of Singapore	Brazil Chile Israel Malaysia Thailand Tunisia Turkey Uruguay	Cameroon Colombia Costa Rica Côte d'Ivoire El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Indonesia Kenya Mexico Nicaragua Pakistan Philippines Senegal Sri Lanka Yugoslavia	Argentina Bangladesh Bolivia Burundi Dominican Republic Ethiopia Ghana India Madagascar Nigeria Peru Sudan Tanzania Zambia

Source: Based on Greenaway (background paper) and World Bank data.

Trade policy

Governments often adopt an inward-oriented strategy that involves heavy protection in order to promote industrialisation. But the evidence suggests that, on average, it seems that countries have industrialised faster under outward orientation—policies that do not discriminate between domestic and foreign producers or markets. A review of 41 countries over a 20-year period (see tables) reveals that the economic performance of the outward-oriented economies has been "broadly superior" in almost all respects to that of the inward-oriented economies. The heavily protected economies fared worse not only in industrialisation and manufactured export growth, but also in agriculture, the study finds.

Outward-oriented strategies pro-

mote the efficient use of resources and evidence suggests they may also have a positive impact on domestic savings rates. These strategies permit economies of scale since the size of the domestic market does not limit the output of firms. By creating a more competitive environment for both the private and public sectors, outward orientation also promotes higher productivity and faster economic growth. The Report suggests outward orientation is always likely to be the best economic choice for developing countries, but this may be politically difficult to implement in the face of increasing protectionism in the industrial countries.

Trade liberalisation

The Report recognises that a number of problems arise in the transition from inward to outward oriented trade

policy. For example, as some activities become more profitable and others less, firms may be forced to contract and workers may be displaced from their jobs, particularly in manufacturing, which is often highly protected. Frequently a factor that has stimulated trade reform, the study contends, is crisis—either of a country's own making or externally caused.

Sustaining trade policy reform for an adequate period has proved essential for success. Also, success is closely linked to liberalisation in capital, labour and domestic product and to macroeconomic policy. The transition is partly a political process and may be vulnerable to changes in the international environment. But there are, the Report maintains, lessons to be learned from earlier attempts to liberalise trade:

Figure 2: Macroeconomic performance of 41 developing economies grouped by trade orientation

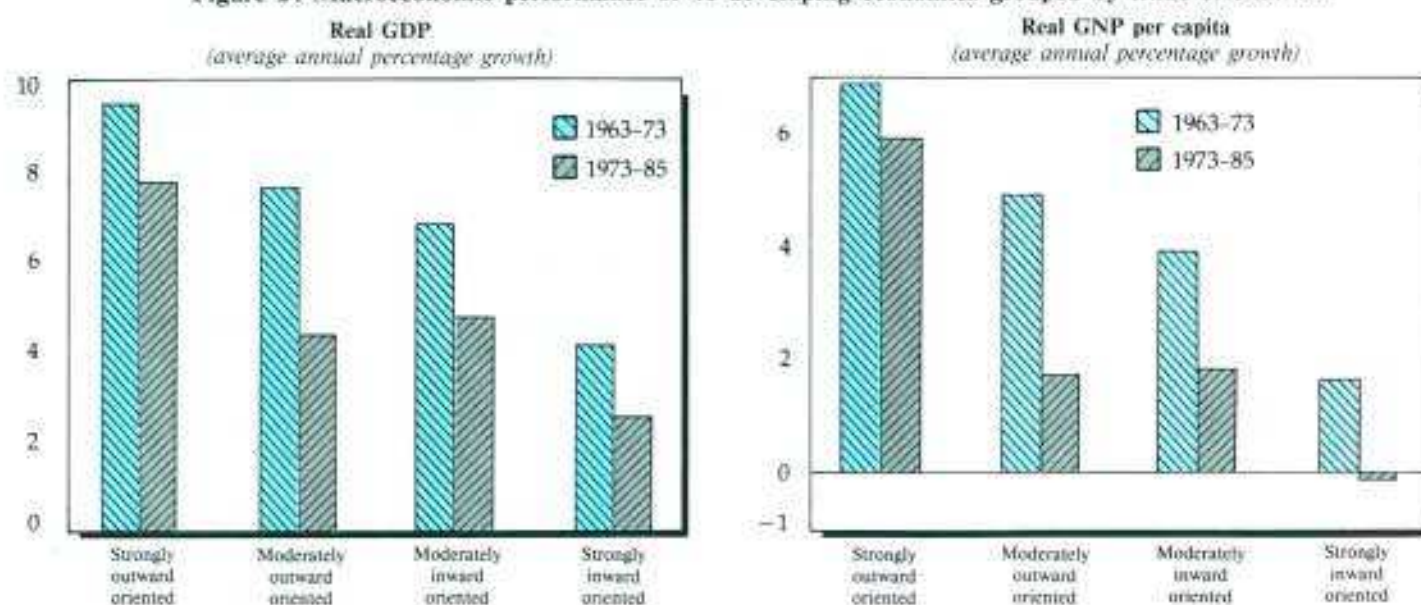


Table: Characteristics of industrialisation for 41 developing economies grouped by trade orientation

Trade strategy	Average annual growth of real manufacturing value added		Average annual growth of real agricultural value added		Average share of manufacturing value added in GDP		Average share of labour force in industry		Average annual growth of employment in manufacturing	
	1963-73	1973-85	1963-73	1973-85	1963	1985	1963	1980	1963-73	1973-84
Strongly outward oriented	15.6	10.0	3.0	1.6	17.1	26.3	17.5	30.0	10.6	5.1
Moderately outward oriented	9.4	4.0	3.8	3.6	20.5	21.9	12.7	21.7	4.6	4.9
Outward oriented (average)	10.3	5.2	3.7	3.3	20.1	23.0	13.2	23.0	6.1	4.9
Moderately inward oriented	9.6	5.1	3.0	3.2	10.4	15.8	15.2	23.0	4.4	4.4
Strongly inward oriented	5.3	3.1	2.4	1.4	17.6	15.9	12.1	12.6	3.0	4.0
Inward oriented (average)	6.8	4.3	2.6	2.1	15.2	15.8	12.7	14.1	3.3	4.2

Note: Averages are weighted by each country's share in the group total for each indicator.

– while trade reform invariably involves shifts in resources, the evidence suggests it has caused considerably less unemployment than is commonly supposed;

– strong and decisive reforms have gained greater credibility and sustainability than timid reforms;

– replacing quantitative restrictions with tariffs is a beneficial first step which stimulates economic activity;

– a sound macroeconomic policy which provides a realistic real exchange rate is vital to the introduction and maintenance of trade reform;

– the scope for success depends on complementary reforms, especially in financial and labour markets.

Trade reform is not easy, the study cautions, but the evidence continues

to build that trade-policy reform will quickly bring benefits at a lower cost than policymakers have sometimes feared.

Protectionism

From the end of World War II to the mid-1970s, protectionism seemed to be on the decline. In this climate trade expanded and developing countries' exports rose fast, from 4.3 percent to 12.4% of world trade in manufactures between 1963 and 1985. There were exceptions to this general atmosphere of trade liberalisation, the Report points out. Trade in agriculture became progressively more distorted by the support given to farmers in the industrial nations. Trade barriers against textiles became more widespread. And, the study notes, against

the broad trend of earlier trade liberalisation, many developing countries retained and increased their import barriers, which remain much higher than those of industrial countries.

In the mid-1970s, the economic climate worsened when oil crises, debt crises, world recession and high unemployment generated increasing demands for protection in industrial countries. Many governments have responded with non-tariff barriers. The report says that some developing-country exporters have been able to penetrate the non-tariff barriers and continue to increase their exports, but not without cost. The main costs of protection, however, fall on the importing country where non-tariff barriers cause higher prices for consumers, lost tariff revenue for government,

inefficient resource allocation and diminished competition.

The Report cites data that indicate that in 1986, 17% of industrial countries' imports were subject to some kind of non-tariff barrier and that these barriers bear more heavily on the major exports of developing countries than on similar exports from industrial countries.

"Protection has not been very successful in maintaining jobs or reducing adjustment costs even in the protected industry", the study observes. "For the economy as a whole, because of the intersectoral and macroeconomic effects, it probably lowered employment. Few jobs have been saved, and the costs have been inordinate."

The Uruguay Round

The proliferation of non-tariff barriers to trade, including voluntary export restraints and subsidies, increases the danger that the fundamental principles of the GATT—non-discrimination in trade and transparency in methods of protection—will be abandoned. Developing countries would stand to lose most in this event and thus have powerful reasons for taking an active part in the newest round of multilateral trade negotiations, launched in Uruguay last September. The Report urges a new commitment to the principles of the GATT and specifically calls for a reduction of barriers to trade in agriculture and for an end to discriminatory trade pacts such as the Multifibre Arrangement. The expanding system of managed trade in steel seems to be following the same path as textiles, the study warns, stating that "eventually, the members of the GATT must grasp this nettle if the spread of managed trade is to be halted."

Policy Reforms

"In sum, to improve the world economic outlook and promote efficient industrialisation in developing countries, major policy reforms will be needed," the Report concludes. "Their success will depend to a substantial degree on the commitment of all nations to make the Uruguay Round a success, and on the provision of financial support for the adjustment efforts of the developing countries."

Trade policy reform in sub-Saharan Africa

With independence, many countries in sub-Saharan Africa saw industrialisation as the main route to economic development. Indeed, from 1965 to 1973 the region's industry grew at 14% a year and played a leading role in economic progress. But this changed dramatically in the 1970s. Industrial growth slowed to 5% a year between 1973 and 1980 and was negative between 1980 and 1985. Industries were plagued by massive excess capacity, and exports remained a small part of output. The sector had consumed a great deal of foreign exchange for little benefit in jobs or output. This rapid decline was part of an overall deterioration of African economies, which included the stagnation of agriculture.

The disappointing performance of manufacturing in Sub-Saharan Africa was the result of several complex factors. Formidable resource constraints, which included a critical shortage of local skills and inadequate infrastructure, combined with inappropriate policies to create high-cost and inefficient manufacturing industries. Among the policies that contributed to this were:

- **Exchange rate policies.** Most African countries maintained overvalued exchange rates. The weighted index of the real effective exchange rate for all sub-Saharan countries appreciated by 75% between 1974 and 1984. (In comparison, the index for Asia depreciated by 26% over the same period.) This hurt export profitability and discouraged investment in export industries.

- **Tariffs and quantitative restrictions on imports.** Shortages of foreign exchange, caused by the overvaluation of exchange rates, led governments to restrict imports through tariffs and quantitative restrictions. This protected domestic manufacturers from foreign competition and fostered inefficient local production. Smuggling flourished, aided by a booming black market for foreign exchange. For some

industries, smuggling and overvalued exchange rates have in fact led to negative or uncertain protection.

- **Price controls.** Governments controlled the prices of products subject to import controls in order to prevent local manufacturers from making excessively high profits. Where they were effective, price controls merely discouraged domestic production; but often they were ineffective, and black markets emerged for several controlled items.

- **Nationalisation.** Several countries nationalised foreign or joint ventures, discouraged investment from abroad, and became less hospitable to private domestic investors.

The combination of these policies proved extremely damaging to industrial growth and efficiency. High protection and precious little domestic competition often permitted large profits in protected industries. Technological development languished. With time, industries became less competitive internationally. When oil prices rose in 1979 and the international recession followed, sub-Saharan countries were plunged into a foreign exchange crisis. Policies intended to cope only made matters worse. In recent years firms have been starved of inputs, profits have plummeted, and real wages have fallen in the formal manufacturing sector.

Reforming the exchange rate and trade regimes may not produce an immediate increase in export growth; but such measures will at least improve the efficiency of investment and production.

Since the early 1980s there has been a fundamental shift in the policies of some sub-Saharan countries. The success of these changes is difficult to judge, since most are recent and several are incomplete. Several countries have substantially devalued their currencies.

Nigeria made radical policy changes in 1986. It abolished the compulsory sur-

render of export proceeds and the licensing of imports and introduced a more moderate tariff structure. (Further tariff reforms and the removal of some import bans are yet to come). The demand for foreign exchange is now largely met by authorised dealers (mainly commercial banks). They purchase the auctioned proceeds of oil exports and foreign loans and buy other foreign exchange earnings directly from their customers. In *Ghana* reform is proceeding almost as rapidly. The government devalued the Cedi several times before it began to auction foreign exchange, a practice that is being steadily extended to all merchandise imports. To complement this, the government has taken measures to liberalise imports and promote exports.

Mauritius dismantled its quantitative restrictions on imports within the space of 15 months. It has since enjoyed an export boom and an economic upsurge. Contributing factors were the recovery in international markets, the promotion of export processing zones, and the country's improved competitiveness after a devaluation and a period of wage restraint.

Zaire's devaluation in 1983 and its subsequent move to a market-determined exchange rate have already provided a stimulus to exports. These reforms are to be followed by lower import tariffs and the abolition of all export duties and other taxes on manufactured exports. Finally, *Côte d'Ivoire*, *Senegal*, and *Togo*, are rationalising their tariff structures, *Malawi* is promoting exports through better duty rebate systems and improved export credit and insurance facilities, and *Burundi* is eliminating all export taxes on locally manufactured products.

There is ample scope in the rest of sub-Saharan Africa for trade and exchange rate reform. Such reforms would need to be supported both by other policy changes that allow a greater role for domestic competition and by the provision of adequate infrastructure, skills, and institutional support. With a policy environment conducive to efficient industrial development, there is no reason why the sub-Saharan countries cannot compete in international markets and benefit from the advantages of international trade. □

The Lomé Convention and ACP trade

The 1987 edition of the World Development Report which deals with the general subject of industrialisation and external trade, has a box on ACP-EEC trade—in Chapter 9; in fact, under the heading "the Lomé Convention". Washington experts give a brief rundown on the system of trade and a critical analysis of the results.

The very shortness of the text leads to oversimplification and what are sometimes hasty judgements. The authors, lacking adequate knowledge of the provisions and machinery of Lomé, have also made a certain number of mistakes and their argument is not without contradictions.

The negotiators of the Convention will be surprised to see Lomé presented as a simple "preferential treatment" that only offers one or two opportunities for flexibility and exemption over the generalised system of preferences (GSP), while they have based the ACP-EEC system of trade on the principle of *free access*. Free access to the EEC is in fact guaranteed for all industrial products originating in the ACP countries and for the vast majority of their agricultural produce, thanks to exemption from customs duties, quantitative restrictions and any taxes or measures with equivalent effect. The contractuality of the system, the particularly liberal rules of origin, and the whole range of precautions surrounding the safeguard clause—which, let us not forget, has not once been used since Lomé I took effect in 1975—make Lomé a highly stable and open trade agreement, so far without parallel in North-South relations.

The authors also criticise Lomé and, through it, all "preferential" agreements, on the ground that these particular systems apparently make for distortion in world trade and work against countries which do not benefit from them. Although according trade preferences establishes a *de facto* hierarchy between the beneficiaries of the various systems, remember that the preferences accorded to the developing countries are in accordance with Part IV of GATT and that their very purpose is to take account of the different levels of development and make up for the lack of competitiveness in the less developed nations. The preferences granted to some are by no means taken away from others—as is clear from the fact that non-ACP developing countries have regularly increased their share of Community markets since 1975. Differ-

entiation is, on the contrary, a positive feature of the trade policy that the Community uses to help both the ACPs and the non-ACP developing nations which get special preferences in the Community GSP.

It is difficult to assess the effectiveness of Lomé for ACPs from the results of their trade with the Community and a sound knowledge of statistics is called for. It is quite wrong to claim that ACP-EEC trade has waned under Lomé. It has increased regularly, in fact, in terms of both value and volume, since 1970. What is clear, however, is that it has not increased as fast as EEC trade with other developing countries—so the ACPs' relative share of the Community market has decreased.

This decrease is obviously not due to the ACP-EEC system of trade, which has in fact kept it down. Studies over the past few years (*) suggest it is more the fault of a series of problems which the ACPs themselves have had to face—oil shocks, for example, climatic disasters and unsuitable economic policies, which have led to a decline in competitiveness.

However, Lomé has enabled some ACP countries to diversify the structure of their exports to the EEC and, in particular, to boost their sales of manufactures. Since 1975 the ACPs as a whole have gradually managed to diversify their export markets too—which shows that Lomé has not perpetuated the traditional geographical distribution.

At all events, it must be stressed that trade performances have varied considerably from one ACP to another and that they are influenced by many factors outside the trade system. In view of the flexibility of these factors, many of which cannot be quantified, it would be a mistake to try and isolate the net effect of the ACP-EEC system of trade.

At a time of general concern about the rising pressure of protectionism in the industrialised world and the uncertainty that this brings to bear on export capacity and industrialisation in the developing countries, it would be paradoxical to criticise the Lomé trade system. Its principle of free access, its stability and the security it offers to economic operators indeed make it something it would be as well to encourage in international trade as a whole. □

J.-C. Boidin

(*) See the Kiel study in the *Courier's* dossier on Trade (N° 98, July-August 1986).

The 1986 DAC Report: a mood of greater optimism

"The mood in 1986 turned more positive. This happier frame of mind came from both natural and human interventions. Earlier pessimism stemmed particularly from the constant flow of bad news from Africa and from growing concern about servicing the accumulation of developing countries' debt of 1 000 billion dollars. In both cases there are now generally agreed scripts for dealing with the issues even if there remains a long way to go. For Africa, the year brought a consensus on the policy reforms and other steps which must be pursued to return that continent to a growth track. Similarly, for debt, an agreement on general principles for achieving structural adjustment with growth was achieved. Instead of dwelling on the problems we now have a glimpse of solutions".

So begins the 1986 Annual Report⁽¹⁾ on "Efforts and Policies of the Development Assistance Committee"⁽²⁾, otherwise known as the DAC Report. The words are those of Mr Joseph Wheeler, the Committee's new chairman (see interview *Courier* No. 101), and they reflect the generally more positive mood in which development-watchers found themselves at the end of last year. With the advent of the 1985 rains most African countries were able to shift their attention from hunger to rehabilitation and development. But if nature played a role, so too did man. Nineteen eighty-six, Mr Wheeler goes on to say, was a year of "new articulation of resolve by African leadership", reaching its apotheosis in the unprecedented UN Special Session for Africa, a session of "exceptionally good spirit and high resolve". And, while both the implementation of Africa's determination to reform and of donors' determination to assist remained open questions, the number of new structural adjustment programmes and initial donor commitments was, the Chairman believed, encouraging.

The DAC Report is a fascinating and precious state-of-the-art study of development cooperation as it has functioned in a given year, reflecting the preoccupations and policies of donors and indicating (in its exhaustive statistical annexes) how the bilateral and multilateral donors of the OECD member countries have

(1) Published by the OECD, Paris, 1987.

(2) One of a number of OECD specialised committees whose members have agreed to secure an expansion of the volume of resources made available to developing countries and to improve their effectiveness. The members are: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the UK, the USA and the Commission of the European Communities.

translated those preoccupations and policies into action.

Part I of the report is traditionally reflective—an observations by the Committee's Chairman of the trends in the world of development in the year gone by. Amongst the "emerging perceptions" noted by Mr Wheeler in the 1986 Report—his first—are, for example: that Asia's success story continues... yet most of the world's poor people are in Asia; that we are growing more food than we are eating, but 700 million people do not have enough to eat; that in food strate-

gies, marketing may be the critical issue and that, in 1986, emergency food needs in Africa were significantly affected by civil conflict.

As far as development assistance was concerned, the trend in ODA (Official Development Assistance) in 1986 was towards modest growth, which the OECD Secretariat judges will continue over the next few years. In 1986 total ODA from the DAC countries amounted to US\$ 37 billion, as against \$ 29.4 billion in 1985 (see Table I). This seemingly considerable increase (26%) is to be attributed in large part (19%) to the appreciation of other member countries' currencies against the US dollar. The real increase, allowing for inflation as well as for currency fluctuations, was 2.5%.

Behind the global figures lie a number of changes in aid patterns. Bilateral ODA remained roughly the same as in 1985, but the volume of ODA to the various multilateral agencies rose by some 15%. Marked differences emerged in individual donor aid volumes, with significantly increased volumes recorded for Italy, Denmark, Ireland and Finland, while the contributions of Belgium, France, F.R.G. and the United Kingdom all declined. The United States, though still the biggest

Table I
ODA performance of DAC countries in recent years

Net disbursements	\$ million		% of GNP 1986
	1986 actual (*)	1985 actual (*)	
Australia	787	749	0.49
Austria	197	248	0.21
Belgium	542	440	0.48
Canada	1 700	1 631	0.48
Denmark	695	440	0.89
Finland	313	211	0.45
France			
(incl. DOM/TOM)	5 136	3 995	0.72
(excl. DOM/TOM)	3 511	2 768	0.49
Germany	3 879	2 942	0.43
Ireland	62	39	0.28
Italy	2 423	1 098	0.40
Japan	5 634	3 797	0.29
Netherlands	1 738	1 136	1.00
New Zealand	66	54	0.27
Norway	796	574	1.20
Sweden	1 090	840	0.85
Switzerland	429	302	0.30
United Kingdom	1 750	1 530	0.32
United States	9 784	9 403	0.23
Total DAC	37 021	29 429	0.36

(*) At current prices and exchange rates.

Table II
A. Present position of DAC members regarding the 0.7 per cent aid target

a) Countries now beyond 0.7 per cent of GNP	
Denmark	The ODA/DNP ratio will be raised by 0.03 per cent annually until it reaches 1 per cent in 1992.
Netherlands	Development co-operation budget to continue to represent 1.5 per cent of net national income (of which somewhat more than 1 per cent of GNP for ODA).
Norway	ODA appropriations (which exceed 1 per cent of GNP) are to increase more rapidly than GNP, economic conditions permitting.
Sweden	Aid appropriations to be maintained at a level of 1 per cent of GNP.
b) 0.7 per cent of GNP by a specific date	
Canada	2000.
Finland	1989.
France	as soon as possible after 1988 (DOM/TOM excluded).
Italy	end of the present decade.
c) 0.7 per cent of GNP without a date	
Australia	
Austria	
Belgium	
Germany	
Ireland	
Japan	
New Zealand	
United Kingdom	
d) 0.7 per cent target not accepted	
Switzerland	
United States	

Table IV
AID by major purposes (commitments) 1983-84 average

	Percentage	
	DAC bilateral ODA	Multilateral finance (ODF)
Social infrastructure	20.2	15.6
Education	11.0	4.3
Health	6.0	1.9
Other (including water and sanitation)	3.2	9.4
Economic infrastructure	21.4	31.1
Transport and Communications	10.5	13.5
Energy	10.9	19.6
Production	25.4	38.1
Agriculture	10.7	26.0
Other	14.7	12.1
Programme assistance	5.3	8.1
Special country support	9.4	-
Debt relief	1.4	-
Food aid	7.4	5.5
Other emergency assistance	1.5	-
Contributions to NGOs	4.5	-
Administrative expenses	3.5	n.a.
Total	100.0	100.0
of which:		
Technical Assistance	26.9	
Students and Trainees	3.9	
Other provided in donor country	0.7	
Experts (and related equipment)	15.9	
Other, including research	6.4	
a) Concessional and non-concessional loans plus EEC and WFP grants. No comparable end-use data are available for UN programmes.		

donor in absolute terms, recorded the second lowest aid/GNP ratio (0.12%) of all Members, while the average ratio moved, in 1986, from 0.35% to 0.36%—

still only half the UN target of 0.7% which most Members accept as a medium- to long-term goal (see Table II).

Shifts in the geographical distribution

of aid were also recorded. Africa's aid share, for example, has increased substantially in recent years, as a result of its move to the forefront of international concern and aid priorities, and now absorbs 28.1% of all DAC ODA (see Table III). The pattern of aid distribution by major uses (see Table IV), on the other hand, has remained relatively stable. Economic and social infrastructure continues to absorb the lion's share of aid (principally in the form of finance for capital projects in the transport, energy and agricultural sectors). Almost 30% of the total went to technical assistance costs, nevertheless, by way of the financing of experts working in the field or of the receiving of students and trainees in the donor countries. The very low proportion of aid used for debt relief is to be explained by the fact that debt service burdens arise essentially from commercial borrowing and export credits. The current financial terms of ODA are highly concessional. Here, also, the global figures mask con-

Table III
ODA from all sources by major regions
Commitments, current prices and exchange rates

	1979-80			1984-85		
	\$ billion	% of total	of which: Bilateral from DAC % of total	\$ billion	% of total	of which: Bilateral from DAC % of total
Sub-Saharan Africa	4 472	21.9	29.3	10 683	30.3	28.1
Asia	7 348	36.1	31.7	10 889	30.9	29.1
North Africa and Middle East	5 414	26.6	15.9	7 301	20.7	19.7
Latin America and the Caribbean	2 252	11.0	14.4	4 700	13.3	16.5
Europe and Oceania	906	4.4	8.8	1 684	4.8	6.5
Total	20 392	100.0	100.0	35 257	100.0	100.0

siderable differentiation between individual donors, especially in the share of aid for agriculture and rural development in general. Multilateral agencies were, on the whole, able to devote a higher proportion of their resources to this sector than were the bilateral agencies.

Among the general trends noted in development assistance figures the "lower, but still significant" proportion of Arab/OPEC assistance, the "new stirrings" in South-South cooperation, and the advantage of the NGOs, the "growth sector" in development cooperation, and a sector which is now in markedly better step with the official aid agencies than in past years. Some DAC countries, in fact (e.g. Canada, Switzerland, United States) now channel as much as 10% of their total ODA through NGOs.

