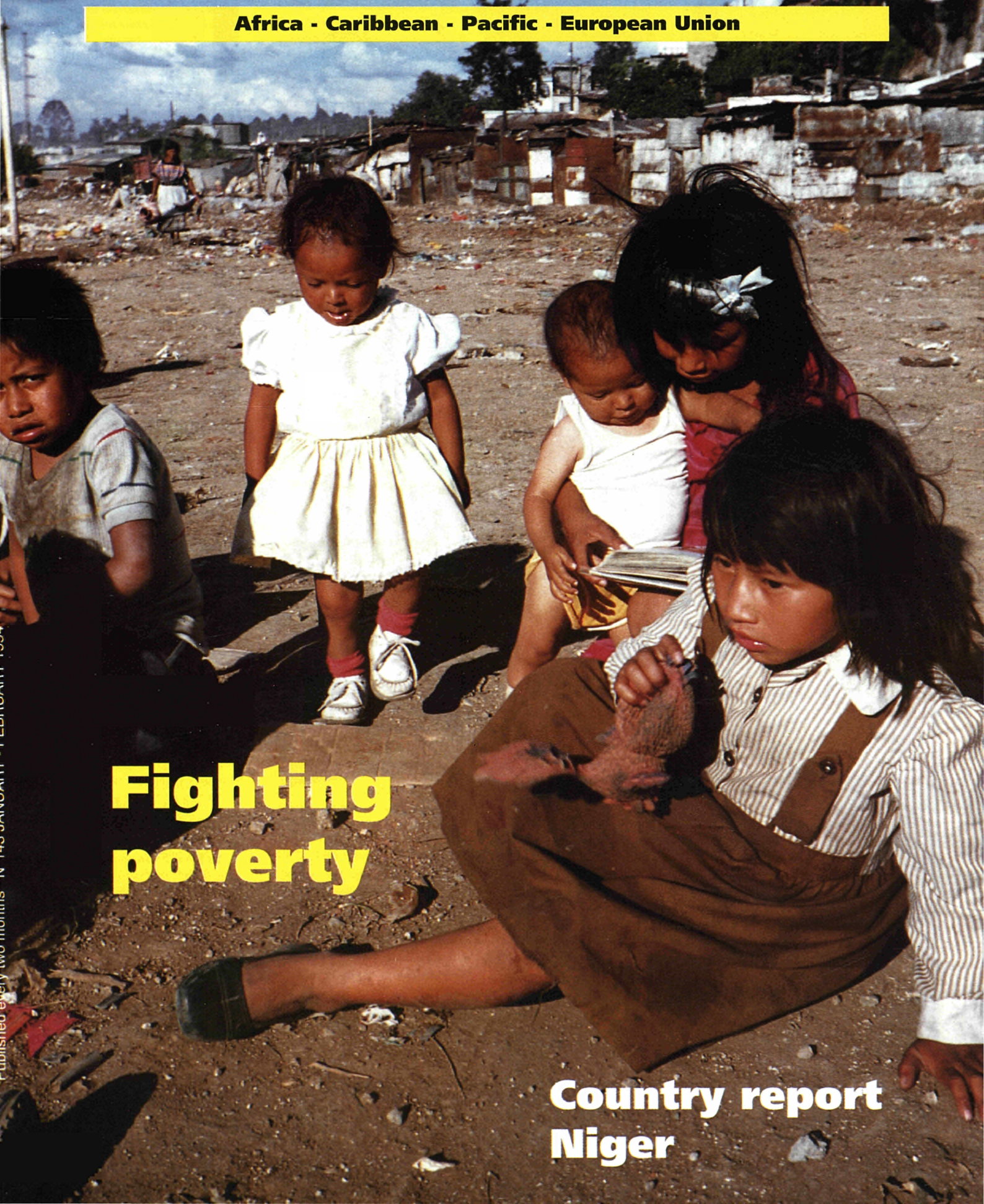


the Courier

Africa - Caribbean - Pacific - European Union



**Fighting
poverty**

**Country report
Niger**

Published every two months IN 145 JANUARY FEBRUARY 1994

Belgium
Denmark
France
Germany
(Federal Rep.)
Greece
Ireland
Italy
Luxembourg
Netherlands
Portugal
Spain
United Kingdom

France

(Territorial collectivities)
Mayotte
St Pierre and Miquelon
(Overseas territories)
New Caledonia and dependencies
French Polynesia
French Southern and Antarctic Territories
Wallis and Futuna Islands

Netherlands

(Overseas countries)
Netherlands Antilles
(Bonaire, Curaçao, St Martin, Saba, St Eustache)
Aruba

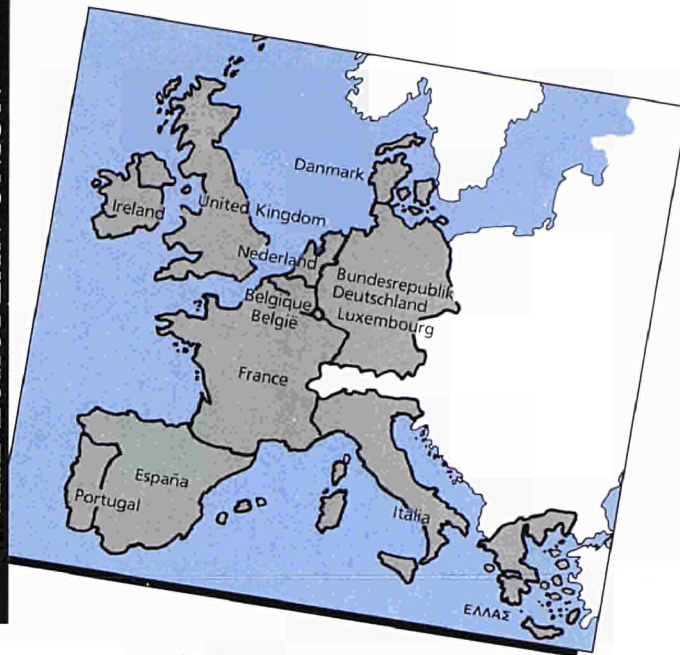
Denmark

(Country having special relations with Denmark)
Greenland

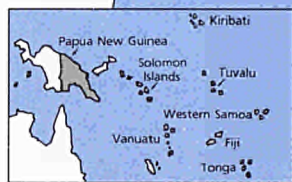
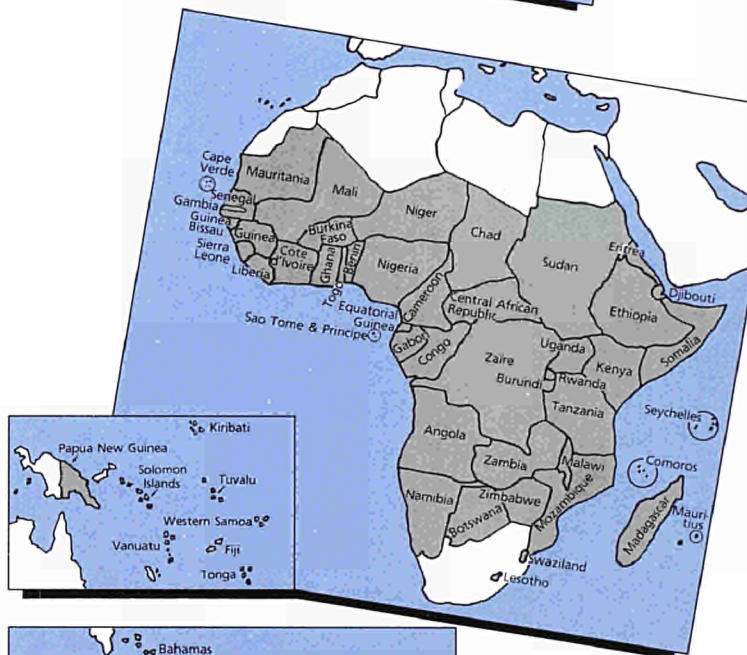
United Kingdom

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

THE EUROPEAN UNION



THE 70 ACP STATES



Angola
Antigua & Barbuda
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d'Ivoire
Djibouti
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Fiji
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Grenada
Guinea
Guinea Bissau
Guyana
Haiti
Jamaica
Kenya
Kiribati
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Papua New Guinea
Rwanda
St Kitts and Nevis
St Lucia
St Vincent
and the Grenadines
Sao Tome & Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Solomon Islands
Somalia
Sudan
Suriname
Swaziland
Tanzania
Togo
Tonga
Trinidad & Tobago
Tuvalu
Uganda
Western Samoa
Vanuatu
Zaire
Zambia
Zimbabwe

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Cover page:
The face of poverty
(Photo ATD-Quart Monde)

This list does not prejudice
the status of these countries and territories
now or in the future.
The Courier uses maps from a variety
of sources. Their use does not imply
recognition of any particular boundaries
nor prejudice the status of any state
or territory.

MEETING POINT**Face to face with the poor**

In an issue which focuses on poverty, it seemed appropriate that we should feature the views of those most directly affected — the poor themselves. And so, in a new departure for the new-look *Courier*, we give over our Meeting Point to poor people in four different continents. They give a moving, and sometimes heartrending testimony, which can only serve to underline the importance of the struggle against poverty.

Pages 3 to 5

ACP**Meetings of Councils of Ministers**

The European Union's Council of Development Ministers and the ACP Council of Ministers held their traditional end-of-year meetings last December in Brussels. Poverty



alleviation, better aid coordination and the Lomé Convention were among items discussed at the **Development Council**. Here, the Commission's proposals for the mid-term review of Lomé IV received the support of national delegations in several areas, and in particular on the question of democracy. The latter was also hotly debated at the **ACP Council of Ministers**, which was marked by a certain fear for the future — fear of the erosion of ACP preferences in the European market under the newly concluded GATT accord and fear for the survival of the Lomé Convention itself.

Pages 6 to 9

COUNTRY REPORT**NIGER**

From the emergency regime to the establishment of democracy and the Third Republic in 1992, Niger's transition to a pluralist political system



was exemplary. And despite an acute economic crisis, which makes the task of the new government particularly difficult, hopes remain high that the country's economy will move forward — thanks to a big effort to redress the public finances and the relaunch of the agricultural and rural sector which the Government is setting in train.

Pages 12 to 37

DOSSIER**Fighting poverty**

One sixth of the world's people spend three quarters of its income. Three quarters of the global population have to make do with one-sixth of the wealth that is generated. More than a billion people survive on a per capita income of less than \$370 a year!

What these figures tell us, as we approach the end of the second milenium, is that some people are very wealthy... and a lot of people are very poor. But what exactly is meant by 'poverty'? Is it true that 'poverty anywhere is a threat to prosperity everywhere'? And what, if anything, can be done about it?

These are just some of the questions discussed in our Dossier on Poverty and Exclusion.

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Best wishes for 1994

EDITORIAL

The Courier celebrates its 30th birthday

What sort of a year was 1993? Overall, it is difficult to say. A number of ACP countries — notably Angola, Liberia, Rwanda, Congo, Zaire and Haiti — continued to face very serious problems. In others, such as Burundi and Nigeria, the situation deteriorated. But in Madagascar, Niger, Malawi and elsewhere, there was good progress on the democratic front.

The Courier's eleven Country Reports in 1993 highlighted examples of nations that are striving for change, working to promote democracy and introducing reforms aimed at getting their economies back on track. So there are grounds for hope.

Elsewhere in the world, the problems of Bosnia and Algeria — to mention just two — can hardly be ignored. Yet Mandela and De Klerk, Rabin and Arafat, Israel and the Vatican all managed to find common ground. Reconciliation is in the air in Cambodia and a glimmer of light dawned in Northern Ireland.

Looking at inequalities in the economic and social sphere, the gap between different parts of the world and within countries continued to grow. Social and political conflicts created whole new groups of 'outcasts' and swelled the ranks of the refugees, with the mass movement of displaced peoples across frontiers. Unemployment rose in both developing and industrialised countries, as well in those states whose economies are in transition.

Faced with this reality, decision-makers and those who work in the field grappled with the problem of devising a new approach to development — and the Courier did its best to keep readers abreast of the new thinking in its three dossiers on development and cooperation, factors in development and development policies.

In the field of ACP-EC cooperation, the two big events were the

preparation of the Lomé IV mid-term review and the birth of the European Union, the latter event resulting, of course, in a change of title for our magazine which will henceforth be called the 'ACP-EU Courier'.

This change coincides with our 30th anniversary, for it was in 1963 (under Yaoundé 1) that the Courier first appeared. Initially, it was called 'The Courier of the Association' and ran to a mere eight pages. The aim was to provide an information link for people receiving grants from the Community and those attending the training courses and conferences which it sponsored.

The early Courier pioneers — de la Parra, Solf, de Briey and Bolomey — were soon to show their mettle. From a publication which only appeared at irregular intervals with print-run of some 2000 to 3000, by the end of the first decade, the magazine had evolved into a fully-fledged journal. In 1973, it took a big step forward when Alain Lacroix took over the editorship and inspired the team to broaden both the content and the sources of information, particularly on the ACP side. In the post-Lacroix era, Fernand Thürmes

and Marie-Hélène Birindelli each made a distinctive contribution to the magazine's development and today, The Courier has arrived at a readership of almost 300 000 in more than 140 countries.

With the change of title goes a change of look; a move to a clearer typeface and more up-to-date style of presentation, which we hope will make the journal easier to read.

There are one or two changes to the content too. The 'Meeting Point' is still with us of course, but the focus in the future will not just be on leaders and experts. From time to time, we will also be asking people with appropriate first-hand experience for their views. The former 'ACP' and 'ACP-EC' sections have been combined and the 'Europe' section will be expanded to give better coverage to events in the new European Union. And recognising the diversity of our readership, 'Culture and the Arts' is broadened and renamed 'Culture and Society'.

These are more changes of style than substance, however. The Courier's basic task, which is to provide news and information about 'developments in development' has not changed and we shall continue to carry out this role, discussing general and subject-oriented development issues in the light of current events.

In 1994, along with the Commission and the Member States, we shall be focusing on the priority development cooperation questions — tackling poverty, demographic issues, the private sector, public health, education and training. There will also be a major dossier on the European Union after Maastricht. Although we are an institutional publication, we shall continue to strive for greater credibility, obtaining our information from a wide variety of sources and leaving our readers to judge for themselves.

Dominique DAVID,
Editor

Facsimile of one of the oldest issues of the magazine, whose origins date back to 1963



The Meeting Point this time may seem a little unusual to many of our readers. We believe that one of the most important claims of the poor is to be heard and, with large sections of the media keen for the latest pictures and events and silent on poverty, we have decided to print what the poor themselves have to say. This has been made possible by the *Mouvement International ATD - Quart Monde*, which has provided us with extracts from its *Cahiers du Quart Monde* publication, which has contributions from men, women and children from every continent and every walk of life. Anonymity is preserved by quoting only the continent or sub-continent of those featured and altering the names of anyone mentioned.

The Courier wishes to thank the *Mouvement International ATD - Quart Monde* and is particularly grateful to its delegate to the European Communities, *Jean Tonglet*, who is interviewed on page 66.

The extracts from *Cahiers du Quart Monde* deal with the Caribbean, Central America, Europe, the Indian Ocean and Africa. ■

Dominique David

Hunger and peace — The Caribbean

Hunger makes people violent. Violence makes people hungry. If they haven't got a job, they go hungry.

Every morning, Michou goes to school on an empty stomach. When I have a penny or two, I give them to her. When I don't, she goes without. 'Mummy, I don't feel right,' she says and I say: 'You'll just have to cope.'

When the children had corn to eat on Sunday, they were fine. But when they are hungry, you can see the anger in their faces, all of them. My own children swore at me again yesterday!

I've got neighbours who hit their children. When you look at them, you can see those children are hungry. Their mother says: 'You can see I haven't got anything at all and you're still asking!' And she hits them.

There's a girl with two children. The little one is just two months old, but she can't even feed him and she hasn't got

anything for the older one either. She was thrown out last night. She had to take the children up to the homeless shelter in the rain. She had nothing at all for them to eat. She was so hungry herself that she even asked a man for money, but all he said was: 'A nice young woman like you! You got yourself pregnant and now you're begging!'

It's like a war, battling against all these insults. If she had had any food for her children, would she have gone begging? It's all such a battle...

When I'm hungry, I go to bed. I won't say anything to anybody. When Catherine calls me, I don't feel like answering. When she says: 'Mummy, I'm hungry,' I smack her for that sometimes. I actually hit her! She wants too much money and I'm hungry too.

I pretend things are OK, but I know all about hunger.

Face to face with the poor



Slum in the Philippines

My house is the wind — Asia

Cathy lives under a board on the pavement. The other day she smiled and said: 'My house is the wind.'

Frances and her family moved into the cemetery years ago. 'This is the bungalow where I live with my youngest daughter,' she says, pointing to one or two bits of wood propped up against a tombstone.'

Pat, who lives up a dark passage in a slum, says, 'Our house is a sandwich house.'

And Christina, you talk about your ramshackle house, don't you, where your four-year old daughter fell through the rungs of the ladder you used as a staircase.

The day they pulled down the house, just before Christmas, you swal-

lowed your anger and your anguish and helped calm your husband, to stop him being violent with the landlord, didn't you? Then, when it started raining, the children were worried. 'How are we going to keep dry, Mummy?' You plucked up your courage and said, cheerfully: 'We can cope with a drop of rain, can't we? It's nothing.' But in your heart of hearts, you were desperately wondering where you were all going to sleep that night. Now you live in a makeshift shelter over a drain, don't you? Your matchbox home blocks the neighbours' way out and they are worried that they won't be able to get by if there is a fire, which often happens, and they've said you have to move.

Your husband had no regular work for years. He couldn't feed the children and he often stayed away from home for days at a time. Your brothers and sisters told you to leave him, but you refused. 'I want my children to be brought up in a united family,' you said, and you hung on. And the other day, as your husband rebuilt your tiny shelter and unblocked the drain, late at night, in the rain, your son was proud to help.

she was cold, like some of the others. Antonia suggested playing ring-a-ring-a-roses, but Maria wasn't enthusiastic. She held my hand and dragged me over to the games. I sat down and she sat on my knee and watched the other children.

Thursday 23 August. Why did Maria's short life end yesterday afternoon? She helped the family scavenge for food, and yesterday, she found some scraps and tucked them in her dress and then the accident happened. That lorry tipped its load of rubbish on top of her and now she's dead. She was only four...

Never a week goes by without a man or woman or child being buried under the rubbish. Is it a sign of the disdain which the rest of the world feels for these people?

Unborn but moved on – Europe

Six in the morning. 'Get up, you lot in there. Hands up against the wall!'

We were sleeping the sleep of the just in that tumbledown building. You

can't imagine how I felt when they ran their hands over my stomach to search me. The baby started moving hard because my tummy was tight and I could tell she was distressed. Then they shouted: 'Out you go. Faster! We've had enough of moving you on all the time. Sort yourselves out, can't you? Get a job like everyone else and you'll have somewhere to live!' 'Don't worry, Mummy and Daddy are here,' I told the baby. Not born yet and already moved on. Never mind. You're nice and warm in there and once you're born, they'll have to house us.'