In a full chapter devoted to Africa south of the Sahara, Mr Wheeler concentrates his thinking on the Africa of the future and on the various—and numerous—dilemmas that will face the continent's leaders 30 years hence. Amongst such matters of long term importance figure education, food production (a deficit of 50 million tons?), employment, health, urbanisation (a five-fold increase in urban areas?), desertification... and the fundamental issue on which so many of these problems are contingent, population growth (1.1 billion by 2015?).

Examined also are the ways in which the donor community can respond to these issues, particularly by providing support to African low-cost initiatives to deal effectively with human resource development. The most obvious areas of concentration would be in population control (though the report recognises the sensitivity of the issue and avoids that particular word); education; agriculture; employment; urban development; environment; water and health.

Sub-Saharan again receives particular attention in a chapter devoted to a review of trends in external resource flows from 1973-85, with numerous tables indicating the total net receipts of ODA per beneficiary, the net disbursements by donor (see Table V), the percentage of aid allocated to the continent per donor etc.

Part II of the Report, which is the work of the Development Cooperation Directorate, takes a close look at current trends and policy issues in official development assistance, both for the DAC countries as a whole (including trends in aid volumes and functional distribution, financial

Table V
Net disbursements of ODA to Sub-Saharan Africa by donor
1973, 1981-85

	In \$ million at 1984 prices and exchange rates						In percentages of donor programmes					
	1973	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1973	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
DAC bilateral												
Australia	4	36	52	50	43	39	1	7	10	10	8	7
Austria	1	20	13	8	13	15	19	9	9	7	10	9
Belgium	172	179	173	153	160	175	69	67	73	68	71	76
Canada	176	232	268	222	321	338	30	38	40	36	41	45
Denmark	49	79	103	106	121	105	54	52	58	56	63	52
Finland	12	34	41	53	61	66	47	58	61	65	65	62
France	719	1 309	1 193	1 176	1 318	1 255	44	50	47	47	50	47
France (excl. DOM/TOM)	(434)	(781)	(836)	(837)	(975)	(921)	(31)	(35)	(38)	(38)	(43)	(39)
Germany	213	551	588	575	550	579	20	31	32	34	35	34
Ireland	-	6	7	8	8	11	-	96	97	96	96	97
Italy	40	84	149	219	366	445	19	61	60	63	68	68
Japan	39	208	293	288	239	274	2	10	12	12	10	11
Netherlands	63	268	258	232	286	245	18	31	32	38	38	38
New Zealand	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	-	-	-
Norway	40	112	144	153	147	170	54	58	57	57	59	63
Sweden	94	202	224	233	208	222	50	55	53	56	52	57
Switzerland	25	45	55	68	88	94	44	41	45	46	53	54
United Kingdom	225	319	287	258	240	284	31	37	44	41	39	44
United States	272	777	679	795	857	1 276	7	19	15	15	16	19
Total	2 145	4 462	4 527	4 597	5 029	5 593	20	31	30	30	30	30
Multilateral agencies												
IBRD	-	22	12	8	9	6	-	26	20	18	22	18
IDA	200	495	651	592	757	851	17	27	28	26	30	33
AIDF	-	87	106	141	105	24	-	100	91	93	96	100
EDF	390	709	571	538	678	648	67	57	59	53	61	64
UNDP	141	270	234	193	195	221	34	44	41	40	41	43
UNTA	20	30	30	40	35	48	31	34	39	36	39	36
UNICEF	17	58	59	69	77	100	21	29	30	30	34	42
WFP	74	192	176	218	280	349	22	37	30	36	41	45
UNHCR	30	144	117	134	162	216	90	39	37	42	43	53
IFAD	-	13	22	40	43	76	-	21	25	32	28	30
Other Multilateral	17	97	77	80	90	98	26	40	36	40	42	42
Total	889	2 121	2 056	2 054	2 430	2 807	28	34	34	33	36	(40)
OPEC countries and Arab-financed agencies	57	748	937	810	502	513	1	19	17	18	20	24
Grand total	3 091	7 331	7 520	7 461	7 961	8 913	20	29	30	30	31	32

terms, percentage of resources channelled through NGOs etc.) and for individual DAC members.

Of the individual members, Italy, Ireland and the Scandinavian countries show evidence of good performances, while the United Kingdom and the United States rank among those in the "could do better" category.

Broad analyses are also made of the trends in ODA from non-DAC countries such as the OPEC countries.

As regards the multilateral agencies, the present indications are that DAC members' contributions have established themselves in the range of 24-25% of their contributions, or nearly 30% if their

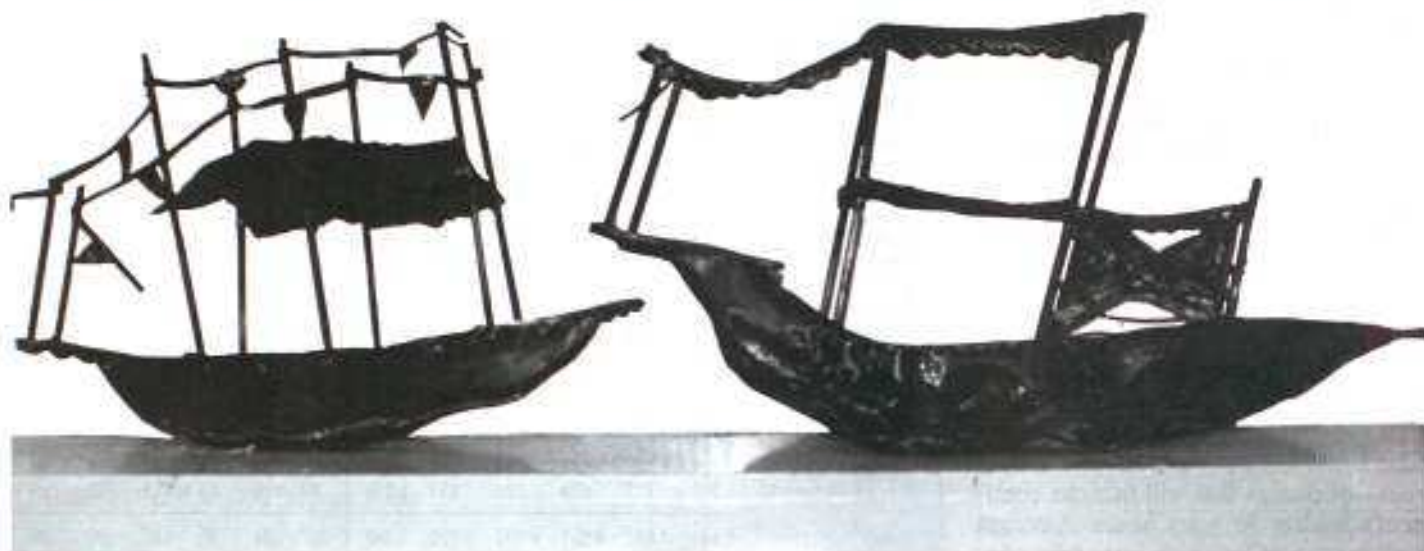
contributions to the EEC are included. (Contributions to the EEC are largely excluded from the report's analysis in this respect, however: the Commission of the European Communities being a member of the DAC, its programmes are viewed here as a form of collective bilateralism rather than as multilateral aid strictly defined).

Finally, in programme and project implementation, donor coordination (obviously a major concern of the Committee itself) continues to be the watchword, and is likely to remain so for some time, at least for as long as the spectre of budgetary restriction haunts the corridors of power of the donor community. □

M.v.d.V.

Kalabari images

Sokari Douglas Camp's exhibition of "impressionistic" sculpture



As you enter the galleried hall of the Africa Centre^(*), where the works of the young Nigerian sculptress, Sokari Douglas Camp, are on display, the visual impact is stunning. This is not an exhibition where, lorgnette in hand, you peer at myriad *objets d'art*. The exhibits here—small in number but huge and imposing in character—force you to stand back, to admire from a distance. And this is how it should be, for the masqueraders they represent, in many cases, hold their audience in awe and to approach them, and especially to touch them, would be to tempt providence sorely.

But the visual impact is not the only one; the exhibition is also immensely noisy. By way of simple mechanical devices ingeniously concealed within the steel structures, the drummers actually beat their drums and the masquerader at the stern of the 20-foot long showboat sculpture is made to dance up and down to the rhythm of the oars, his bells jangling around his ankles, just as they would in "real life".

And in June this year, on Covent Garden's piazza, in the heart of London, it was actually possible to see "real life" as well, as it is lived in the festivals and carnivals of Sokari's people, the Kalabari of the Niger Delta. As a complement to her art, the sculptress brought over 15 drummers and dancers from Buguma, Rivers State (including her uncle, the town drummer) to perform their traditional masquerades—some funny, some flamboyant—to the delight and amusement of the foot-tapping Londoners. As in a real Nigerian festival, the drummers appeared first, beating their wood and hide instruments to indicate that something was about to happen. True, it did not last the three or four days it might have back in Buguma, and, true, the dancers, when they appeared, would not normally have been carrying a Polaroid camera and a copy of *Time Out* (as was one dancer on this occasion), but they were to be forgiven, after all, for finding London as much of a spectacle, perhaps, as London found them...

The masqueraders, linking the living and the dead

And the dancing was splendid. Possessed by their ancestral spirits (and inspired by liquid spirits!) the dancers (from the all-male cult, Sekiapu) swirled around the piazza, gathering from time to time, sticks banging together, to chant a message to the living. For the masqueraders, though they are also meant to entertain, fulfil a religious and educational function, too. As the embodiment of the ancestors, they form a link between the living, the dead, and those yet to be born. Messages from the dead are passed on to the living through the medium of the masquerade, and the tales they tell are frequently cautionary...

Because they are dancing for the gods rather than for their earthly audience, the masks worn face skywards rather than outwards. Indeed, as Michael Crowder says in the catalogue to the exhibition, "they are seen as an integral and not necessarily the principal feature of a masquerade, which, with its elaborate costume of cloth and raffia, is a living sculpture, never viewed statically, but constantly in motion". This sense of motion, he goes on to say, is vividly captured in Sokari's "impressionistic" sculptures,

(*) See box p. 101.

London's Africa Centre

For those not already familiar with the Africa Centre, situated at 38 King Street, a stone's throw from the old Convent Garden market site, its discovery is well worth making. Founded in 1962, at the time of the first African independences, the Centre acts as a major focal point both for Africans living in or visiting Britain and for Britons and others interested in the continent in all its facets.

The building in which the Centre is housed, Hinsley House, was named after the late Cardinal Hinsley, whose interest in race relations was well known and from whose estate the purchase of the building was made. This was not, however, the house's first "African connection"; used since 1939 as an overflow warehouse for the Covent Garden vegetable market, it had, throughout the previous century, accommodated auction rooms in which some notable sales of treasures from Britain's African colonies had taken place.

In the early days of its existence, with large numbers of African students then in London, the Centre fulfilled an important social function. With the passing of the years, these numbers have diminished, and the social aspect—though still important—takes second place to the considerable educational role the Centre now plays.

The range of courses and cultural activities offered is impressive—particularly so since, as an independent organisation, of charitable status, the Centre is far from swimming in money. "African Political Economy" and "The Role of the African Woman in Struggle" were amongst the seminars held in 1986/87. Language classes in Kiswahili, Shona and Zulu were on offer as were evening classes in African Dance. In addition, the Centre stages regular musical or theatrical productions, poetry readings and film showings, as well as putting on monthly exhibitions of the work of African artists. This year, for the first time, the Centre has a resident artist, a young Nigerian sculptress, Sokari Douglas Camp, whose exhibition is the subject of the accompanying article.

In short, as well as being a fount of knowledge of all things African, the Centre does much to broaden perceptions of the continent which are commonly all too narrow. It shows that there is life in Africa beyond the ravages of famine and disaster—and a vibrant, colourful, creative life at that. ◊



Kalabari dancers and drummers — a source of inspiration for Sokari Douglas Camp



not simply by their actual movement, but by their "incompleteness"—the fact that they are not solid forms. "Like the viewer of the masquerade", he goes on, "only fleeting images are captured by the eye, never the totality".

While the masqueraders are a major source of Sokari's inspiration, they are not the only one. The influence of other traditions of her people is apparent in her sculptures of boats, and in particular of the enormous steel showboat

that forms the centrepiece of this exhibition.

Kalabari festivals — a prime influence

Born in Buguma, Sokari Douglas Camp's artistic leanings first appeared, like those of many African children, in her drawings in the sand. At the age of seven she moved to Britain and, apart from a short spell at Ife University, completed her education there, obtain-

ing a first class degree in Fine Arts from the Central School of Art and Design (London) and an M.A. in Sculpture from the Royal College of Art.



The direct inspiration for much of the work in the exhibition in the Africa Centre sprang from the death of her father, and particularly from the wake which followed it. "My boat", she says, "is a hangover from that. It's still eerie and strange. All I've got is plain oars, and one masquerader". Usually, she explains, the festival boats in Rivers State are lavishly decorated. Brought out on great occasions—and usually owned by chiefs, only, because of the high cost of ornamenting and running them—the show-boats, often two stories high, would normally have a masquerader at the centre of the boat, together with a drummer, with the chief and his entourage sitting above, and 30 or so oarsmen below, shouting and splashing the water.

The women: spectators rather than protagonists

The women in her exhibition are a lighter touch. The steel figures are brightly painted, reflecting the elegance and flamboyance of the Rivers State women's dress that Sokari so admires. "The women" she explains, "are cheering spectators. If a show-boat goes past, the women stand on the river bank and cheer. They come out in their best regalia, rooting for their own compound's boat".

And the drummers... "I wanted to make them because drummers usually



"Sculptures" of cheering women. "Like the viewer of the masquerade, only fleeting images are captured by the eye, never the totality"



The sculptress, modelling one of her own hat designs

start off festivals, and most of my work had been connected with festivals. I decided to make these structures that would drum whatever I had made before into any kind of arena". It took some four months to build them, inventing the machinery to make them beat out the rhythm and hollowing out the drums from logs collected from London's botanical mecca, Kew Gardens.

Holding the masquerades at the same time was both a way of making them known to a wider audience and of enhancing understanding of her own sculptures. "I made a point of trying to get outside locations for them to play in, because one of the nicest things about African plays is that you can walk around them and become part of them. There isn't this stage divide that happens in European culture... TV culture... window-viewing, nothing else. The strongest part of the play is that it is in the round".

Inter-cultural influence

Given all this, the impact on her work of living in Europe might seem at first sight to be slight... except that, had she not come to London, Sokari Douglas Camp would probably never have become a sculptress at all. Women in her home country, she says, are not meant to sculpt—or even to carve. Surely, then, her London exhibition is a true product of inter-cultural influence—and a shining example of how such influence can make the world a richer place. M.v.d.V.

Food production around homesteads

by T. M. NARAIN (*)

Food production at the household level is a strategy which is as old as human civilisation and plant and animal domestication. It has not received the attention of planners as its outputs do not appear in official statistics and therefore elude quantification and thus recognition as an important sector. The home garden has a promising role to play in the struggle against hunger and malnutrition as one of the last frontiers for increasing world food production.

What is a household garden?

The concept of household garden production may be misconstrued without a proper definition. Where shifting cultivation is still being practised, the whole area cleared may be devoted to the cultivation of staple food and garden crops with little or no distinction between arable cropping and household garden cropping. However, as the lack of land for growing populations of shifting cultivators becomes increasingly felt, the distinction between the two forms of production becomes clearer.

Apart from social, clinical, ideological and aesthetic considerations, the following definition for household gardens has been formulated⁽¹⁾:

The household garden is a subsystem within larger food procurement systems which aims at production of household consumption items either not obtainable, readily available, or affordable through permanent shifting field agriculture, hunting, gathering, fishing, livestock husbandry or wage earning. Household gardens supply and supplement subsistence requirements and generate secondary direct or indirect income. They tend to be located close to permanent or semi

permanent dwellings for convenience and security.

Food production in gardens is not a feature of rural homesteads only but can occur in urban areas also. Given the opportunity, families provide themselves with enough space around their homes to plant crops and keep animals.

Crops grown and animals kept around households

It is rare to find a family in the rural areas which is not engaged in some form of food production around its home: fruits and vegetables or chicken, rabbits, goats, pigs. What a family decides to produce depends on the interests of the various members of the family and on the space available. This is an area of activity where the woman, normally, has the power of decision. Food preparation for each meal is the responsibility of the woman, who therefore ensures that the area around the home provides the small extras that make the meal enjoyable. It could be eggs, milk, leafy vegetables or fruits. Some vegetable crops are consumed in their leaf form as well as in their root or fruit forms. The edible part of the tomato plant is a fruit which is commonly regarded as a vegetable. The sweet potato plant and taro provide leaves which can be consumed as a vegetable but more commonly it is the root which is eaten. Some creepers, e.g. pumpkin or chayote, provide leaves and fruits which are edible. Vegetables are usually an important ingredient of the diet constituting an important source of protein, vitamins and minerals especially to rural families to whom access to other foods may be limited. They provide a low source of calories and dry matter, and are normally consumed in addition to a starchy basic food in order to make it more palatable, thus having an important role in achieving a balanced diet. Various

herbs and spices are also grown in small quantities which, though not contributing much to food volume, are necessary ingredients in the preparation of sauces to accompany the meals.

Milk and meat can also be produced on a small scale around the household. The animals and birds kept are usually fed on grains and kitchen wastes that would normally not be utilisable. Small animals especially make good use of such roughage and non-edible material derived from agricultural products and convert them into high value products. Meat produced around the household has special significance and is usually reserved for special occasions and does not form part of daily meals.

Keeping a few chickens roaming around the homestead is one of the most important and perhaps the oldest of the livestock activities of all rural families and even urban ones. Chickens are quite important not only as a source of meat and eggs for the family, but also, along with goats, sheep or pigs for use in traditional ceremonies. They thus assume importance in the social and cultural habits of the population.

Though production around homesteads is reserved for family use it is

A sense of satisfaction—a Zambian peasant woman collects eggs from the chicken run near her home



(*) Technical Adviser, CTA.

(1) V. Nizez: Quoted in Food and Nutrition Bulletin, Vol. 7, No. 3, September 1985, p. 1-2.

by no means unusual that an excess is produced for sale to obtain cash or for exchange with neighbours.

Food production in the urban setting

Urban cultivation has become a permanent part of the landscape in many cities of the world. Much to the dismay of city planners, many cities in the developing world currently show growing trends towards squatter housing and informal cultivation of whatever land is available around their dwellings and on those plots awaiting building construction. Whenever the vigilance of health authorities can be escaped, chicken and small animals are also kept. The rural families who have moved to the cities engage themselves in agricultural activities to tide them over their insufficient monetary income. Even when the family earns enough to provide for all its needs, there is nevertheless the desire to grow a few fruit trees, leafy vegetables, herbs and spices, even in earth-filled pots or drums, to ensure a fresh supply of such requirements. The production of milk, eggs or meat in the urban sector is a matter requiring careful consideration as it may represent a health hazard if the disposal of waste is not properly taken care of. Health authorities have rules and regulations governing the rearing of livestock in urban areas and if these are complied with, it is possible to rear small livestock such as rabbits and chicken around urban households.

Growing for self-sufficiency or for "export"

Depending on the resources available, a family may choose to grow only sufficient amounts to feed the family or else may produce a maximum amount disposing of the surplus to earn income. Many household women in the rural sector are also very adept in food processing and conservation. Though, as a rule, household gardens are cultivated in such a way as to avoid storage, by planting a mixture of crops strategically, to ensure a continuous supply over time, there nevertheless occur some eventualities when storage is required. Under tropical humid conditions it is not easy to do so. Seasonal fruit is one example when the tree can produce much more than the family can consume within



Traditional raising of zebus in western Madagascar

the season. Pickling of the green fruit or making jam with the ripe ones are ways of preserving the extra fruits for off-season consumption.

Animal products are also commonly consumed fresh. Some communities have recourse to salting and drying when extra quantities are available. Cold storage, so common in more industrialised societies, is seldom a feature of the developing world except, maybe, in cities.

A major objective of the traditional subsistence mode of production is to produce enough for home consumption and for cultural obligations. The distribution of surplus food among the extended family system or neighbours is a common practice as it is expected that at some time in the future the beneficiary would reciprocate.

The adaptive functions of household gardens can therefore be summarised as:

- producing relatively large amounts of food with marginal labour on areas of land too small for field agriculture
- supplying nutrition lacking in field agricultural production
- providing food, including staples, directly in non-farm settings, especially urban centres, thereby cutting costs and obviating distribution problems
- making food available during periods of crop failure or disruption of food supplies
- providing fodder for household animals and meeting other household-related needs (handicrafts, firewood, petty cash from sale of surplus)
- lending convenience and security through proximity to dwellings
- enabling experimentation with new genetic materials and cultivation techniques before implementation in field agriculture (trial before adoption)
- allowing diffusion of plant genetic

materials and maintaining genetic diversity, and

- guaranteeing household a regular and secure supply of food, petty cash or goods to trade.

Role of research

Considered as a group, fruits and vegetable crops constitute man's richest source of vitamins, minerals and plant proteins. Yet the current yields of most vegetables and fruits in the tropics are far below expectations. Although poor cultural practices and high incidence of insect and disease attack are significant factors in accounting for the low yields, certain crops perform poorly simply because of the high prevailing temperatures. In recent years considerable progress has been made in breeding varieties that tolerate high temperatures. By introducing such improved varieties, there is a possibility of increasing the yield potential of many vegetable and fruit crops.

Information therefore needs to be collected on the improved varieties already under cultivation in the tropics and these must be tested in multilocal trials with a view to selecting the best adapted varieties. The research institutes would then direct their emphasis towards breeding superior varieties for each locality.

Pests and diseases are scourges in the tropics and, because of the costs and health hazards associated with pesticides, greater emphasis must be placed on breeding resistant varieties.

Research must also be directed towards improved crop management practices. Emphasis must be placed on developing new techniques for maintaining soil organic matter, for most vegetables are heavy consumers of or-

ganic matter under tropical conditions. Water management research should concentrate on identifying the most critical stages of plant growth for irrigation. Applying too much water can be as harmful as applying too little, and the timing, frequency, quantity and method of irrigation are all important factors.

Extension and training

There is a tendency for extension agencies to attach greater importance to the major crops and livestock. Though poultry and small animals are within the interests of extension officers, vegetables and fruits are usually left to the initiative of the farmers. There is a need for their interest to include vegetable production technology and training centres established for a wide diffusion of research findings for improved production.

One essential element for extension to be effective is the availability of adequate amounts of seeds of the varieties of fruits and vegetables being recommended. Vegetable seed production requires special skills and facilities often unavailable in many ACP States. Vegetable seeds in the tropics are therefore imported at high cost. There are, however, a few countries where the infrastructure for quality seed production has already been established, and agreements should therefore be made that will allow them to supply their neighbours with a more reasonably-priced alternative. Pathogen-free seeds with a good germination

CTA organised, in collaboration with The Institute for Research, Extension and Training in Agriculture, IRETA, a workshop in Apia, Western Samoa, from 2-5 March 1987 on Appropriate Food Production Systems around Rural Homesteads.

In addition to all ACP members of the Pacific region, the workshop was also attended by Trinidad and Tobago.

The proceedings will be available from CTA later in the year.

capacity are an absolutely vital first step towards encouraging the production of vegetables.

What is true of good quality seeds for promoting fruit and vegetable production applies to the availability of good breeds of livestock for starting small livestock production around rural homesteads.

Strategies to combat hunger and malnutrition in developing countries have been guided in recent years by food security principles. Food security can be thought of at regional, national or household level. It implies not only availability of food supplies, but equally their nutritional adequacy and accessibility to them by the people. Increasing food production at the household level is an important means of fulfilling those strategies.

The economic value of household garden production, though beyond

dispute, is not assessed or quantified. Women are the decision makers in this domain of family life for they are the ones who cultivate or look after animals, feed the produce to their children or sell the extra production for income earning purposes.

Research into improving breeds of small animals and seed quality of improved vegetable and fruit crops and their subsequent extension to farmers will contribute to improving food production around homesteads which has been, so far, a neglected yet very important activity of not only rural families but urban families as well. ◊

T.M.N.

Recent CTA publications

- Realisation of Africa's potential for food production. (Conference synopsis, 18 x 25 cm, 25 pages). Available only in English.

- Sources d'information sur l'agriculture tropicale. Tome I: Communauté Européenne. (Directory, 18 x 23 cm, 180 pages). (Directory of information sources on Tropical Agriculture). Volume I: EC countries). Available only in French.

- Halte à la désertification au Sahel, by Michel Bonfils. (Handbook, 16 x 24 cm, 270 pages). Co-published with Editions Karthala (France). Available only in French.

- Erosion control in the tropics. (Technical handbook, 15 x 21 cm, 73 pages). Co-published with Agromisa (The Netherlands).

- La défense des sols contre l'érosion dans les tropiques. (Technical handbook, 15 x 21 cm, 72 pages). Co-published with Agromisa (The Netherlands). This book is a translation of "Erosion control in the tropics".

- L'apiculture sous les tropiques. (Technical handbook, 15 x 21 cm, 101 pages). Co-published with Agromisa (The Netherlands).



The Betsileo region (Madagascar), whose inhabitants are known for their farming skills

The Courier's... mailbag

Reply

The Joint Assembly is essential in the exercise of democracy in ACP-EEC cooperation. I wonder if P.R. Mac Crimon, who stated in Courier no 103 that you spend too much time on the Joint Assembly, would prefer that cooperation be run by officials without any sort of democratic control?

Andrew Pearce, Member of the European Parliament, Wirral, United Kingdom

Praises, criticisms and suggestions

Some of the articles on agriculture, marine life and economics are very useful and educative. It would have been more interesting if films are made on such topics and sent to developing countries so they can learn something from them.