Laurence and Nicolas met on the street and Laurence is now seven months pregnant. Every day, they do the rounds of the authorities, social services and local offices in the hopes of getting accommodation, maybe a place in a home for couples. It doesn't work.

They tell me that Laurence has agreed to go into a maternity home in a distant suburb, because yesterday the doctor said the baby was too small and they were both anaemic. 'In any case, what

A street library
(ATD Fourth World) in Brussels

Rubbish tip — Central America

It is difficult to describe, because it is happening everywhere. How can families live like this in the middle of all this rubbish, with all the smell?

The houses really are made of anything that can be re-used — corrugated tin, cardboard boxes, bits of cloth, mattress springs etc.

This afternoon, we went to the tip with the street library. A little boy came up and took a book and sat down. A little girl found us a bench to sit on and a man came up with a chair. Bit by bit, children came up and chose books and looked at them. Some of them were barefoot and some had shoes without laces. One had odd shoes. Some had practically no clothes on.

Maria, a little four-year old, arrived with her brother and sister. She threw herself into my arms as if she was looking for somewhere to be safe. She was wearing the filsiest of yellow frocks and



with having to walk around all day and sleeping rough, I can't cope any more. Nicolas is very upset. It's the first time we'll have been apart. Did you hear what the social worker said? As soon as the baby's born, they'll make her a ward of court. I know what that means.'

Little Nicole was born just a day or two ago. Proudly, they give her to me to cuddle and I am immensely happy. I pass to Nicolas, who holds her tight and rubs his chin gently against her cheek. His face clouds over when Laurence tells me that she is going to have to leave the home in a month's time — with nothing else in view. They know that the Child Welfare authorities will keep the baby and it will be a struggle to get her back.

Nicolas, his voice thick with emotion, says: 'Tell them all we're humans, not animals.'

She watched the others go — Indian Ocean

When I arrived in the city, Jenny was walking about with Radash, her little brother, strapped to her back. Her mother works to keep them all, but she doesn't earn much. Certainly not enough to pay a child minder.

There's grandma, of course, but she's sick. She can't get to sleep at night because there isn't enough room and the children fidget and, in the daytime, she's too tired to look after Radash.

And there's Giovanni, the eight year-old, who hangs about with nothing to do all day. 'He's an unlucky child,' his mother says. 'He broke his arm the day he was supposed to go to school and then it was too late.' But boys don't look after babies.

So when Radash was born 18 months ago, Jenny left school. Jenny looks after her brothers. And Jenny sometimes does the cooking and, on those days, she doesn't get to the literacy classes Hedley gives for girls of her age. But when grandma does the cooking, Jenny is delighted to be able to attend. She is the youngest in the group. Hedley organised a trip out with the children yesterday. Jenny wanted to go and we suggested she took the baby, but grandma was asleep and



This child still has stars in his eyes

Jenny was unwilling to leave her by herself. She watched the others go. There were no tears and no complaints. At nine years old, Jenny already knows her family needs her, her presence and her loving care.

Starry eyed — Africa

Children sleep in the streets here, where we live, dozens of them, 2-12 year olds, in groups. They beg by the ice cream dispensers — most of their parents are beggars too — and they sleep on the pavement, they unload the fish when the fishermen come in and they pinch things around the purchasing centres. In the evening, they get together on parking lots and the waste land between the buildings on the commercial estate. They cadge leftovers from nearby restaurants and they boil them up and eat them. And then they go to sleep on the concrete pavements.

Some of them steal but others won't. 'It's better to ask 10 times than take once,' Salim told me. But a little later, he said, symptomatically, 'I don't have any friends.'

Some of these children really are orphans or the offspring of lepers forced to live in isolation and some of them have left their villages because of drought.

One of them was gathering starfish at low tide and throwing them back in the water to regain their life and colour. An old man asked him why he

persisted with this strange task and the boy said the starfish would die if they were left high and dry in the sun. 'But there are miles of beach and thousands of starfish! I can't see that it's making much difference!' The boy looked at the starfish in his hand and threw it back into the sea. 'It's making a big difference to that one, at least.'

Our street children still have stars in their eyes. They just need their lives restored.

We all have something to share which can change others — Africa

Working for peace is not for me, particularly if it's a programme of rights to fight for or defend. It's a question of us all realising that everyone is intrinsically worthwhile and has something to teach other people, questions and experiences to share which can make very practical changes to our ways of thinking and behaving.

A child only becomes somebody because he manages to do things he is proud to show off to other people. I remember a child who had malaria. As he couldn't come back to the Centre because he was working every day, we gave him the medicine to take home.

A week later, he was still sick, so we asked him a few questions and found out that he had taken some of the medicine, felt a bit better and given the rest to a young woman who was also sick, because she was alone too and had no one to help her.

We could have objected, because the course of drugs had to be started all over again, but we discussed the case with the boy and all the other children. We suggested that the boy should introduce us to the young woman in question and the great thing is that she became the children's friend. And then we all of us discussed the importance of the malaria treatment and tracked down everyone in the town who had the disease. ■

57th ACP Council of Ministers

Mid-term review in perspective

The mood at the 57th ACP Council of Ministers last November in Brussels was unquestionably one of tremendous apprehension for the future, what with the imminence of the conclusion of the GATT negotiations with scarcely any ACP input and the rumours concerning the future of the Lomé Convention.

The anxiety over GATT arose from what one minister called 'the banana experience', referring to the success by Latin American banana producers in raising the banana issue in Geneva. A GATT panel, set up at their instigation, had called into question the 'legality' of the Banana Protocol of Lomé IV and another was examining the February 1993 decision of the Council of the European Union on a Single Market banana regime. That regime, it should be recalled, is skewed in favour of ACP producers. The Council found these developments worrying, estimating ACP preferences as a whole in the Union under threat and the Lomé Convention itself under attack.

It did not come as a surprise that, despite the tremendous pressure at the talks with many unresolved issues among the major players (the December 15 deadline was only three weeks way), the Council's newly-elected Chairman, *Dr Kwesi Botchwey*, Ghana's minister of finance, still found it useful to make an urgent appeal to the ACP States to make their presence felt in Geneva before the deadline. Each country, he said, should participate actively in the final round, especially where the meetings affected the Lomé Convention, to ensure that their interests were taken into account.

Mid term review of the Convention

Although the Council was under no similar great pressure about the forthcoming review of Lomé IV, the issue provoked no less a passion, and the need to move faster was lost to no one.

Although this was the last ACP Council before the beginning of negotiations in May, the view among ministers was that there was no need for a formal response to the Commission's proposals on the review since the final negotiating mandate of the Commission has not yet been established by the Council of the European Union. Nevertheless, the Commission's paper and the various interpretations given to it in many quarters were constantly referred to during the debate on the mid-term review.

The ministers observed that there were areas of common interest between the ACP States and the Commission but that both sides appear to differ on the means of arriving at solutions to the problems that have been identified. Some ministers talked of not accepting direct or indirect conditionality on aid. Others expressed fears about interference with ACP sovereignty and about an end to the equal partnership concept of the Lomé Convention.

The occasion of Vice-President Marin's address to the Council offered an opportunity to set the record straight — plainly and frankly. Mr Marin was first welcomed to the Council by Dr Botchwey who told him that the ACPs have some indications of what 'thoughts were going through the minds of the Commission', and that they were concerned that 'our long association with Europe should be safeguarded through these turbulent times'; that meant preserving 'our hard-won concessions and privileges'.

In his speech, Mr Marin reiterated his oft-repeated statement about how the geopolitical and economic situation which governed the old international order has been profoundly upset and why it was necessary to take 'the bull by the horns' and adapt to the new world situation. The Commission's proposals were precisely aimed at doing that to save the Lomé Convention. The Commission's attitude, he said, can be summarised like this: 'Things must change in order to continue'.

Mr Marin then outlined briefly the aims of some of the Commission's proposals which are of most concern to the ACPs. He thought there was a need to: — state in the Convention the principles of democracy, the rule of law and good governance, thus strengthening what is already in the text of Lomé IV on Human Rights and reflecting what is now widely accepted and being put into practice in many ACP States, even in very difficult circumstances;



Chairman of the ACP Council of Ministers, Dr Kwesi Botchwey (right) addressing the Council. Left, is Mr Ghebray Berhane, Secretary-General of the ACP

— fine tune the instruments of dialogue between the ACP States and the European Union through a series of measures, one of which has given rise to scepticism or totally negative reactions in many quarters: namely the one aimed at creating greater flexibility on programming. On this, the Commissioner for Development said he wanted to clarify any misunderstanding: The Commission does not intend to call into question the basic principle of dialogue between the European Union and the ACP States, but, he continued, 'the current rigidity in the system which sometimes leads to the holding up of very important funds and to delays in the implementation of programmes and projects impels us to propose changes in the

modality though not in the principle of application'. Conscious of the need to improve the speed in the process of implementation of operations, the Commission, he added, wants to have a certain autonomy with regard to the technical assistance needed in the preparation of projects and programmes. This is neither aimed at removing responsibility from the ACP States nor calling into question their sovereignty in the choice of development strategy and their power of decision, particularly in the crucial phases of identification and management of programmes and projects.

Referring to the main object of the review — the second Financial Protocol, Vice-President Marin intimated that, in preliminary exchanges of opinion between Member States of the Union and the Commission, 'some voices have been raised' to the effect that the level of financial commitment will depend, to a large extent, on progress made in the modernisation of the Convention. He warned that, in this period of economic recession, European public opinion was, more than ever before, paying attention to development funds being used more effectively and in a transparent manner.

Following interventions by *Dr Paul Robertson*, Jamaica's minister of foreign affairs and foreign trade (for the Caribbean) and *Mr Abbey Kafumbe-Mukasa*, Uganda's deputy-minister of finance, both articulating regional concerns, Mr Marin re-affirmed the uniqueness of the Lomé Convention which he described as the result of 'geopolitical sedimentation'. He, however, pointed out that the ACPs were now in serious competition with other economic poles of the world. It was necessary to fight and to do that 'we have to be more efficient... and give the Lomé Convention the highest degree of confidence'. Given the great achievements made in implementation over the past four years and the experience gained, it was necessary to introduce 'what has been happening in reality' into the Convention.

In general, ACP ministers felt reassured by the Commissioner on several points, but considerable scepticism remained over the concept of 'co-management'. Perhaps that will disappear when Mr Marin returns, as he has promised, probably around February, to the ACP Council to present the same 'financial memorandum' as he has sent to Council of the European Union. The memorandum,

he said, will enable the ACP States to see for themselves the virtues of the Commission's proposals.

Other matters

The end-of-year ACP Council being traditionally devoted mainly to internal matters, ministers had before them a heavily loaded agenda. Through the able chairmanship of Dr Botchwey, intervention time was considerably reduced and such issues as the budget of the ACP Secretariat and member states' financial contributions were easily disposed of. There were, however, other very important issues in the relations between the ACP States and the European Union which retained the attention of the Council. They included: inevitably bananas, beef, commodities and sugar.

On **bananas**, a *compte-rendu* of the developments at GATT and the moves being made by the ministerial committee on bananas was given by the Jamaican representative, Dr Robertson. In it, he revealed that since 1 July 1993, when the Single Market regime took effect, ACP States have had significant losses in export earnings. These were brought about because of severe turbulence in the market created both by the deliberate manipulation of large multinational firms and by the dislocations normally associated with transition from one regime to another. In view of this, the Council urged Member States of the Union to honour what it called 'their common commitment' to the smooth operation of the new banana regime and to ensure that ACP traditional suppliers are not placed in a situation less favourable than previously. It further called on the Union to approve the Commission's proposal for special technical and financial assistance to the ACP banana industry to enable it to restructure and modernise so that it can compete effectively in the Union and on the world market.

On **beef**, the Burkina Faso representative, *Ambassador Salifou Rigobert Kango*, drew the attention of the Council to 'dumping' and what he called 'unfair competition' from the European Union in beef production and marketing in the Sahel. Since 1984, he claimed, the EU has been spending huge sums of money subsidising meat exports to West Africa to the extent that locally produced beef, for example, costs CFA 300 per kilo more in

Abidjan than beef imported from Europe. He congratulated those NGOs whose pressure on the Union had led to the reduction by 15% of exports of certain categories of meat.

The Council agreed to call on the European Union and 'in particular the Commission to look urgently into appropriate measures to be taken in order to reduce the level of subsidy in beef and veal exported to West Africa' and to request financial and technical assistance to ACP producer states to encourage both local production and the achievement of self-sufficiency in the sector.

In the area of **sugar**, the Council adopted a resolution which noted that the ACP States' acceptance of the 1992/93 price offer represented a freeze. It would be difficult to accept any price that does not reflect the economic difficulties facing the producing countries. This should be taken into account in fixing the prices for the 1993/94 period. The Council again drew the attention of the Union to the danger of making any offer in GATT that could affect the future implementation of the Sugar Protocol. It urged the Union, on the other hand, to accept as soon as possible Zambia's invitation to visit the country to assess its ability to respect any delivery obligation that would be required of it under the Protocol.

A more cheerful note in an otherwise gloomy Council was struck in a report on **commodities** presented by the Ugandan representative. Since the Council last met, an International Cocoa Agreement with economic clauses has been signed and an Association of Coffee Producers has come into being in the margin of the Coffee Council. The decision by the newly formed Association to draw up and implement a 20% export retention scheme has already resulted in an improvement of up to 50% in the price of coffee.

The Council welcomed these developments. However, because some of the ACP cocoa producers have either not signed the cocoa agreement or, having signed, have not yet ratified it, the Council urged them to do so before the 28 February 1994 deadline.

It also urged Members States of the Union to do likewise. The Union, it said, should do more to ensure that a new International Coffee Agreement with economic clauses is concluded before the next coffee season. ■

Augustin OYOWE

Development Council

- Poverty alleviation gets top priority
- Need for better aid coordination
- A new approach for Lomé
- A new member welcomed to the ACP Group

Aid donors should regard action to combat poverty as a basic component of development, rather than just as one other aspect of their cooperation work, since chronic poverty is one of the central problems of the developing countries and not a secondary effect of underdevelopment. This was the message sent out by the European Union's Council of Development Ministers at their latest half-yearly meeting in Brussels. And there was an equally firm message to the governments and societies of states which receive development aid: 'The objective of reducing poverty can be achieved in each country only on the basis of a clear and lasting political will based on national consensus and directed in particular towards reducing the uneven distribution of the benefits of growth and unequal access to productive resources and social services.' The poor must be helped to develop the capacity to provide for their own needs and be involved in the process of political, economic and social decision-taking, since 'democratisation processes, the rule of law and proper public administration (...) are important conditions for the fight against poverty.'

A resolution from the Council says that action to combat poverty should be a central theme in dialogue with the developing countries, especially the least advanced among them, and in cooperation agreements between them and the Community. Aid and action must be targeted on the poorest or most vulnerable sections of the population, and women must be fully involved in all measures to alleviate poverty, since the part they play is often decisive in ensuring that such policies, and development measures in general, are effective.

Poverty has generally persisted in the developing countries over the last ten years and even worsened in some, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Among the reasons for this, ministers singled out debt and trends in commodity prices, and admitted that the policies pursued so far had been inadequate.

The Vice-President of the European Commission, *Manuel Marín*, who is responsible for development cooperation, reported briefly on progress in the top priority areas for **policy coordination between the EU and its Member States**: health, food security, education, population policy and women in development. Written reports on these will be produced over the next year.

There has long been pressure in some quarters for action to rationalise aspects of the European Union's food aid policy. NGOs recently reported, for example, that subsidies for exports of EU meat to various West African countries were putting farmers in the Sahel out of business. Food aid given in cash equivalent, not in kind, would stimulate local production and markets. At December's Development Council the subject came up again, when the representative of Belgium said food aid should be given only in real emergencies and not as a form of indirect budget assistance; it should not be seen as a way of offloading the Western world's surpluses. Reviving an old suggestion, Denmark thought it would be a good idea if a joint Council on agriculture and development could be held to consider the effects of the EU's own common agricultural policy on farmers in the developing countries. But objections from other Member States scotched this suggestion.

Ministers were in favour of EU participation in the World Health Organisation's AIDS control programme and wanted a coordinated approach to the forthcoming Cairo conference on world **population**. They believed that the role of **women in development** must be taken

into account, as a matter of course, in all development programmes.

The last time **development policy complementarity and the practicalities of operational coordination** between the European Community and the Member States were debated was in 1984, but the subject is bound to become a burning issue again now that the Treaty on European Union has come into force. Under the Treaty, Community policy in the sphere of development cooperation has to complement the policies pursued by the Member States; this extends to coordinating their policies and consulting each other on their aid programmes in international organisations and conferences. Where the Member States are concerned, this includes the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, on whose boards the Community as such is not represented. The Treaty entitles the Commission to take any useful initiative to promote this coordination (though any proposal it makes must, of course, still be adopted by the Council before it can be acted on). The Development Council decided, however, that Council resolutions would be the prime means of laying down guidelines and lines of action for the Community and the Member States in their respective policies. In other words, national governments are not willing to allow the Commission or the European Parliament a greater consultative or advisory role in policy coordination. Even so, the Commission's representatives are to work with those of the Member States in recipient countries as the main channel for operational coordination on the spot. This will promote greater coherence in discussions by either party with the local

authorities. Pilot projects in coordination are to be run in three or four developing countries, although the Council did not decide which. Exchanges of information about projects, informal meetings of Directors-General for Development and contacts between experts in particular fields, notably officials of the European Community's Humanitarian Office (ECHO) and national humanitarian aid departments, will serve to make coordination more efficient.

In the end, the feeling left by the Council's resolution was that there is still an underlying problem of inadequate coordination between the Member States themselves, whether for lack of political will or lack of a structure. In any case, with some Member States set to cut their development aid budgets, there is going to be less to coordinate at all in future. And the question of whether or how to take a coordinated stance in international bodies was left unresolved. As to the EU's development cooperation policies complementing those of the Member States, which is seen as the next stage on from coordination, the Council merely noted that this needed to be worked out in greater detail before a workable policy could be arrived at.

The previous Development Council, in May 1993, decided to use European Development Fund money to finance a **rehabilitation** programme for certain African countries recovering from natural or man-made disasters. December's Development Council heard that of the ECU 100 million earmarked, ECU 84 m had been paid out by 2 December and the rest was committed but could not, under the Financial Regulation governing Commission payments, be paid until the work concerned had been carried out. The Council concluded that rehabilitation programmes should be decided case by case and in consultation with the United Nations and other donors, but the Community's procedures should be simplified so that it could act faster. Funding should come from the EDF and the Community budget; the 1994 budget in fact includes ECU 45 million for rehabilitation, which will go some way to meeting the cost of the projects still needed, estimated by NGOs (who usually carry them out) at between ECU 250 and 350 m.

The Council considered a report on progress towards the **mid-term review of the Lomé IV convention**, which is to begin by May of this year. The report was

drawn up by a working party set up by the Committee of Permanent Representatives, the Member States' Ambassadors to the EU, to prepare a negotiating brief for submission to the EU's General Affairs Council later in December. National delegations supported the Commission's proposals in several areas. They agreed that the Convention should include a 'democratic clause' making respect for democracy (and not just human rights) a condition of EU aid for ACP countries. The Belgian Presidency, the Commission and some Member States thought a clause explicitly suspending aid for non-observance was essential, while others preferred positive measures and consultation to unilateral sanctions and said they would not tolerate the ACP countries being treated more severely in this regard than other developing countries, especially those in ASEAN and Eastern Europe, with which the Community had cooperation agreements.

There was general agreement that financial aid planning needed to be more flexible, at a time when all the Member States were having to rein in their budgets. The Commission proposes, and the Member States have accepted, that national indicative programmes should be divided into yearly instalments, payment of each instalment being dependent on how well previous tranches have been used. This would prevent build-ups of unused money which cannot be put to use elsewhere and persuade taxpayers that their contributions towards aid were being used more effectively. The financial guarantees which recipient countries enjoyed would remain, but they would be expected to show proof of their capacity to absorb EU funds in the interests of their own peoples. As the President of the Development Council, *Eric Derycke*, put it, the intention of the Member States was chiefly to make ACP states share more of the responsibility for their development. Care must be taken, however, to avoid marginalising the least developed countries.

Thirdly, the Council agreed that management procedures in the existing Convention need to be streamlined to make aid more efficient, and were interested in the idea of extra financing being available as an incentive for projects in special priority areas such as the environment.

On the subject of EU red tape, Mr Marín said he thought that the procedural

requirements in the Lomé Convention which tied the Commission's hands were unreasonable in the modern day. The procedures under the Protocols with Mediterranean countries, for example, were much faster — and the ACP states were now in competition for aid with those countries, not to mention Eastern Europe, Latin America, Asia and the Middle East. On financing, the Commissioner reminded Ministers that the package agreed by the Edinburgh European Council in December 1992 implied spending of ECU 25 to 30 per head in Eastern Europe and only ECU 5 per head in the South. This was a political decision which meant that the EU's development cooperation instruments with the South, especially Africa, absolutely had to work properly. The spirit of Lomé could only be safeguarded if the Convention were modernised.

In an exchange of views on **relations with South Africa**, Ministers discussed practical EU support for the elections announced for April 1994 and trusted they would take place as scheduled, with all political groups taking part. For relations thereafter, it would be for the Council to decide in due course whether, from Europe's point of view, Lomé, a bilateral agreement between the EU and South Africa or cooperation via the Southern African Development Community would be the best framework.

The Council asked the Commission to look into the possibility of 'labelling' environmental and sustainable development projects being carried out in pursuance of the **Rio Conference** of June 1992, so as to make both governments and public opinion more aware of them.

The Italian delegation made a statement welcoming **Eritrea** to the ACP group, praising the work it was doing to promote good relations among its neighbours and calling on all governments to help the young nation and thereby promote peace and security in the region. ■

Robert ROWE

CDI transformation supported by the private sector

Industrialists prepare for the Lomé IV mid-term review

Restructuring of the Centre for the Development of Industry, including the introduction of private sector participation in the running of the CDI, is now firmly on the agenda.

This was something which clearly emerged from the speeches delivered at a conference entitled 'Perspectives of Industrial Cooperation ACP-EC', held in Brussels on 9 December. The conference, organised under the auspices of the Belgian presidency of the European Union, indeed, called for a separation of the CDI from the ACP-EC institutions.

Unfortunately, the ACP presence at the colloquium was limited. The vast majority of participants came either from European enterprises and organisations or from the institutions of the European Union. The priorities of European and ACP companies were examined but there was little convergence over what was needed to revitalise the African economy.

Most of the European industrialists present wished the CDI to become a source of information on ACP markets and a training centre for the thousands of administrators which, in the eyes of the industrialists, Africa lacks.

A large number of the industrialists believe that corruption is one of the most important problems faced by African economies — even more important than the lack of trained administrators in government and industry. When a member of the Belgian private sector had finished his tirade against what he viewed as the 'corruption' of African officials, the conference hall of the Palais d'Egmont resounded with the applause of his peers. He was echoing the words of *Maria Luisa Cassagnagnago Cerretti*, the co-President of the ACP-EC Joint Assembly, who had said in her opening address: 'Even if it is insidious, it is deep-rooted in the ACP countries.'

There was a general consensus on the need to enhance the powers of Chambers of Commerce vis-à-vis the governments of ACP countries.

The ACP representatives felt that new structures for finance and partnership

were needed. What was desired was a form of partnership which was based on the aims of profitability in the medium-term and of transferring technology. The President of the Paramaribo Chamber of Commerce and Industry in Suriname, *Woei A Sioe*, emphasised transfers of this kind. He said: 'You cannot impose development on a top-down basis by beginning with industries which depend on imports. We have our forests. The Rio Conference wants us to keep them. But we want to develop, so we need partnerships to guarantee the transfer of technology. Despite everything, in three years times our industries will be even more left behind by those in the West. What we need is protection.'

Eric Derycke, the Belgian Secretary of State for Development Cooperation, supported the idea of protection: 'There must be some form of protection or, at the least, support for the most vulnerable countries.'

Skeleton in the closet

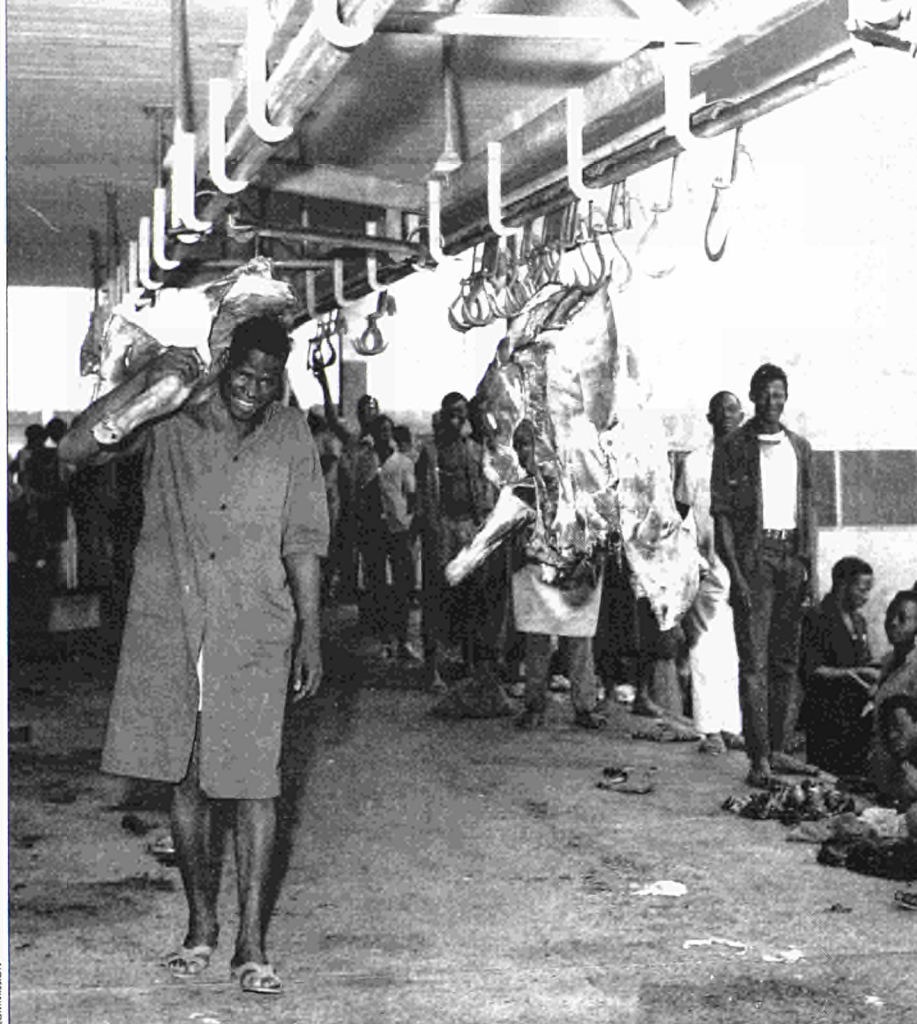
The question of protection brings to light one of the skeletons in the closet of European policy with regard to

the ACP and other developing countries. This is symbolised by the import of cheap European meat into West Africa, which threatens the traditional animal husbandry of the recipient countries, while at the same time the European Union finances projects aimed at improving livestock rearing in the region. According to *George Rubagumya*, Director of the Ugandan Investment Authority, 'we must find a compromise to rationalise production.' This debate also touches on the employment policies of the Member States of the European Union, a policy area which has never, to this day, been reconciled with European development policy. *Patrick Guitard*, a representative of French business, made a plea for European coherence: 'The integration of the European market with those of the ACP countries is in contradiction with other policies of the European Union, such as those set out at the GATT talks.'

There was an obvious separation between the case of the Caribbean and Pacific countries and that of Africa, in the realm of industrial development. *Luis Ritto*, from the Industrial Cooperation Division in Directorate-General VIII of the European

Examining the priorities of ACP and European companies
Delegates at the conference in the Palais d'Egmont, Brussels





COMMISSION

An EDF funded abattoir in West Africa... but subsidised European imports still threaten traditional animal husbandry in this region

Commission, declared his conviction that 'the Caribbean and the Pacific islands are doing fine. Their institutions are good and we can have cooperation programmes with them through the CDI. Africa, on the other hand, is a lot more complicated.' He added: 'The ACP countries have not responded to our study on the protection of investment whereas Eastern Europe, one year later on, is taking up our proposals.'

The lack of investment in the ACP countries, especially in Africa, was one of the most important items on the agenda. Equity funding was suggested, amongst other solutions proposed by the delegates. It was noted, however, that family companies often do not show a profit on the balance sheet. In addition, in the case of private companies, the executives tend not to want to declare large dividends because these are taxed.

From the African financial sector, *Sanou Mbaye*, responsible for the private sector at the African Development Bank (which grants the majority of its loans to Morocco, Tunisia and Nigeria), said he could see continuing difficulties. Mbaye advocated regional integration as the solution to the economic problems of the African states. This, he said 'would require

a convergence of development policies.' However, in the light of the fact that there are currently two hundred regional cooperation organisations which have yet to show any positive results, Mbaye admitted that 'there is no political convergence at present.' He considers the total absence of an internal banking sector to be a great hindrance. 'In Zaire, for example, the local banks have been eliminated. They were the only ones to lend in the medium and long term.'

Problems in external financing

The external financial sector remains problematic. These credit lines are very rarely used, according to *Alistair Boyd*, Assistant Chief Executive of the Commonwealth Development Corporation (CDC). Boyd is dissatisfied with the number of loans granted by the Development Finance Institutions (DFIs), such as the CDC. He said: 'Out of 198 projects financed last year by the DFIs, only 40 involved new enterprises.' Boyd reiterated the danger of

ignoring the small and medium enterprises, which 'only represent 16% of the private enterprises financed by the DFIs. That is also in view of the fact that the private concerns receive only 40% of DFI financing, as opposed to the 50% granted to the public sector.'

Various ideas were suggested for improving the CDI. One such suggestion is for the CDI to assist small and medium enterprises in Europe and in the ACP countries by providing them with reliable information on the African markets, African businesses and sources of finance. This would reduce the additional costs of these companies, which can reach a high level of their total budget. At present, the majority of the CDI's clients have a turnover of between one and two million ECUs.

The possibility exists that the running of the CDI will be handed over to the private sector, with the exception of long-range policy. It is also possible that the CDI may be incorporated into DG VIII of the European Commission. Whatever the case, Eric Derycke, in the Belgian Ministry for Foreign Affairs says some form of decentralisation is certain 'for reasons of financial and administrative efficiency. All the CDI has managed to do so far is to provide guides for equipment supplies and to support training programmes on production and maintenance.'

Some restructuring of the CDI appears unavoidable given the popularity this idea enjoys amongst European businesses, the European institutions and within the organisation itself. All hangs on an agreement between the European Union and the ACP countries during the negotiations on the second part of Lomé IV which will start at the beginning of 1994. Until such an agreement is reached, it remains to be seen if delocalisation and privatisation will become the central doctrines of a new partnership between the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries and the European Union. ■

Stewart YOUNG

NIGER

Winning the economic battle – a very long shot

It is early September. Inexorably, the rainy season is coming to an end, but Niamey, the capital, still looks its best. There is greenery almost everywhere and the mighty river which gave the country its name is unusually high, bringing lucrative economic activity, from market gardening to fishing and laundering, to its banks. The water of life comes into its own here. It is hot, of course. This is the Sahel and the heat, searing heat which scorches people's heads and shrivels up plant life, beats down remorselessly. But the torrid Sahel climate does not just have drawbacks, for it also breeds virtues, including pride, courage and a certain idea of cultural identity among the people of Niger — a striking contrast with the African coast.

The birth of democracy was painful here, just as it was in neighbouring Mali and in Benin, further south. But no one is challenging its paternity or legitimacy. This is a national construction. The builders have their differences, possibly over management.

The rule of law prevails

In its fundamental law, the new Republic of Niger clearly creates the conditions for the exercise of political freedom. The Constitution says that 'the Republic of Niger shall be a State in which the rule of law prevails' (Article 9) and guarantees that 'parties, political groups, unions and other associations shall be free to set up and carry on their activities' (Article 10) — which is extremely important in a constitution in Africa, where there is usually a great deal of red tape to cut through before political or economic activities can take place. When it comes to putting the constitutional provisions on public freedoms into practice, there are no exceptions, they say in Niamey. Indeed, no one in Niger goes to prison for his opinions, opposition activities and demonstrations

against the Government's policy get plenty of official television coverage and the trade unions say what they think and organise large-scale demonstrations in support of pay claims or political demands, sometimes using controversial methods with unpredictable results. The Government, preferring negotiation to force, listens to them nonetheless. The State, the guarantor of individual and collective freedoms, cannot be the first to flout them, they say in Niamey, in face of the mounting demands fuelled by the kind of economic problems which occur in a democracy — and this is despite a growing feeling that

the Government's systematic search for a social consensus could undermine its position and exacerbate the indiscipline which some are beginning to fear will prevail, in contrast to the period of emergency rule which preceded the advent of democracy. But the Government's move could be seen as a response to the political argument that trade unions are now a proper part of Niger's system. The unions were jointly responsible for



A view of the River Niger at Niamey, near the square named after the martyrs of 9 February 1990 — victims of the clashes which took place before the establishment of multi-party democracy

democratisation and it would be particularly unwise to alienate them at this stage, since the Government needs their support to carry out the economic reforms which are of course linked, in people's minds and in fact, to the political conquest of democracy.

The Tuareg uprising

It is the same concern with political freedom and freedom of opinion which is behind the Government's stance on the Tuareg uprising in the north. 'We undertake to solve the question of the Tuareg uprising once and for all, through dialogue,' the Prime Minister told the National Assembly. It is particularly important for the authorities to go for negotiation today, because, on the face of it, a democratic regime cannot afford a less conciliatory approach than the authoritarian governments in almost all the States of the Sahara which were the home of the extremely diversified Tuareg world. The problem could well be the same in Mali, Burkina Faso, Niger, Algeria and Libya. In the two last-named countries, economic, political and cultural assimilation of the Tuaregs replaced the old colonial idea of neutralising them by making them a 'political relay'. In other places, Niger especially, the policy ended, like assimilation, with the Tuaregs being marginalised when their way of life began to be disrupted by drought, compulsory school attendance and recruitment to the army — all of which led the Tuaregs to respond to calls from Libya to take refuge there. Although former President Ali Saïbou's trip to Libya in 1987 brought some of the exiles home, the Tuaregs were quick to manifest their disappointment at the snail's pace of the reforms they expected the government of the day to carry out. The uprising which followed cost the lives of 80 Tuaregs.

The Tuaregs also felt more marginalised because the central State authorities in Niamey made practically no investments or improvements in their region, although it was the site of uranium mining, the country's biggest resource for almost two decades. The feeling of spoliation and frustration could well last under the

present Republic unless economic, cultural and regional development resources are injected, since, once again, the big gold deposits which the Government is banking on to bring in its export earnings are located in Tuareg country. Prime Minister Mahamadou Issoufou said the Tuaregs rose up because 'they, like many more of our people, are victims of the exclusion and poverty caused by an arbitrary, unjust system'.

A difficult economic situation

Democratisation is a success, freedom is fully restored and peace has returned. It now remains to consolidate these advantages of the Third Republic, which means making political changes, of course, and far-reaching economic and social changes too.

The Prime Minister emphasised the 'difficult economic situation' and told MPs that a considerable effort would have to be made to achieve the projected improvements. Niger's economy was heavily dependent on the rural sector (80% of the working population), in which subsistence farming, primarily of millet and sorghum, predominated, accounting for 23% of GDP in 1991, as against 14% for herding. Agriculture accounted for 19% of the value of total exports in 1991 and, outside periods of severe drought, Niger was able to cover the bulk of its basic food requirements despite limited agricultural resources and grain shortfalls of about

Rice growing north of Niamey. With a genuine risk of famine looming before it, the Government is once again giving agriculture top priority in its economic policy



The Courier



The Courier

200 000 t in the 1989 and 1990 harvests (6% of the average annual cereal output).

Production looked up again in 1992 and nationwide there was a surplus, but there were still regions whose poor climate and limited purchasing power cramped their possibilities of obtaining supplies via the market. However, with the Community's help, Niger is now involved in a large-scale rice scheme — 517 ha involving more than 600 growers producing 5 t per ha of paddy twice a year — to help get the country's food problem more firmly under control. And better marketing would improve the limited extra income which the peasants earn from rice growing (see article on EU-Niger cooperation).

Uranium — the harsh light of dawn

According to the Prime Minister, the overall performance of the country's economy has been kept back by

both external and internally-generated factors, especially poor management of the production structures, the absence of any proper policy for diversifying and exploiting agricultural and mineral resources and inefficient use of inputs. In the second half of the 1970s' heavy demand and high world prices made the uranium industry manna from heaven for the economy: uranium exports brought in more than 70% of State revenue, which went from CFAF 19.5 billion in 1975 to CFAF 132 billion in 1989, with a GDP improvement of 8% to 15.5%, in real terms, over the period. But in exploiting the resources generated by the uranium sector, priority was given to financing non-productive programmes of public spending and buildings for ministries and the university (which admittedly is not, strictly speaking, non-productive).

The other dramatic consequence of 'prestige' spending and one largely due to lack of foresight by the authorities of the time was the considerable increase in

The central market in Niamey, where the display of local products testifies to the country's substantial farming potential, despite an unreliable climate

the external debt, running at an estimated CFAF 336 billion in 1992.