Omar Salim Omar, Bura-Tana, Kenya

The EEC already does that through what is known as "Contact Magazine". See page 82. Editor.

The variety of information in the Courier is a great asset. My suggestion? Steady as you go.

D.E. Lennard, Orpington, United Kingdom

There are no economic analyses of ACP-EEC markets, of trade (imports and exports) and their repercussion.

Baïla Boubou Ba, Dakar, Senegal

I would like to see articles on the history of African countries, for example, the ex-Portuguese colonies of Mozambique and Angola.

Frédérique Soer, Padangstraat, Netherlands

I would like you to publish many country reports, at least three, in each issue.

Sylvain N'dri Yao, Gagnoa, Côte d'Ivoire

The Courier is of great interest because it deals with ACP-EEC relationship and keeps one abreast of development issues in general in the developing countries—an area that is not often examined elsewhere. However, it should examine the political structure of the developing countries and their attitude towards human rights.

Panasiotis Grigoriou, Erstein, France

We have just trained a group of secondary school pupils under the theme: "a better society for the year 2000". At present we are only ten within the OMS (Organisation pour une Meilleure Société), but we hope gradually to recruit people with the necessary educational qualifications. I am personally responsible for "Economics" which also involves regional studies of development in the tropics. For the latter I have to rely on information from authentic sources; for example "The role of investments in the ACP States and their economic consequences". Researches such as these are

selected and distributed to geography teachers throughout the island. Unfortunately, I am afraid that much of this work will remain only a "plan". Lack of information at such a professional level is widespread in our country. But making up documents from the Courier, is enabling us to lessen the gravity of the situation.

Ashraf Oozeerally, Quatre-Bornes, Mauritius

In spite of the considerable care that you give to the Courier, there are still a lot of mistakes. Reduce them please and publish an alphabetical or an analytical index or both.

Dr Kagabo Pilipili, Brussels, Belgium

The language of the Courier is too difficult; sentences are too long and not direct. You should be clear and direct without taking into account different sensibilities. Give the floor to non-governmental organisations.

Jo Verwimp, Asse, Belgium

Reading the Courier leads to reflection. Besides the readers' column (still very "small"), there should be a space for "free speech".

Lamartine Venance, Juviny sur Orge, France

Agriculture and food production are not given priority in African countries. The Courier should encourage young people to take up farming—and seriously. It should highlight some EEC project like the Weija Irrigation Project in Ghana.

Edward M. Osei, Accra, Ghana

Thanks to you the whole world will know the true nature of ACP-EEC cooperation. You should have the support of all those who wish to see ACP countries come out of their misery and find the rightful path towards development.

Jean Khouziza Pacheco, Luanda, Angola

The Courier is too bulky. It should be shorter, appear quarterly and carry more up-to-date information on the economic and financial situation in the ACP states.

Tarker Hamutcuoglu, Ankara, Turkey

Try and make the magazine a monthly issue and see to its early dispatch!

D.M. Atuegbu, Okigwe, Imo State, Nigeria

Readers' club!

I have the honour to inform you of the creation in Brazzaville, capital of the People's Republic of the Congo, of the readers' club for "The Courier". I ask you, respectfully, to spread this idea through your magazine.

Basile Ahoussa Gabriel, Brazzaville, Congo

THE CONVENTION AT WORK

LOMÉ III: The protocol of accession of Spain and Portugal opened for signing

The Lomé III Protocol on the accession of Spain and Portugal was opened for signing on 26 June 1987, the date on which the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers decided on early application pending completion of the procedures for actual entry into effect.

Lomé III now covers the whole of the enlarged Community and 66 countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific.

This Protocol, negotiated pursuant

to Article 284 (2) (b) and (3) of Lomé III, provides for Spain and Portugal to become contracting parties to the Convention and the declarations annexed to the final act signed in Lomé on 8 December 1984 and lays down arrangements for adapting the Convention and transitional measures for trade between the ACPs and Spain and Portugal—which should mean that the accession of the two new Member States will go smoothly.

PROGRAMMING EDF VI

The last Indicative Programme is signed in Malabo

An EEC Programming Mission, led by Mr Jean Delorme, Head of the Central Africa Division, Directorate General for Development at the Commission of the European Communities and including Mr N. Urmes, Head of the West Africa and Caribbean Division of the European Investment Bank, visited Equatorial Guinea on 1 and 2 July 1987. Its counterpart from Equatorial Guinea was led by Mr Hilario Nsue Alene, Minister of Planning and Economic Development. On the basis of work already carried out by their subordinates, the two delegations conducted an in-depth exchange of views on Equatorial Guinea's development priorities and objectives.

To ensure the realisation of these objectives, Equatorial Guinea will have at its disposal an overall financial package of ECU 12 m (equivalent to FCFA 4 132 008 000) divided as follows:

ECU 10.5 m in the form of grants;
ECU 1.5 m in the form of risk capital managed by the European Investment Bank.

Cooperation between the Community and the Republic of Equatorial Guinea under Lomé III will focus on assistance to the rational exploitation of forestry resources. About 80% of the programmable resources managed by the Commission will be focussed on this area of emphasis. ○

EDF

The problems the EDF Committee had approving major programmes for ACP countries in May and June have now been overcome. Favourable opinions have been given on all the big outstanding programmes, Dieter Frisch, the Commission Development Director General, announced after an EDF Committee meeting in early July when financing to the tune of ECU 470 million was approved.

The Commission has therefore decided to finance the following projects and programmes.

Chad

Priority rural development programme

Grant: ECU 15 000 000

The Chad Government has kept with the 6th EDF indicative programme and opted for a regional development policy, with rural development as the mainstay. There will be additional help from other funders—including the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy—for other parts of Chad and the idea is to run a series of schemes to boost food security in an area near N'Djamena. It includes:

- creating small irrigated village cereal plots of a total 300 ha;
- intensifying the crops grown by Lake Chad (low and high water) over a total of about 3000 ha;
- sinking 40 boreholes and 10 wells and repairing 11 existing wells;
- bringing in micro-irrigation programmes;

Also in the News Round up

The Convention at work

- I. EDF financing
- VII. EIB
- VIII. STABEX

General information

- XI. UNCTAD VII
- XI. STABEX LDC's

European Community

- XII. Declaration on the Middle East
- XII. Belgium public opinion and development aid

- running tree-planting schemes with the help of the villagers;
- improving 75 km of service tracks;
- running a support programme for schools and dispensaries in the development programme areas.

The main benefit will be to the farmers and their families in the focal region of community support in Chad.

Gabon

Rural development in Fernan-Vaz Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 6 300 000

The Fernan-Vaz rural development scheme, in the hinterland of Port-Gentil (Ogooué Maritime), is in line with the priority sectoral aim of boosting agricultural output and improving the standard of living of the rural populations by stemming the rural exodus.

The idea is to achieve harmonious economic and social development in the light of socio-cultural realities with a view, in particular, to getting the rural communities to settle.

This will be achieved by:

- an agricultural scheme to promote greater productivity by the planters;
- improving the farm tracks so both goods and people can circulate throughout the year;
- marketing the surplus in Port-Gentil;
- a socio-cultural scheme putting the accent on training.

The target population is the 2500 inhabitants of the N'Dougou area over 40 000 ha of farmland. The surplus that will be marketed will be about 40% of the total output.

Tanzania

Renovation of Zanzibar's hospitals
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 2 600 000

This is Phase Two of an operation to improve the buildings and equipment of the two main hospital centres of Zanzibar. Phase One (ECU 1.1 million) was to improve the Mnazi Mmoja hospital and Phase Two covers the Chake Chake hospital on Pemba.

Modernisation of Zanzibar's ports
Fifth and sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 12 500 000

Zanzibar's two islands, Unguja and Pemba, need proper port structures and handling facilities for their imports and exports. It has been decided to improve the port structures of the town of Zanzibar on Unguja island and the installations at Mkoani on Pemba by:

- clearing an access channel, rebuilding the Malindi wharf and developing a container park on Unguja;
- building embarkation facilities at Mkoani and repairing the existing dyke on Pemba.

Tanzania and Rwanda

Kusahunga-Bukombe road
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 10 000 000

This project involves building an asphalted road 127 km long on the route between the Tanzanian railway and Rwanda.

Kenya

Repairs to the Kiganjo-Nanyuki road
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 900 000
Special loan: ECU 10 600 000

The idea here is to repair the asphalted road between Kiganjo and Nanyuki (47.75 km) west of Mount Kenya, using the existing route through the Nyeri and Lalkipla districts. Different parts of the road, which was opened 20 years ago, have deteriorated to different degrees and some are completely ruined. This road is part of the main A2 highway between Nairobi and Islole, which goes on to Moyale on the Ethiopian frontier.

As the road is so important for farming, the tourist trade and the balance between town and country and the various regions, it is one of the

priorities of the construction programme of the 5th Road Plan (1984-88), which is being financed by a number of donors.

Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Malawi

Rehabilitation of the port of Beira
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 40 000 000

This project is to rebuild some of the wharfs in the port of Beira. It is the main part of a larger operation to rehabilitate the Beira Corridor (about ECU 180 million), which in addition to the port facilities, comprises a pipeline and rail and road links with Zimbabwe—for which it offers direct access to the sea. Other donors to this vast programme include several Member States of the EEC, the Scandinavian group of countries, the African Development Bank, the IBRD, the USA and one or two other European countries.

It will have a huge effect on transport patterns in southern Africa, which is why it appears as a Community aid priority in the EEC-SADCC Memorandum of Understanding. Full reopening of the corridor will help reduce some of the SADCC countries' heavy dependence on South Africa's transport system.

The work mainly involves demolishing and removing the old wharfs, shifting earth, building new wharfs, facing, laying drainage, providing various services and putting up fencing.

Zimbabwe

Help to the Grain Marketing Board
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 1 385 000
Special loan: ECU 5 625 000

Since Independence in 1980, the number of registered producers delivering cereals to the Grain Marketing Board has risen from 31 000 to the 1986 figure of 358 000, which has put a severe strain on Board management. Over this period, years of drought and low output have alternated with years of plentiful rainfall and high output, revealing the need for proper storage facilities. The idea of the project is to boost the Board's storage installations and help the management by providing better facilities. Training programmes for the Board will be closely tied up with this.

Lesotho

Asparagus extension programme
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 4 750 000

The aim here reflects the aims of the National Indicative Programme and is to diversify and increase agricultural output by moving over towards high-value cash crops to create jobs and raise income. The project, which follows the development of the Mphaki area (resource conservation), deals with the second major area in the sectoral policy and is part of other schemes for which financing is being prepared.

Zambia

Development of smallholdings in the Copperbelt
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 12 000 000

This is a project in an area of around 2500 km² in the rural district of Ndola in the Copperbelt province. It contains something like 4000 smallholders, 80% of whom practise subsistence farming.

The aim is to boost output and the total production of the smallholders by introducing better methods that are suitable for non-irrigated agriculture. In addition to dealing with the technical aspects of production, the project also aims to improve infrastructure, inputs, credit facilities, marketing and social services.

CAR

National Livestock Development Project
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 10 000 000

The National Livestock Development Project aims to reorganise and rationalise the whole of the livestock sub-sector in the Central African Republic.

Community aid will help by:

- providing support for the livestock input distribution system run by the National Federation of Central African Herdsmen;
- organising an agropastoral service for the livestock sector;
- opening new service tracks in the agropastoral action areas (ZAGROP);
- setting up cattle markets;
- relaying and maintaining the tracks built with the help of previous Community financing.

Madagascar

Water supplies in the south
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 5 100 000

The project involves providing supplies for and technical assistance with the repair of 60 existing water points and the construction of around 200 more (tanks, boreholes and drinking troughs).

Experience obtained during the 4th EDF-financed project led to a programme on the further development of water resources in southern Madagascar. In particular, a water prospection programme based on a geo-electric study highlighted areas where there was a good chance of producing enough decent drinking water at a reasonable cost. However, the water table in some areas turned out to be too high or to contain nothing but salt water.

Comoros

Development of fisheries
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 1 092 000

This is part of the Government's policy of meeting the demand for fresh fish (an estimated 7 200 t) of which only 60% is covered at the present time.

The idea is to increase the output of pelagic species (estimated tuna resources of 18 000 t p.a.) by improving the currently very archaic production facilities and promoting traditional methods of conservation (salting and drying).

French Polynesia

HE developments on Tahiti
Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 400 000
Special loan: ECU 1 400 000

The idea here is to build a 27.7 km HT line and a 17.7 km MT line and provide transformers to transmit the electricity from HE microstations in the highlands of Tahiti in French Polynesia.

The Territory is actively pursuing a micro-station construction programme, scheduled to go on until the year 2007, to supply 40% of the island's needs by the year 2010.

Solomon Islands

Development of human resources in the rural sector
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 4 000 000

The general idea here is to promote the development and optimum utilisation of human resources in the rural sector by providing technical assistance and training to enable the recipients to take an active part in the economic and social life of the nation.

The general programme contains two sub-programmes which are both inseparable and complementary:

- an integrated human resource development scheme for the rural sector;
- a national development programming support programme.

Senegal

Programme to support development in the Podor region
Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 87 000 000
Special loan: ECU 10 000 000

The idea here is to back up Senegal's drive for greater food security and an intensification of the anti-desertification campaign. It will contribute, together with help from many other donors (including half the Member States of the Community), to achieving the aims of the country's new agricultural policy, whose two main parts are the Grain Plan and the Senegal River National Development Policy.

The proposed programme reflects the desire the Government expressed, when the Indicative Programme (which fixes the framework for cooperation with the European Community) was signed, of channelling all available means into a coherent set of schemes in the River Senegal region and the surrounding area in the Podor department.

The programme will therefore be concentrated in the Senegal Basin (Podor department), which, thanks to the ECU 650 million of investments made in the River Senegal Development Organisation programme, offers the country's greatest potential in terms of production and job creation.

The programme fits in with the Government's announced or ongoing cereal policy and regional development measures and is organised as a complementary scheme involving:

- the development of intensive integrated agriculture, making for the development of irrigated food, forage and forestry crops by groups of producers who will be shouldering the responsibility for rehabilitating 1500 ha of small (30 ha) plots and developing three basins (2 340 ha) and turning them into units of 50/60 ha;
- restoration of the natural environment by schemes of direct interest to the populations which will be taking them over;
- mobilisation of potential when it comes to creating firms and taking initiatives likely to meet the needs of the population;
- creation of the road, urban, social and cultural infrastructure needed to deploy economic activity and raise the standard of living;
- support for the institutions in charge of running the programme, monitoring it and evaluating its effect.

Zambia

Agricultural input importation aid programme
Fifth and sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 7 200 000
Special loan: ECU 32 800 000

Zambia is badly short of foreign exchange to import the supplies the farmers need to exploit their potential. Economic management is also being compromised by a serious budget shortfall which has led the Government to cut spending on social programmes and bring benefits down to a very low level.

The aim of this programme is to import agricultural inputs, to ensure the means required for the local production of fertiliser over the three coming years and to meet other agricultural needs that can be satisfied on the spot. The financing, worth ECU 40 million in all, is in two parts—ECU 32 800 000 to buy chemicals and spare parts for Nitrogen Chemicals of Zambia and ECU 7 200 000 to buy other essential agricultural inputs, in particular for smallholders and young farmers.

The equivalent in local currency of the CIF value of the supplies will be credited to a special account. The counterpart funds will be used to finance agreed projects and programmes with a view to rural development and meeting basic needs in health and education so as to reduce the budget shortfall in these areas.

CAR

Programme to develop the north

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 25 000 000

The northern region of the CAR comprises the prefectures of Bamingui-Bangoran and Vakaga. This landlocked area, an essential supplier of water to Lake Chad, is a vast Sudan-type ecosystem (105 000 km²), with a small (50 000), scattered population which derives most of its resources from the natural environment—which has unique potential for economic development in its nine national parks and game reserves (45 000 km²) and hunting grounds.

The balance of this natural environment is currently under considerable threat from drought, deteriorating plant life, livestock overgrazing and brush fires, which are all encouraging the Sahel to extend southwards.

The Government has therefore decided to run a northern development project, with EEC help, to preserve natural resources, develop economic activity and raise the standard of living of the rural population, all of which is in line with both the five-year programme and the Indicative Programme signed with the European Community. It consists of two closely coordinated and interconnected parts — preservation and development of the natural heritage and rural development.

ECU 35 million to fight AIDS in the ACPs

The Commission has just approved financing for an AIDS control campaign in the ACP countries.

The idea is to make a Community contribution to the international AIDS campaign being run and coordinated by the WHO's Special Aids Programme.

The programme involves providing technical, financial and scientific assistance to countries running national AIDS control programmes and to encourage Community coordination of bilateral interventions. The budget is ECU 35 million.

The three-year programme should also help improve the public health services in the recipient countries, since most of the prevention and control of the disease will be carried out by the local health authorities.

Forty ACP countries have already asked to take part in the programme.

Priorities are defined in the light of each country's needs and the Governments' commitment to bring in and apply a coherent AIDS control campaign.

The programme is based on national AIDS campaigns as defined by the WHO—i.e. coherent general programmes involving an initial analysis of the extent of the problem and evaluation of the country's resources.

It therefore aims to provide equipment, technical assistance and training schemes and, if need be, to repair buildings for various purposes such as:

- initial evaluation of the extent of the infection and of local resources so as to evaluate the local capacity when it comes to running an AIDS control campaign;

- reduction of transmission through contaminated blood by:

- improving or rehabilitating the blood transfusion services;
- setting up AIDS tracing programmes with the relevant laboratory facilities;
- training to restrict blood transfusions to medically essential cases;
- controlling the quality of AIDS tracing programmes;
- offering counselling services and, where need be, monitoring the AIDS tracing programmes.

Programme implementation and financing

There will be an agreement with each ACP State which applies to join the programme, in accordance with the principles and procedures laid down in the proposal and in line with the general guidelines for Community aid programmes with the ACPs.

Financing will be in the form of a grant of ECU 35 million. As a comparison, and to give some idea of size, the WHO anti-AIDS campaign is worth US\$ 257 million over a period of three years.

Close coordination with the WHO and other donors (especially the Member States) will be carried out by the Commission. Regular meetings—roughly every six months or according to needs or requests—will be organised with representatives of the Member States as an opportunity to exchange details of progress by the Member States, the Commission and

the WHO and to coordinate both financing and action.

Niger

RN1 and RN11 roads

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 3 680 000

This project is in line with the priority targets of the national authorities which are anxious to improve the road sector, particularly the trans-Sahara route and the feeder roads linking the main highway with the frontier, in southern Niger, with Nigeria.

It follows on from 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th EDF-financed operations and is a complement to investments by other funders (the ADB, ABEDIA, the IDB, the Saudi Fund, OPEC and Niger) in the north-south (Agadez-Zinder) link and involves surfacing, widening and improving the following stretches:

- Zinder-Agadez (RN 11): improving a 35 km stretch near Agadez;
- Niamey-Zinder (RN 1): widening and improving the stretch of 57 km between Takieta and the Nigerian frontier.

Mali

Improvement of the health infrastructure in the Bamako area

Fourth and fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 1 300 000

The idea here is to improve health by improving the infrastructure in two fast-growing areas of Bamako and giving Mali a National Blood Transfusion Centre to cope with present needs.

It is an extension of the 4th EDF project to build specialised health (obstetrics and pediatrics) facilities in Bamako.

It involves extending the buildings of the two health centres in Laflabougou and Badalabougou, building the National Transfusion Centre at Quinzambougou and supplying equipment for these three places.

Burkina Faso & Niger

Development of timber in the Komienga dam

Fourth and fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 5 900 000

This is part of the anti-desertification and environmental protection programme provided under Lomé III. It follows on from the conclusions of

the Praia meeting in October 1986 when CILSS members (Cape Verde, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal and Chad) and the Commission envisaged forestry schemes and savings in firewood consumption.

The idea is to capitalise on the trees growing on the 20 000 ha of the Komienga HE dam (cofinanced by the Community) and provide the people in the region (Burkina and Niger in particular) with the resulting timber.

The ecological aim of the project is to reduce woodcutting for energy purposes by an amount equal to the volume of timber obtained from the Komienga site (around 200 000 m³).

Ghana

Rehabilitation of drainage structures and small bridges

Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 5 000 000

The aim is to help further improve the road infrastructure of south western Ghana. Rehabilitation of the drainage structures and small bridges is a top priority on the main and service roads in the focal sector and will make it easier to shift the various agricultural products that are to be sent for export and encourage the development of these agricultural areas with major potential by ensuring round-the-year access to the markets.

It involves work and technical assistance in relation to:

- small top-priority bridges;
- drainage works of various sizes;
- repairs to the drainage layer of the roads.

Montserrat

Improvements to Montserrat's water supplies

Fifth EDF
Grant: ECU 966 000

This is the first stage of a Montserrat water supply improvement scheme and aims to boost supplies and make them more reliable, with a view to meeting the domestic and commercial needs of 2500 families, hotels and rooming houses in the main towns of Montserrat.

Water production is to be increased, water shortages reduced and pumping costs cut by:

- replacing pipes that can no longer be used;

- improving the spring water tapping system;
- collecting the usual overflow from dams;
- improving access to reservoirs and springs.

ECOWAS

Dakar West African Forum

Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 3 000 000

ECOWAS, set up on 28 May 1975 by a Treaty signed in Lagos and completed on 5 November 1976 by five protocols signed in Lomé, is made up of 16 States (nine French-speaking, five English-speaking and two Portuguese-speaking) of West Africa. It has fairly considerable natural resources and a population that will be almost 200 million-strong by 1990—when the customs union should come into being. So it is a major sub-regional organisation in terms of both resources and markets.

The project covers financing for an ACP-EEC inter-firm cooperation promotion operation in the field of trade, industry and services, which will involve information, awareness and promotion schemes and the monitoring of Community firms' investments and joint ventures with West African promoters, culminating in the three next West African industrial forums in Dakar.

Sudan

Rural development in the Nuba mountains (Phase II)

Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 11 450 000

The Lomé III Indicative Programme for Sudan makes rural and agricultural development a top priority. An important aim in this field will be to boost production, improve food security and the agricultural incomes on traditional smallholdings in the rainfed regions of western Sudan. The first Lomé III scheme contributing to this is the second rural development project in Djebel Marra, in the province of Darfur, which was approved at the beginning of the year. The Nuba mountains development scheme (Phase II) is based in the neighbouring province of South Kordofan.

It will boost output of the main food crops, especially sorghum, millet, groundnuts and sesame, particularly by continuing to promote draught ani-

mal techniques, developing extension services and supplying inputs. The project also includes forestry and agroforestry schemes primarily intended to improve land management in the northern part of the area covered by the project.

Ethiopia

Integrated training programme

Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 7 100 000

This follows on from two multiannual training programmes run under Lomé I and II. It puts greater emphasis on training and retraining requirements in relation to the rural sector, particularly on the production side. More generally, it will encourage better exploitation of the human resources involved or to be involved in the economic system.

The projected measures are training and retraining operations, to be run locally by Ethiopian training institutes (and the Ethiopian Management Institute in particular) for about 10 200 people. A range of suitable methods will be used. The programme also involves financing for some specific training courses which are not offered in Ethiopia and will therefore have to be followed abroad.

Uganda

Sectoral import programme

Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 15 000 000

Uganda has decided to run an economic reform programme to make for stable growth after years of serious social and economic upset.

The idea of the sectoral import programme is to rapidly increase the raw materials available for the production of basic consumer goods and supply spare parts and vehicles for the transport sector.

Kenya

Northern Corridor transport programme

Sixth EDF
Grant: ECU 27 000 000
Special loan: ECU 10 000 000

The aim here is to:

- restore and improve 105 km of the tarred roads of the Northern Corridor carrying traffic between Kabete and Limuru (17 km) and Eldoret and Mal-

aba (Eldoret-Turbo = 28 km and Webuya-Malaba = 60 km);

- improve the customs installations at Malaba on the Kenya-Uganda frontier;
- assist the Transit Transport Coordination Authority of the Northern Corridor.

The programme is one of a series of complementary schemes being run as part of the aid to the Northern Corridor, which links the countries with no coastlines (Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda and eastern Zaïre) with the port of Mombasa in Kenya.

The road repair part of the project will also facilitate transport to southern Sudan.

Kenya

Assistance with agricultural and livestock research

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 20 000 000

The idea here is to assist the Kenyan Government in its drive to improve the organisation and management of research into agriculture and livestock.

The old Institute of Agricultural Research in Kenya (Muguga), the scientific research division of the Ministry of Agriculture and the veterinary research division of the Ministry of Livestock Development have merged to form the Kenyan Institute of Agricultural Research. A national agricultural research programme has been drawn up and submitted for the assessment of a joint donor-Government team.

The programme aims to back up selected research programmes that are being run or on the drawing board in the Lomé III framework.

Assistance will be provided with:

- training, checking accounts, monitoring and evaluation;
- livestock research;
- national programme (soil fertility and plant nutrition);
- national programme (land and water management).

Botswana

Back up for major crops sector in the north

Fifth EDF

Grant: ECU 3 000 000

The support programme is only one of many schemes in the focal sector of Botswana's Indicative Programme,

which is the development and preservation of natural resources. The two-stage programme should concentrate on northern Botswana and thus improve the geographical concentration of Lomé III resources. The programme is in line with the national food strategy adopted in late 1985 and aimed at reducing dependence on external food supplies.

It will help boost the major crop sector which has so far had scant attention in comparison to herding. Phase I will concentrate on identifying agricultural potential in the region and using the land. It will make suggestions on zoning, land distribution and infrastructure development in relation to use and identify social, economic and technical obstacles. The whole constitutes the Pandamatenga Development Plan. The results of Phase I will help the Government define details of Phase II—which will aim to produce the necessary economic and social infrastructure. Phase I will also include building a local agricultural research centre at Pandamatenga to look into such problems of agricultural output as are related to the region and its soil.