Mining Minister Gado Fomakoué says that the 'drastic reduction of uranium export revenue has meant a drop of about 50% in State revenue over a period of ten years — in figures, CFAF 15 450 per kg of uranium in 1993, as against CFAF 30 000 in 1983, and CFAF 3-4 billion in revenue, as against CFAF 25-30 billion' ten years previously. Niger is a 'farming and herding country' and, with its financial resources shrinking, it is finding it extremely difficult to create industries related to those activities — which are themselves crying out for the means of investment that foreign aid alone cannot currently provide. So, the Minister says, 'the Government has decided to look for more mineral deposits. Not just uranium, but other things, such as gold. There is



The Courier

currently an unregulated cottage industry which is producing almost a tonne of gold each year. The State does not benefit from this activity, however, because 'neither' production nor marketing is organised rationally' (see article on the mining sector).

Major structural reform

The democratic government of Niger has come to power at a difficult moment in the country's history. A dilapidated economy is pulling the social sectors down behind it. As emerges from the interviews with the President and the Prime Minister, Niger's economic, financial and social situation is extremely poor and the growth of *per capita* GDP has been negative for the past four years (in 1992 it was -0.4%). The economic and social structures need a complete overhaul to halt a trend which could endanger the country's whole future. That is the opinion in Niamey.

In health and education, for example, a fast expanding population (3.4% p.a.) is creating new needs which cannot be met as things stand, with a total population of 8 million and only three national hospitals, five departmental hospitals, 32 maternity units and about 40 pharmacies. And, since the health services are scattered over a huge area twice the size of France, far from the major population centres and often without the material and human resources they need, there is no way that efficient help can be given to rural patients, particularly since 60% of the nation's doctors and 50% of its midwives work in the medical centres and mother and child welfare units in Niamey.

Niger's health and demographic indicators are among the worst in the world. Life expectancy is 49 years (the African average is 59), infant mortality is 134 ‰ (as against 102 ‰) and there is one doctor for every 48 000 inhabitants (the WHO recommendation is one per 10 000). These and other, equally alarming figures 'revolted' the Prime Minister, he told the

An open-air barbecue in Niamey.
Economic activity often tends to be poorly organised

House in 1993. The people of Niger were among 'the most vulnerable in the world'.

The same goes for education and teaching, where there has been no State investment for years. School attendance is down as a result (27% in 1992, as against 30% in 1989 and an average of 72% in the 51 countries of West Africa), a poor record, which puts Niger among the five worst schooled nations in the world. The figure masks serious distortions across the country too, with schools catering for only 12% of girls nationwide and 15% of rural children (although the rural population is 85% of the total).

The chronic shortage of infrastructure, manpower and financial resources combined with the run-down economy (dominated by the informal sectors and the invisible trade between Niger and some of its neighbours, especially Nigeria) prompted Prime Minister Mahamadou Issoufou to say that the

Government sets great store by the basic economic, social and even legal reforms which will give the State means of defence and protection in keeping with democratic standards and the economic freedom which should now have full rein.

The Government's projected comprehensive programme of reform should complete and extend the structural adjustment operations started with the help of the IMF, the World Bank and other international and bilateral funders in 1982,

when the main idea was to cut the State's budget deficits by slimming down the civil service, controlling and rationalising public companies and organising the liberalisation of the economy.

'The country we inherited is at a standstill — it has stopped making progress in most of the vital sectors,' the Prime Minister announced. When it comes to getting the economy back on the rails and 'giving hope back to the people of Niger,' the Government has all the assets of

democracy on its side, but few resources, so it intends arousing interest in national and international quarters. This is particularly important, because failure in the new democratic context would be a body blow to the President of the Republic, whose five-year term of office can, the Constitution says, only be renewed once. So winning the economic battle is beginning to look like a very long shot. ■

Lucien PAGNI

Profile

Area: 1 270 000 km²

Population: 8 000 000

Population growth rate: 3.4% per annum

Infant mortality: 134 ‰

School attendance: Down from 30% in 1988-89 to slightly more than 27% in 1992. Attendance by girls nationwide and rural children in general is even lower.

Capital: Niamey (350 000 inhabitants)

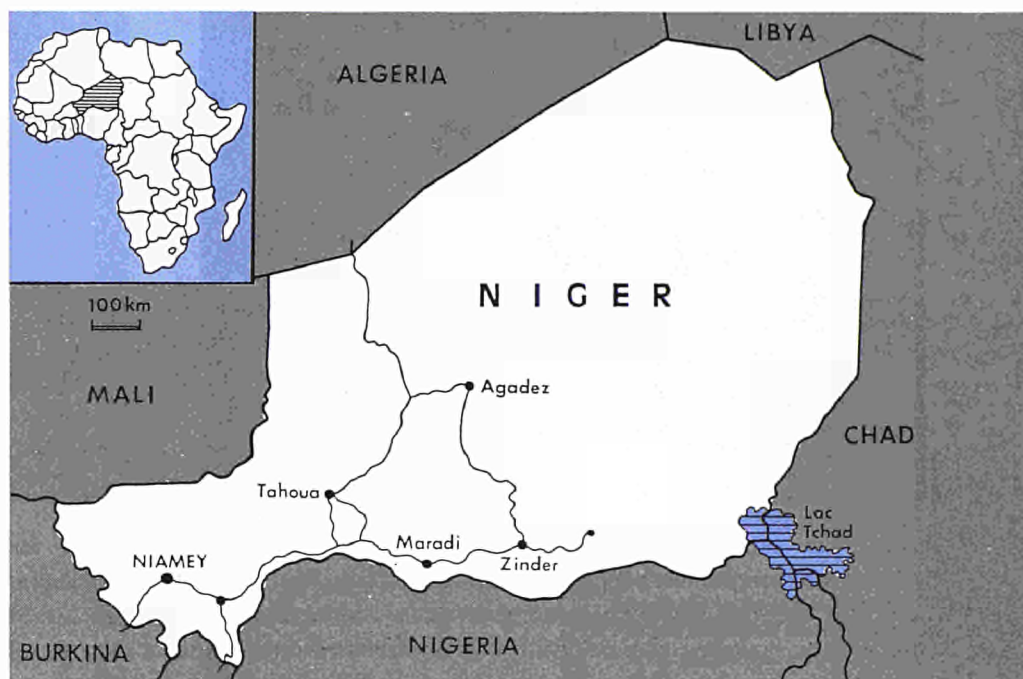
Other major towns: Tahoua, Maradi, Zinder, Agadez, Diffa and Dosso. Niger is not highly urbanised because of, *inter alia*, the way of life of the population of predominantly nomadic herdsman and farmers.

Official language: French

Other common languages: Hausa, Djerma and Tamasheq (Tuareg)

The economy: Long dominated by uranium, the main export. This sector has been hard-hit by declining production and, in particular, the collapse of world prices under pressure of competition from the former Soviet Union and by shrinking demand from the main purchasing countries, which have had to revise their nuclear energy programmes in response to pressure from ecologists.

Agriculture, once the mainstay of production, was neglected in favour of uranium. Drought, combined with what the Head of Government calls endogenous factors (no diversification policy etc.), has considerably reduced agricultural activity and resources.



Main products: Millet, sorghum, maize, tomatoes, onions, potatoes, rice and market gardening products (23% of GDP) and cattle and sheep rearing (14% in 1991).

Transport: The transport and communications infrastructure is a genuine handicap for the economy, for there are only 12 000 km of roads (all categories) in the country's national and international network — which is poor for a country as large as this, with seven neighbours. Niamey, the capital, is more than 600 km away from the nearest sea port, Cotonou (Benin).

GDP: CFAF 682 970 million¹ in June 1993, according to the latest figures from the Central Bank of West African

States. *Per capita* GDP declined by 0.4% in 1992.

Exports: CFAF 114 512 million

Imports: CFAF 142 361 million

Trade balance: Deficit of CFAF 27 849 million. Most imports come from Nigeria, whose currency, the Naira, is non-convertible and declining steadily, making the powerful neighbour's products particularly competitive, to the point where they are a serious threat to the whole of Niger's manufacturing potential.

External debt: CFAF 336 billion in 1992. Servicing the debt was reckoned to cost CFAF 45 billion (75% of the State's domestic revenue), which was higher than the CFAF 18 billion of 1990 (26% of domestic revenue) because of the re-scheduling measures taken by the funders but not carried over to 1992.

¹ ECU 1 = CFAF 300 (average) in October 1993.

URANIUM

Euphoria gives way to disenchantment... but oil and gold may soon be in prospect

Appreciating the extent of Niger's currently severe economic difficulties means looking at the history of uranium and the part the mineral has played in the country's general policy over the past 20 years.

It was in 1966-67 that the French Atomic Energy Commission confirmed the importance of one of the world's biggest deposits of uranium, some 40 000 tonnes of it and economically exploitable. It was found in 1958 near the surface of the Sahara plain at Arlit, in the Tim Messoï basin at the foot of the Air massif — one of the most arid parts of Africa.

SOMAIR, the Air mining company, was set up to work the deposit and it began operations in 1971, producing about 400t of uranium. Plant capacity soon went up to more than 800t p.a. and the ore handled from 40 000t to more than a million.

The mine was already Niger's biggest undertaking, relegating groundnut processing to second place, as we shall see below. In the euphoria of this discovery at a time when African leaders were indeed looking at the ground beneath their feet in the hopes that they would find some highly desirable oil or other mineral there, the Government of Niger trusted to uranium to provide for at least 15% of its budget resources. Its optimism was fuelled by a combination of confidence in the technical (but not economic) reports and growing demand from the principal purchaser, France, which took the whole of SOMAIR's output (about 1200t of uranium in 1973).

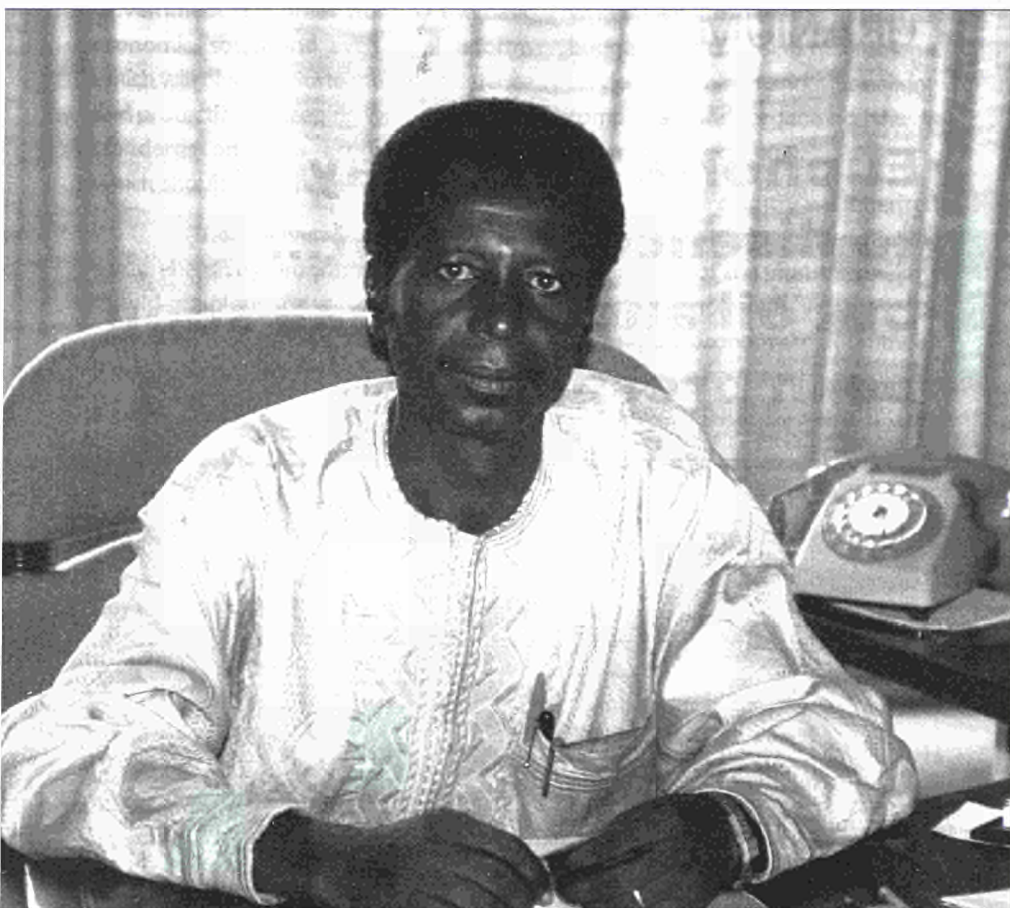


The Courier

But the commercial viability of Niger's uranium depended on an international market which was uncertain and indeed stagnant because of oversupply. It was also soon to be faced with the consequences of the international political disorder triggered by a worsening oil crisis. Between the decision to exploit the uranium in 1969 and the first exports in 1973-74, production costs doubled and the selling price dropped by a third. And although the Atomic Energy Commission gave the mine financial support and decided to buy its uranium at cost price, the hopes of the kind of rapid wealth which is generated when oil is struck collapsed — or at least they appeared to,

The Ministry of Mining and Energy, one of the brightest jewels from the time of the uranium boom

because things in fact changed after 1973-1974 when President Hamani Diori's short-sighted handling of the deteriorating domestic situation ended in a *coup d'état*, led by Sevni Kountché, in April 1974. Today, the impression is that President Diori may have been counting on uranium revenue going up in the near future and was indeed putting his back into what was by no means a simple task, but be that as it may. The boom did not start until after 1974 and it was the new regime, under



Gabo Foumakoué, Minister of Mining and Energy

'The search for oil is well under way and there are clear signs that it is there'

Kountché, which reaped the benefit of it, in particular with the first oil crisis, which peaked in 1975 and gave the nuclear programmes a new air of obvious urgency. The main oil-consuming countries, whose economies were entirely oil-based, had agreed, in theory, if not in practice, that ultimately they had to master the atom and nuclear energy to replace oil — a new situation which had immediate repercussions on the uranium market. OECD forecasts suggested that world demand in 1979 would exactly match the maximum world production to be derived from existing resources. Demand was to double between 1980 and 1985, the OECD said, and it was essential to take immediate steps to increase uranium prospecting. The price of the product in 1973-1974 was not such as to support adequate prospecting or the necessary further expansion of production, so a way had to be found of guaranteeing that the requisite production levels could be reached to avoid the possibility of shortage and an unstable market in the 1980s.

Uranium did indeed boom between 1975 and 1980. Although Niger did not do as well from it as it had hoped, the

advantages gave it far more than any of its neighbours in the sub-region, except Nigeria. But the big problem was that the country had been inveigled into living well beyond its means and had run up considerable debts, installing much useful infrastructure for the future in the process, of course, but storing up serious trouble for itself in the shape of assisted State operation — a very serious thing now (see chart).

Back to square one?

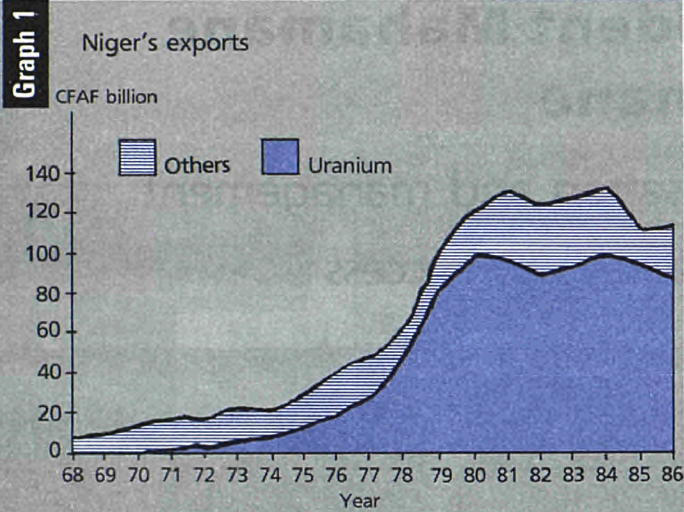
So euphoria was short-lived, because the industrialised countries soon managed to adapt to the crisis, while public opinion there came out ever more clearly against nuclear power. The demand for uranium dwindled and the price plummeted as a result. In 1982, recession set in. Slight improvements notwithstanding,

Niger's uranium exports and income were still well down on the 1980 figures and now they are 50% down on the already much poorer 1983 figures (CFAF 15 450 per kg in 1993, as against CFAF 30 000 in 1983). In Niamey, euphoria has given way to disenchantment.

Should the authorities go back to the square one of 1973-74 and go on banking on mineral resources, new and old, for the country's future? That is the question. Contrary to what might be expected from Niger's economic history, in which farm and livestock products dominated until 1975, the Government of the Third Republic seems still to be hoping more and more that the mines will give the country back some economic growth and strike a balance in macroeconomic affairs once again. And the whole point of gold prospecting in the Liptako is to diversify State income, according to the Ministry of Mining and Energy's Mining Development Support Scheme (PADEM). The aim should be achieved through prospecting and setting up a pilot gold processing plant or, alternatively, building a metallurgical analysis laboratory to determine the grade of the ore from various sites now under investigation, particularly the apparently promising ones at Tiakam and Téra. The Government is still investing in uranium too and a long list of the country's mineral potential is given in the Guide to Investments in Mining in Niger.¹

Striking oil, on which the authorities seem to be counting heavily, would change everything in the country's macroeconomic forecasts. As Mining Minister Gabo Foumakoué told *The Courier*: 'The search for oil, by Elf Aquitaine in particular, is well under way and there are clear signs that it is there. Drilling was to start in three more places in October last year and we hope that this too will be conclusive.' The Minister's (muted) optimism is, he said, based on the fact that Chad could soon be producing and exporting oil, just as Cameroon, a little further south, did before, and Chad and Niger share the same geological features, which should mean that Niger will find commercially exploitable oil too. This could lead to proper

¹ Available from the Ministry of Mining and Energy, BP 11700 Niamey, Niger. Tel. (227) 73 45 82.



regional cooperation between Niger, Chad and Cameroon, with a pipeline down to the port of Douala.

However, these details of Niger's possible petroleum resources, still only more or less well founded working hypotheses, have apparently already affected relations between the central Government and the regions. Some Tuareg leaders, particularly from outside, may be taking a harder line or stepping up their demands

Uranium accounted for 66% of Niger's exports in 1991, as against 70% in 1978 — proof of how completely dependent the country is on exports of uranium, the value of which has dropped by more than half. Over the same period, Niger's public external debt and commercial debt, at constant value and following rescheduling and other forms of relief, were slightly higher than in 1987, as the graphs show

(Source: IMF/Government)

because Niger's oil, if oil there be, is in Tuareg country and the Tuaregs are no longer willing to be bystanders when it comes to 'their' oil wells.

The question is, can the present Government follow its predecessors' line and make everything depend on mineral

resources, to the detriment of farming and herding, which are more reliable despite the drought? ■ L.P.

A herd of cattle in the suburbs of Niamey. Stockbreeding is a major asset to the Niger economy



The Courier

President Mahamane Ousmane

Organisation and management are the keys to success

In this interview with *The Courier*, the President of Niger outlines his economic, social and economic policy for steering the country through its present crisis and explains why democracy is essential to the proper management of its economy and affairs of State.

■ *Democracy has come to Niger rather more easily than to other countries of Africa, hasn't it, other than for rare cases such as Benin, Cape Verde and Zambia? The National Conference achieved most of its aims, the best possible constitution under the circumstances was approved and politicians old and new respected the will of the people during the presidential and the parliamentary elections — which observers said were extremely well organised. Why do you think Niger has been so successful with its transition to democracy?*

— It is hard to say, although there are one or two things I can point to, starting with a particular trait of the people of Niger, which is their sense of realism and measure. They are also, generally speaking, tolerant, I think, and all this has helped create political parties which accept the rules of the game once they are laid down and freely agreed to by everyone. There was a great deal of uncertainty and concern before the National Conference started. People were afraid that old scores would be settled, they were worried about upheavals and thought there was even a risk of the State and the nation falling apart. A great deal of calculating went on. But in the end, despite all the obstacles, the people acted in accordance with their acute sense of responsibility. It was laborious and it took longer, but, ultimately, the National Conference was a success, and the people came out in favour of the legislation produced



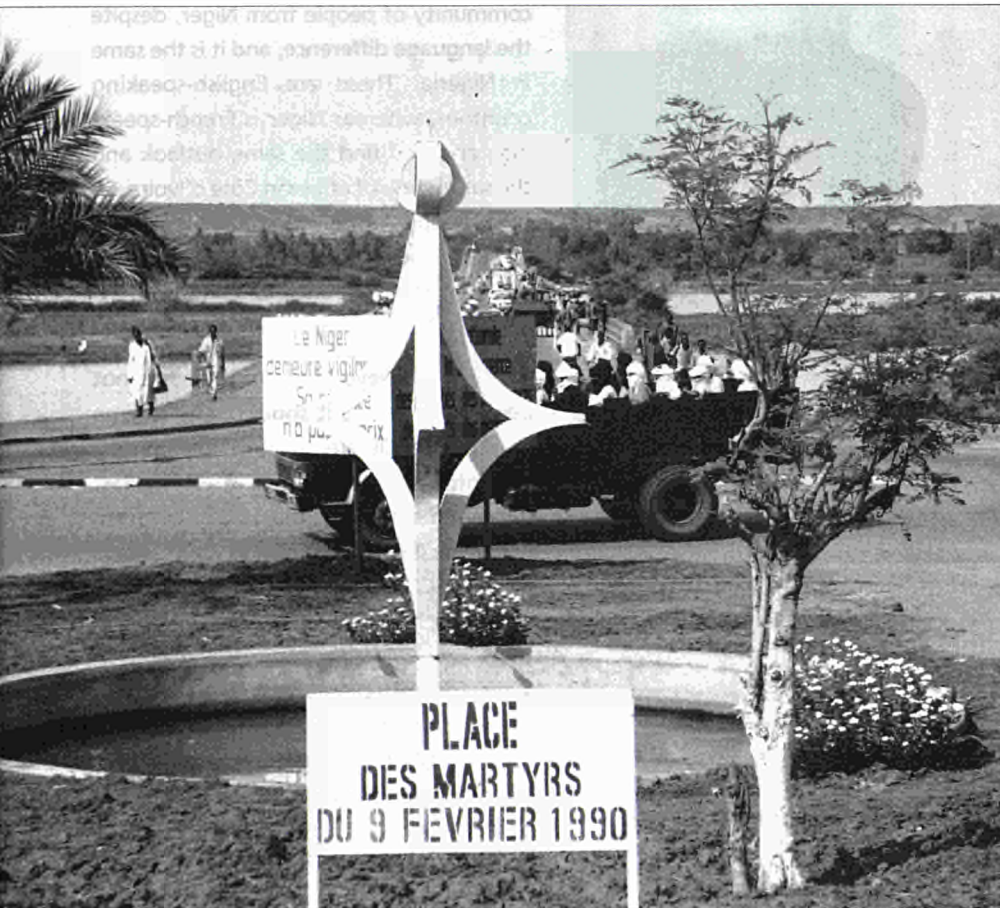
Mahamane Ousmane, the first democratically elected President of Niger

during the period of transition. The elections went very smoothly too, just like the period of transition itself.

■ *Do you think that the period of transition during which your people discussed the country's problems at such length was necessary and, if so, why?*

— Yes, I think it was, because it meant that no-one involved in national life had to rush into anything and everyone had time to think about what they were choosing. Someone once said that time

undoes whatever is done in haste, you know, and I believe it. You have to give procedures and processes time to work properly, whatever you are doing. With hindsight, it may transpire that Niger started its period of transition even before the National Conference, because the Conference was preceded by a special military regime which set the ball rolling by having both civilians and soldiers involved in the running of the State. It was done within the one-party system, which was



The 'Place des Martyrs du 9 février 1990'
Niger must never forget those who fell in the
cause of democracy

not the ideal thing for us, but I still think it was a step in the right direction compared to what we had before, when the military ran the country by itself. But once the military-cum-civilian phase got under way and there was some leeway for different opinions and ideas, a pluralist approach to political activity developed, the National Conference was eventually held and the constitution was drafted. I really believe that without this process, the various political tendencies would not have been able to espouse political and economic democracy. If we had moved faster, the results would have been different and not very satisfactory. I believe that Niger's political contours are still changing. They are not set in concrete. I believe that we shall see more gradual adjustments, a gradual move towards a system in which the people of Niger are more united and are once again at liberty to build a thriving democratic life in which everyone is free to express his opinions.

■ *What do you think are the main problems which — despite what you have just said — could undermine the found-*

ations and working of democracy in this country?

— The main problems, obviously, are the problems of any emergent system. Teething troubles, if you like. When the democratic process started, we had to cope with movements which emerged among the students and schoolchildren, for example, or in the armed forces and the unions, and which had their own view of the part they should be playing in these crucial times in the life of the nation; and the situation had to mature before all the individuals had a clearer idea of just what they should be contributing to the whole.

■ *Are dwindling sales of Niger's biggest export, uranium, combined with the drought and the international recession enough to explain the currently depleted state of the economy?*

— There is more to it than the uranium slump, because the recession is not confined to Niger. It affects everyone,

although of course to varying degrees, but it is a deciding factor as far as we are concerned, because uranium is one of those essential products which bring in for us a great deal of our export revenue. Then there is the climate too, and the situation of the country and its principal neighbours and partners. All this has combined to worsen the economic situation in which Niger finds itself today.

'The country ran up debts which it cannot pay back'

■ *To be more specific, what in Niger itself is causing the present severe economic difficulties?*

— Our economic situation is difficult and the weakness of our natural resources and finances has a lot to do with it. The fall in our revenue from uranium and other export products is one reason for the acute nature of the crisis. Niger has stopped exporting groundnuts. Its once substantial earnings from livestock products have dwindled, so the State coffers are depleted and the country's investment possibilities cramped as a result. And, of course, when things were going better, the country embarked on investment programmes and ran up debts which it cannot pay back, now that its financial resources are diminished. All of this has combined to prevent us covering the cost of our own sovereignty (civil service wages, the everyday running of government etc.). This has repercussions on economic operators too and they cannot pay their taxes either, so Niger's tax revenue has plummeted at a time when, as everyone knows, spending tends to go up. We hoped for even a small improvement during the period of transition, but alas the situation got worse. The State coffers were practically empty and civil service wage payments were four or five months behind.

■ *Niger's geographical situation gives you every incentive to work hard for regional cooperation. We have been hearing about regional integration in West Africa for years now, but, as you know,*

there has been very little in the way of tangible results, despite the creation of specialised organisations such as ECOWAS. What went wrong? And how do you see the future of regional integration in West Africa?

— Mistakes have certainly been made, otherwise there would have been more progress and the situation would be much better than it is. It is not easy to organise several States into an economic unit. It takes time. Look around the world and you see that big groups of this sort take years to form and often start in a very small way, not just with membership, but with the economic arrangements which are the vehicle which brings the States closer together. The example of the European Community is there for all to see. It started with the European Coal and Steel Community and only six members, but there are 12 countries in it today and there will probably be more than that tomorrow. The Community has become practically a political union.



The Courier

'The country ran up debts which it cannot pay back'

Another symbol of the direction taken by Niger's new regime

community of people from Niger, despite the language difference, and it is the same in Nigeria. These are English-speaking countries, whereas Niger is French-speaking; and you find the same outlook and the same state of affairs in Côte d'Ivoire. So the people mix spontaneously and ECOWAS tries to reflect this desire emanating from the different populations.

I believe that this will have not been perceived as it should, but, as time goes by, people are realising how important intraregional relations are. The last summit meeting of the Heads of State helped rectify this situation by doing things to give ECOWAS a more suitable framework which is more in keeping with what the people want. The treaty was revised to make for better organisation of regional cooperation and a clearing house was set up so ECOWAS can gradually become a common monetary institution combining all the French-, English- and Portuguese-speaking countries of the region. We should have a common currency for the 16 States of West Africa by the year 2000. And we are looking at the idea of relaunching political integration in the region too. A West African parliament would also help boost democracy, which is gaining more and more ground in this part of the world.

'Far too many sub-regional organisations'

It is much the same in West Africa. The difference in results is due to the fact that we have dissipated our efforts. Far too many sub-regional organisations have been set up, some of them with only two or three countries and no real thought of integrating their motivation. In the early days, there were institutions such as UDEAC, which was supposed to overcome the problem of customs and trade barriers, and the CEAO, which followed it, also aimed at integration through trade. But as time goes by, it seems that a different sort of approach is called for. Here in West Africa, ECOWAS, the Economic Community of West African States, really is a reflection of the will of the people, with links which go beyond strictly institutional considerations. It has broader economic foundations which have been created spontaneously by the will of the people. Go to Ghana and you find a large



The Courier



The imposing — but empty building of the 'Caisse d'Epargne du Niger' (Niger Savings Bank), of which nothing remains but the name

■ *The European Community's attitude to relations with the African States is going to be, indeed already is, shaped to a large extent by whether they are democratic or not. Does this mean that you might have a common political core in the integrated West Africa of the future?*

— There you have to make a distinction between my personal opinion and the situation as it is at the moment. There is nothing so far to say that all members of ECOWAS have to have multi-party systems or run elections along identical lines. It is not laid down officially, but the general framework of the ECOWAS treaty is perhaps already nudging people towards that sort of arrangement, because we are now seeing a critical mass of democratic countries starting to form here in this part of the world. All our countries are doing more and more to create structures and institutions which follow the rules of democracy — with variations, of course.

■ *You touched on the crisis of the CFAF just now and the past few months have indeed seen some important developments on this front, starting with non-convertibility outside the franc zone. Does this seem to be the right thing to do, do you think, and is it viable in the long term?*

— Yes, I think it has come at the right time for our economies. The implications are by no means a threat to the CFAF's capacity for solving the international payments problem, so no harm is done to the currency as such, or to the States which use it as a means of payment. The new measure helps our countries cope with various internal payment problems, whereas the previously free convertibility and the central banks' automatic buying back of bank notes led to a large-scale capital drain and many transfers were to the detriment of the economies of various States. But now the normal banking networks look after all the currency in circulation and all the financial transfer transactions between the different countries.

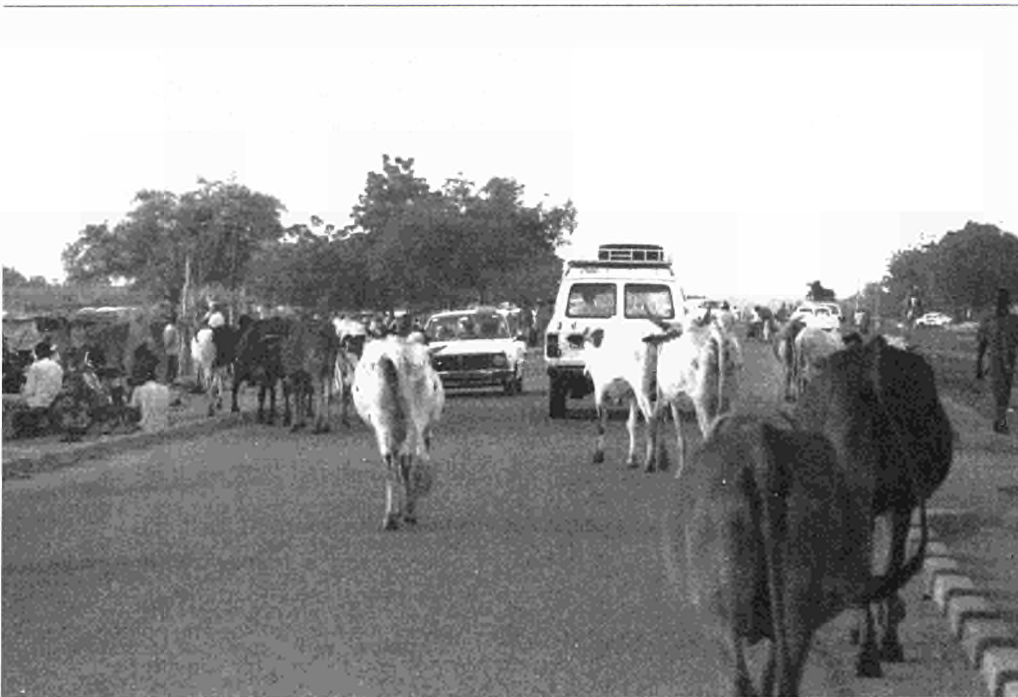
We sent a team to investigate the implications of a move of this kind, in particular in our immediate neighbours, who use different currencies — Nigeria has the naira, for example. What happened in that case, we now realise, is that, at the very beginning, the economic operators reacted very rapidly and the rate of convertibility of the naira fluctuated before it started to pick up.

■ *What about cooperation with the European Community? The Lomé Convention has come in for a lot of criticism recently, although for years it was hailed as a model of good cooperation between Europe and the ACP States, with equality of the partners very much to the fore and a contractual approach to ensure that the relations were stable. What future is there for cooperation between the European Community and Africa, do you believe? Should we be thinking about a convention that is completely different from Lomé?*

— Lomé has proved itself. It is a basis, I believe, and a framework. It is there, it has been useful to the various States involved and I do not see any point in dropping it and looking for something else, although what we could do is try to identify the imperfections and do something about them. We understand that the new provisions are to include a number of conditions — considerations of democracy and human rights such as you mentioned just now and proper economic management — and that those who make the best job of meeting them will find it easier to qualify for the various schemes. That is good, we think. It is an important contribution from Europe to Africa, since it is also a way of encouraging peoples who have shown they believe in freedom and democracy to make further commitments. And it is a way for us to show the Europeans that they are not the only ones to believe in freedom and democracy and to encourage others to go a little further along the path of democratisation. The present framework of relations with Europe is not perfect and there is certainly room for improvement.

Niger has 'to produce results'

■ *Manuel Marín said that the ACPs should start running projects themselves and that the Community cannot go on being both funder and organiser every time. In other words, Africans have to start putting forward and carrying out schemes*



countries with plenty of resources of all kinds — natural resources, mining resources, both mineral wealth and agricultural and other resources — are still in economic situations which are as difficult as ours, if not more so. And there are others, in Europe and Africa alike, which are not so well off for natural resources, but manage very well nonetheless. So the secret of success is not the amount of resources available, but sound organisation and management.

■ *But people say that experienced candidates are being kept out of the running of State affairs in Niger at the moment. How do you explain this apparent contradiction?*

— What is happening in Niger could happen anywhere else in the world. Once there is an institutional and political change, a change in the people, there is bound to be some sort of a reshuffle. However, what counts for us is experience, first of all, and ability. In some cases, the able may indeed not have been given responsibility, but there may be political reasons for that, you see. The people made a choice and that choice meant new faces. The Assembly may well contain people who are not as competent as the people who stood against them, but they got the people's vote nonetheless. It comes down to a choice between the head and the heart. Should it be the technically ablest person who gets the parliamentary seat or should it be the people's choice?

■ *The opposition has its doubts about the impartiality of the administration and its leaders claim that the Government is cutting out employees of the State who are not actively involved in the parties in power. What do you think?*

— I think that is what the opposition says and it only concerns the opposition. As far as I know, there are people who have political opinions identical to those of the opposition but are still very highly placed in the present administration. So when you talk to me about cutting people out, I find it difficult to understand. It is the opinion of the opposition and the opposition alone is concerned, because the facts prove it wrong.

themselves — which echoes a fairly strong tendency at the World Bank. Is this a good thing?

— Yes, I think it is. To my mind, the various development programmes run over the past decade or two have not lived up to expectations — and the reason for this relative failure lies in the concern which we find expressed in the new approach just beginning.

These projects and programmes were not designed or prepared by managers in the countries in which they were run. They were not designed with the help of the people they were intended to benefit. If the beneficiaries are involved, they are better motivated when it comes to making a success of the project, which is why I believe that what we should do now is get the countries themselves to devise and design their own projects and then put them to the various partners. Home-designed projects would give a better reflection of the people's aspirations and concerns. They would even make life easier for the external partners, who would then only have to check various stages of project implementation and — most important — make sure that the country knew that it had to produce results.

■ *You have just given us the keynote of the present discussions — the obligation to produce results. It means that there will be*

A striking but common sight in the streets of Niger's capital, where people, animals and vehicles compete for space

competition between the developing countries and the best of them will get the most aid. It means that States will have to move fast and move well. Is Niger getting its managers ready for a good start to this next stage of cooperation?

— Absolutely. It is getting organised. As you yourself said just now, Niger's experience has aroused a lot of interest in a lot of observers. People are wondering how this Sahel country of so few resources, this landlocked country of deserts and so many problems, has managed to make such an efficient and successful job of organising its elections. But Niger knows all about organisation and we are making our way, slowly but surely, towards a fairly consistent and functional set-up whereby the whole country has the system and the people to meet the general needs of the population. We have already made a great political step forward and things are under way on the economic front too. We are putting together programmes to stabilise the financial situation and create the right conditions for fresh economic growth and set up a new framework in which to discuss solutions for the development issues facing the country with our various partners and friends. We are convinced that organisation is the key to success. Plenty of



The Courier

A street scene in Niamey

■ *Opposition complaints were aired at a demonstration shown on Niger TV ...*

— I entirely agree with you. A democratic government should not cut anybody out. Democracy is, par excellence, the opposite of an authoritarian system and it must not exclude people. We are in complete agreement here. But the people are sovereign and they have taken their decision and made their choices. They chose a new way and new faces and excluded some people from State office in doing so. But people with the same political ideas as the opposition are in high office in the present Government and I do not believe that there is any exclusion. Perhaps we could have done better, as teachers say to their pupils. I don't know. But the facts are there for all to see.

■ *Mrs Baillard was fairly categorical about the Government having no real commitment to giving responsibility to women or getting them involved in development. She said that only one Minister and three Secretaries of State were women and only Ministers took decisions — in other words, women are under-represented in decision-making.*

— First of all, let me say that this is the first time that there have been so many women in the Government, helping

define and carry out the policy of the State. Never has any Government in this country contained so many women as the First Government of the Third Republic. Secondly, there is practically no difference between a Minister and a Secretary of State in Niger. They both take part in the Council of Ministers, they have the same advantages and there are absolutely no major differences between them. The only thing, perhaps, is the way responsibilities are shared and jobs distributed. Ministers indeed do come before Secretaries of State and Secretaries of State also have clearly defined spheres of competence as well as helping their Ministers carry out their duties. Look at the results we got before and the results we get now and you see that we have certainly not slipped backwards. Quite the contrary.