Swaziland

Integrated development of trade, tourism and crafts

Fifth and sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 2 700 000

The aim here is to create trade possibilities on internal and external markets, to develop and promote Swaziland as an attractive tourist prospect and improve the quality and marketing of arts and crafts. The programme is expected to boost foreign exchange earnings, improve employment in both rural and urban sectors and boost the value of production and the incomes accruing from the sale of non-traditional exports and craft articles.

Essentially, this means sending out technicians for long and short stays, financing market surveys, trade missions, training and attendance at trade fairs, developing tourist attractions and preparing publications and brochures.

Mozambique

Sectoral import programme

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 40 000 000

Mozambique is in a difficult situation and its shortage of foreign ex-

change to buy production equipment is a bottleneck preventing the economy from taking off.

An economic rehabilitation programme providing for new and more flexible instruments of economic management and aimed at considerable improvements in levels of activity has been launched by the Government following agreements on economic and financial policy by the IMF and the IBRD.

The sectoral import programme (Commission financing of ECU 40 million) is part of this. The priority is to help overcome the exchange shortage with a view to rehabilitating and developing agricultural output, particularly by the peasants.

This programme, which is in the focal sector of the Indicative Programme, is an integrated approach to rural marketing. It covers four fields that are directly and indirectly linked to the agricultural sector:

- direct support for agricultural production;
- support for the production of consumer goods;
- support for the development of rural marketing;
- support for the development of rural infrastructure.

Malawi

Programme to support agricultural input supplies

Sixth EDF

Grant: ECU 28 200 000

This programme, which is to help smallholders, will set up a Fertiliser Buffer Stock primarily aimed at ensuring regular supplies of fertiliser at times when trade is disturbed and at improving local fertiliser supply and use when things are normal.

It will begin in 1987-88, go on until 1990-91 and be in two phases. The EDF resources will be used to buy 70 000 t fertiliser and build stores (total 65 000 m²) in three strategic places—Blantyre for the south, Lilongwe for the centre and Mzuzu for the north. The stock handling equipment and the staff housing, local back-up and programme headquarters offices will be supplied. A resident technical assistance team of three people will help with implementation and a training programme is planned for the local staff. ◊

EIB

Comoros: ECU 2 m for small and medium-sized enterprises

As part of financing provided for under the Third Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank, has lent the Comoros Development Bank (CDB) ECU 2 million to help finance investment by small and medium-sized enterprises in industry, agricultural processing, tourism and transport.

The loan has been granted for a term of 15 years at a rate of 2% from risk capital resources provided for under the Convention and managed by the EIB. CDB will onlend the proceeds for investment projects selected in agreement with the EIB.

CDB, which was created in 1981 on the basis of a feasibility study financed by the EIB, is a semi-public company coming under the supervision of the Ministry of Finance and has the State as its majority shareholder (66.66%) alongside the Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique, Paris (16.67%) and the EIB, on behalf of the European Economic Community (16.67%).

Jamaica: ECU 5.25 m for port project

The European Investment Bank has advanced ECU 5.25 m, under the terms of the Third Lomé Convention, to the Port Authority of Jamaica towards financing extensions to the port of Montego Bay. The work envisaged will enable the port to deal with the growing number of cruise ships calling in there and will provide more space for cargo handling.

The main component of the project is the construction of a 410 m long, 12.2 m deep sheet-pile quay able to accommodate cruise ships up to 295 m in length (compared with the current maximum length of 190 m), drawing up to 11.3 m. Other works include dredging of the entrance channel to a depth of 13.1 m, widening the inner basin to allow for the passage of the larger cruise ships and construction of a cruise passenger terminal of some 1 650 m² able to cope with 2 000 people. The project will also release space and facilities for cargo handling activities.

The EIB's loan has been granted to the Port Authority of Jamaica for 15 years at 5%, after deduction of an in-

terest subsidy funded from European Development Fund resources. The project is costed at a total of some ECU 10.5 m and work is scheduled for completion during 1988. The project will foster expansion of the tourism sector, an activity of considerable importance in Jamaica's economy.

Madagascar: ECU 15.5 m for electricity generation and distribution

The European Investment Bank (EIB) has just agreed the provision of loan aid totalling ECU 15.5 m, under the Third Lomé Convention, to help in financing the renovation of power generation and transmission facilities and the installation of additional distribution capacity in Madagascar. The works are designed to ensure a greater degree of reliability in the electricity service and more efficient use of generating capacity by virtue of an improved distribution network.

Advanced from the risk capital resources provided for under the Convention and managed by the EIB, the financing package comprises the following two components:

— a ECU 13.5 m conditional loan granted, for 25 years at 2%, to the Madagascar State, which will onlend the proceeds, in the form of a convertible loan, to Jirama, the national electricity and water supply company, to fund restoration of some of its diesel generators and transmission equipment and extension of power distribution facilities;

— a conditional loan of ECU 2 m, for 10 years at 1%, also granted to the Government to be channelled via the Central Bank to Jirama. These funds will be used to build up a stock of spare parts.

The works will include renovation of the power stations at Nosy-Bé (in the north west) and Mahojunga (on the west coast), repairs to a number of smaller-scale diesel-fired power plants, design, supply and installation of a basic telecommunications system to link Jirama's technical departments with power stations throughout the country and extension of the medium and low-voltage grid, largely to serve the capital, Antananarivo.

Grenada: ECU 1.8 m for smaller enterprises

The European Investment Bank, is lending ECU 1.8 m, under the Third

Lomé Convention, for small and medium-sized enterprises operating in the industrial, agricultural processing and tourism sectors in the Caribbean state of Grenada.

The funds, drawn from risk capital resources, are being made available under two headings:

— ECU 0.4 m are being channelled to the State (term: 25 years, interest rate: 2%) to enable it to bolster the share capital of the Grenada Development Bank with a view to providing the institution with a sounder financial base to contend with the upturn in its activity;

— ECU 1.4 m are being advanced to Grenada Development Bank itself in the form of a conditional loan for which arrangements will vary according to the actual use made of the proceeds: term of 15 years with interest payable at 4% where financing is provided for ventures mounted by SMEs; to 25 years and 2% where equity participations are acquired in SMEs.

Benin: ECU 6.5 m to improve water supply

Investment to supply Cotonou and Porto Novo, the two largest towns in Benin, with safe potable water are to be supported by the European Investment Bank. The EIB will make available the equivalent of ECU 6.5 m in the form of a conditional loan from European Development Fund risk capital resources. The loan is to the Benin government which will onlend the funds to the Société Béninoise d'Electricité et d'Eau (SBEE). The term of the loan is 20 years, including a five year grace period on repayment of principal, and the interest rate is 2%.

The investment will include the drilling of new boreholes, the construction/extension of water treatment plants and elevated storage reservoirs as well as the rehabilitation of existing reservoirs; 23 kilometres of feeder lines and 280 kilometres of primary and secondary distribution pipes will be laid, enabling an additional 560 000 people to be served in Cotonou and Porto Novo. The project should put an end to the consumption of untreated water by the public, thus effectively improving health conditions in the two towns.

The total cost of the project will be ECU 33.4 m, a fifth of which is to be provided by the European Investment Bank while the remainder will stem

from the SBEE itself, from the International Development Association (IDA, World Bank group), the French Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique and from OPEC.

Mauritania: ECU 5 m for improving electricity supplies

As part of ongoing support for improving and extending electricity generation and supply facilities at Nouadhibou, Mauritania's main port and economic centre, the European Investment Bank is advancing ECU 5 m in the form of a conditional loan to the State (term: 15 years; interest rate: 1%) from risk capital resources provided for under the Third Lomé Convention. The State will pass on the funds to Société Nationale d'Eau et d'Electricité (SONELEC).

The works concerned will help to rehabilitate SONELEC's power grid in a high consumption area with considerable industrial activity and a sizeable urban population.

In 1985, the EIB made an initial ECU 7 m loan to SONELEC for upgrading electricity generating facilities and rehabilitating drinking water supply and distribution installations. The works covered by the second loan centre mainly on continuing rehabilitation of Nouadhibou thermal power station (22 MW) and improvements to the electricity supply network, studies on which were conducted in conjunction with the previous operation. It is also planned to build up a stock of spare parts.

Côte d'Ivoire: ECU 7.4 m for modernising textile mill

The European Investment Bank announced a loan of ECU 7.4 m, under the Third Lomé Convention, for modernising and replacing installations at a textile mill in the Côte d'Ivoire.

The funds have been advanced to Utexi (Union Industrielle et Textile de Côte-d'Ivoire) for 12 years at 5%, after deducting an interest subsidy drawn from European Development Fund resources.

Utexi, established in 1971, operates two plants with a total workforce of 1 500: a spinning-weaving mill at Dimbokro (240 km north of Abidjan) and a dyeing-printing works at Abidjan itself. Production centres chiefly on unbleached cotton, wide cloth and

yarn at Dombokro plus fancy prints and printed polyester-cotton at Abidjan. Over 80% of output is channelled to the local market and to consumers in the West African Economic Community (CEAO).

The Project, costed at CFAF 7.3 billion, focuses on partial replacement of installations at the Abidjan plant, whose capacity will remain unchanged, and creation of a new spinning shop plus adaptation of the weaving shop at Dimbokro where projectile looms will replace shuttle looms. The works at the Abidjan plant will be completed before end-1987, while those at Dimbokro will be implemented over the next two years. ◊

FISHERIES

New protocol on the Fisheries Agreement with Guinea Bissau signed

The new protocol on application of the Fisheries Agreement with Guinea Bissau, which was initialled in May 1986, has been signed in Brussels by Mr Cardoso e Cunha the EEC Fisheries Commissioner and Aboubakar Baide, the State Secretary for Fisheries.

This concludes the formal arrangements for adoption of the new protocol, which, let us not forget, was the first to take account of the accession of Spain and Portugal — which used to have bilateral agreements with Guinea Bissau.

It runs for three years and has been in provisional effect since 16 June last year. It is the second amendment to the agreement which the two parties signed on 27 February 1980.

The new system, providing fishing rights for vessels flying the flags of the Member States of the Community, applies to ships traditionally fishing in these waters — i.e. the French, the Italian, the Greek, the Spanish and the Portuguese fleets. The quantities are:

- 11 000 t for trawlers (fish, crustacea and shrimp), with the possibility of successive increases of 1000 t;
- 45 tuna freezer ships;
- 25 fresh tuna ships;
- 6 swordfish ships.

In exchange for the fishing rights and in addition to the dues the shipowners pay, the Community is offer-

ing financial compensation of ECU 7.5 million for the duration of the Agreement as its contribution to financing for Guinea Bissau's scientific programme and 16 five-year training grants. Under other arrangements, a certain quantity of fish has to be landed in the port of Bissau and a certain number of the country's fishermen have to be taken on the foreign vessels. ◊

STABEX

Transfer agreements for 1986 signed

European Development Commissioner Lorenzo Natali and the Ambassadors of 25 ACP countries signed 40 Stabex transfer agreements for 1986 in Brussels on 16 July. They were worth a total of ECU 232 million.

Mr Natali took this opportunity of stressing that "this year, the ACP exporters of oil and oil products are the main beneficiaries of the Stabex system because of the drop in the prices of these products, which has been made worse, in some Pacific countries especially, by the bad weather conditions. The other products for which major transfers are being made are cotton and tea, also because of falling prices.

More fundamentally, this new Stabex year shows that the system, one of the most original aspects of our cooperation, is still working and working well. This is the 10th year of trouble-free implementation in our 12 years' experience.

The rights to transfer are subject to the resources available. Resources could be carried over on a limited basis to the following year, but this could be difficult.

The operations leading to the transfers — including the consultations we have had with some of you — have been carried out within the time laid down by the Convention. There is an exception — four requests where consultations are still continuing, with the agreement of the countries in question, but they will not bring us beyond the resources available. We won't go bankrupt."

Lorenzo Natali concluded by saying that the insurance which Stabex represents may not alone be enough to compensate for the overall effect of

Recipient ACP country	Product	Amount of transfer (ECU)	Advance already paid
Benin	palm oil	3 589 471	1 200 000
	karité nuts	2 690 995	
	cotton	1 782 613	
	sesame seeds	364 879	
CAR	cotton	1 648 918	5 000 000
Comoros	cloves	2 997 156	
Ethiopia	beans	6 344 738	
Gambia	groundnuts	3 330 728	
Grenada	groundnut oil	1 328 737	5 000 000
	cocoa beans	371 379	
	groundnuts	2 069 162	
Guinea-Bissau	shrimp	388 231	5 000 000
	cocoa beans	1 079 795	
Equatorial Guinea	copra	1 639 090	5 000 000
Kiribati	tea	2 370 156	
Malawi	cotton	14 180 528	5 000 000
Mali	tea	2 950 299	
Mauritius	cashew nuts & kernels	1 065 009	5 000 000
	copra	299 093	
Mozambique	cotton	6 216 147	5 000 000
	tea	3 627 855	
Papua-New Guinea	copra	7 569 597	5 000 000
	coconut oil	17 067 636	
	palm products	21 784 451	
Rwanda	tea	3 398 714	5 000 000
Solomon Is.	copra	12 328 129	
W. Samoa	palm products	6 657 167	3 000 000
	rough timber	122 513	
Senegal	copra	259 211	2 500 000
	coconut oil	4 299 597	
Sudan	groundnut products	54 567 358	30 000 000
	groundnuts	3 272 524	
Chad	groundnut oil	8 114 018	6 000 000
	sesame seed	590 168	
Togo	oilcake	5 519 522	6 000 000
Tonga	cotton	12 776 377	
Tuvalu	karité nuts	651 838	6 000 000
Vanuatu	coconut oil	1 254 017	
Vanuatu	copra	102 407	6 000 000
	copra	11 438 165	
Total		232 068 388	52 700 000

these trends, but it "generally works well, within the framework of its aims and limitations".

The Development Commissioner also announced that the Commission would be deciding "on Stabex-type transfers over the next few days for least developed countries which do not belong to the Lomé Convention".

Lastly, he pointed to the fact that Lomé III Stabex rules were tighter than those of the previous Conventions and called for commitments in this field to be respected.

In the absence of Ambassador Sy, Raymond Chasle, the Mauritian Ambassador, as the second longest-serving Ambassador to Brussels and representative of a country receiving its first Stabex transfer, replied to Mr Natali.

Mr Chasle set the Stabex arrange-

ments against the very unfavourable economic background in the ACP countries since Lomé III came into effect. This was marked by exclusion of the countries of the South from the process of making decisions on almost all the raw material prices and monetary, tax and commercial issues.

As the ACPs saw it, Stabex covered the risks to a whole series of products. It was a safeguard and was very much appreciated by the peoples and the Governments concerned, as it helped them stand up to the effect of a whole series of problems.

Mr Chasle said he hoped that the ongoing assessment of Stabex applications from four ACP countries would also have a satisfactory outcome.

He thanked the Commission and the Stabex managers, pointing out that Commissioner Lorenzo Natali was backed up by top officials who had fol-

lowed the Convention since the beginning and had been involved in managing the Stabex system. As the ACPs saw it, the quality of ACP-EEC relations depended on the quality of the men involved in them.

Mr Chasle also welcomed the fact that the signing of these Stabex transfer agreements coincided with the signing of other agreements with non-ACP developing nations.

Above all, he said he hoped that this Community action would be an inspiration to other developed countries.

□

VISITS

Vice President Natali in Somalia

Early in July 1987 Mr Lorenzo Natali, EEC Commissioner for Development paid a five-day visit to Somalia during which he met the President of the Republic, Mohamed Siyad Barre, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and other Government representatives.

Throughout the visit a great deal of satisfaction was expressed by both sides at the way that cooperation is developing between Somalia and the EEC. The full amount allocated to Somalia under the Lomé III Convention stands at 17 billion Somali Shillings (ECU 113 000 000).

At a special ceremony, Mr Natali and Foreign Minister, Mr Abdurahman Giama Barre signed two project financing agreements between Somalia and the European Community, totalling around one billion Somali Shillings.

The first project, costing ECU 3 600 000 (So.Sh. 540 000 000), concerns the rehabilitation and reorganisation of the General Hospital in Mogadishu. Operational capacity and efficiency at the hospital will be improved by rehabilitating technical installations, modifying various facilities and providing basic hospital equipment.

The second project, costing ECU 3 000 000 (So.SH. 450 000 000) in EEC grant aid is aimed at developing inshore fisheries. The objective is to increase fish production in the Wharole, Mogadishu, Gesira and Merca areas through improvements to processing and marketing facilities as



Mr Natali visiting a hospital in Somalia

well as the provision of ice, fishing gear, and boat repair facilities. The project will increase the income of fishermen, revitalise fishing communities and lead to increased availability of nutritious food on the local market.

The Somali Government expressed its appreciation of the Community's prompt response to its recent drought appeal. The European Community has in fact already made available an amount of ECU 235 000 (So.Sh. 35 250 000) of emergency aid to supply water pumps, electricity generators and water storage tanks to the drought-stricken areas of Somalia.

Additional assistance, which would permit the rehabilitation plan started in 1986 (Natali Plan), to continue could be considered on the basis of funds in the Lomé II & Lomé III Conventions.

The Vice President also assured the Somali Government of his readiness to consider favourably any supplementary request for Emergency Aid to the drought-affected population of Somalia.

Mr Natali and members of his delegation had the opportunity of visiting agro-industrial projects in the Lower Shebelli region, refugee settlements in Gedo region, the Juba Valley including the Baardheere Dam site, the Marere area and lastly the Bari region in the north-east of the country.

During his visits Mr Natali was able to appreciate the work done by a number of European NGOs and Somali

public officials involved in development projects in rural areas. ◊

ACP EMBASSIES

Two new Ambassadors have just presented their credentials to the Presidents of the Council and the Commission of the European Communities.

Seychelles

Georges Payet, Seychelles' new Ambassador to the Community, also represents his country in France and so lives in Paris. The 45-year old Ambassador, a family man with three children, is an arts graduate and was Secretary-General to the Ministry for National Development before taking up his latest post.

Zaire

Mushobekwa Kalimba Wa Katana, Zaire's new Ambassador to Brussels, has been in the various national Governments since 1977, except for the period 1982-85, when he was Ambassador to China, Vietnam, Korea and Thailand. He has been Minister for Transport and Communications twice, Minister for Public Works and Regional Development, Minister for Public Health, Minister for International Cooperation and External Trade and Minister for External Trade. The Ambassador, who is 44, is married with six children. ◊

FOOD AID

Better procedures

In July last year, the Commission suggested that the Council reform food aid and make it an essential instrument of Community development cooperation policy, state what its aims and arrangements were and invite it to manage it.

In December 1986 the Council approved this reform. The new basic regulation which was adopted provided for the Commission to bring in a regulation on mobilising the products to be provided as Community food aid — the subject of the regulation just adopted. This regulation has already received a favourable opinion from the Food Aid Committee, is immediately operational and will mean that aid, particularly milk products, can be got to the recipient faster.

Main features of the regulation

Arrangements for mobilising food products in the Community are laid down and a project on mobilising products in the developing countries themselves, the so-called triangular operations, is being finalised.

An idea of the scope of the Commission's recent decision can be obtained from the fact that the supplies in question run to around 800 schemes a year and are worth ECU 500 million (1987 budget).

The regulation provides, in particular, for:

- the Commission to supervise all the mobilisation (and delivery) operations to the point where the food aid is handed over to the recipient country. This is in contrast to the previous arrangements whereby these operations were in the hands of the Member States' intervention agencies;
- aid monitoring to be carried out by professionals authorised by the Commission, with a view to complete control of the supply operations, prevention of difficulties, supply of information in good time to all parties involved and quality and quantity control. This systematic monitoring should mean that the risk of the unsatisfactory operations which were carried out in the past and which the European Parliament and the Court of Auditors have criticised, can be fundamentally reduced in the future;
- the contractor's responsibility to the place of delivery to be specified in the agreement with the recipient country.

GENERAL INFORMATION

UNCTAD VII: Consensus on extensive policy recommendations

The Seventh Conference of UNCTAD was held in Geneva from 7 July to 2 August 1987 under the Chairmanship of Mr Bernard Chidzero, Minister of Finance, Economic Planning and Development of Zimbabwe. The Conference, which was extended three days beyond its scheduled date, resulted in the adoption by consensus of a Final Act, which sets out extensive policy recommendations on the international economy. The outcome has been heralded as a very considerable success by Commissioners Cheysson and Natali.

The Final Act is divided into two main parts, the first of which contained an assessment of relevant economic trends and of global structural change, as well as some reflections on the possible implications for policy measures. The second section of the Final Act contained recommendations and policy measures on the four main themes of the Conference, namely, resources for development, commodities, international trade and the problems of the least developed countries.

The assessment chapter had been the subject of exhaustive discussion prior to the Conference, since it was felt by many of the industrialised countries to be an essential step in the definition of policies and measures covering the main topics of UNCTAD VII. In the event, agreement on the assessment chapter was reached with relative ease, largely based on a revised draft brought forward by the President of the Conference, which itself drew on the extensive work undertaken in the six months preceding UNCTAD VII.

As regards policy recommendations on resources, agreement was reached on measures in favour of the poorest countries in Africa in alleviating their debt services obligations, on a reaffirmation of targets established on ODA to the LDCs (and to all developing countries) and on a recommendation of the need to continue negotiations to solve the problem of developing countries' external debt. The debt issue proved to be the most difficult to solve at UNCTAD VII, but a workable compromise formula was eventually found.

Turning to commodities, the Final

Act takes account of the serious difficulties posed by many commodity-exporting countries which have experienced drastically reduced export earnings. The Final Act explained the need for horizontal and vertical diversification of those economies. Also in the commodity field, the signature by the USSR of the Common Fund Agreement (some six years after similar action by Member States of the Community), as well as signature by several other countries, brought the possibility of the Fund entering into operation substantially closer.

The trade item of the agenda was extensively discussed, and the Conference recognised in the Final Act the importance of the Uruguay Round in bringing about further bilateralism and extension of trade. It also emphasised the role of UNCTAD in supporting the Uruguay Round especially through technical assistance to developing countries.

Finally, the LDCs item saw a consensus agreement on technical and financial assistance, as well as on the modalities of externally financed development programmes; agreement was also reached on the debt problems of the LDCs with special reference to the need to ease the conditions on which additional finance is made available. Once again, the debt issue was the source of extensive negotiations and of some difficulty.

Throughout UNCTAD VII the Community was highly active in the various Conference fora. Its position on the agenda item had been worked out in the preceding months, culminating in orientations approved by the Council of Ministers on 22/6/87. To a large extent the Final Act of UNCTAD VII meets many of the objectives established by the European Community. It also formed the basis on which the Community conducted its negotiations throughout the Conference, both within Group 8 (OECD countries) and in the Conference Committee which handled the commodity item.

The outcome of UNCTAD VII is widely regarded as being a positive step both in the context of UNCTAD itself, and as giving a policy impulse to the discussion and eventual solution

of a wide range of global economic problems.

During the Conference, the Community held discussions with the ACP Delegations in Geneva, in order to exchange views on the substantive negotiations under way. In addition, four members of the European Parliament were present during the last week of UNCTAD VII, and were regularly briefed by the Commission on Conference developments. □

STABEX LDCs

Transfers for Bangladesh, Nepal and Yemen

Under its aid arrangements for the least developed countries of the world, the Commission decided on a system to compensate non-ACPs in this category for their losses in export earnings in February this year. This is similar to the Lomé Stabex system.

The Commission has received eight requests for transfers for 1986 from this system from three countries. On inspection, four of them have proved eligible.

So the first decision on transfers under the new arrangements has just been made as follows:

Bangladesh	
Jute	ECU 4 389 100
Tea	ECU 1 228 004
Nepal	
Hides & skins	ECU 232 759
Yemen	
Coffee	ECU 379 013
Total	ECU 6 228 876

Medical assistance programme for the Tamil and Singhalese populations of Sri Lanka

The Commission has just decided to financial a medical assistance programme for the Tamil and Singhalese populations of Sri Lanka. This is part of its programme to help refugees and displaced persons.

The programme is to provide medical and surgical assistance for about 30 000 Tamils in 30 camps in the Trincomalee district and 25 000 Singhalese in scattered villages in the region. □

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Declaration on the Middle East

During their 67th ministerial meeting held in Copenhagen, on 13 July 1987, the Member States of the Community adopted the following declaration of the Middle East:

The Arab-Israeli conflict

The Twelve noted the positive welcome given to their Declaration of 23 February in favour of an International Peace Conference on the Middle East. As a suitable framework for the necessary negotiations between the parties directly concerned, such a conference seemed to them at present the only formula which would allow the peace process in the region to move forward. They expressed the hope that conditions allowing an International Peace Conference to be held can be established rapidly upon the basis of an agreement between the parties to it.

For their part, the Twelve have followed developments in the area closely and have decided to pursue, both via the Presidency and bilaterally, their contacts at all levels with all the interested parties in order to contribute to the search for a just, global and lasting settlement of the Arab-Israeli conflict, including the Palestinian problem, in accordance with the 1980 Venice Declaration.

The Twelve recalled their commitment to the respect of human rights in the Occupied Territories. They agreed that the deterioration of the economic and social situation in these territories, as well as in the region as a whole, threatens to complicate the search for peace. For this reason, the Twelve will continue to contribute to economic and social development, although this cannot be a substitute for a political solution.

The Iraq-Iran War and the situation in the Gulf

The Twelve remain deeply concerned by the conflict between Iraq and Iran. They note the Venice Summit Declaration on the war and freedom of navigation in the Gulf.