The deputy chairman of the House is also a woman. That has never happened here before either.

■ *Perhaps this is all part of getting democracy going.*

— Quite. And that is why we believe it to be a good thing, which can only give women more motivation to take an active and constructive part in our democratic activity. A very odd thing

happened in the run-up to the elections. Women were reluctant to join the fight and stand for elected posts and tried to go for appointments instead, although the whole idea of democracy is to let universal suffrage decide. Members of parliament are not appointed. They have to compete in the constituencies and then in the towns and the districts and the departments, right up to national level. We are well aware that social and cultural obstacles make it difficult for women to go into politics, but those who have tried have made it and we encourage them to get organised and get involved in political action.

■ *How do the nine parties in the Government Alliance see the State and progress in general?*

— What unites these parties and what ideas brought them together? I shall be very brief. The parties found themselves together in a framework which creates an alliance of the forces of change and defines the terms on which we are going to work together. Secondly, they are together in what we call our minimum action programme, a framework which reflects the various political, economic, social and cultural considerations we have agreed upon. Thirdly, the parties have also combined on an emergency political, economic and socio-cultural programme, which was the basis for the Prime Minister's general policy statement to the House and is the foundation of Government action. Those are just some of the things which enable the different parties in the Alliance to work together. It is not, as some people try to insinuate, an association of ill-assorted structures devoid of policy or foundation or, indeed, of programme. The reality is quite different. ■

Interview by L.P.

Prime Minister Mahamadou Issoufou outlines the Government's five priorities

Mahamadou Issoufou, Niger's brilliant young Prime Minister and one of the leading lights of the country's new democracy, is particularly concerned with the drive to rebuild the nation's economy. He told *The Courier* of the priority schemes which he believes will help consolidate democracy and get the economy growing again, and talked about the way he sees Africa developing in the world now the cold war is over.

■ *Prime Minister, you painted a gloomy picture of Niger's economy in your general policy speech to the National Assembly in 1993. But before talking about that, can I ask you what you think is going well at the moment?*

— First of all, let me remind you that before the National Conference, which ran from 29 July to 30 November 1991, our country was in the throes of a threefold crisis, affecting institutional, social and economic affairs. Then came a 17-month period of transition, ending with the adoption of a new constitution, followed by free, transparent elections and the setting up of the third republic. The elections were the opportunity for the people of Niger to prove the political maturity which should be an example to others today. That is my greatest satisfaction. The fight for democracy will never be won without the total involvement of the vast majority of the population and it was comforting to see the people in their masses express their enthusiasm for the new democratic, republican order in a huge turnout for the constitutional referendum of 26 December 1992 and the parliamentary and presidential elections which followed.

It is particularly pleasing because the elections took place at the time of the mutiny, when rank-and-file soldiers from

our army units stationed in Zinder, Agadez and Tawi rose up over various material and political claims which would have been a threat to the new State institutions if they had been allowed to go through. The people of Niger came down clearly against any threat to the institutions or to democracy. The republican army is a national army and the political authorities have to run it. The third republic has been set up and society as a whole approved it and supports it — which is a source of satisfaction for everyone here in Niger.

■ *So there is total commitment to democracy...*

— Absolutely.



Prime Minister Mahamadou Issoufou
'The fight for democracy will never be won without the total involvement of the vast majority of the population'

■ *You maintain that the political situation is satisfactory, but the economic situation seems to give some cause for concern, doesn't it? You said in your speech to the House that most of the social indicators are poor. So how does the Government see the future and what should be the highlights of a short- and medium-term economic policy?*

— First of all, let me tell you that, in my general policy statement to the House, I gave a detailed run-down of the

economic and social situation when we took over. I told them we were inheriting a country which has silted up. On the financial front, it is running a budget deficit of something like CFAF 100 billion, with estimated debts of almost CFAF 336 billion, and, on the economic front, GDP is well down, with a serious decline in all sectors of trade.

Economic and financial difficulties have their social consequences, alas, and today we are in the throes of an acute social and educational crisis which has resulted, as you know, in a decline in the standard of living of something like 2% p.a., with school attendance down from 30% in 1987 to only 27% now. Health care has deteriorated badly too, to the point where 68% of our people have no access to any sort of treatment and 5% or 6% have no drinking water. It all makes for a worrying situation and one which the Government is tackling by laying down five top priorities in the political, economic and social areas.

First, we must restore the credibility and authority of the State and, second, we must consolidate national unity, which means settling the Tuareg rebellion in the north peaceably. Third, we must rationalise public finances and get the economy off the ground. Fourth, we must straighten out the social sectors, health and education, and fifth, we must decentralise.

We are putting particular emphasis on one of the five priorities, the rationalisation of public finances and economic recovery. In the short term, rationalising public finances has to start with getting the economy going, which means boosting tax revenue and getting State spending under control. The State collected only CFAF 42 billion of tax revenue in 1992, which is only 7% of GDP, the lowest rate in the whole of the region. The figure in Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire and Mali, for example, is between 17% and 20% and my Government is trying to get Niger's rate up another ten points, to 17%, too. So over the next five years, until the end of our term of office, we are planning on measures to tax the informal sector, which has expanded considerably since 1987. The informalisation of the economy spells de-taxation here in Niger and many a

company goes informal to avoid paying tax, so we have devised ways of taxing the informal sector and thereby boosting State revenue. And to make it all more efficient, we are planning fraud control too.

As for getting spending under control, the 1993 finance law already included budget cutbacks to bring expenditure down to the same level as domestic resources. The drive to rationalise and control State spending is to be pursued over the coming years. One component of the 1993 campaign is a cut in the total wage bill, which is being slashed from CFAF 43 billion and stabilised at CFAF 35 billion. Wage costs are usually fixed at 20% of total State spending, but our total wage bill is still up at the unbearably high figure of almost 33% after the recent pay-trimming measures — although they will mean that we can rationalise public spending and ultimately stabilise the financial situation of the State, for a start. Going beyond that, we aim to get the economy off the ground again, which is why we are actively preparing for negotiations with the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank so that we can conclude an agreement with them and mobilise the external

financial resources we need to underpin investment — a *sine qua non* of economic recovery. The Government is finishing an outline document on economic policy to be discussed with the international community and the World Bank with a view to an agreement by the end of the year, and, once we have that agreement, we want to call a round table of Niger's funders, probably in Brussels in May 1994. The Government also intends encouraging the economy with a five-year development plan (1994-1998), which will of course reflect all the guidelines already laid down in the outline document on economic policy I mentioned just now.

■ *You know that income in the informal sector cannot be brought under control, Prime Minister, so how can you prevent too great a discrepancy between the amount of tax levied on informal earnings, which are difficult to calculate, and the tax on wages paid to employees, about which more is known?*

From now on, democracy is encapsulated in the National Assembly



The Courier

Thank you for that question. The society we are preparing here in Niger must be a free and democratic one; a society which is tolerant, open to progress and anxious to preserve and safeguard our values, and we have to make sure that, in this society, the tax burden on wage-earners is no greater than on the income from capital. That is one side of a fair society. We know that taxation is a way of organising solidarity, but it should not give rise to social injustice. So we are going to set up mechanisms through the tax system which will encourage firms in the informal sector to modernise and keep proper accounts, so that their dealings become more transparent and can be taxed more easily. In fact we recently took a decision along these lines to force the informal sector to use organisations such as banks for its foreign transactions and WAMU, for example, will now be refusing to buy back CFAP outside the franc zone. All these measures of ours should gradually reduce the weight of the informal sector in the economy and make it easier to tax its business. We want a fairer society here in Niger, in which each contributes to the solidarity of the nation according to his needs and according to his potential. We are in favour of a society in which private enterprise is encouraged and the State also plays an economic role in strategic sectors. That, in outline, is the blueprint for society which we put to the people and which won a vote of confidence from them. It is not the blueprint of one political party either but a plan put together by the political alliance which forms the coalition Government.

■ *Is there no disparity between your parties? In other words — over and above what you have just said — what binds you together?*

— Niger is what binds us, because we think that Niger's current problems are more important than our ideologies. You often hear that the alliance of the forces of change is an ill-assorted combination of political parties with divergent policies and different and even diametrically opposed ideologies. But we do not think there is a problem, for Niger's current problems are more important than ideological squabbles. We have formed the alliance of the



Mahamadou Issoufou. 'I think that Africans should stop snivelling'

forces of change, nine political parties, which agreed to join to lead Niger forward together, with a programme which stresses stronger democracy, republican

values and the consolidation of national unity — particularly given the problem of the rebellion in northern Niger. We believe that the contribution to the consolidation of national unity which we shall start making today is the settlement of the problem of the Tuareg uprising in the north through dialogue.

■ *The unions are becoming more and more upset at the measures the Government is taking — particularly the move to cut State spending, which they feel is unfair — and one of the things they want you to do is set up a small cabinet with only a few ministers. What do you say to that?*

— First of all, it has to be said that the unions' call to reduce the size of the Government has very little economic fallout. That is the first point. The second we would make is that the unions are not within their rights in making such demands of the political authority in a system where there are institutions which were set up after free elections. Under the Constitution, once the Prime Minister has been

Craftwork: one of the most active economic sectors but one which is not easily susceptible to taxation



appointed, only the President of the Republic can set up or alter the Government. The unions are overstepping the mark here, we think, because this is a political demand they are making.

But the unions played an important part in the country's democratisation process and it may be this recent contribution which has encouraged them to start going beyond purely economic demands and try to influence the policy of the Government. We hope that the unions will confine themselves to defending the moral and material interests of their members in the future now that credible, democratic institutions have emerged from the political crisis. And I also hope that we can tackle economic issues and manage to forge a consensus with the unions on budget savings to enable the country to emerge from the present crisis situation. We are looking at ways and means of getting back round the negotiating table with the unions,¹ because we believe that both workers and employers have to be very much in favour before we can bring in our intended economic reforms. Those are the sort of lines along which my Government is working.

The unions agree on making a sacrifice to solve the State's economic and financial problems.

Stop snivelling

■ *One last question. African leaders complain that their continent is being marginalised. Are they right, do you think? What do you think of the political demands (democracy, human rights and so on) and economic demands (sound management) which the funders, the European Community included, want to see met before they continue with and step up their development aid?*

— Africans should stop snivelling, I think. The world has altered and it is continuing to alter before our very eyes. That is something we have to understand

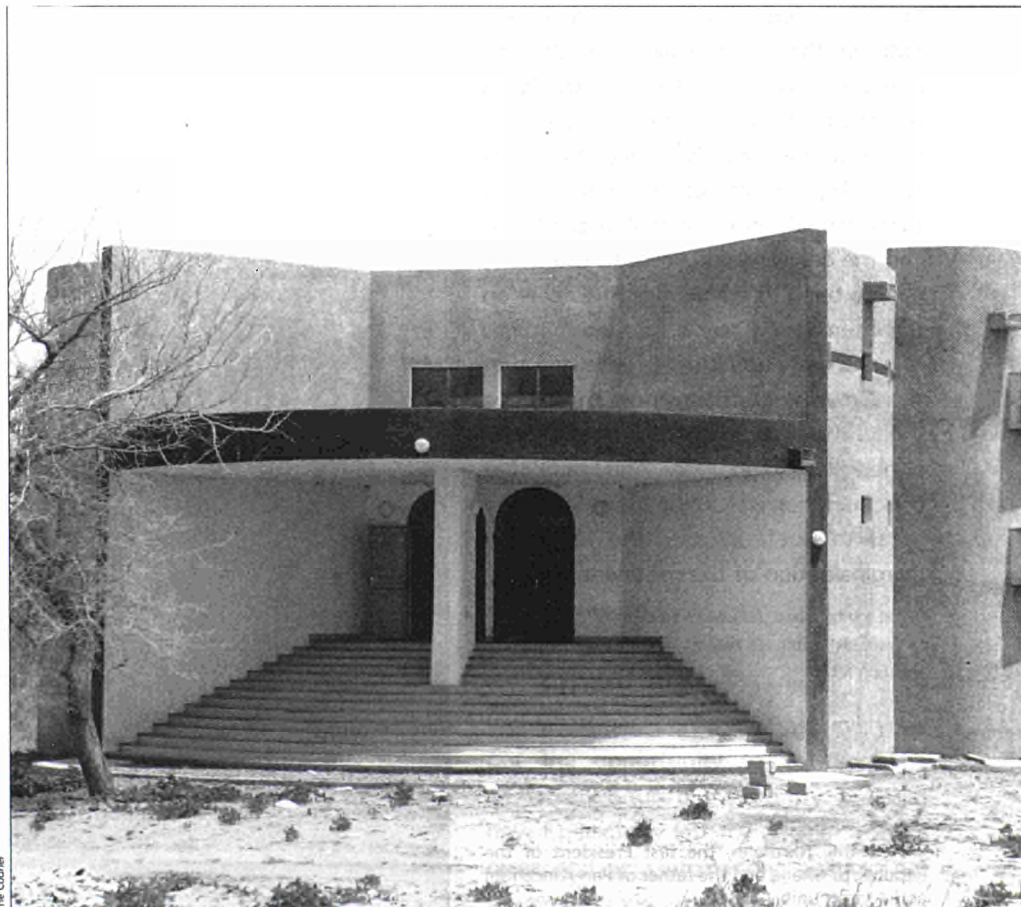
¹ See box.



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The striking architecture of one of the Niamey University buildings

Restoration of the Niamey Maternity Hospital, with the help of EDF funds. Health is one of the main concerns of the government



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and fight for, because Africans will only ever develop and get the continent out of its current state of marginalisation if they work. Work is their one source of wealth. So we have to stop snivelling and complaining. When the cold war ended, we know that a lot of Africans hoped that the financial resources earmarked for weapons would be released for development. But alas, they were disappointed. There is a lot of disinvestment in Africa. As we know, investors are not rushing to place their capital here as they did in the 1970s, but there are still good grounds for hoping that the continent will emerge from what we now call marginalisation. Democracy is one way out, because the freedom that goes with it provides the opportunity to mobilise the energy and enterprise of individuals and nations to work for progress. It is also an opportunity for young African political leaders who believe in African integration and unity to get to power and push the economic and social development schemes which the continent has needed, but not had, ever since independence. That is important, I believe. The beginning of independence saw the end of Pan-Africanism, let us not forget, but we think that the present generation, our generation, will take up the challenge, pick up the torch again and, through integration, get Africa to create the terms on which it can escape from its marginalised position. Obviously, taken individually, none of our countries amounts to much on the international checkerboard and the only way for Africa to count one day, to bring its whole weight to bear on the international scene, is to unite. It was Nkrumah,² you will recall, who said that Africa must unite or perish and it is still true today. Africa really does have to unite — or be willing to go under. And I think that our generation will decide to fight for unity so as to put a stop to the continuing marginalisation of the continent. ■

Interview by L.P.

² Kwame Nkrumah, the first President of the Republic of Ghana and the father of Pan-Africanism and African unity.

Agreement between the Government and the Confederation of Workers' Unions

Soon after The Courier's visit to Niger, negotiations between the Government and representatives of Niger's Confederation of Workers' Unions (USTN) ended with an agreement after four months of disputes and discussions.

Budget cutbacks, scheduled over a 17-month period, were to cost the USTN CFAF 5.6 billion, instead of the CFAF 8 billion claimed by the Government — which agreed that a slimmer cabinet would indeed reduce expenditure but told the unions that the President of the Republic alone was empowered to take any decision along these lines.

There was also agreement on the implementing arrangements for the Order of 3 September 1993 regulating the right to strike, the civil service minimum duty obligation and

deductions from strikers' wages. The National Assembly was to pronounce the text valid before it took effect. Civil servants were to get tax reductions and the State was to let building land go to workers by way of compensation for wage arrears (five months short, including one in 1992). The State agreed to cushion the effects of the workers' sacrifice with back-up measures to bring down the price of medicines, water and electricity. The Government also undertook to set up consultation to create the right conditions for lower rents and cheaper staple products.

The first positive thing to come out of the agreement between the State and the unions was a good start to the 1993-94 school year, which looked as though it would go smoothly this time. ■

Road-building north of Niamey, funded by the EDF. Communication networks are a serious handicap to the development and organisation of the country



The Courier

THE OPPOSITION

'The country needs to re-learn what is meant by a job well done'says Tandja Mamadou,
Leader of the MNSD

Mr Tandja Mamadou, the head of the MNSD; Niger's National Movement for the Society of Development, is Niger's main opposition leader and a man of the people, who can rouse the inhabitants of the capital on issues like exclusion, as he did in early September. He did extremely well (winning 45% of the votes cast) in the presidential elections in 1992 and could have won the day had the other parties not formed the Alliance to engineer the change which they claimed the country needed.

Judging by the way the people of Niamey rallied behind certain issues like 'exclusion', as they did at the beginning of September, Mr Mamadou seems to be a popular figure. He gives his views on Niger's present political and economic situation in this interview with *The Courier*.

■ *What do you think of the new political situation here, with democracy enshrined in a new constitution and free elections?*

— As far as I am concerned, on this particular issue, we are very pleased to be in a country where democracy has just been born and is now taking its first steps. We here in Niger opted for democracy very early on. The people have been prepared for a democratic system as a way of life since 1977 or 1978 and, now we are actually in one in the fullest sense, we believe it to be the right thing for Niger. You need time, you have to try and improve what you have and I think teething troubles are only to be expected. But the people of Niger will never regret their choice. The future will bear that out.