They recall their previous declarations on the conflict in which they expressed their support for the efforts of the UN Secretary-General and their frequent appeals to the parties to respect Security Council Resolutions 582 and 588. They once more wish to emphasise the neces-

sity to end this cruel war and they welcome new international efforts, in particular in the Security Council, to ensure that both parties will respect a ceasefire and put an end to the war on the basis of a comprehensive, just and honourable settlement.

The Twelve re-emphasise once more their previous positions, notably concerning respect for the laws governing armed conflict, in particular attacks on towns and the use of chemical weapons; on the risk of the conflict spreading to neighbouring states; on the threat to the freedom of navigation in the Gulf; and on the threat to regional and international peace and security.

Lebanon

The Twelve expressed their profound concern about the continuation of violence in Lebanon, recently highlighted once again by the assassination of the Lebanese Prime Minister, by further hostage-taking and by the escalation of killings in South Lebanon.

They expressed once again the hope that all interested parties would show moderation in order to allow the political dialogue to recommence with a view to national reconciliation based on respect for the sovereignty, unity, independence and territorial integrity of Lebanon.

The Twelve reaffirmed their support for UNIFIL and urged that it be allowed to fulfil its mandate, in the best possible security conditions for its members.

Finally, the Twelve expressed their condemnation of the continuing detention of hostages and victims of kidnapping in Lebanon. ◊

BELGIUM

Public opinion and cooperation

André Kempinaire, Belgian State Secretary for Cooperation, gave his Minister's report on Government policy on aid for the economic development of the Third World to the press on 16 July. He explained what Belgium had been doing to help the developing countries (see *Courier* No 103, May-June 1987).

On the subject of the developing countries' debt, Mr Kempinaire said that

that Belgium could encourage the idea of staggering repayments or wiping out all or part of the debts quoted in foreign exchange, in the light of the situation in the countries in question. The debts would then be converted into credit in local currency and used for development projects.

This would be an interesting opportunity to reduce the debt of some countries, but the size of the amounts (if they were small) and the acquisition of the imported equipment needed for many projects could reduce the effect of such a measure.

Mr Kempinaire answered a question from *The Courier*, saying he was dissatisfied with Belgian public opinion when it came to development aid and cooperation. "Compared to Scandinavia, which is smaller and less densely populated and where public opinion firmly backs up the Governments' Third World aid policy, the Belgians are backward in coming forward to support cooperation with the developing countries", he said. Why? That is the question. ◊ L.P.

AIDS

Commission reacts on the free movement of Community citizens

The Commission has read certain articles in the papers and international press communiqués on the Bavarian Government's intention of banning EEC citizens with AIDS from entering or staying on Bavarian territory.

The Commission, whose job it is to ensure Community law is applied, wishes to express its considerable reservation as to the compatibility of this measure with the principle of the free movement of individuals laid down in the Treaty of Rome.

The Commission also pointed out at its meeting on 15 May that the Council of Ministers of Health of the Member States said in its conclusions on AIDS that it was particularly attached to the idea of complete respect for the principles of free movement of individuals and equal treatment laid down in the Treaties. It considered that national policies that ran counter to this and were likely to lead to discrimination should be avoided.

In accordance with the responsibilities that falls upon it under the Treaties, it will react firmly should Community standards be violated. ◊



INDUSTRIAL OPPORTUNITIES

PUBLISHED EVERY TWO MONTHS

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ANNUAL REPORT 1986

A TIME FOR CONSOLIDATION

For CDI, 1986—the second year of Lomé III—was all about building. Building up a sound and credible operational infrastructure on which objectives could be realistically achieved.

Some of the year's targets had to be rescheduled in view of the slow ratification of Lomé III, but CDI did put a new organisational structure in place, filling 10 vacancies among the international professional staff and, on the operational side, by the end of the year it had completed work programmes for 61 of the ACP States. Most of these programmes were put into operation.

The Annual Report for 1986, summarized in this article, says that the year saw a substantial increase in the number of projects identified and evaluated in depth. This was the result of a special effort to conduct an industrial potential survey of each ACP country.

A total of 458 interventions were executed in 1986 (135 more than in 1985). The profiles of projects dealt with in 1986 also show that they were of a larger scale (in investment terms) than those of 1985, but were nonetheless still labour-intensive. A total of 690 jobs were created in 1986 which compares with 436 in '85.

In 1986 (compared to 1985), fewer entrepreneurs were assisted with travel to meet potential venture partners, but this was due to a stricter selection of candidates and projects.

INVESTMENT FINANCE

The Report says that CDI's big handicap remains its lack of direct access to investment funds via a development bank or financial institution, in either ACP or EEC States. This means that many of the feasibility studies undertaken with project sponsors continue to face difficulties in implementation, due to a shortage of hard currency finance or export credit guarantees and insurance. Therefore, in 1986, CDI was obliged to put the greatest emphasis on existing ACP projects.

In 1986, in addition to project interven-

tions, CDI achieved a number of other notable results:

- An answer to the puzzle of how best CDI could meet the increased demand for assistance, given its resource constraints, began to take positive shape in the form of **bilateral agreements with Member States of the EEC**.

Such agreements give EEC Member States the possibility of co-financing CDI interventions involving their own nationals or experts.

These bi-lateral link-ups can also improve the dissemination in Europe of information on industrial investment opportunities in ACP States; and they can help CDI to coordinate its activities in the EEC countries concerned.

At the end of 1986, France, Italy and Belgium had entered into agreements with CDI. Agreements with Germany

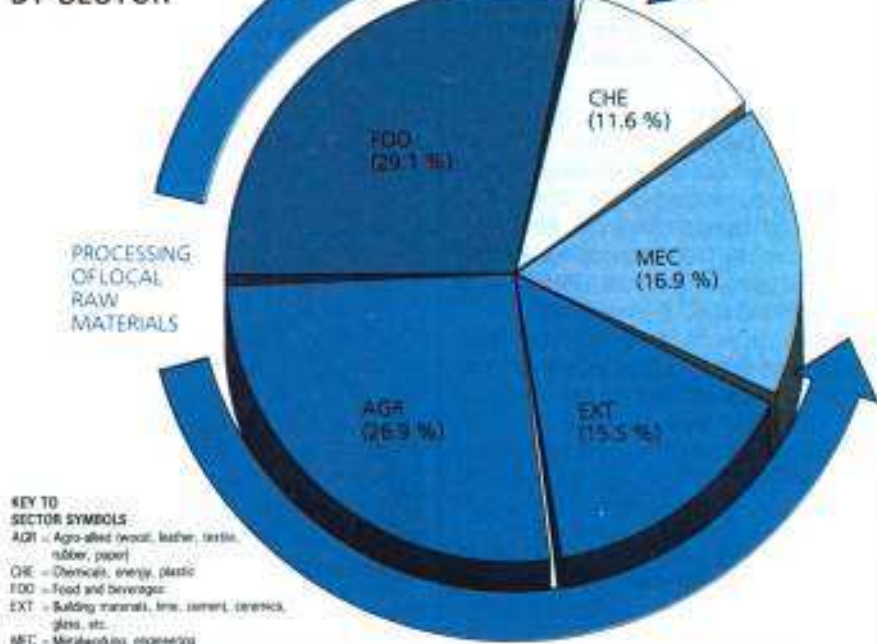
and Greece were being negotiated and contacts had been initiated with most of the remaining Member States.

- **Cooperation with the EEC Commission** was stepped up, in line with Article 71 of Lomé III. Although CDI was not involved in the Commission's Lomé III indicative programming missions to ACP countries, the Commission's completed programmes did open many doors through which CDI could step in with complementary action.

It was agreed that contacts between CDI and the Commission on the one hand, and between CDI antennae and Commission Delegates in ACP countries on the other, should be closer, to identify projects or programmes which could be undertaken jointly.

Continued on page 8.

1986 BUDGET UTILIZATION BY SECTOR



NEWS IN BRIEF

LUXEMBOURG MEETING TOUCHES FOUR COUNTRIES

On 10 June CDI organized a promotional meeting in Luxembourg aimed at getting industrialists in the Grand Duchy and in adjacent regions of neighbouring countries (Belgium, France and Germany), more involved in CDI's operations.

In his opening speech to this meeting, Luxembourg's Secretary of State for Foreign Trade and Cooperation, Mr. Robert Goebbels, stressed the importance of the private sector and of small and medium sized enterprises, to industrial Cooperation under the Lomé Convention.

He also indicated his Government's willingness to support ACP projects involving Luxembourg firms. This may take the form, he said, of contributions to project financing or the costs of technical assistance.

CDI brought to Luxembourg the promoters of dairy projects from Côte d'Ivoire and the Comores. They succeeded in holding useful discussions with potential technical partners.

After the meeting, discussions were held with EEC companies concerning projects for the maintenance of heavy vehicles (Togo) and the establishment of metal workshops.

About forty industrial firms from four countries were represented.

Some of these companies were interested in the production in ACP countries of goods such as coffins, palm oil, sewage pipes, construction materials and charcoal.

The meeting was organized in association with Lux Development and was also addressed by CDI's Governing Board Member for Luxembourg Mr. André Robert, by CDI Deputy Director Mr. Jens Mosgard and by representatives of the Walloon Region of Belgium, PROPARCO (France), DEG and GTZ (Germany).

It was also attended by senior staff from CDI's antenna organizations in Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea and Chad, by officials from the Development Bank of Niger, the EIB, UNIDO (France) and some regional organizations.

Three of the speakers at the Dublin meeting. Left to right: Mr Diarmuid Peavoy (Publicity Operations Expert, CDI), Mr. Jens Mosgard (Deputy Director, CDI), Mr Morgan Sheehy (Member of CDI's Joint Governing Board).

KEEN INTEREST AT DUBLIN MEETING

CDI's Promotional meeting in Dublin on 11 June was notable for the keen interest in industrial cooperation shown by over twenty manufacturing companies represented.

Their interests ranged from dairy products, to deep freezers, packaging materials, fertilizers, clay goods, timber products, excavator buckets, drilling equipment and transformers.

The Dublin meeting was also attended by representatives of agencies for industrial training, development cooperation, sea fisheries and industrial development, as well as by officials of Government departments, Industrial consulting firms and banks were also represented.

During the meeting the Chief Executive of the Agency for Personnel Service Overseas, Mr. Bill Jackson, expressed his willingness to co-sponsor Irish expertise for industrial projects. Mr. John Regan, Trade Finance Manager of the Bank of Ireland (International Division), expressed his bank's willingness to consider taking an equity share in ACP projects involving Irish partners.

In a follow-up to the meeting, the Managing Director of the Industrial Credit Corporation (Mr. Frank Casey) agreed that, in principle, his organization would provide development funding for CDI projects in which Irish firms are involved.

This meeting, the third of its kind to be held in Ireland, was opened by the Assistant Chief Executive of the Irish Export Board, Mr. Colum MacDonnell. "From the Irish point of view", he said, "There are

many opportunities for Irish companies with appropriate products and expertise to participate successfully in ACP-based projects. He gave examples of successful Irish involvement in overseas ventures in China, Nigeria, Malawi, Saudi Arabia and Zambia, in the areas of cement, meat production, and sisal products.

Mr. MacDonnell stated that the Irish Export Board was hoping to "formalize an arrangement" whereby it would act as CDI's correspondent in Ireland.

"Ireland's aid programme", he added, "will also support activities associated with CDI in the developing world".

Another speaker was CDI's Governing Board member for Ireland Mr. Morgan Sheehy, who spoke of the increasing effectiveness of CDI, the growing confidence of EEC industrialists in this institution and Irish industry's progressive interest in ACP countries.

Mr. Sheehy explained that small and medium sized industries in Europe get involved in CDI-assisted ACP productions for many reasons, including: "access to raw materials/new markets/good local contacts, new sources of finance, outlets for skills or appropriate technology and equipment, expansion possibilities, restructuring, re-investment of used equipment, traditional interest in the countries concerned".

"Irish firms", he continued, "have not traditionally looked to ACP countries, although in terms of scale, experience, language and state of development, they are well suited to operating there".

Stressing the need for Irish firms to become more involved in ACP operations, Mr. Sheehy said that Ireland must "resurrect financial aid" to assist them.



He said that CDI's objective is to create jobs via profitable industries in ACP countries and that projects are thoroughly vetted for this purpose.

"I would hope", he concluded, "that we can convince the Irish Government to widen its aid programmes to include and give recognition to this activity within CDI".

CDI's Deputy Director Mr. Jens Mosgard said that it is hoped that "the current forms of assistance administered by Irish agencies may eventually be applicable, in conjunction with CDI funds, to assist Irish industrialists involved under joint venture or other long-term contractual agreements, in ACP countries".

Mr. Mosgard also spoke of the need for development finance from Ireland to assist Irish industrialists. "France, Germany, Denmark and Belgium", he said, "have development finance institutions supporting their industrialists with equity participation and often loans at subsidized interest rates, for profitable operations in developing countries".

CDI, he said, had signed valuable agreements in a number of EEC States with Governments and institutions who will match CDI's contributions to ACP-EEC projects involving their own nationals. "We would like", he added, "to conclude similar agreements with Irish institutions".

Referring to the expansion potential of African markets, Mr. Mosgard said that any company taking a long-term view would certainly interest itself in Africa although, initially, its projects there may not be very big. As for the Pacific and the Caribbean, he said that EEC firms are today taking advantage of these areas as stepping-stones affording privileged access to the much larger markets of the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

An Irish consultant, Mr. David Walsh, spoke about a venture between a Ghanaian and an Irish company. The Irish company manufactures wooden garden furniture and wooden toys and needed a competitive source of machined hardwood components for garden furniture sold on the UK market. The Ghanaian company had a supply of suitable hardwoods and the required machinery, but lacked the necessary know-how and was short of export markets.

The two companies entered into a contractual agreement whereby the Ghanaian company would supply the Irish company with machined hardwood components in return for export earnings and technical support (and possibly management).

This exemplary arrangement benefits both companies.

The Dublin meeting was also attended by Mr. Jim Lockhart of the Caribbean State of St. Vincent, who was promoting a butter oil project. He afterwards had detailed discussions with Irish dairy concerns.

Following the meeting, Mr. Mosgard and Mr. Sheehy were received by the Minister of State for Development (Department of Foreign Affairs), Mr. Séan Calleary.

PORTUGUESE BODY SIGNS AGREEMENT WITH CDI

On 29 June the Portuguese institute for foreign trade (ICEP) signed an agreement with CDI under which:

- ICEP will help to find, or provide, co-financing for industrial arrangements between Portuguese and ACP firms to cover feasibility studies, market surveys, travel assistance, training/implementation/management assistance (for existing and new industries), diagnostic missions for rehabilitation projects, pilot plants and adapted technology trials.
- ICEP will assist in publicizing the projects and activities of CDI in Portugal; it will help Portuguese industrialists to pre-



Lisbon, 29 June. CDI Director Dr. Isaac Akinrele (left) and ICEP President Dr. Luis Fontoura exchange greetings following the signing of the agreement between their institutions.

pare proposals for promotion by CDI and to obtain support for ACP projects from local development funds/financing institutions/banks; and it will follow-up and co-ordinate CDI's activities in Portugal.

- CDI will supply ICEP with details of ACP industrial co-operation opportunities; it will provide promotional assistance to Portuguese companies interested in setting up production in ACP countries; and it will provide its normal range of assistance to ACP-Portuguese projects. ICEP has set aside a budget for the co-financing joint activities with CDI up to the end of 1987.

At the signing ceremony, which was attended by the Minister for Industry, Mr Santos Martins, ICEP President Dr. Luis Fontoura referred to the interdependence of the economies of the North and the South. The stability of one region, he said,

"pre-supposes and entails the other". He commented that the reduction of the Third World's imports, because of the recession, had negative repercussions on the Northern economies and that the Third World will require assistance in increasing its cash flows from exports, to fight poverty and reduce its debt burden.

He added that EEC countries, including Portugal, therefore cannot "evade the need to increase and diversify industrial cooperation with ACP countries and their financial flows to them".

The agreement between ICEP and CDI is proof, he said, that joining the EEC has opened up new industrial co-operation perspectives for Portugal that, besides promoting common economic development, may "contribute positively to the improvement of international relations and to understanding among nations".

CDI Director Dr. Isaac Akinrele said that the fact that the initial contact with ICEP had taken place barely two months previously indicated the determination of both organisations to "promote industrial development in ACP countries using the complementary support and participation of Portuguese industry".

Given CDI's limited budget, Dr. Akinrele said EEC firms would need access to additional funds if they are to be effectively assisted in marketing their industrial inputs in ACP countries. Hence, the importance of agreements with institutions such as ICEP.

Dr. Akinrele explained that current economic conditions in many ACP countries, have reduced the potential for initial profit in industrial projects. European industrialists choosing to invest in these countries will therefore, he added, need assistance with financing pre-investment costs to "reduce the level of risk in these expanding but less developed markets".

"It is our hope", said Dr. Akinrele, "that the initial fund which ICEP has provided for the benefit of Portuguese industrialists will be put to positive use to enable them to gain a new foothold, not only in Portuguese-speaking ACP countries but in other countries as well".

Dr. Akinrele said that the framework under which CDI operates draws its inspiration from the concept of a new economic order which advocates the replacement of "colonialism" with "partnership" and "aid" with "trade".

In concluding, Dr. Akinrele said that CDI favours projects where the ACP and EEC partners are prepared to commit themselves to long-term industrial cooperation arrangements in the form of joint equity participation, licensing agreements, franchising or subcontracting. A new option is for EEC managerial or technical partners to convert their fees into investment capital, thus reducing the initial foreign exchange commitments of ACP-based companies.

OFFERS FROM ACP SPONSORS EEC INDUSTRIAL PARTNERS WANTED



The proposals outlined below have been put forward by EEC firms interested in setting up production in ACP countries, under joint venture, franchising, or licensing arrangements, with local businessmen. Where a joint venture is under consideration, the EEC companies are willing to contribute (depending on the country and the project) some 20% of the equity investment.

ACP entrepreneurs interested in any proposal are invited to write to CDI quoting the reference number. However, CDI will not be in a position to act upon letters received unless ACP entrepreneurs provide all the information requested in the box on page 5.

Please ALWAYS mention the CDI reference numbers if reproducing the following proposals.

All equipment costs are quoted in Ecus (European currency units). The value of the Ecu may easily be ascertained from its relationship to other European currencies. Thus, in August 1987:

1 Ecu = £ 0.699253, or FF 6.90446, or DM 2.07614.

EDIBLE OIL PRODUCTION

PORTUGUESE PROPOSAL

87/21

A Portuguese company with experience in vegetable oil extraction and refining, as well as packing and marketing (copra/coconut/sunflower seed/groundnutseed/cottonseed oil) is willing to consider taking an equity participation in a joint venture with an ACP partner.

The transfer of know-how, training assistance and the supply of second hand plant, could be arranged.

Assistance with marketing (exports included) would be part of the joint venture package.

The minimum capacity for an oil seed plant is 1 000 tons of oil a year, with an estimated investment cost for (new) equipment of Ecu 7 million. The extension of operations for soap manufacturing can also be envisaged.

DEEP FREEZERS: COMMERCIAL AND DOMESTIC CHEST TYPE

IRISH PROPOSAL

87/22

An Irish firm which has been manufacturing freezers for over fifteen years (including operations in developing countries) is interested in passing on its experience and expertise for the setting-up of manufacturing facilities in ACP countries, for freezers with a capacity range of 180 to 610 litres.

The manufacture would involve the forming of sheet metal, injection moulding, pressing, wiring, framing, etc. The minimum capacity would be around 10 000 units a year for an estimated equipment cost of Ecu 854 701.

The Irish company can provide equipment, raw materials, training and know-how. It is prepared to capitalize part of its know-how (as a contribution to equity) and can assist with marketing.

CDI ASSISTANCE TO ACP-EEC INDUSTRIAL VENTURES

CDI can help ACP and EEC partners to set up their joint industrial projects by providing the following assistance:

- financing in-depth evaluations of industrial proposals;
- co-financing feasibility studies and market studies;
- acting as an honest broker during negotiations;
- obtaining independent evaluations of the value and suitability of second-hand plant;
- locating sources of finance;
- contributing to the cost of business trips to allow prospective partners to meet;
- helping to draft legal agreements using standard models;
- providing funds for training and short-term expertise during commissioning and start-up.

CERAMIC TABLEWARE AND HOUSEHOLD ITEMS

GERMAN PROPOSAL

87/23

A German company wishes to consider long term contractual arrangements (including joint ventures) with ACP partners for the production of ceramic tableware and household items. Low tension insulators might also be considered as an additional product.

The minimum capacity should be between 200 and 2 000 kg of finished products per day. The cost for second hand equipment—which can be independently evaluated by CDI—would be a minimum of Ecu 120 000.

FRUIT JUICE

SPANISH PROPOSAL

87/24

A well known Spanish brand owner (whose brand is easily recognizable in many countries) offers ACP entrepreneurs partnerships in fruit juice plants. The products would be non-gaseous and would be sold in an original disposable package (doy pack system). Licensing and franchising agreements could be studied.

The minimum capacity would be 7 500 packs an hour (equivalent to around 1 500 000 litres a year).

The equipment required would be valued at Ecu 360 000 (new plant).

ELECTRIC SWITCHING EQUIPMENT AND AUTOMATIC SYSTEMS

FRENCH PROPOSAL 87/25

A French company specialized in the manufacture of electrical switching equipment and automatic systems wishes to enter into joint venture arrangements with ACP companies operating in the same sector.

The French company would provide know-how for the assembly of various components in cabinets and frames. The basic requirement is for tools and equipment for wiring, measuring and checking. This would cost around Ecu 20 000. The French company could also train ACP technicians.

ELECTRIC MOTORS: REPAIR AND MAINTENANCE SHOPS

PORTUGUESE PROPOSAL 87/26

A long established Portuguese company is offering ACP entrepreneurs partnerships in workshops for the repair and rebuilding of:

- electric generators (medium- and large-sized) for energy production;
- motors for steel, cement, petroleum and paper industries.

Second hand plant and equipment are available, with an estimated value of Ecu 318 000. The annual production of such plant may be valued at Ecu 750 000. Industrial training and technical assistance are also offered.

COMPACT CANE SUGAR FACTORIES; SMALL STARCH AND GLUCOSE PLANTS

DANISH PROPOSAL 87/27

A large Danish group is interested in considering joint venture agreements for the production of sugar from cane, and starch from maize and sorghum.

The minimum capacity for a compact sugar cane factory would be 6 000 tons a year for an investment in equipment of about Ecu 12 million. A compact plant has limited infrastructural requirements and a low level of energy consumption.

For starch production the minimum capacity would be 10 tons of starch per day for an estimated equipment cost of Ecu 390 000.

TRAILERS; GARBAGE HANDLING SYSTEMS

PORTUGUESE PROPOSAL 87/28

ACP entrepreneurs are invited to consider the manufacture of special trucks, trailers and equipment for waste and refuse management, with the equity participation and technical know-how of a Portuguese company.

The necessary equipment is valued at Ecu 1 300 000 (new) to produce a sales volume of Ecu 3 million. Second hand equipment is also available.

INTRAVENOUS AND OTHER STERILE FLUIDS

UK PROPOSAL 87/29

A UK company, with previous experience of long-term contractual arrangements in Africa, is interested in the production of intravenous and sterile fluids in ACP countries.

The minimum capacity would be 210 000 one-litre units per annum for an estimated equipment cost (FOB) of around Ecu 345 000.

The basic raw materials (for the above mentioned capacity) are 225 000 litres of raw water, small quantities of imported chemical ingredients and polypropylene containers.

The company is open to joint venture arrangements, the provision of know-how and the supply and installation of plant.

STAIRCASE COMPONENTS

BELGIAN PROPOSAL 87/30

A Belgian firm is interested in setting up the production in ACP countries of components (steps, front boards, railings and posts) for staircases.

These would be standardised components for assembly in any location. The main raw material needed is tropical hardwood.

The minimum production capacity would be between 200 and 1 000 units a year for export to the Belgian market, for an investment in equipment of about Ecu 120 000.

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.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL SURVEYS OF ACP STATES

In recent issues of "Industrial Opportunities" we have been publishing summaries of industrial potential surveys undertaken by CDI in ACP States. In this issue, we carry a similar survey undertaken in the West

African State of Côte d'Ivoire.

All ACP countries have now been surveyed. The surveys are a form of assistance to ACP States and include recommendations for each country on how best

to stimulate industrial development.

Each survey also proposes industrial projects, suited to the local economic situation, which may benefit from CDI's assistance.

Côte d'Ivoire: industrial sector requires adjustments

In comparison with the other countries of West Africa, the industrial sector in Côte d'Ivoire is in a healthy condition.

Industry in this country grew considerably between 1960 and 1980, and if industry's contribution to the economy in general remains low (7%), this is because the national economy developed dramatically over the same period.

Nonetheless, the industrialisation of Côte d'Ivoire does give rise to some concern today, as has become apparent in studies, reports and seminars on the subject.

The industrial trends described in this article, which is based on a CDI survey, are discussed in relation to the 1981-1985 Development Plan (*).

AGRO-BASED GROWTH

Agro-industry was at the base of the rapid industrial expansion of Côte d'Ivoire, due to the extent and variety of agricultural resources available in the country and favourable agronomic conditions. About ten different high-yield crops are grown.

However, it is clear that agriculture will play a lesser role in the growth of industry in the future. Agricultural resources are limited, and from now on choices will have to be made with regard to the way these resources will be used.