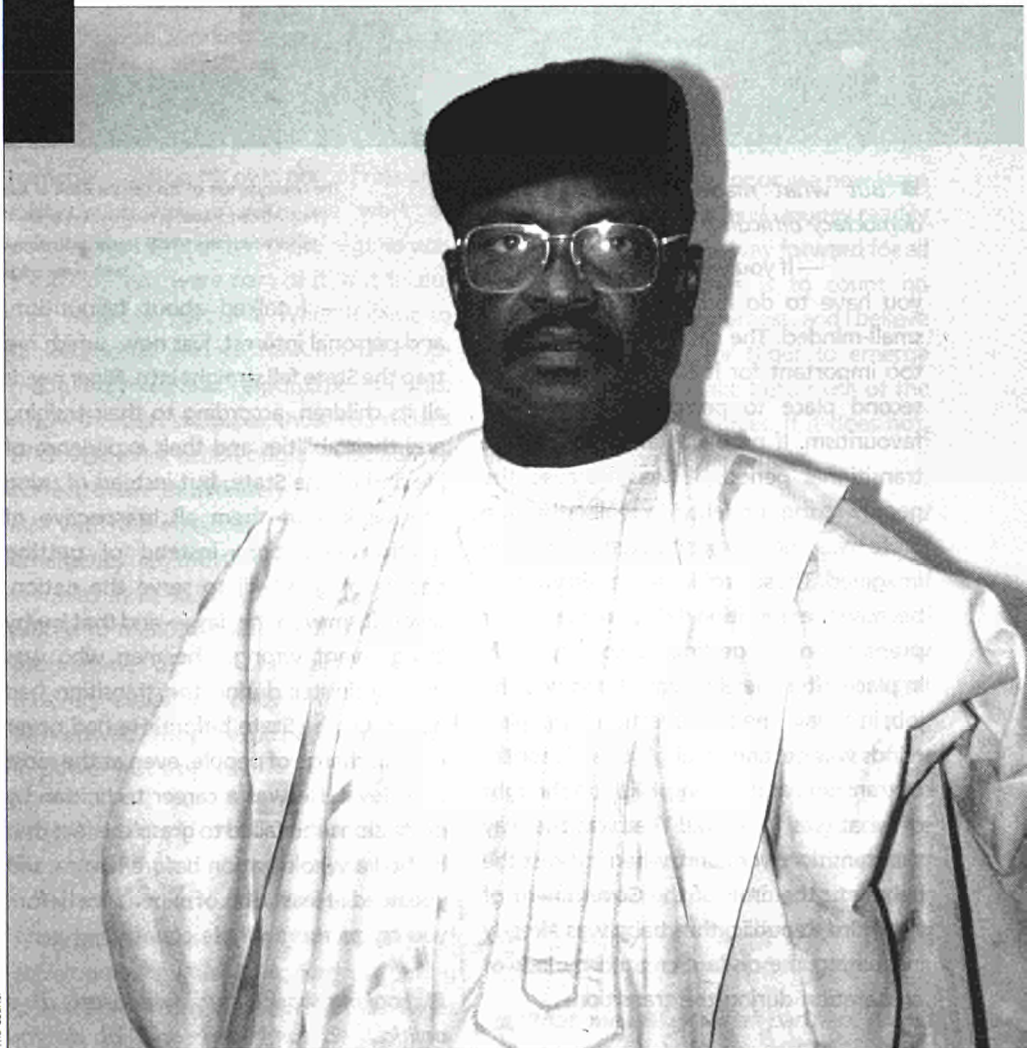
■ *As the head of the former single party which used to run the country, do you regret not having brought in a pluralist democracy yourself?*

— As I was saying a moment ago, the idea when we devised the society of development was ultimately to democrat-

ise Niger. An emergency regime was set up in 1974 and it lasted until 1988-89, before the Second Republic emerged from the parliamentary and presidential elections. But the Second Republic only embarked on major moves towards democracy near the end, when the wind of democracy was starting to blow over the whole continent, and we were soon in a multi-party system,

Mr Tandja Mamadou, leader of the MNSD
'If you want to lead the nation, you have to do it honestly'

with a National Conference, and everyone got the opportunity to vote on the democratic future of the country. That was how I personally left my original military career and went into national politics. That is why I formed a party.





■ *But what made the transition to democracy difficult?*

— If you want to lead the nation, you have to do it honestly and not be small-minded. The nation, the State, is far too important for it to be made to take second place to personal interests and favouritism. If problems arose during the transitional period, it was because the people at the top failed to realise that the State was more important than anyone imagined. Those problems are still with us, because the transition did not make proper preparations for getting democracy firmly in place after the elections. It botched the job, in a way. The only question in people's minds was getting through the 17 months of transition and retiring, with no thought of what was to follow. That was the way the transition went and, when it thrust the baby into the arms of the Government of the Third Republic, that baby was already incubating the disease created by lack of preparation during the transition.

The State has failed to avoid the dangers of 'favouritism'

■ *Can you explain briefly what were the main things in the transitional period which might have eased the passage to democracy?*

The headquarters of the Central Bank of the West African States in Niamey. Evidence of times which the MNSD leader talks about with some pride

— I talked about favouritism, and personal interest, just now, which is a trap the State fell straight into. Niger needs all its children, according to their training and their abilities and their experience of life and of the State, but instead of using the services of them all irrespective of political affiliation, instead of getting people of goodwill to serve the nation, favouritism won the day — and that is why things went wrong. The man who was Prime Minister during the transition had never run the State before. He had never been in charge of people, even at the most basic level. He was a career technician by profession who failed to grasp the fact that he had a whole nation before him — and you need at least a bit of experience before you try to run a whole country.

■ *Looking back now, what sort of a political, economic and social job do you think the MNSD made of running the country?*

— That was the time when Niger took its first steps forward in development with work well done. The period of the emergency regime was when 1500-1600 km of roads were surfaced, from the shores of Lake Chad to the banks of the Niger. Every development achievement in the country today was made during those

13 years and Niger has a past which can be admired in the achievements of the development of those special times. We have all the managers we need now, for they were trained during that period. So I have no regrets about what we did. But of course groups are not just made up of men of integrity and men who are keen to serve the nation. They never have been, anywhere, and they are still not now, but the emergency régime did help the development of Niger, which was deemed to be one of the best-achieving countries in Africa at the time.

'There is no point in trying to become democratic overnight'

■ *How far were public freedoms respected under the emergency regime?*

— When an emergency regime is decreed and military power installed, the constitution is suspended and, when the constitution goes, the democratic system goes with it. Political freedom may well have been flouted sometimes and if that was the case, individuals were also to blame. Some people are more democratic than others. You don't learn to be democratic at school. It's a state of mind. You are democratic by nature or you are not and there is no point in trying to become democratic overnight. What I am trying to say is that, even during the emergency regime, there were people who behaved democratically. As I said, in 1976, we opted for a society of development which could only be achieved by democratic means. When development has to be carried out at the grassroots and the philosophy behind it is one of consultation, cooperation and participation, then it contains the key features of democracy — which is to say that not everyone during the emergency régime was in the ranks of those now being accused of interfering with the freedom of individuals and the community. Development at the grass roots would not have been possible if there had been no freedom. So, if Niger was in an acceptable economic situation with an acceptable level of development at that time, to a very large extent, its individual and collective freedoms must have been respected too.

■ *What complaints do you have about the present ruling team now it has been in power for a few months?*

— What I object to is the Government of the Third Republic's continual violation of the constitution and our laws and regulations. I also object to people being excluded from jobs because they do not belong to parties in the governing Alliance. These are serious matters. Those who violate the constitution and the law and exclude people for party-political reasons will inevitably bring failure on their programme of economic and social recovery. That is the charge we bring against the Government. We have to accept different opinions, that is an obligation, and we will be heading for a special regime without democracy again if we do not. And what about unemployment? It is getting worse and no one is doing anything. Taking power and sitting down and chatting about it seems to be what it amounts to here at the moment. The leaders of this country must get the people of Niger back to work, and they should start by respecting their rights.

■ *One of the things which Mahamadou Issoufou, your Prime Minister, insisted on in his general policy statement to the House was what he called the rationalisation and moralisation of public life in Niger. What do you think about that?*

— What is actually happening is the very opposite of everything the Prime Minister said. It was easy to say, but it is a different story now it comes to putting it into practice. Theories — we have been hearing them and having them inflicted on us for years, but nothing has actually been done yet. The people of Niger have to be got back to work and the conditions for economic recovery created.

The emergency regime's share of responsibility for the successes or failures

■ *You governed the country at a time when there were plenty of national and international resources available for development. Do you think that there were any errors of management or wrong economic choices then, whose consequen-*



ces may still be affecting Government action today?

— Good question. The emergency regime worked with exactly the same people as are at the head of the Third Republic today. They were the brains and the technicians of the regime, the design managers, each in his own post of responsibility, who helped with the work of developing the country. If the regime was a success, they were part of it. If it failed, they were also part of it. When it came to the economy and to national development, they were as responsible as I was. And if there are mistakes, those technicians of Government action ought to be able to correct them immediately. They are familiar with the errors and successes of the emergency regime through having been involved in it, so they ought to be well-placed to make the success of the current programme of economic and financial recovery easier to achieve. They are not new arrivals. They are old hands who were in power just as I was.

■ *What would your economic programme be if you returned to power?*

— I have a well-known action programme, based on the society of development, which I worked on during the election campaign. What has Niger always had? It has always had three resources. Human resources, natural resources and mineral resources — three potential assets for the future. And what is left? A Sahel country whose natural resources are disappearing. Minerals, mostly uranium so far and no longer a big earner, as we know. Which leaves us with human resources, and those are what we have to count on now. We need to get the people back to work, back to mass

The Sofitel Hotel in Niamey: one of the building projects dating from the uranium boom

production, by employing trained, competent, experienced managers. That is the only way the economy can be rebuilt.

Relying on human resources means counting on self-reliance and work well done to give the economy a new lease of life. No one gives or lends money readily to Niger any more. The way forward for all the countries of Africa is to count on themselves first and foremost, and I believe that the only way for Niger to emerge from its crisis is to make better use of the country's human resources. If it does not, there will be no development.

■ *That means practical schemes and specific incentives. Can you suggest any?*

— I said that the society of development which we devised advocated production at the grass roots, particularly in rural development, for farming is what will get the country back on the rails. Nothing else will get Niger out of its present difficulties. As I said before, no one gives or lends to Niger any longer, so we have to get organised and make a better job of working, producing, processing, exporting and ensuring the economic and social development of our country.

■ *That means external partners. What would you do about Niger's international and African cooperation policy if you were running the Government?*

— For the time being, African and international cooperation will obviously not develop until it is clear what we can do ourselves, so our countries have to get down to it. They have to show what they can do and what they can produce before anyone gives them aid. ■

Interview by L.P.

EU-Niger cooperation

Off to a fresh start

by Henry Sprietsma*

Niger was one of the EEC's first partners. It became independent in 1960, immediately joined the Yaoundé and then the Lomé Conventions and has received more than ECU 800 million (about CFAF 300 billion) in aid from the Community since then. This is broken down by sector and by instrument in the table (totals to September 1993).

In the early days, the financial resources put at Niger's disposal were invested in rural development and in a road network to open up the most heavily populated areas. Alongside these, the Commission stepped up its support for health and education; since the country's natural resources are fairly limited, the long-term growth potential depends to a very large extent on making the most of its human resources. Primary school attendance is an estimated 27% and adult literacy 13% (18% for men and 7% for women), giving Niger one of the lowest social indicators on the continent. So there is every reason for the gradual shift in Community support towards an increase in assistance for the social sectors and a decrease in the amounts so far earmarked (particularly) for road and agricultural infrastructure.

The economic and social crisis facing Niger today has dictated a complete overhaul of its policy, starting with a commitment to a process of democracy and the adoption of a proper multi-party system. Shortly after the new Constitution

was passed, by referendum, and the new Third Republic institutions were set up following the — irreproachably conducted — elections in late 1992-early 1993, a mission headed by the Deputy Director-General for Development at the European Commission went out to take stock of the situation with the new authorities. It made it clear that the Community and its Member States welcomed the successful completion of the democratic process and announced that the Community was willing both to continue and to step up its cooperation with Niger. The Lomé IV national indicative programme, concluded in January 1991, reflected the country's political changes by focusing Community aid on rural and social development and the private sector. The amount provided for the 7th EDF national indicative programme comprises ECU 124.5 million in Commission-managed grants and ECU 15.5 million in EIB-managed risk capital. The number of schemes it involves should mean that cooperation can achieve the critical mass required for these sectors to take off. A brief description of Community support to these sectors follows.

The European Union is helping to upgrade the Niamey road network with EDF funds

Social development

A financing agreement was signed in May 1993 as part of the national indicative programme, for a sectoral import programme (ECU 15 million, in foreign exchange) to finance imports of vital medicines and inputs for the private sector. Some of the counterpart funds accruing from the balance of payments support programme are to be used for a reform programme in the health sector. This focuses on the adoption of a programme budget for that sector as such and programme contracts with the biggest health establishments (national hospitals, the ONPPC, the health schools and the Directorates of the Departments of Health — DDS). The Community will contribute CFAF 3.4 billion to help pay the operating (but not wage) costs of these establishments, help the authorities purchase essential medicines for the public hospitals and pay off some of the Health Ministry's



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* Acting Head of the Commission Delegation in Niamey, Niger.

arrears. The conditions of use of these funds were met in September 1993. In essence, the Community support is designed to help restructure the public health service and restore it to normal operation, to achieve the proper implementation of a basic medicines policy aimed at ensuring a supply of low-cost pharmaceuticals and to spread health spending more widely.

The remaining counterpart funds, amounting to some CFAF 1.5 billion, are to be used to support job promotion via a labour-intensive programme to be run by NIGETIP, the Niger public works agency.

The schemes discussed here are sited in regions where other Community-financed programmes are currently being or are to be run, thereby helping to achieve the desired critical mass mentioned earlier.

The Commission has also decided to provide cofinancing (with the World Bank and the Federal Republic of Germany, for example) for the start of the 1993-94 school year. Problems were expected in this area, the previous two school years having been wasted. About CFAF 250 million has been allocated for the purchase of textbooks and for their distribution to the country's various inspectorates.

With the assistance of CARE, the British NGO, the Community is helping the AIDS control campaign with financing of about CFAF 250 million for an information programme to make migrant workers and public transport drivers aware of the situation.



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Rice stocks from plantations financed by the European Union

Rural development

The 7th EDF has seen an ECU 16 million extension to the Tarka Valley development scheme, which covers the Tarka Valley proper plus the catchment basins of its tributaries, a total area of 2800 km² in the Madaoua and Bouza districts.

The idea here is to improve food security by irrigating to make part of the production independent of variations in the weather. A second aim is to raise the income and investment potential of the producers by improving the organisation of their marketing and supplies. Environmental protection schemes are also to be implemented to combat desertification.

Practically speaking, pump irrigation is to be provided for more than

500 hectares of cropland. This will benefit 4 000 farmers and should result in an extra 40 000 tonnes of off-season products (particularly onions), and significant improvements in cash income and employment in the region. The project, which will also help the people take a proper part in identifying and carrying out soil conservation and environmental protection schemes, will be of direct benefit to 60 000 villagers in the project area and of more indirect benefit to the 12 000 inhabitants of the town of Madaoua, the commercial hub of the region.

Also in the rural sector, the EC has helped settle returnees from Algeria (this programme came to an end in December 1992) and it is now ready to support a large-scale regional development operation for the departments of Tahoua, Agadez and North Dakoro.

Aid is also to go to the nomads (Tuareg, Peul and Arab) who have been hard hit by the droughts and the armed rebellion which brought disruption to the area. This is a response to the Government's desire for a gradual transformation of the rural world and its systems of production — which means, in particular, changing the legal set-up of rural society, promoting private production and marketing facilities, improving the management of natural resources and protecting the environment.

The project includes such areas as human and animal health, animal production, and product infrastructure and mar-

(in ECU millions)

TABLE

	Lomé II	Lomé III	Lomé IV
I. Indicative programme:	80,5	122,0	124,5
— rural development	(25,5)	(86,4)	(73,0)
— economic infrastructure	26,2	(15,0)	(21,7)
— social development	(18,8)	(5,7)	(10,1)
— miscellaneous	(10,0)	(14,9)	(19,7)
II. Food aid	22,2	17,7	1,2
III. Emergency aid	16,1	3,1	pm (2)
IV. Stabex/Sysmin	—	19,0	pm (2)
V. Other (1)	35,6	—	pm (2)
VI. EIB	10,0	14,3	15,5 (3)
TOTAL	164,4	176,1	141,2

(1): E.g. rehabilitation and recovery plan, World Hunger Scheme.

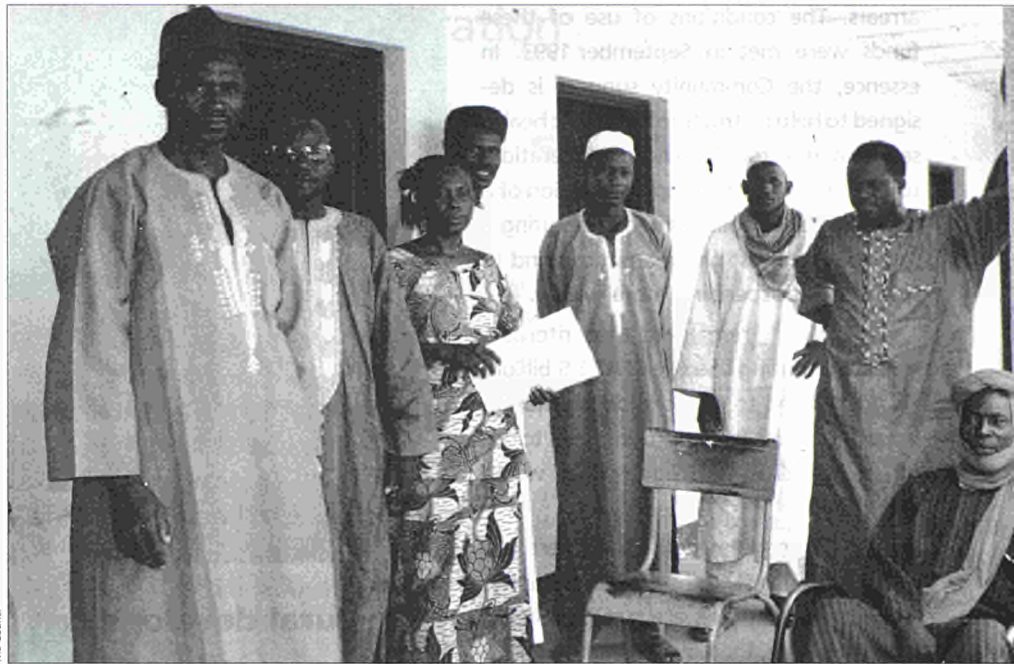
(2): Potential but as yet unknown allocations.

(3): Provided for in the Lomé IV national indicative programme

keting. It aims, in particular, to develop sheep, goat and camel herding by sinking cemented wells, rehabilitating the traditional water points and trying to strike a better balance between water, cattle and pasture-land.

Completing the picture, as regards Community assistance to the departments of Tahoua, Agadez and Maradi, there are the 7th EDF projects in the Air valley to the east, (currently under appraisal) and the Tarka Valley, to the south. Although the appraisal of the Air project was held up because of insecurity in the region, phase two of the Tarka Valley scheme was improved and the financing agreement signed in March 1993.

Community involvement in the large-scale Niger Valley irrigation programme will now be in the form of back-up schemes, particularly for health facilities for the people living around the crop areas in the Tillaberi district and part of the Kollo district. The project, which is to cost ECU 6 million and take three years, is to help the DDSs make their health and education development plans and produce their decentralised operating budgets. In the field, the idea is to improve the management potential of the various health establishments, raise the standard of the services and provide support for the safe motherhood programme and the local health supervision programme. One element of the Niger Valley irrigation programme will involve protection of the catchment basins of the River Niger, a



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scheme which will also help protect the developments from silting.