It is becoming increasingly difficult to develop a new crop without hindering the cultivation of another. The decline of tobacco cultivation, the rise in sugar production (at a time when an increase in rice imports indicated that the food deficit was growing)—these trends eloquently indicate the need to reconcile several different objectives.

However, the potential of the agro-industrial sector is by no means exhausted, and still offers possibilities for development. For example:

- processing of the by-products of the sugar industry, particularly molasses, which is produced in such large quantities;
- the fruit and vegetable preserves industry, the potential of which has not yet been fully exploited;

(*) The most recent reports—and the most important from the point of view of the future development of Côte d'Ivoire's economy (particularly the report on the industrial subsidiaries to be developed during the period of the 1986-1990 Plan)—were of a highly secret nature at the time when the survey was carried out.



- the coffee and cocoa industry (by the introduction, for example, of the decaffeinating process);
- the processing of maize and other oleaginous products;
- the textile industry.

FURTHER STEPS NEEDED

Côte d'Ivoire's industries need to further develop their export markets. There has, on the other hand, been quite a significant development in import-substitution industries.

At present many industrial plants are operating at a loss. This situation, which is partly a result of protectionism, could be improved by the gradual withdrawal of direct State involvement in industrial activity.

There are two additional steps which could be taken, in the development of the Côte d'Ivoire economy, which would help with the penetration of foreign markets:

- Firstly, one could upgrade the above-mentioned agricultural products, to which may be added cotton and its by-products, and latex;
- Secondly, one could develop those export industries which use non-agricultural raw materials and for which Côte d'Ivoire offers definite advantages. For example, greater advantage could be

taken of Côte d'Ivoire's forests, where there is at yet no industrial activity. Likewise intensive production of paper pulp and the processing of certain by-products of the fat processing industry, would make for greater diversification in chemical production.

Moreover, the development of regional cooperation under the umbrella of CEAO (Communauté Economique de l'Afrique de l'Ouest) and ECOWAS (Economic Community of West Africa States), is opening up Côte d'Ivoire's export markets.

A FINE BALANCE

The implementation of all these changes requires a favourable national climate and an appropriate investment policy.

Government policy is currently directed to achieving a fine balance between encouraging local industry and not discouraging foreign investment.

However, Côte d'Ivoire's domestic savings are not sufficient despite a significant expansion of its banking system and the country will have to continue to depend on financing from outside.

As a host country for foreign investment, Côte d'Ivoire offers very attractive conditions. In addition, the development of hydraulic power stations and the exploitation of local energy resources (oil, gaz, etc..) will make it possible to keep energy costs down.

The policies of opening up its markets and of increasing domestic stability, the relatively well-developed industrial fabric—these are also positive factors.

The government introduced an export subsidy at the beginning of 1986 with a view to encouraging exports of certain manufactured products. But this subsidy will only be fully effective if applied to products for which there are real difficulties in finding markets and is backed-up by a strategy designed to increase the competitiveness of the branches concerned.

FOREIGN INVESTMENT

There is a considerable amount of foreign investment in the Côte d'Ivoire economy.

The breakdown of equity capital by nationality and by sector for 1983 shows that a third of economic activity is controlled by other countries, mainly France.

However, since 1974 Côte d'Ivoire has gradually been increasing control over its economy (from 35.8% in 1974 to 66.3% in 1983). Privatisation of the economy has also been growing.

Moreover, foreign investment is lower in the industrial sector than in other sectors (2%) and occurs mainly in some agro-industries (e.g. processing of fats), the wood industry (where multinationals are the only firms not experiencing difficulties) and in the chemical industry.

The general objectives of the Development Plan for 1981-1985 are geared to increasing national control over industrial development and the fruits of this development, by means of greater exploitation of local resources, particularly human resources.

In addition, foreign investment is encouraged by the Government's fiscal policy. This policy has turned out to be a difficult instrument to handle. The new Investment Code established in 1984 is its cornerstone. However, it is generally admitted that in many cases it does not help to bring about its objective of industrial decentralisation.

It was expected that the Development Plan for 1986-1990 would take all these elements into account.

INITIAL ASSISTANCE TO COTE D'IVOIRE UNDER LOME III

Below, we list some of the projects already assisted (or about to be assisted) under CDI's initial programme for Côte d'Ivoire under Lomé III.

Some of these projects were derived from the industrial potential survey of the country undertaken by CDI.

PROJECTS ASSISTED IN 1985/86

- **Banana processing** — co-financing of a study on raw material supplies;
- **Soap factory** — start-up assistance;
- **Production of yam flakes** — co-financing of a feasibility study;
- **Citronella leaf infusions** — market study;
- **Bicycle manufacturing** — training assistance for start-up;
- **Air conditioner factory** — training assistance for expansion;
- **Wood-based packaging plant** — in-depth evaluation and travel assistance (for meetings between potential partners);
- **Prefabricated wooden houses** — co-financing of a technical feasibility study and of the construction of two prototype houses.

PROJECTS FOR 1987

- **Waste oil recycling** — co-financing of a feasibility study and start-up assistance;
- **Sawmill** — search for an EEC joint venture partner;
- **Sign plates (for roads, buildings, vehicles, etc.)** — training assistance (following the co-financing of a feasibility study in 1986);
- **Charcoal production (from woodwaste)** — travel assistance for meetings in Europe and start-up assistance (following the co-financing of a feasibility study on renewable energy applications in 1985/86);
- **Low-cost houses (from stabilized earth blocks)** — co-financing of a marketing and feasibility study;
- **Yoghurt production** — travel assistance to allow partners to meet and finalize a joint venture agreement (following travel assistance for discussions in 1985 and 1986).

OFFERS FROM ACP SPONSORS EEC INDUSTRIAL PARTNERS WANTED



EEC industrialists are invited to contact CDI, quoting the reference number, in response to any offer outlined in this section. However, CDI will reply to enquiries only if EEC industrialists give brief descriptions of their current operations and are prepared to provide the kinds of cooperation requested by the ACP sponsors.

Organisations reprinting these offers in their own publications, are asked ALWAYS to include the corresponding CDI reference numbers.

WOVEN POLYPROPYLENE SACKS

NIGERIA

662.NIA.06.PLA

A private group of businessmen wishes to set up a production unit for woven polypropylene sacks. The envisaged capacity is 12 000 000 sacks per annum (50 kg type).

The unit would supply the local market which is estimated to be 250 million sacks a year (65 kg type) for fertilizers and grains.

Raw materials will be available at the end of 1987 from a petrochemical plant.

The local group can meet the local costs of the project (Ecu 1 119 000 out of an estimated total investment of Ecu 5 161 000).

Turnover is expected to be around Ecu 6 million a year.

The promoters are seeking an EEC technical and joint venture partner.

GLASS-REINFORCED PIPES

KENYA

662.KEN.21.PLA

A private Kenyan company has recently been established to manufacture GRP pipes for the local market. Although the product is not at

the moment in use in Kenya, a market survey indicates a potentially high demand for it, to satisfy the requirements of irrigation, sewage and the oil sector.

The promoters seek an EEC partner who can assist with a feasibility study, training and the identification of plant and equipment. A joint venture agreement may also be considered.

CANDLE MANUFACTURING

GUINEA

661.GUI.31.CHE

A private promoter wishes to set up production of candles for household use. The output would be primarily aimed at the local market which has an estimated demand for 112 million candles a year and is currently supplied by imports.

The initial production capacity envisaged for the plant is about 30 million candles a year.

The promoter seeks an EEC joint venture partner who can take 30% of the equity, provide technical know-how and obtain access to supplier's credit (for plant and equipment).

Continued from page 1.

A few joint projects were initiated during the year notably in Ghana, Senegal, Mauritania and the Pacific.

- **CDI's Joint Governing Board**, a new body established by the Lomé III Convention, had its role and terms of reference defined in 1986. The Board's Presidency (Chairperson and Vice-Chairperson) was put into action and took an active part in mediating with the Committee on Industrial Cooperation (CDI's supervisory authority) with respect to the day-to-day management of CDI, the establishment of policies and the fixing of objectives.

New members were appointed to the Board during the year to represent some ACP regions as well as Spain and Portugal.

- During 1986, cooperation with the **UNIDO Investment Programme** was activated. A collaboration agreement with the UNIDO office in Cologne was signed, and UNIDO's Programme Director proposed the formalisation of a working agreement with CDI.

INTERVENTION PROGRAMMING

The Report details the activities undertaken in 1986 by each of CDI's substantive divisions. The ACP Programmes Division, for instance, drew up **55 intervention programmes**, with the help of CDI's antenna organisations in ACP States. A programme of industrial potential surveys, which came to an end during the year, greatly facilitated the task of the Programmers.

Antennae had been appointed in 58 ACP countries by the end of the year. Their role in identifying and substantiating projects, assisting sponsors with requests and providing follow-up information for CDI, increased in importance. A meeting with 16 West African antennae was held in Dakar to review operational problems.

CDI's **Industrial Promotion Attaché Programme** was modified in 1986 to strengthen its training content. Under this programme senior officials from nine of CDI's ACP antenna organisations worked for six weeks in CDI's office in Brussels. They came from: Cameroon, Central African Republic, Comoros, Congo, Guyana, St Lucia, St. Vincent, Trinidad & Tobago, Zambia.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

The emphasis which CDI places on technical assistance is reflected in the performance of the Industrial Operations Division. Here, **technical assistance was provided for 150 projects** in various industrial sectors: extraction, food processing, chemicals, plastics, renewable energy, agro-allied and mechanical/electrical projects.

The **food processing sector** (37 projects) accounted for 23.6% of CDI's active



Food processing sector. This palm oil plant in Burundi went into production in 1986, following a CDI-sponsored technical assistance programme which allowed 29 technicians to be trained, over 10 months, in all aspects of machinery operation and maintenance.

projects during the year, where assistance was provided for a wide range of operations from the processing of vegetables, fish and meat, to the manufacture of animal feed, soft drinks and bakery products. The type of assistance provided varied from feasibility studies involving joint venture partners to diagnostic missions associated with rehabilitation.

The food sector, with its emphasis on the use of local raw materials and possibilities for import substitution, will continue to receive a high priority from CDI.

The **agro-allied sector** includes wood products, paper, textiles and leather goods. There was a total of 33 projects here, eleven of which involved training assistance.

In the **extraction sector**, the 31 active projects included the manufacture of ceramic tiles and tableware, marble products, sanitary ware, lime and cement.

The 32 active projects in the **chemical, plastic and renewable energy sectors** included: paint factories; fertilizers; anti-rodent products; health/hygiene products (e.g. soap, adhesive plasters, pharmaceutical goods); oil recycling; plastic sacks; salt production; charcoal; and solar energy applications.

Finally, there were 17 active projects in the **mechanical and electrical sectors**, including an enamelling plant, a manganese steel foundry and the production of electrical switching equipment, car batteries and nails.

EUROPEAN LINKS

The **Investment Promotion Division** was understaffed in 1986 but was active, nonetheless, in providing the European links for projects. It followed up or promoted **91 ACP projects**; and potential European partners, or finance, were found for 65 of these.

Twenty other production proposals originating from Europe were promoted, generating the interest of more than 119 ACP entrepreneurs.

Marketing action began early in the year, through the ACP antennae, to identify sectors where CDI could provide assistance. The response was quite limited but some interventions were initiated for wood products, textiles and garments, processed food products and condiments.

Some seven marketing studies, or surveys, were undertaken for ACP manufacturing companies wishing to introduce their products into EEC markets.

Country surveys were initiated in the UK, the Netherlands, Italy, Spain and Portugal to analyse possibilities for cooperation with ACP countries.

FINANCIAL EXPERTISE

With a view to securing bank finance, 28 feasibility studies for new or rehabilitation/expansion projects were evaluated.

Pre-appraisals were also made for some 20 project proposals/prefeasibility studies (and five of these were complemented with computer-aided financial projections).

DOCUMENTATION AND INFORMATION

In 1986, CDI handled 240 requests for information dealing with subjects such as energy, intravenous solutions, soap and grain products, among others. Of these, 92 required the use of electronic on-line information retrieval facilities.

Also, during the year, the second volume of the Inventory of Adapted Technologies for ACP Countries was published.

NEW PRODUCTIONS

In 1986, the following 22 CDI-assisted projects entered production:

- Palm oil plant (Burundi)
- Tannery (Cameroon)
- Chicken hatchery (Cape Verde)
- Exercise book production (Comoros)
- Honey processing (Fiji)
- Modern bakery (Guinea Conakry)
- Cement-based roofing tile plant (Jamaica)
- Cement-based tile plant (Madagascar)
- Sanitary ware plant (Mauritania)
- Plastic pipes factory (Mauritania)
- Biscuit factory (Mauritania)
- Corn flour mill (Nigeria)
- Coir fibre matting production (Papua New Guinea)
- Metallic wire sponge production (Senegal)
- Charcoal production (Sierra Leone)
- Fruit processing (Togo)
- Metallic wire coating (Togo)
- Two small brick plants (Uganda)
- Paint factory (Zaire)
- Chalk crayon production (Zaire)
- Piggery (Zambia)

OPERATIONAL SUMMARY

No. 41 — September 1987

(position as at 17 August 1987)



EEC-financed development schemes

The following information is aimed at showing the state of progress of EEC development schemes prior to their implementation. It is set out as follows:

Geographical breakdown

The summary is divided into three groups of countries, corresponding to the main aspects of Community development policy:

- the ACP countries (Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific), which signed the multilateral conventions of Lomé I (28 February 1975), Lomé II (31 October 1979) and Lomé III (8 December 1984), plus the OCT (overseas countries and territories) of certain member states of the EEC, which get the same type of aid as the ACP countries;
- the Mediterranean countries (Maghreb and Mashraq), which signed cooperation agreements with the EEC in 1976 and 1977;
- the ALA developing countries of Asia and Latin America, beneficiaries since 1976 of annual aid programmes.

The information within each of these groups is given by recipient country (in alphabetical order).

Note

As the information provided is subject to modification in line with the development aims and priorities of the beneficiary country, or with the conditions laid down by the authorities empowered to take financial decisions, the EEC is in no way bound by this summary, which is for information only.

Information given

The following details will usually be given for each development scheme:

- the title of the project;
- the administrative body responsible for it;
- the estimated sum involved (prior to financing decision) or the amount actually provided (post financing decision);
- a brief description of projects envisaged (construction work, supplies of equipment, technical assistance, etc.);
- any methods of implementation (international invitations to tender, for example);
- the stage the project has reached (identification, appraisal, submission for financing, financing decision, ready for implementation).

Main abbreviations

Resp. Auth.: Responsible Authority
Int. tender: International invitation to tender
Acc. tender: Invitation to tender (accelerated procedure)
Restr. tender: Restricted invitation to tender
TA: Technical assistance
EDF: European Development Fund
mECU: Million European currency units

Correspondence about this operational summary can be sent directly to:

Mr. Franco Cupini
Directorate-General for Development
Commission of the European Communities
(ARCH.25/1/1)
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	A6Bb	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
A3	Agriculture, fishing and forestry	A6F	Pure or general research
A3A	Agricultural production	A6G	Scientific documentation
A3B	Service to agriculture	A6H	Research in the field of education or training
A3C	Forestry	A6I	Subsidiary services
A3D	Fishing and hunting	A6J	Colloquia, seminars, lectures, etc.
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
A4	Industry, mining and construction	A7E	Public health administration
A4A	Extractive industries	A7F	Medical insurance programmes
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
A5	Trade, banking, tourism and other services	A8G	Flood control
A5A	Agricultural development banks	A8H	Land settlement
		A8I	Cultural activities
		A9	Multisector
		A9A	River development
		A9B	Regional development projects
		A10	Unspecified



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 will be applied from 1987.

To obtain any information concerning PABLI please write, specifying the option chosen (terminal or telex) to:

Mr A. BOLDRIN
 "Data base Section" – B9/69
 Directorate-General for Development
 Commission of the European Communities
 200, rue de la Loi
 1049 Brussels
 Belgium

ACP STATES

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

Rural Water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie et des Ressources Naturelles. HYDROMINA. Parallel cofinancing with UNICEF. EEC contribution 2.250 mECU. Study, T.A. and supply of hand-pumps, tubes, drilling equipment, vehicles. Project in execution.
 ALA ANG 8425 A2b

ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA

Livestock development - Phase I. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 1.9 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. T.A.: Short-list done. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF.
 EDF AB 5003-4003 A3a

BAHAMAS

Rural economic infrastructure (Family Islands Energy). Resp. Auth.: Bahamas Electricity Corporation. Estimated cost 2.4 mECU. Works, installation, supply of generators, cables, renewable energy systems. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
 EDF BM 6001 A2a

BELIZE

Belize City Hospital. Phase I. Estimated cost 7.494 mECU. Work constructions and supply of equipment. 4th and 5th EDF. Project stage: identification.
 EDF BEL 4007-5002 A7a

Hummingbird Highway. Estimated cost 5.6 mECU. Road reconstruction. Study to be done: design plan and bridge and int. tender dossier. Short-list already drawn up. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
 EDF BEL 6001 A2d

Community Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Social Services. 0.150 mECU. Project preparation study. Short-list done. 6th EDF.
 EDF BEL 6002 A8b

BENIN

Upgrading of health service infrastructure in Porto Novo Hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Estimated cost 9 mECU: renovation and construction of the hospital building and equipment. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
 EDF BEN 5010 A7a

Road maintenance programme (phase II). Resp. Auth.: Ministère Equipements et Travaux Publics. EDF part 24.3 mECU. Resurfacing of the roads Malanville-Parakou and Comé-Lokosa-Dogbo. Works and supply of T.A. Project on appraisal. Int. tender for works launched in June 87. (Conditional) Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF.
 EDF BEN 6002 A2d

BOTSWANA

Initial measures for the conservation of the Kalahari ecosystem. T.A. and supply of equipment. Monitoring and protection of the natural reserves. 2 mECU. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
 EDF BT 6001 A8f

Kasane airport. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works and Communications. Estimated total cost 6.6 mECU. EDF 4.5 mECU, Italy 1.6 mECU, local 0.5 mECU. Construction of 2 000 m runway, bush clearance of 170 ha, buildings, two main apron stands, air traffic control equipment, telecommunication network, crash fire and rescue equipment, car park. Works supervision. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
 EDF BT 6002 A2d

Support programme for dry land agriculture. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Lands. 3.5 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 study: short-lists *already* drawn up. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF.
 EDF BT 6005 A3a

Manpower development for sustainable resource utilisation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and University of Botswana. Estimated cost 4.5 mECU. T.A. and training for basic science, ground water exploration and management, environmental resource and sustainable agriculture. Project on appraisal. 4th and 6th EDF.
 EDF BT 6003 A6

BURKINA FASO

Ouagadougou-Kaya railway. Resp. Auth.: Ministère Promotion Economique. 5.5 mECU. Supply of rails, equipment and ballast. Int. tender (conditional) *launched end of July. Date foreseen for financing September 87.* Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
 EDF BK 5019 A2d

Rural water supply. Comoé, 3rd phase. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Ressources Financières. 3.1 mECU. 210 bore-holes and rehabilitation of 30 water-points. Supply of handpumps and equipment. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 4th EDF.
 EDF BK 4023 A2b

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.* Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing October 87.* 6th EDF.
 EDF BK 6001 A3a

BURUNDI

Extension of "Institut Pédagogique" (IUSE). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Education Nationale ±1 mECU. Construction and equipping of educational buildings (general teaching classes, laboratories, workshops). Int. tender dossier: TETRA Consultants (Lux). Int. tender (conditional) launched in April 87. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 5th EDF.
 EDF BU 5019 A6b

Social-economic development of the Kirundo Province. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Elevage. 15.5 mECU. Works: spring walls catchment, well boring, buildings, feeder road. Supply of agricultural inputs, equipment, vehicles, T.A. and training. Works by acc. tender, supplies by int. tender or direct agreement, T.A. and training by restr. tender. Short-list done. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
 EDF BU 5005 A3a

Support to "Département des Eaux et Forêts". Resp. Auth.: Département des Eaux et Forêts. Estimated cost 3.350 mECU. Reforestation works, supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
 EDF BU 5020 A3c

Roads and bridges in Bujumbura. Estimated cost 8 or 9 mECU. Road and bridge construction. Supervision of works. Study of the execution and preparation of the int. tender dossier for roads: short-list done. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
 EDF BU 5023 A2d

Rural development in the Mosso Buyogoma. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Elevage and Département des Eaux et Forêts. Estimated cost 40 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 stage identification. 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

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 on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF CM 6002 A3a

CAPE VERDE

Groundwater research. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. EDF part 2.2 mECU. Cofinancing with France 0.5 mECU, Kuwait 1.3 mECU. Construction of a gallery in Bata Rama, supply of drilling equipment. T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 87. 5th EDF.
EDF CV 5001 A2b

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. Date financing July 87. 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. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF.
EDF CA 6002 A3a

Development programme of the Central and Southern region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Dév. Rural. Estimated cost 25 mECU. To strengthen coffee plantations in the villages and the infrastructure, diversifications in ex-cotton zones; rural health and human hydraulics, T.A., studies, following and evaluation. Studies to be done: hydrogeological study and health expertise, studies to reconvert cotton zones and on producers cooperatives; if necessary, expertise on agriculture and reforestation. Short-lists *already* drawn up. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF CA 6005 A3a

CHAD

Priority actions programme in the educational field. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de la Reconstruction. Estimated cost 5.2 mECU. Works, supplies, scholarships and T.A. T.A.: ADITEC (Lux). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5003 A6a

Agricultural programme in the Sudan zone. Estimated cost 5.5 mECU. Various actions for: organising the peasantry, stocking and marketing, utilisation of improved seeds and production techniques. T.A.: AGRER (B). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 87. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5010 A3b

Strengthening of Road maintenance brigades. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de Travaux Publics, de l'Habitat et de l'Urbanisme. 19.5 mECU. For Sarh-N'Djamena: supply of road equipment, logistics and T.A. For Sarh-Lere: works by int. tender and supply of T.A., training and supervision of works. *Project in execution. Int. tender for road equipment launched in July 87. 6th EDF.
EDF CD 6001 A2d

Rural development priority programme in the concentration zone. Resp. Auth.: Office National de Dév. Rural (ONDR). 15 mECU. Hydro-agricultural works; infrastructure, education, health. Works, supplies and T.A. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF.
EDF CD 6002 A3a

Support programme to strengthen primary education. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale. 1.275 mECU. Supply of teaching equipment and training and integration scholarships. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF CD 5022 A6a

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 A7a

COMOROS

Artisanal fishery. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Production et des Industries Agricoles et de l'Artisanat. 1.092 mECU. Supply of equipment, boats, engines, T.A. and training. Date financing July 87. 5th EDF.
EDF COM 5017 A3d

Moroni port. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Plan et de l'Équipement. Total estimated cost 14 mECU. EDF 8 mECU, France 6 mECU. EDF part: maritime civil engineering. Construction of a jetty, a pier and a quay and dredging. Int. tender (conditional) foreseen in August 87. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF COM 6001 A2d

COTE D'IVOIRE

Rural development of the central region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 10.5 mECU. Development of irrigated rice-growing. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF IVC 5021 A3a

Rural oil palm plantations for the 2nd palm plan. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture, Rural. EDF 20.850 mECU, 22.945 ha in rural areas. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF IVC 6001 A3a

Research and development of the orcharding in the savannah region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Recherche Scientifique (MRS) I.R.F.A. EDF 1.120 mECU. Works by direct labour or direct agreement. Supply of scientific equipment, vehicles, agricultural equipment and office equipment. Fertilizers, pesticides, laboratory products. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 87. 5th EDF.
EDF IVC 5020 A3a

Strengthening of the research capacities for the "Institut des Savanes" (IDESSA). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Recherche Scientifique (MRS). IDESSA. EDF 2 mECU. Works by direct labour or direct agreement. Supply of scientific equipment, vehicles, rural equipment, furnitures, laboratory products, fertilizers, pesticides. All by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision October 87. 5th EDF.
EDF IVC 5020 A3a

DJIBOUTI

Ranch construction. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Studies and Works. Works by int. tender. 1.030 mECU. Int. tender dossier prepared by Dubois (ACP). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF DI 5005 A3a

Rural development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. EDF part estimated at 4.9 mECU. Improvement of the rural development, farm and livestock monitoring, rural hydraulics, palm-tree plantations, pump-station maintenance. Studies to be done: evaluation of the rural development programme; study on possibilities to improve rural development. Short-lists, *already* drawn up. Project stage: identification. 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. EDF part estimated at 4.2 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 stage: identification. 6th EDF.
EDF DI 6002 A2d

Health programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Estimated total cost 1.016 mECU. EDF 0.855 mECU, France 0.116 mECU, local 0.045 mECU. Building of the training centre for health care staff, and of Rural Health Centres. Supply of mobile health care equipment, T.A. to the Health and Epidemiological service. Project on appraisal. 4th and 6th EDF.
EDF DI 6003 A7a

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

Rural interventions. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF.
EDF EG A3a

Rural development in the Bata district. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture, de l'Élevage et du Dév. Rural, Ministère de la Santé. 1.350 mECU. T.A.: B.D.P.A. (F). 5th EDF. Project in execution.
EDF EG 5004 A3a

Malabo electrification (Phase II). 2.7 mECU. Purchase of generator sets, repairing of the power station and town mains extension. 2 int. tender launched in June 85. Project on appraisal. Supervision of works: S.G.I. (Lux). Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 87. 5th EDF.
EDF EG 5003 A2ai

Assistance to the road maintenance service in Rio Muni. 2nd phase. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 1.1 mECU. T.A., training and purchase of road equipment. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF EG 5009 A2d

ETHIOPIA

Rural Water Supply. Resp. Auth.: Ethiopian Water Works Construction Authority. 1.9 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A.: J.

Taylor and Son (UK) and GITEC (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF ET 5016 A2b

North Shewa rural reclamation and development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated 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 on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing **2nd half 87**. 6th EDF.
EDF ET 6001 A3a

GABON

Continuation of the Fernan Vaz project (II). EDF 6.3 mECU. Improvement and diversification of agricultural production, social action and feeder road construction. Date financing **July 87**. 6th EDF.
EDF GA 6001 A3a

Bokué reforestation - Phase II. 6 mECU. Continuation of the existing project and agroforestry experimentation. Supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution. Int. tender for equipment launched in April 87. 6th EDF.
EDF GA 6002 A3e

Experimental rural rubber tree cultivation programme Mitzié/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 on appraisal. 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, 2nd half 87. Project in execution. 4th EDF.
EDF GM 4005 A6b

Second highway maintenance project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works and Communications. EDF part 1.2 mECU. Supply of road construction-maintenance equipment. Bulldozer, motor grader, truck, water tanker. **Int. tender launched in May 87.** Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GM 6001 A2d

Development of the non-industrial fisheries. Estimated cost 3 mECU. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing **October 87**. 6th EDF.
EDF GM 6003 A3d

GHANA

Takoradi harbour rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ghana Ports Authority. EDF 6.9 mECU. Works and supply of equipment. Tender for works in execution. Project in execution. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 5028 A2d

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. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6001 A2d

Support to Ghana Regional Appropriate Technology Industrial Service (GRATIS). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Industries, Science and Technology. EDF part estimated at 1,200 mECU. Supply of equipments, vehicles, T.A. and training. **Project in execution.** 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6004 A4g

Rehabilitation of Dawhenya smallholder rice irrigation scheme. Estimated total cost 2.5 mECU EDF part 2 mECU, local 0.5 mECU. Rehabilitation works over 244 ha. Provision of agricultural equipment and other **inputs.** **Project on appraisal.** Date foreseen for financing **October 87**. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6005 A3a

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

Transport infrastructure programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ghana Highway Authority. 5 mECU. Rehabilitation of drainage structures and minor bridges of first priority on trunk and feeder roads. T.A. and supervision of works. Technical study: short-list **already** drawn up. Date financing **July 87**. 5th EDF.
EDF GH 6030 A2d

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. Study to be done: financial reappraisal of the Twifo oil palm plantation. Short-list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF GH 6007 A3a

GRENADE

Eastern Main Road, Phase III. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Communications and Works. EDF 3.5 mECU. Strengthening the road base by coal mix surface course and improving drainage structures. Works by direct labour. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GRD 6001 A2d

Pilot project. Model farm. Resp. Auth.: Grenada Model Farms Corporation (GMFC). 0.275 mECU. Access roads, drainage, irrigation, supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing **October 87**. 6th EDF.
EDF GRD 6002 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 Dev. 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.** Date financing **July 87**. 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. Date financing **July 87**. 6th EDF.
FED GUI 6001 A3a

GUINEA BISSAU

T.A. for trade reform measures. 3 mECU. Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF GUB 6001 A4e

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. Estimated cost 23.5 mECU. Improvement of the food and fishery production, line of credit, micro-projects, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF GUB 6002 A3a

GUYANA

Economic infrastructure sector support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. 14.5 mECU. Rehabilitation of sea defences, quarries, transport, water supplies. Supply of equipment, training. **First int. tender for supplies foreseen in the 1st quarter 88.** Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF GUA 6003 A2b, d

JAMAICA

Rural road and bridge reconstruction. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Construction. Estimated cost 7.3 mECU. Rural roads and bridges damaged during heavy flooding during May-June 86. Project in execution. 6th EDF.
EDF JM 6001 A2d

Jamaica Public Service Company (JPSCO). Training centre. Resp. Auth.: JPSCO. Estimated total cost: 2.710 mECU, EDF part 0.540 mECU, Italy 1,350 mECU, local 0.730 mECU, JPSCO 0.090 mECU. EDF part: supply of laboratory equipment, pedagogical equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF.
EDF JM 5014 A6d

Rural water supplies. Phase I. Resp. Auth.: National Water Commission. 5.750 mECU. Extension, upgrading of five existing water supply schemes: South Manchester, Lionel Town/Kempshill, Elderslie/Niagara, Castleton, South Chapelton. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF JM 6003 A2b

KENYA

Rehabilitation of Kigano-Namyuki Road. Resp. Auth.: Minister of Transport and Communication. 12 mECU. Works and supervision. Int. tender for work (conditional) launched in March 87. Date financing July 87. 5th EDF. EDF KE 5027 A2d

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. Date financing July 87. 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

LESOTHO

Mphaki area development. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.7 mECU. Feeder roads, livestock, veterinary and marketing installations, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF LSO 6002 A3a

Asparagus expansion programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Trade and Industry. 4.75 mECU. The project aims to increase within 10 years smallholders asparagus growing areas from present 80 to 670 ha. Works: wells, tracks, houses and other infrastructures. Supplies: vehicles, tractors and farm equipments, T.A. and training. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF LSO 6003 A3a

LIBERIA

Rural health training centre. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Provision of services, supplies and equipment (including drugs), T.A. for management and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 87. 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 on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 5th EDF. EDF LBR/SYS 0000 A4s

South-East development programme. Estimated cost 27 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF LBR 6002 A3a

MADAGASCAR

Microhydraulic programme in the village sector: consolidation and extension. Programme to improve the management of water in the village sector on 21 000 ha of small enclosed irrigated rice fields. Works by direct labour. Acquisition of equipment and supplies by int. tender and tech. assistance by restr. tender. 8.35 mECU. T.A. Short-list done. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF MAG 6001 A2b

Soalala iron: prefeasibility study. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie. Estimated total cost 6.1 mECU. EDF 1.9 mECU, Italy 4 mECU, local 0.2 mECU. EDF part: soil prospecting by acc. tender and supply of vehicles. Project on appraisal. 87. 5th EDF. EDF MAG 5032 A4a

Water supply in the South (phase III). Improvement of water supply conditions for population and livestock. EDF part 5.1 mECU, local 0.700 mECU. Wells, boreholes, supply of specialised equipment, T.A. and evaluation. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF MAG 6003 A2b

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. 119 km. Supervision. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 88. 6th EDF. EDF MAG 6005 A2d

MALAWI

Central and northern region fish farming development, training and research. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost: 3 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. Project in execution. Int. tender for supplies launched in July 87. 5th EDF. EDF MAI 5019 A3a

Strategic fuel reserve. Resp. Auth.: Office of the President and Cabinet. Contingency Planning Unit. 4.2 mECU. Construction of tanks for diesel, petrol, ethanol. Associated infrastructure and equipment. T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF MAI 5020 A2a

Small Enterprise Development Organization of Malawi (SEDOM) - Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Sedom secretariat. EDF 4.8 mECU. Works by direct labour. Supply of vehicles and equipment by int. tender in 87. T.A.: GITEC (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF MAI 5021 A4e

Smallholder coffee project. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance/Smallholder Coffee Authority (S.C.A.). Total cost 9.59 mECU. EDF 4.62 mECU, local 4.97 mECU. T.A. by restr. tender, supplies by int. tender and civil works by loc. tender. T.A.: Short-list done. Project in execution. Int. tender for supplies launched in July 87. 6th EDF. EDF MAI 6003 A3a

Smallholder agricultural input support programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated cost 28 mECU. Establishment of fertiliser buffer stock of 70 000 tons, building of 3 warehouses + auxiliary facilities, T.A. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF MAI 6005 A3a

MALI

Support programme to the food strategy. 23 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF MLI 6001 A3a

Strengthening of the health infrastructure in the district of Bamako. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. 1.3 mECU. Extension of 2 health centres and construction of a new Blood Transfusion Centre. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Works by acc. tender. Date financing July 87. 5th EDF. EDF MLI 5026 A7a

Stock-farming in North-East Mali. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Ressources Naturelles et Elevage. 2.2 mECU. Improvement of water points, building construction for cooperatives, supplies, training, follow-up, logistics. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF MLI 5006 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

Water resources improvement programme in the Mopti 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 on appraisal. 5th and 6th EDF. EDF MLI 6005 A2b, d

MAURITANIA

Aioun El Atrouss hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 1.050 mECU. Renovation and supply of equipment for 3 buildings. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF MAU 5012 A7a

Centre de Formation Professionnelle Maritime de Nouadhibou (C.F.P.M.). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 2.5 mECU. Construction, supply of equipment, T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF MAU 5014 A6d

Rehabilitation of Nouakchott National Hospital. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement. 4 mECU. Renovation and upgrading for building, supply of medical-technical and surgical equipment. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 87. 6th EDF. EDF MAU 6003 A7a

Road maintenance programme. Resp. Auth.: Direction des Travaux Publics. 15 mECU. Upgrading straightening of the road Nouakchott-Rosso (93,5 km) and 78 km of the road Boutillimit-Aleg. Supply of equipment for a road maintenance brigade. Supervision, T.A. and training. Works and supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF MAU 6004 A2d

MAURITIUS

★ **Development of Ile Rodrigues - Phase II.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 3.250 mECU. Development centred on agricultural production. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 5th EDF. EDF MAS 6003 A3a

Programme to diversify productive sectors to improve employment prospects (1st part: industry). Estimated cost 10 mECU. Actions to strengthen export and industry promotion institutions, actions to incite development of small enterprises. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF MAS 6002 A5a

MOZAMBIQUE

★ **Rehabilitation of the Port of Beira. Reconstruction of parts of berths 2 to 5.** National and regional project with Zimbabwe, Malawi and Zambia. 48 mECU. Resp. Auth.: Beira Corridor Authority. Reconstruction of about 390 m of quay including the construction of the associated container-multi purpose terminal area. Int. tender (conditional) launched in December 86. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. MOZ 6003. REG 6401 A2d

★ **Import support programme for rural development.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Commerce. 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. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF MOZ 6008 A1c

NIGER

Rice-growing in the river valley. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Cultivation of 1.800 ha, electrification, feeder roads, T.A. for management. Project preparation study: short-list already drawn up. Project on appraisal. 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

Road maintenance on R.N.1. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 15 mECU. Maintenance works for 160 km and supervision. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF NIR 6003 A2d

★ **Zinder-Agadez road. Rehabilitation works for Takieta-Nigeria border.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère des T.P. 3.68 mECU. Supplementary financing. Works: int. tender after prequalification. Prequalification done. Date financing July 87. 5th EDF. EDF NIR-REG 5026 A2d

★ **Rehabilitation project for the medical district of Mainé-Soroa.** Estimated cost 0.779 mECU. Supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 87. 4th EDF. EDF NIR 4021 A7e

NIGERIA

Kaduna afforestation project. Resp. Auth.: Federal Department of Forestry. 9.4 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. T.A.: Hedeselkabet (DK). 5th EDF. EDF UNI 5001 A3c

Abakaliki Zinc Feasibility Study. Resp. Auth.: NMC (Nigerian Mining Corporation). 1.220 mECU. T.A. by restr. tender after short-list. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF UNI 5007 A2b

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Magi highway. Resp. Auth.: Department of Transport. 3.5 mECU. Upgrading and sealing of a road section. Works: int. tender foreseen 2nd half '87. 5th EDF. EDF PNG 5006 A2d

★ **Diesel Power Replacement Programme.** Resp. Auth.: Electricity Commission (ELCOM). Estimated cost 4.850 mECU. 4 small hydroelectric power plants with transmission line extensions from existing grids. 1st int. tender (conditional) launched in October 85. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF PNG 5011a A2a

RWANDA

Development of the small-scale tin industry. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie, des Mines et de l'Artisanat. 2.840 mECU. Sysmin. Works, supplies, training and T.A. T.A.: Short-list done. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF RW 5016 A4a

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

ST. VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES

Kingstown Hospital redevelopment (phase II). 1.8 mECU. Works and supplies. ★ Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SVG 6002 A7a

SAO TOMÉ & PRINCEPE

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

★ **Strengthening of the electricity production capability.** Supply and installation and works for electricity production of ±2.000 KVA. Estimated cost 0.950 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF STP 6002 A2ai

SENEGAL

New energy research and testing in rural regions. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Recherche Scientifique. 1.5 mECU. Creation of pilot unit for solar energy, biomass and wind energy. Studies, T.A. and equipment. Studies: AGIP-AFOR (I). Equipment: int. tender in 87. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SE 5005 A2a

Consolidation of the livestock development programme. Resp. Auth.: SODESP. Estimated cost 1.6 mECU. Study under way by Bessel Ass. (UK). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SE A3a

Artisanal fishery development in the Casamance Region. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Pêche Maritime. EDF 1.6 mECU. Works, supplies and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SE 5024 A3a

★ **Support programme to the development of the Podor region.** Estimated cost 97 mECU. Rural hydraulics, support to promote S.M.E., micro-irrigation, road and urban infrastructures, telecommunications, electrification, health, training, promotion of women, fight against desertification. Date financing July 87. Int. tender for works launched in June 87. 6th EDF. EDF SE 6002 A3a

SEYCHELLES

★ **Craft industry development programme.** Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement National. 1.2 mECU. Renovation works and supply of furnitures. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by direct agreement and int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision September 87. 6th EDF. EDF SEY 6003 A4d

SIERRA LEONE

★ **Rehabilitation of the Telecommunications Network.** Resp. Auth.: Post and Telecommunications Dept. 1.4 mECU. Study to prepare technical specifications and int. tender dossier. British Telconsult (UK). 2 int. tenders (conditional) launched in January 87. *Project in execution.* 5th EDF. EDF SL 5024 A2c

Port Loko rural development programme. 6 mECU. Infrastructures, T.A., training and supplies. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SL 5008 A3a

Creation of regional centres for small enterprises. Estimated cost 1.25 mECU. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF SL 5017 A4d

Rural health development programme. Estimated cost 1.5 mECU. Buildings, equipment and training. Works by acc. tender already launched. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SL 5025 A7a

Tourism development project. Estimated cost 0.850 mECU. T.A. for Ministry of Tourism and supply of equipment. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF SL 5026 A5c

★ **Bennimix baby food production programme.** EDF 1.25 mECU. Improvement of the nutrition and health status of children by producing from local raw materials low cost, high quality weaning food, which can be afforded by the low-income groups. *Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 5th EDF. EDF SL 5028 A7a

Construction of the road Fadugu-Kabala. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Estimated cost 12 mECU. Bituminised road, 40 km. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF. EDF SL 6001 A2d

SOLOMON ISLANDS

Coconut industry development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Land and Natural Resources. Study under way by Agrar and Hydrotechnik (D). Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF SOL 5009 A3a

Rehabilitation programme after cyclone Namu. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Economic Planning. 1.722 mECU. Works and supply of equipment. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SOL 6002 A7a

★ **Development of human resources in the rural sector.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Economic Planning. 4 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF SOL 6003 A3a

SOMALIA

Bardheera Dam. Resp. Auth.: Bardheera Dam Authority (BDA). 600 mECU. (Estimated) Dam Project. 500 mECU. Powerline

to Mogadishu 100 mECU. Funding: EDF, Italy, Germany, France, Saudi Arabia, Abu Dhabi, Kuwait Funds, FADES, Isl. Dev. Bank. Local. Power and river regulation for agricultural development. Construction of a concrete gravity dam with hydro-power station, associated infrastructure and electrical transmission lines. The dam will provide water, flood protection and power for up to 223 000 ha of irrigated agriculture in the Juba Valley, and energy to Mogadishu. Civil works: first int. tender launched in 1984. Transmission lines int. tender in 1988. Equipment: powerhouse main equipment and auxiliary equipment, int. tenders in 1988. 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

"Aula Magna" Mogadishu National University. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. ±2.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF. EDF SO 4015 A6b

Upgrading of the road Afgol-Shalambot-Goluen. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. Works by int. tender in 87. Supervision of works. Studies: AIC, PROGETTI (I). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SO 5017 A2d

Food Early Warning System. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Estimated total cost 4 mECU. EDF ±3.1 mECU. Supply of meteorological and office equipment and T.A.: Transtec (B). Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SO 5015 A8f

★ **North-West agricultural development project.** Estimated total cost 36 mECU. EDF: 7.6 mECU, World Bank 14.9 mECU, IFAD 9.9 mECU, local 3.6 mECU. Infrastructural work and supply of equipment and T.A. T.A.: DARUDEC (DK). Project in execution. *Int. tender for supplies launched in July 87.* 5th EDF. EDF SO 5016 A3a

Development of inshore fisheries in the Mogadishu region. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Fisheries. EDF 3.0 mECU, local 0.3 mECU. Upgrading of fisheries infrastructure. Civil works local restr. tender, materials by int. tender/restr. tender or direct agreement. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SO 5024 A3d

★ **Rehabilitation of Mogadishu General Hospital.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health and Ministry of National Planning. 3.6 mECU. Works and supplies. Works: int. tender (conditional) *launched in March 87.* Supplies by direct agreement or int. tender. *Project in execution.* 5th EDF. EDF SO 5021 A7a

★ **Animal feed by agricultural sub-products.** Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Livestock, Forestry and Range. 1.9 mECU. Rehabilitation of a part of a dairy farm, supply of equipment and vehicles. T.A. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 5th EDF. EDF SO 5027 A3a

SUDAN

Jebel Marra Rural Development Project - Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 15.8 mECU. Civil works, supply of vehicles and equipment by international tender (conditional) launched in November 86, and T.A. by restricted tender. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF SU 6001 A3a

Nuba Mountains rural development programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Agriculture. EDF 11.450 mECU. Construction works, supply of vehicles and equipment and rural inputs, T.A. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF SU 6002 A3a

SURINAME

Rice project at Coronie. Resp. Auth.: Ministerie van Landbouw, Veeteelt, Visserij en Bosbouw. 7.850 mECU. Rice production developments. T.A.: EUROCONSULT (NL). Project in execution. 3rd and 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5002 A3a

Biomass energy project at Wageningen. Resp. Auth.: Government. Installation of an energy generator on the basis of rice husks. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5009 A2a

Artificial Insemination Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries. 0.72 mECU. Building of a new station and provision of equipment and material. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5010 A3a

Rehabilitation of the Burnside-Wageningen road. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Planning. Estimated total cost 7.5 mECU. Study to be done: technical methods for the implementation of the project: Delft Universiteit (NL). Int. tender for works (conditional) launched in April 87. *Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 87.* Project on appraisal. 4th and 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5011 A2d

Artisanal fishing centre Nickerie. Estimated total cost 1.250 mECU. Works for offices, repair shop, jetty, cold stores. Supply of ice making unit, vehicles, fishing gears, spare parts for engines. Training and evaluation. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5013 A3d

Sectoral import programme. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Creation of a revolving funds for imports of inputs (fertilizers and chemicals for the rice sector). Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF SUR 6001 A3a

SWAZILAND

In-service maths and science teaching improvement programme. Resp. Auth.: University of Swaziland. Ministry of Education. 2.3 mECU. Supply of teaching equipment, T.A. and training. *Project in execution.* 6th EDF. EDF SW 6003 A6a

Integrated development of trade, tourism and handicrafts in Swaziland. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism. 2.7 mECU. T.A. and training for the 3 sectors. Short-lists not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 87. 5th and 6th EDF. EDF SW 6005 A5c, d, e

TANZANIA

Mtwara water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals. 5 mECU. Works: drilling of new wells, and construction. Supply of equipment and T.A. Drilling activities and power supply connections by direct labour. Supplies: int. tender in 87. Supervision of works: G.W.E. (D). Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF TA 5003 A2b

Ports of Zanzibar and Pemba. Resp. Auth.: Zanzibar's Ministry of Communications and Transport. 12.5 mECU. T.A. for management, organisation, pricing and financial systems, training. Restoration of infrastructure. T.A.: NEDECO (NL). Date financing July 87. Int. tender for works launched in July 87. 5th and 6th EDF. EDF TA 5024 A2d

Cooperative Rural Development Bank (CRDB) Project. 3.15 mECU. Provision of equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF TA 5026 A3a

Rehabilitation of Zanzibar Hospitals. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health, Zanzibar. EDF 2.6 mECU. Cofinancing with Italy. Works, supply of equipment and training. Works by acc. tender. Date financing June 87. 5th EDF. EDF TA 5017 A7a

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

TOGO

Lomé hotel training centre (CFH). National and regional project (French-speaking countries of the sub-region). 3.450 mECU. Works, training and T.A. Project in execution. 5th Reg. 6th EDF. EDF TO 6001. REG 5147 A6d

Support to the draught animals cultivation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère du Développement Rural. EDF 5 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 on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF TO 6005 A3a

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

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Training programme, health sector. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health and Environment. 1.2 mECU. Training awards, laboratory equipment (sound-meters, chemical chromatographs, spectrometers) by int. tender. Short-term T.A. to coordinate and establish new laboratory. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF TR 5003 A8c

Goat development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 0.750 mECU. Works and supply of equipment. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF TR 5005 A3a

UGANDA

Karamoja Development Programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. EDF 6 mECU. Works and supplies. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF UG 5001 A3a

Support to emergency relief and rehabilitation programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. EDF 3.860 mECU. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF UG 6104 A8e

Hima cement power supply project (Kilembe hydroelectric power scheme). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water and Mineral Development, Kilembe Mines L (KML) and Uganda Electricity Board (UEB). 3.1 mECU. Rehabilitation works for the existing power station, supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF UG 5024 A2a

Sleeping sickness and trypanosomiasis control project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health, Ministry of Animal Industry and Fisheries. 2 mECU. Supply of drugs, chemicals, equipment, tools, vehicles and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF UG 5020 A3a, A7e

Forestry rehabilitation programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. Estimated total cost 32 mECU. EDF part 9 mECU. Natural forest protection and management; reforestation; improved charcoal production, fuel wood plantation preparation. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF UG 6003 A3c

Tea rehabilitation programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Uganda. Estimated total cost 97 mECU. EDF part 8 mECU. Project will rehabilitate tea factories, estates outgrower tea areas, repair roads, improve fuelwood supplies and assure inputs to the tea sub-sector. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF UG 6002 A3a

Uganda sectoral import programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Commerce. 15 mECU. Acquisition of agricultural machinery and inputs, repair of trunk and of feeder roads, acquisition of lorries and railway rolling stock, raw materials and packaging for soap production, yarn and dyestuffs for textile manufacture, chemicals and other raw materials for lead battery manufacture, steel flats and auxiliary materials for hoe production. T.A. and evaluation; supplies by int. tender. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF UG 6005 A1c

Makarere university renovation. Resp. Auth.: University and National Authorising Officer. Estimated cost 8.6 mECU. Renovation of 9 faculties, staff housing, supply of printing and library equipment, supervision. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF UG 6006 A6b

VANUATU

Fisheries extension service and training centre. Resp. Auth.: Fisheries Dept. Estimated total cost 2.1 mECU. EDF 1.7 mECU, local 0.4 mECU. Work construction by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF VA 6002 A3d

Smallholder cattle development project (phase II). Resp. Auth.: Livestock Service of Ministry of Agriculture. 0.228 mECU. Supply of vehicles and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87. 6th EDF. EDF VA 6003 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

Kalemie port rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Département des Transports et Communications. 5 mECU. Prequalification for int. tender launched in February 87. Works and supplies. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 87. Regional project. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5215 A2d

Goma-Beni high-voltage transmission line. Technical study to be done. Short-list not yet drawn up. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF ZR 0000 A2a

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. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF ZR 6002 A3a

Kinshasa hinterland programme. Estimated cost 35 mECU. To improve crop production. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. ★ EDF ZR 6003 A3a

Oso-Osokari road. Resp. Auth.: DG Travaux Publics et Administration Territoriale. Construction of an asphalted road. 74 km. ★ Estimated total cost 50 mECU. EDF 25 mECU, KfW (D) 25 mECU. Int. tender (conditional) launched in April 87. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF ZR 6004 A2d

Matadi-Kinshasa-Kenge road. Resp. Auth.: DG Travaux Publics et Adm. Territoriale. Estimated cost 22.5 mECU. Road rehabilitation and training for the staff of "Office des routes". Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 87. 6th EDF. EDF ZR 6006 A2d

ZAMBIA

Animal vaccine unit production. Laboratory construction. Supply of equipment and T.A. Estimated cost 3.79 mECU. EDF 3 mECU, local 0.79 mECU. T.A.: Central Diergeneeskundig (NL). 5th EDF. EDF ZA 5018 A3a

Rehabilitation of 3 grain silos. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, NAMBOARD. EDF 7 mECU, Germany F.R. 7 mECU. EDF part works, supplies and work supervision. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 87. 6th EDF. EDF ZA 6007 A3f

Zambia Centre for Accountancy Studies (ZCAS). 4 mECU. Training and management. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF ZA 6001 A6a

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. Date financing July 87. 2 int. tenders for fertilizers launched in July 87. 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. ★ Date financing June 87. 6th EDF. EDF ZA 6004 A3a

Smallholder development in central province. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and water development. 8 mECU. Basic infrastructure and social facilities. Works, supplies and T.A. Project stage identification. 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 stage identification. 6th EDF. EDF ZA 6006 A3a

ZIMBABWE

Small-holder Coffee and Fruit Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Lands, Resettlement and Rural Development. EDF 4.2 mECU, local 1.65 mECU. T.A.: I.R.F.A. (F). Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF ZIM 5006 A3a

Mashonaland East Smallholder Fruit and Vegetable Programme. Resp. Auth.: Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (ARDA). 2.9 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and materials, T.A. and credit line. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF ZIM 5012 A3a

Rural water supply in South Matabeleland. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Energy, Water Resources and Development (MEWRD). Boring wells, supply of hand pumps. 4.1 mECU. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF ZIM 5005 A2b

Zimbabwe export development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Trade and Commerce, Export Promotion Dept. Estimated total cost 6.3 mECU. EDF 4.4 mECU. Sector and market development, human resource development and institutional development and T.A. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF ZIM 6001 A4a

Construction of Bulawayo grain silo complex. Resp. Auth.: Grain Marketing Board (GMB). EDF 7.010 mECU. Works by acc. tender. Supply of T.A. and training. ★ Date financing June 87. 5th EDF. EDF ZIM 5017 A3a

Land Use Project for Kanyati and Gatshe-Gatshe Communal Lands. Cultivation and development and proper utilisation of wildlife potential. Works, supply of vehicles and rural equipment and T.A. Project stage: identification. 6th EDF. EDF ZIM 6004 A3a

Assistance to the Agricultural Finance Corporation (AFC). Resp. Auth.: A.F.C. Estimated cost 20 mECU. Line of credit (17 mECU), construction (infrastructures) and T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF ZIM 6005 A3a

Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT)

FRENCH POLYNESIA

Tahiti hydro-electric rehabilitation. Estimated total cost 13.7 mECU. EDF 1.8 mECU, France 2.6 mECU, EIB 4 mECU, local 3.1 mECU, SODEP 2.2 mECU. EDF part: supply of pylons, cables and materials. Int. tender launched in June 87. Date financing June 87. 5th EDF. EDF PGF 5005 A2a

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Line of credit to the Aruba Dev. Bank to improve agriculture, livestock and fishery. Resp. Auth.: Departement voor ontwikkelingsamenwerking. Estimated cost 0.3 mECU. Project on appraisal. 4th EDF. EDF NEA 4003 A5a

Tourism improvement. Curaçao. Phase I. Otrobanda sewerage. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. 6 mECU. EDF. Sewage, road works, piping, supervision. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF NEA 5013 A5c

ARUBA

Aruba Airport Extension. Estimated cost EDF part 5 mECU. Supply of navigational aids, equipment and construction of a service road. Int. tender (conditional) launched in August 87. T.A. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF NEA 5014 A2d

MONTSERRAT

Water Supply Project. Resp. Auth.: Montserrat Water Authority and Ministry of Public Works. 0.966 mECU. Project planning: SCET Int. (F). Date financing July 87. 4th and 5th EDF. EDF MON 5001-4001 A2b

Regional Projects

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CEDEAO

Actions to inform and promote investments in West Africa. (West Africa Industrial Forum, Dakar). 2.7 mECU. T.A. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF REG 6103 A1e

GUYANA - SURINAME

Guyana - Suriname ferry link. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works and Ministerie van Openbare Werken. Link ferry on Corentine river. 12.1 mECU. T.A. for Phase II. Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF. EDF REG 5602-4084 A2d

NIGER BASIN AUTHORITY

Protection and reforestation in the "Haut Bassin Versant du fleuve Niger en Guinee". Works, supplies and T.A. Estimated total cost 1.5 mECU. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5112 A8f

BURKINA - NIGER

Timber development in the future reservoir of the Kompienga 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. Date financing July 87. 6th EDF. EDF REG 6102 A3c

**ZAIRE — CONGO — GABON —
SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE —
EQUATORIAL GUINEA**

Fishery development in the Gulf of Guinea. Estimated cost 6.7 mECU. T.A. to prepare these projects. Short-list done. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing October 87.* 5th EDF. EDF REG 5206 A3d

**SENEGAL — MAURITANIA — MALI —
O.M.V.S.**

Dam construction in the right bank of the river Senegal delta. Resp. Auth.: O.M.V.S. Estimated total cost 15 mECU. EDF 10 mECU. France 5 mECU. Works: int. tender (conditional) *launched in July 87.* Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5157 A2a

PACIFIC ACP COUNTRIES

Pacific Regional Aircommunications. Stage 1. Resp. Auth.: SPEC. 4.6 mECU. Buildings, runways and supply of navigational aids. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5717 A2d

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF CILSS

Provisional survey of natural renewable resources in the Sahel. Resp. Auth.: CILSS Secretariat. Setting up of an observation unit to forecast crop production. Remote sensing by satellite, air survey and ground control. Project in execution. T.A.: Sodeteg - (F). 5th EDF. EDF REG 5116 A8f

Millet, maize, sorghum and niébé project. Resp. Auth.: CILSS Secretariat. Estimated cost 2 mECU. To provide improved varieties for farmers. Local tests. Purchase of vehicles and equipment and to take charge of local test control staff. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5116 A3a

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF U.A.P.T.

Satellite telecommunications project. Resp. Auth.: U.A.P.T. Secretariat in Brazzaville. R.P.C. Parametric study under way by national organisations of I, UK, F and D. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5307 A2c

INDIAN OCEAN ACP COUNTRIES

Tuna fishing in the Indian Ocean. EDF 6.3 mECU. Determination of different methods of tuna fishing. Evaluation of resources and T.A. to the countries. Madagascar, Comoros and Mauritius to select models for development. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5504 A3d

Aircraft maintenance centre for Indian Ocean countries. EDF 3.2 mECU. Strengthening of the existing centre in Ivato (Madagascar). Works, supplies and training. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5508 A2d

TANZANIA — ZAMBIA

Tazara Ten Year Development Plan (phase I). Resp. Auth.: Tanzania-Zambia Railway Authority. EDF part 13 mECU. Programme to improve maintenance of track and rolling stock, supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5026 A2d

EAST AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Statistical training centre for Eastern Africa in Tanzania. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat of the centre. 2.0 mECU. Widening of the capacity. Construction of class-rooms, offices and housing. Project stage: identification. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5311 A6b

Migrant pest control in Eastern Africa, Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Desert Locust Control Organisation for Eastern Africa (DLCO-EA). Estimated total cost 6 mECU. EDF 4 mECU, DLCO-EA 2 mECU. Research rapid survey, control and spraying of insects. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 5th EDF. EDF REG 5348 A3a

**BURUNDI — RWANDA — TANZANIA —
UGANDA — ZAIRE — KENYA**

T.A. to the Central Corridor. Estimated cost 10 mECU. Building of a rail-road terminal in Isaka, improve the traffic on the TRC and facilitate transit through the Kigoma, Kalemie and Bujumbura ports. Project on appraisal. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5341 A2d

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 on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 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. *Date financing July 87.* 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 on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing October 87.* 6th EDF. EDF REG 6306 (TA 0000) A2d

AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Campaign against rinderpest in African. Resp. Auth.: OUA and IBAR. Estimated total cost for 2 years 50 mECU. Supply of equipment T.A. vaccines and research. T.A.: Dr. Cheneau (F). Project in execution. 4th and 5th EDF. EDF REG 5007 - 4085 A3a

Fight against onchocercosis in Western Africa. EDF part 6 mECU. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5148 A3a

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

MALAWI — ZAMBIA — ZIMBABWE

Regional Tsetse and Trypanosomiasis Control Programme. Resp. Auth.: Technical and financing responsibility: Zimbabwe national authorising officer. 19.150 mECU. Works by direct labour. Vehicles, veterinary products, aerial spraying and equipment by int. tender. T.A. by direct agreement. Project in execution. 5th EDF. EDF REG 5420 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 on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.* 5th EDF. EDF REG 5316 A3d

**GHANA — KENYA — SOMALIA —
UGANDA — ZAMBIA — ZIMBABWE**

Qualified nationals reinstatement. Resp. Auth.: International Committee for Migration (ICM) Geneva. 7.3 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF REG 0000 A8b

**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

ALL ACP COUNTRIES

Programme for the Control of AIDS. To provide technical and financial assistance to countries in implementing national AIDS control programmes modelled on the World Health Organisation's Special Programme on AIDS. Initial assessment, public health intervention and education and information campaigns, control activities (surveillance systems) public health-operational research, T.A. and evaluation. 35 mECU. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing June 87.* 5th EDF. INT/EDF 002 A7e

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. *Date financing July 87.*

SEM AL A4g

Export training programme and assistance to the potentially exporting enterprises. Resp. Auth.: INC (Institut National du Commerce), ONAFEX (Office National des Foires et Expositions et Centre National du Commerce Extérieure). EEC contribution 2.2 mECU. T.A. and training. *Date financing July 87.*

SEM AL A5d

Technical and scientific programme with HCR "Haut Commissariat à la Recherche". Resp. Auth.: H.C.R. EEC contribution 12.1 mECU. T.A., training and evaluation. Supply of equipment by int. tender: test micro steam power plant, pilot plant for desalination, solid waste treatment, biomass, wind energy, computers, solar and nuclear laboratory. *Date financing July 87.*

SEM AL A4g

CYPRUS

Sanitation in Nicosia. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Sewage Board of Nicosia and the Department for Water, Geology and Mining. EEC part 2.4 mECU. Increase in capacity of the treatment plant. By local tender and by int. tender. Project in execution.

SEM CY A2b

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 87. T.A.: GET/KFA (D). Int. tender dossier: Phcebus (I).

SEM EGT 1002 A2a

Training Institute for Egyptian Labour Representatives. "Workers University". EEC contribution 1.970 mECU. T.A. and supply of kitchen, cafeteria and laundry equipment by int. tender. Project in execution.

SEM EGT A6d

Sinai water resources Study - Phase II. EEC contribution 3 mECU. Project on appraisal.

SEM EGT A3e

Credit line to the Principal Bank for Development and Agricultural Credit. PBDAC. Resp. Auth.: PBDAC. EEC contribution 45 mECU. Line of credit 43 mECU. T.A. and training 2 mECU. *Date financing July 87.*

SEM EGT A3z

LEBANON

Lebanese University, Faculty of Medicine. Resp. Auth.: Université du Liban. 0.500 mECU. Purchase of specialized equipment for the faculty by int. tender. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.*

SEM LE 0000 A6b

JORDAN

Sheep improvement project: breeding unit. Estimated total cost 4.018 mECU. EEC 2.1 mECU. Establishment of a breeding unit to provide improved species of the local breed, Awassi, to farmers. *Project in execution. Int. tender for supplies launched in July 87.*

SEM JO 2004 A3a

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

SYRIA

ISSAT. Institut Supérieur des Sciences Appliquées et de Technologie. Resp. Auth.: State Planning Commission. Estimated total cost 70.3 mECU. EEC part: supply of teaching and training equipment for the institute and T.A.: 8.250 mECU. *Date financing decision: July 86.*

SEM SYR 2002 A5b

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

Date-palm plantations study project in Régime Maatoug. Resp. Auth.: Banque Nationale de Dév. Agricole (B.N.D.A.). 1.9 mECU. Feasibility study, drillings and access roads. Works by direct labour. Study: Short-list done. Project in execution.

SEM TUN 2001 A3a

Water resources research and training study. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 1.0 mECU. Supply of soil equipment and data system. T.A. and training. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution.

SEM TUN 2004 A2b

Evaluation of soil resources and their liability to desertification in Southern Tunisia. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Estimated cost 1.2 mECU. EEC 0.400 mECU, local 0.800 mECU. T.A. and training. Supply of specialised equipment. T.A.: Short-list done for restr. tender. Project in execution.

SEM TUN 2005 A3c

Management improvement in the public irrigated areas in Tunisia. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. EEC contribution 2.5 mECU. Rehabilitation of hydro-electric equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution.

SEM TUN 2006 A3A

T.A. to the "Unités Coopératives de Production Agricole (U.C.P.A.). Resp. Auth.: B.N.D.A. 1.800 mECU. T.A., training and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

SEM TUN 2007 A3a

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 on appraisal.

SEM OT A8a, b, c

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

Rangpur. Rural Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Central Coordination Committee. (CCC). Total cost 40 mECU. EEC 25.5 mECU. NL 7 mECU, local 6 mECU. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender or direct agreement. Project in execution.

ALA BD A3e

Cotton Development. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Central Coordination Committee (CCC) and Cotton Development Board (CDB). EEC 4.9 mECU. Supply of T.A. training and equipment. Int. tender for supplies launched in May 86. Project in execution.

ALA BD 8504 A3a

Flood control and drainage. IV. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Irrigation, Water Development and Flood Control (MOI) and Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB). EEC contribution 2.050 mECU for T.A. and studies. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing September 87.*

ALA BD 8702 A8g

Cyclones protection project. Phase II. Estimated cost 1.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing October 87.*

ALA BD 8705 A8g

BHUTAN

Water supply. Resp. Auth.: Inter dep. Commission on water and sanitation. Works by direct labour. 4.5 mECU. Supplies int. tender or direct agreement. T.A.: UNICEF. Project in execution.

ALA BHU A2b

T.A. programme to the Department of Agriculture. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Forests. 1.1 mECU. Two experts during 3 years. 1 rural development engineer and 1 agro-economist. Short-list already drawn up for restr. tender. Project in execution.

ALA BHU 8513 A3a

BOLIVIA

Flood protection programme. Santa Cruz. EEC 9 mECU. NL 1 mECU. Works, supply of equipment. T.A. for NL. Project in execution.

ALA BO 8510 A8g

Rural self-development programme. Resp. Auth.: CORDEPO-CORDEOR. 20 mECU. Supply of equipment, materials, line of credit. T.A. Project in execution.

ALA BO 8701 A3a

CHINA (PEOPLE'S REP.)

Gansu Sugar Beet Development. Resp. Auth.: Gansu Province Department of Agriculture. EEC contribution 1 mECU. T.A., training and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA CHN 8517 A3a

Strengthening of soil and water conservation measures in Sichuan Province. 1.5 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA CHN 8526 A3a

Improvement of the rubber quality. 0.900 mECU. Supply of equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA CHN 8527 A3a

Pilot project to improve production from fish farming. 2.1 mECU. Project in execution.

ALA CHN 8528 A3d

Study of rural water supply and technical strengthening of institutions. Estimated total cost 3,080 mECU, EEC 1.1 mECU and 1,980 mECU locally. Study, T.A. and training in Europe. Project in execution.

ALA CHN 8515 A2b

Decentralised energising systems. Phase III. Supply of services and equipment to develop, supply and install a set of wind-generators of 150 KVA and an operating system to exploit in an integrated way a mixed system of wind-generators/diesel sets. Development, supply and installation of a test centre for mixed systems of wind-generators/diesel sets. Development of mixed systems wind-generators/diesel sets susceptible for joint manufacturing operation and commercialisation in the People's Rep. of China and in the Pacific countries. Plans to extend use of these sets are envisaged and also training actions. Supply of a diesel generator set of 280 KW, an electric submarine

cable of 10 KVA, 4 km length, supply and installation supervision of a television-satellite receiving station and several re-transmitting stations (powered by solar generators or by the grid). Estimated cost 2,180 mECU. Int. tender to prequalify services and int. tender for supplies foreseen in the 2nd quarter 87.

ADE 933-87-01 A2ai

Pilot project for fruit processing in the Hunan Province. Resp. Auth.: Agricultural Research Institute of Hunan. EEC contribution 1,550 mECU. Supply of a laboratory and pilot processing plant 1.5 ton/hour capacity. T.A. and training. Date financing July 87.

ALA CHN 8610 A3a

Pilot project to develop irrigated sector in the Gansu Province. Resp. Auth.: Water Resources Bureau of the Gansu Province. EEC contribution 3 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. training, evaluation. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87.

ALA CHN 8631 A3a

COLOMBIA

Reconstruction Programme. Resp. Auth.: Corporation de Reconstruccion de Cauca. Total cost 5.9 mECU. EEC 3.9 mECU. EEC part: supply of materials and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA CO 8403 A8a

Microprojects programme in the pacific coastal. Line of credit, T.A. and training. EEC contribution 4 mECU and supply of equipment. Project in execution.

ALA CO 8516 A3a

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

COSTA RICA - HONDURAS - NICARAGUA - PANAMA - DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Latin American qualified nationals reinstatement in 5 Central American countries. Resp. Auth.: CIM (Comité Intergouvernemental pour les migrations). 1.4 mECU. Reinstatement of 75 qualified nationals via CIM. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 87.

ALA CIM 8302 A8b

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

EL SALVADOR

Rehabilitation Programme. University of El Salvador. Resp. Auth.: U.E.S. Total estimated cost 5 mECU. EEC 3.3 mECU. Italy 1.7 mECU. EEC part: supply of equipment, T.A. and training for Agronomics and partly for Electrotechnology. Italian part: supplies for Electrotechnology, Physics and Mechanics, T.A. and training. Project in execution.

ALA ES 8519 A6c

GUATEMALA

Support to smallholder farmers. 12 mECU. Supply of equipment, line of credit and T.A. Project in execution.

ALA GU 8612 A3a

HONDURAS

Rehabilitation and Maintenance of Feeder Roads in Coffee Producing Areas. Resp. Auth.: Instituto Hondureno de Café (IHCAFE). EEC 2,750 mECU. Supply of T.A. and work construction equipment. Project in execution.

ALA HO 8524 A3a

Water supply, health in the rural sector. Resp. Auth.: Consejo Directivo de Saneamiento (CODISA), and Ministerio de Salud Pública. EEC contribution 14.5 mECU. Supply of equipment, materials, vehicles, T.A. and training. Project in execution.

★ ALA HO 8620 A8bc

INDIA

Development of Water Control Systems for diversification of crops in Maharashtra. Resp. Auth.: Irrigation Department of the Government of Maharashtra. EEC contribution 15 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Project in execution.

ALA IN 8418 A3a

Co-operative rural storage. Bihar. 21.19 mECU. Project in execution.

ALA IN 8607 A3f

Stock-farming development in Tamil Nadu. Resp. Auth.: Animal Husbandry Dept. of the Government of Tamil Nadu. EEC contribution 6.1 mECU. Works and supplies, T.A. and evaluation. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing September 87.

ALA IN 8704 A3a

INDONESIA

Bali Irrigation Sector Project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works, DG for Water Resources Development. EEC 12 mECU. ADB ± 37 mECU. Local ± 55 mECU. Rehabilitation and expansion of 50 village-level irrigation schemes, establishment of a water-management training centre, and establishment of climatological stations. T.A. Works: acc. tender. Project in execution.

ALA IND 8114 A3a

Seed production and marketing. EEC contribution 10 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing October 87.

ALA IND 8621 A3a

LAOS

Rural micro-projects programme in the Luang Prabang Province. Resp. Auth.: Administrative Committee of the Luang Prabang Province. EEC contribution 6 mECU. Infrastructure work, supply of equipment, vehicles, Bailey bridges, T.A. and training. Date financing July 87.
ALA LA 2623

A3a

NEPAL

Nepal Administrative Staff College. NASC. Resp. Auth. NASC Secretariat. Estimated total cost 6.5 mECU. EEC 5 mECU, U.K. 1.5 mECU. Renovation and construction works, supply of equipment and training. Project in execution.
ALA NEP 8407

A6b

Soil and water conservation in Bagmati Watershed. Special hunger programme. 5.5 mECU, T.A.: I.D.C. (D). Project in execution.
958-NEP 8401

A3a

Arjun Kuhola Irrigation Project. 1.536 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA NEP 8521

A3e

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

PACTO ANDINO MEMBER COUNTRIES

Regional programme for technical cooperation: food strategy. Resp. Auth.: JUNAC. EEC contribution 7 mECU for European T.A. and supply of data-computerised equipment by int. tender. Project in execution.
ALA JUN 8406

B1a

Regional programme for technical cooperation: industry and sub-regional exchanges. Resp. Auth.: JUNAC. EEC Contribution 7 mECU, T.A. and supply of equipment. Project in execution.
ALA JUN 8503

A4a

PAKISTAN

Talli irrigation project. Dam construction and infrastructure. Supply of equipment and T.A. EEC contribution 7.8 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA PK 8615

A3a, A9a

PANAMA — COSTA RICA — NICARAGUA — HONDURAS — EL SALVADOR — GUATEMALA

Regional programme of technical cooperation for food security. Resp. Auth.: CADESCA (Comité de acción para el desarrollo económico y social de centroamérica - Panama). Total cost 9.07 mECU. EEC 4.82 mECU, France 0.350 mECU, local 3.9 mECU, T.A. training and supply of equipment. Project in execution.
ALA REG 8505

A3a

Regional programme for child survival in Central America. EEC 16.5 mECU, Italy 16 mECU. Supply of T.A., training, equipment, medical equipment and medicines. Project in execution.
ALA REG 8520

A7a

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.: Corporación de Desarrollo de Puno (CORPUNO). EEC contribution 5 mECU. Studies, works and supplies. Project in execution.
ALA PE 8603

A3a

PHILIPPINES

Integrated development project of the Aurora region. Resp. Auth.: NACIAD. Total

estimated cost 12.6 mECU. EEC 10.8 mECU. Irrigation works, feeder roads, reforestation, supply of equipment and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA PHI 8525

A3a

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

SRI LANKA

Integrated rural development of the Mahaweli right bank region. System B. EEC contribution 25 mECU. Works and supplies. Date financing July 87.
ALA CE

A3a

THAILAND

Rural credit and rubber planting. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. 35 mECU. Supply of lines of credit, T.A., training, rural inputs, equipment. Project in execution.
ALA TH 8509

A3a

Huai-Mong. Phase II. 5.6 mECU. Works and supplies. Project in execution.
ALA TH 8613

A3a

YEMEN — ARAB REPUBLIC

Rehabilitation and maintenance of Al Mahwir road network. Supply of equipment and materials by int. tender, T.A. and training. EEC contribution 7.5 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA YAR 8611

A2d

YEMEN — PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

Rural development of Al Mahwir. Estimated cost 6.5 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing decision 2nd half 87.
ALA YDR

A3a

INTERNATIONAL CALLS FOR TENDER

All international calls for tender (int. tenders) referred to in this Operational Summary are notified in due time in the Official Journal (O.J.) of the European Communities' «S» supplement. This information is also available by computer link via the "TED" data base.

Subscriptions to the O.J. «S» supplement should be addressed to the «Office for Official Publications of the European Communities», L-2985 Luxembourg, Tel.: 49 00 81, or contact Mr A. Boldrin (see box page II).

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Papal Commission on Justice and Peace
 — *Au service de la Communauté humaine: une approche éthique de l'endettement international* (In the service of mankind — an ethical approach to international debt) — Vatican City, 1986 — available from Editions du Cerf, Paris 1987, with an introduction by Father Philippe Laurent, SJ, — 49 FF.

The Papal Commission brought out this original work on debt in the developing countries on 27 January. Although it is based on a number of studies of the subject produced over a period of several years, it is by no means a technical document — the 31 pages contain no figures — as the considerations are resolutely ethical in nature, stressing one or two major principles or "criteria for judgment" and suggesting changes in outlook and structure, but without putting forward any practical action programmes.

The message is new from many points of view. The global problem is posed with man in the middle and an attempt is made to highlight the co-responsibility of the main parties for both the causes of the situation and the search for solutions. The Vatican calls for a fairer distribution of the task of rehabilitation among those mainly involved. Lastly, it counters the cynicism that all too often underlies discussions and expresses the conviction that the challenge of the debt can be met and that relations of confidence can be established between the developing countries and their creditors if there is greater awareness of the interdependence and responsibility of everyone involved.

By insisting on the ethical side, Cardinal Etchegaray counters the experts' usual objection when they bring all the problems of the debt down to purely financial and technical machinery. The Cardinal stresses the importance of the social and financial aspects for the populations of Latin America and Africa and reminds us that "economic structures and financial machinery are there to serve man, not vice versa".

It is to a very large extent the people, the decision-makers, who are fallible and corruptible. And it is also people, generally the poorest ones, who are the victims. A solution means making the decision-makers aware of the problem and getting them to reconsider their responsibilities.

"All classes of society are called upon to better understand the complexity of the situations and cooperate in the choice and implementation of the necessary policies".

Where the text appears to criticise the efforts the international financial organisations force upon the countries with debts in exchange for more aid, it is only "where they only look at the situation from the monetary and economic angle". The church, "an expert on mankind", calls for a more global view of humanity.

The debt crisis has both internal and external causes. They are specific to each country and its economic and political management and they also stem from changes in the international environment — which depend, first and foremost, on the behaviour and decisions of the developed nations, who would do well to take a hard look at the way they manage international economic and monetary interdependence and the terms on which raw materials and other goods exported from the developing world. The church invites the leaders of the developing countries to "clarify their own action", to take a specific look at any negligence in installing suitable structures or abuse of the existing structures (tax fraud, corruption, outward capital drain, etc.)

The work hinges on the idea that "if we are to emerge from the international debt crisis, then those involved must agree on a fairer distribution of the adjustment effort and the attendant sacrifices, in the light of the needs of the poorest of the world's populations". This means that the industrialised countries should make a bigger

contribution, even if the crisis is giving them serious problems. The projected policies — more sustained economic growth, rejection of protectionism, better-coordinated financial policies with a view to cutting interest rates, and more aid for development — are in fact in their interest in the long term. Alongside this, a change in policies and outlook is vital in the debtor countries where the leaders have to make a better job of mobilising national resources, both material and human, and defining priorities. If these leaders are to be credible, then their willingness to serve and their disinterestedness must come across clearly in their way of life.

The Vatican recognises the legal rights of the creditors, but it calls upon the latter, particularly the States, which do not have to satisfy depositors as the banks do, to alter the terms of the debt so that they are compatible with meeting the essential needs of each debtor and achieving the minimal growth that is needed to cover the debt later on. Lastly, the document recognises the irreplaceable part played by the multinational financial organisations, whose whole mission must be adapted and expanded, which are better placed, not only to provide the relevant financial aid, but to advise the countries in difficulty and organise controlled reciprocity between the efforts of these countries and the sacrifices made by creditors as a whole.

B. Snoy

Change of address

For administrative reasons, the editorial department of "The Courier", has moved temporarily to a new address. With effect from the end of July, it is located at:

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*Visitors are as always welcome.
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