A family of villagers who have benefited from the rice projects

Development of the private sector

Niger has opted to step up its development of the private sector and the Community has decided to support the country in its endeavour, in line with the provisions of the national indicative programme. A 7th EDF grant of ECU 12 million over five years enabled a new private

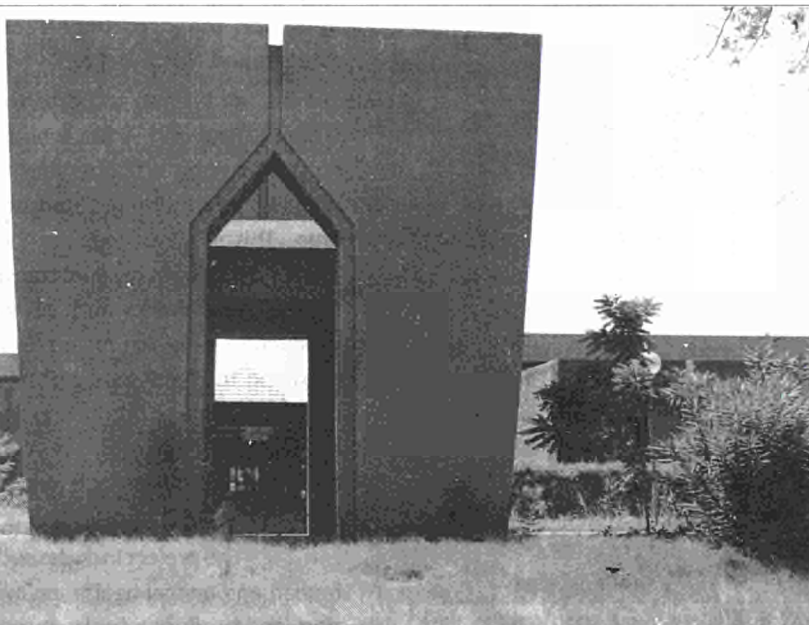
A view of the Niamey mining school, which serves the wider region, built with the help of the EU

association providing finance and incentives for private enterprise in Niger (AFELEN) to start operating in early 1993. In the interests of efficiency, the Government has made AFELEN the only body providing this sort of credit.

Not only does the association have its equipment and operation covered for the five-year period. It also has a line of credit of more than CFAF 3 billion to create and re-establish access to private investment financing, which is virtually non-existent at the moment because of the collapse of the banking system, AFELEN is not itself a bank, but an agency upstream of two local banks (the BIAO and Sonibank), which manage AFELEN-approved loans.

The project is also expected to create a stable environment conducive to private enterprise, develop a healthy private sector and help SMEs, SMIs and micro-businesses in the craft sector and other sub-sectors with comparative advantages to take off.

AFELEN is currently concentrating on small businesses involved in first-stage processing of crops and livestock products, cottage industry and construction, although there is no reason why other sectors cannot be covered and there are no geographical restrictions. There will be particular encouragement for businesswomen, for schemes to rehabilitate



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existing production facilities and for operations likely to have a positive effect on the environment and expand the country's economic base.

The Community, the UNDP and the ILO are cofinancing a training programme for rural craftsmen (PROFORMAR) worth about ECU 0.6 million. This hinges on the installation of 400 modules as a framework which will lead, sooner or later, to the creation and/or consolidation of individual/collective rural micro-units providing direct support for the development of the primary sector.

A third Community scheme for the private sector is a vocational and technical training programme (NIGETECH), currently being appraised, which is to provide about 8 800 workers and businessmen with training and advanced training for various jobs in formal and informal areas of urban activity. The projects involve training 60 instructors to run about 250 modules in 40 areas and to provide a programme of study awards related to various Community projects and programmes.

Other sectors

Community grants outside the focal sectors of the 7th EDF national indicative programme have been provided to develop and surface 56 km of the Niamey-Say road, so as to open up the Say region, an agricultural area whose tourist attractions (W-Park)



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and leading research centres (Icrisat and the Islamic University) give it high development potential.

Food aid to Niger continues. During 1993, 5 000 tonnes of common wheat, costing CFAF 400 million, have been provided. Local cereals from the buffer stock established using counterpart funds were distributed in June and July to about 100 000 families in northern Niger, where the grain shortfall is severe.

The Sysmin transfer expected for 1993 will also go into road and telecommunications infrastructure to open up Say,

European cooperation seeks to support the essential areas of the Niger economy including, in particular, the livestock sector

A Medicine Faculty building at the University of Niamey, which has received assistance from the EU

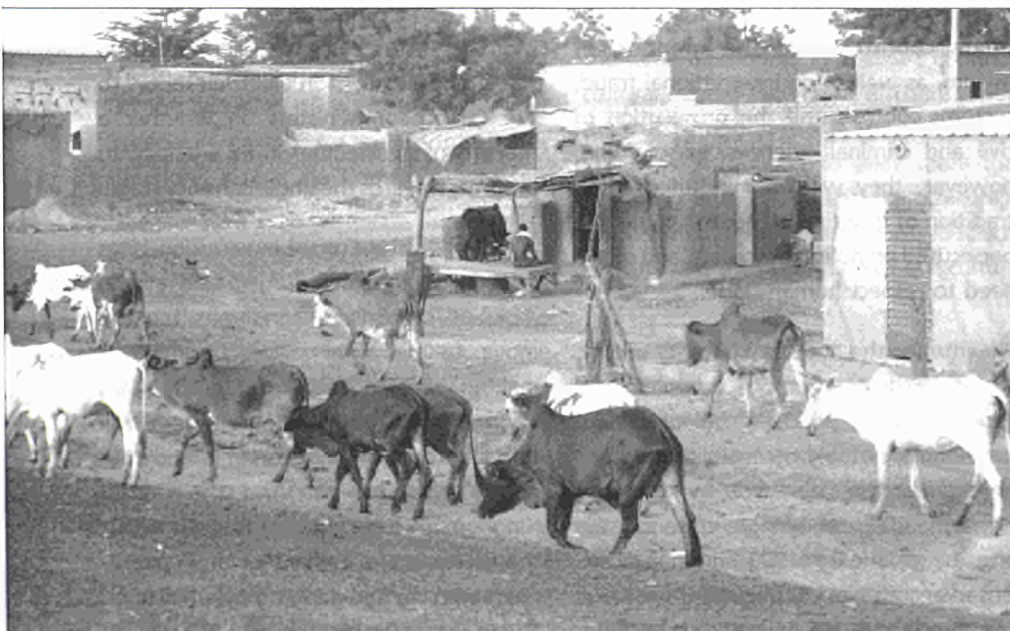
Téra and Arlit, all areas with mining potential.

Niger is actively involved in western Africa's Lomé IV regional indicative programme, including in particular, the environmental training and information programme (PFIE), the regional solar programme (PRS), the permanent diagnosis programme (IDR) and the regional gas programme (PRG). ECU 228 million have been allocated for the Lomé IV regional indicative programme.

Support for structural adjustment

In August 1993, the Niger Government enacted a finance law intended to set the country on the path to adjustment. It then passed an outline document on medium-term economic policy (1994-96) confirming that austerity finance policies were to be maintained to reduce internal and external imbalances. The structural reform policies should make it possible to renegotiate new financing with the Bretton Woods institutions under the IMF's enlarged structural adjustment facility (ESAF) and the structural adjustment programme with the IBRD. Niger could, accordingly, also obtain help from the second instalment of the Lomé IV adjustment support programme.

H.S.



The Courier

Welcome to the European Union

On 1 November 1993 the European Community embarked on a new stage in its development when the Treaty establishing the European Union came into force. Better known as the Maastricht Treaty after the Dutch town where it was signed by the EC's Heads of State or Government in February 1992, the text had to go through a long process of ratification by all the Member States before it became law.

Under the new Treaty, the European Economic Community officially disappears, becoming simply the *European Community* (the title by which it has in any case been informally known for some time). Its functions include setting up an internal market in which the movement of persons, goods, services and capital between the 12 Member States will be completely free. It is also responsible for strengthening economic and social cohesion between its members, pursuing common policies on trade, transport, the environment, agriculture and fisheries, making European industry more competitive, making sure competition in the internal market is not distorted — and conducting a policy in the sphere of development cooperation. It will deal, too, with matters of public health, energy, civil protection and tourism.

But the real innovations come with a new entity called the *European Union*, into which the new EC, as well as the old European Coal and Steel Community and the European Atomic Energy Community, are subsumed. The Union is a grouping of the same 12 Member States as before but has wider powers. Its member countries will now pursue a *common foreign and security policy* and eventually (except for Denmark, which has a special exemption) formulate a common defence policy. The purpose of this is, naturally, to safeguard their security and independence, but also to protect their shared values and interests, preserve peace and

security in the world, promote international cooperation and develop and consolidate democracy, the rule of law and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Council of Ministers will decide in which areas the vital shared interests of the Member States dictate a common approach — these could include the defence of human rights, disarmament and arms control policy in Europe or the prevention of nuclear proliferation — and members are committed to supporting any joint action or common position decided on. Those which are members of the UN Security Council, for example, will be required to act in concert and keep the other Member States of the Union informed of what they do.

The other new areas of close cooperation will be *justice and home affairs*. There will be stricter controls on the Union's external borders, to combat illicit drug trafficking and clandestine immigration. The Member States will work together on their policies towards the entry and movement of nationals of non-Union countries and the granting of asylum, as well as on international fraud, customs controls and the prosecution of civil and criminal offences. In so doing, however, they will be mindful of their tradition of granting protection to people persecuted on political grounds, and of the need to respect human rights.

As the Maastricht Treaty puts it, the Union is to promote economic and social progress which is balanced and sustainable, notably by establishing *economic and monetary union* in successive stages, leading to a single currency, the ecu, by 1 January 1999 at the latest. Observers and even politicians in some Member States, however, think that the

periodic turmoil on the money markets and the malfunctioning of the European exchange rate mechanism since the Treaty was written cast serious doubt on whether the switch to a single currency can be achieved by the target date. Nevertheless, a special meeting of the European Council in October decided to set up a European Monetary Institute, the precursor to an eventual European Central Bank. The Bank itself will be an independent body whose main task will be to make sure there is price stability in the Union.

Member States, says the Treaty, shall regard their economic policies as a matter of common concern and coordinate them within the Council. They are required to work towards sustainable *economic convergence* by the end of 1996. This means bringing their inflation and long-term interest rates into a range close to those of the three countries with the best performances in terms of price stability. Governments have to avoid excessive budget deficits; they must stay within the normal fluctuation margins of the exchange-rate mechanism and not devalue their national currencies against any other Member State's currency for at least two years. The Commission will then report to the Council of Ministers on whether a majority of the Member States are ready to progress towards the single currency stage.

As the European recession bites deeper, only Luxembourg would at the moment satisfy the conditions for the move to the final stage. Denmark is making satisfactory progress, but has informed the European Council that it will not take part in full economic and monetary union at all. And the United Kingdom has a provision entitling it to put the matter to its parliament and government again before deciding whether to go ahead. At all events, whether ten, eleven

or twelve Member States finally adopt the ecu, the last stage is due to begin on 1 January 1997 at the earliest and 1 January 1999 at the latest.

Another area on which the Member States failed to reach unanimous agreement is *social policy*. The United Kingdom has opted to stay outside an agreement whereby the countries in the Union will take wider-ranging decisions on action to improve standards of health and safety at work, working conditions, the information and consultation of workers, equal treatment for men and women on the job market and at work, and measures to help excluded categories find employment. All of this, says the agreement, has to be done with a proper regard for the need to keep the economy of the Union competitive and take account of varying national practices.

The Maastricht Treaty confers *citizenship of the European Union* on all nationals of the 12 Member States in addition to their national citizenship. A citizen of the Union has the right to move and reside freely in any Member State and to vote and stand as a candidate in local government and European elections in his or her country of residence. The embassy or consulate of any Member State of the Union will protect a European citizen travelling in a country where his or her own country is not diplomatically represented.

The *European Parliament* benefits from changes in the powers of the European institutions which are designed to strengthen democratic control of the Union's activities. It is to play a larger part in decision-making: for the first time, it has the right to ask the Commission to put forward proposals for legislation which it considers should be adopted, and can, in effect, stop the Council adopting any act of which Parliament disapproves. Also for the first time, Parliament has to endorse the appointment, by Member States' governments, of the Members of the Commission, while retaining the right to dismiss the Commission as a body and to approve the Union budget. European citizens may petition Parliament on any aspect of European legislation which directly affects them, and Parliament will appoint an

independent Ombudsman to investigate complaints of maladministration by Union institutions.

To give better representation of views and interests below the level of the nation-state, the Treaty on European Union sets up an entirely new body, the *Committee of the Regions*, which has to be consulted by the Council and the Commission when legislation with a regional impact is being prepared.

Some critics of the Maastricht Treaty complain that it burdens the people of Europe with yet another level of government. An answer to these comes in the section defining the areas in which the European Community and the Member States respectively are to act. This defines a principle known in the somewhat daunting Euro-jargon as *subsidiarity*, which provides that in areas which do not fall within its exclusive competence, the Community (not the Union) shall take action only if and in so far as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States. Thus, for example, it is not for the Community to decide whether a Member State should introduce or abolish daylight saving time or dictate its policy on primary education. But it will be entitled to act in an area such as cross-border pollution of the environment, where no Member State can act to protect itself unless the others take action as well.

The Community is also committed to contributing to the flowering of the Member States' cultures, while respecting their national and regional diversity and at the same time bringing Europe's common *cultural heritage* to the fore. This is a new area of competence for the Community and was introduced to allay fears that economic and, ultimately, political union could spell the end of each country's special identity and the imposition of dull cultural uniformity.

To mark the imminent arrival of the European Union, the Heads of State or Government of the Twelve, with President Jacques Delors of the Commission and Hans van den Broek, Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, held a special summit in Brussels on 29 October. They at once displayed their determination to take political cooperation between them much

further than before, asking the Council to draw up plans for joint action on foreign policy, specifically the promotion of peace and stability in central and eastern Europe, support for democratisation in Russia and the peace process in the Middle East, backing for the transition in South Africa and the search for a solution to the conflict in the former Yugoslavia. *New institutions* created by the Treaty were also parcelled out. As well as giving the European Monetary Institute to the German financial capital, Frankfurt, the Ministers decided that Denmark, a country with high environmental standards, is to be the home of the European Environmental Agency. Europol, the European criminal intelligence agency, goes to the Netherlands, the European Foundation for Professional Training to Italy and the European Centre for Vocational Training to Greece. Spain wins the Trademarks Office and the Health and Safety at Work Agency, Ireland the Veterinary Inspection Office, Portugal the European Drug Observatory and Britain the European Medicines Evaluation Agency. A department to translate for these new bodies will be set up in Luxembourg. As before, the ordinary part-sessions of the European Parliament will go on being held in France and the other main EC institutions are staying in Belgium.

There is still one puzzle in the ordinary citizen's mind, however: what is this new structure supposed to be called? The Maastricht Treaty talks about the European Union in some places and the European Community in others, when discussing the respective powers of each. This distinction is very right and proper but is perhaps not easy for the layman to grasp. At all events, the Council of Ministers, which has powers in all areas covered by the Treaty, has decided to call itself the Council of the European Union, but the Commission, which does not have such powers, is to go on being officially known as the Commission of the European Communities, or the European Commission for short. We on *The Courier* will reflect the new advance in Europe's integration by changing our masthead to read 'European Union'. ■

R.R.

Fighting poverty and exclusion

'The worst betrayal of intelligence is finding justification for the world as it is' *Jean Gu henno*
contemporary French philosopher

The unpalatable facts are these: One sixth of the world population (5 billion people) has three quarters of world income (\$20 000 billion) and three quarters have only one sixth; one fifth of the world population — in particular 180 million people in Africa, 420 million in India, 210 million in China, 75 million in Latin America and the Caribbean — gets only 2% of world income. And 500 million of these poor, representing 10% of the world population, are living in abject poverty. More than a billion people — one fifth of mankind — are trying to survive with less than \$370 per capita p.a., which (at 1985 prices) is not even a dollar a day.

In Europe, 50 million of the 340 million inhabitants, or 15% of the total population, are below the bread line.

This dossier investigates that situation, in the light of the following facts.

— It was long thought that poverty was a residual phenomenon which would disappear with progress and growth, but we now know that conventional economic growth is not synonymous with decrease in poverty. Traditional ideas have changed as new forms of poverty and marginality have followed economic crisis and economic, technological and social change.

What is new in our time is that people are not born poor. They become poor.

— Analysing the situation properly means moving from isolated cases to a collective, global phenomenon. Combating poverty and exclusion means not only taking stock of their magnitude in order then to take action, but also understanding the machinery which produces structural situations in order to head them off.

— Poverty and exclusion lead to an undermining of conventional values and traditional forms of solidarity, to social breakdown, to a fear of the future and,

therefore, to the emergence of people who are inward-looking and susceptible to extremism in all its forms.

— When it comes to effective action, the only real question is whether the poor are the object of concern or the 'subject' of their own future.

We now have proof that the poorest members of our societies can be reached by global action if that global action involves them and preserves their dignity. This current experimental approach must now be converted into a political project.

— In a crisis, the big issue is how to solve problems of this sort without unleashing conflict between the marginalised and the dominant elite — a task for the governments, of course, and for the poor themselves, for individuals, for groups and for communities, especially the international community.

It is with all this in mind that The Courier attempts to define the characteristics of poverty and exclusion, analyse the manifestations of both and describe the policies used to remedy them.

It outlines trends in the concepts of poverty and exclusion and analyses the main patterns and features of poverty in the developing countries. Simon Homer looks at the links between human development and poverty. In a very instructive interview, Gerry Rodgers gives the overall views of the International Labour Organisation on the problem, especially on poverty-employment relations. And Lucien Pagni investigates poverty and human rights.

Part two of the dossier attempts to outline the manifestations of poverty, with a report from ENDA-Dakar and a discussion of child labour from ILO sources.

This is followed by a look at poverty control policies, with an analysis of official development assistance, policies applied in the developing world, coordinated European action and, inevitably, the relation between structural adjustment and poverty. Catherine Dom examines the role of NGOs in a European scheme to combat the exclusion of women in Mali and the editor interviews Jean Tonglet, who sets out the point of view of the ATD Fourth World Movement.

Exclusion is dealt with by Paola Antolini, an anthropologist, who highlights the European situation, and Sophia Mappa, a historian and the head of the Delphi Forum, who considers the phenomenon as a North-South problem.

A report on the European Commission's anti-exclusion programmes in Europe and the UN's work in preparation for the world social development summit in Copenhagen in March 1995 complete the dossier. ■

Dominique DAVID
Editor

From poverty to exclusion

Spotlight on poverty

There have always been many definitions of poverty.

In 'The Development Dictionary' (1992), *Majid Rahnema* said that there are as many poor and perceptions of poverty as there are people. Persian has 30 words for it and most African languages have three, four or five. There are eight in the Torah and, in mediaeval times, there were 40 in Latin, not counting all the dialect, slang, familiar and vernacular terms. And the approaches to poverty are as varied as the concepts.

In 'Stone Age Economies' (1972), *Marshall Sahlins*, an American anthropologist and economist, claimed that poverty was an invention of civilisation. Although the primitive economy was under-productive, he said, it was not an economy of penury but a society of abundance which was able to meet essential needs.

In 'The New World Economic Disorder' (1993), *Georges Corm* was perhaps echoing Sahlins when he said that non-urban civilisations in Africa and Pre-Columbian America contrived to handle poverty by managing the natural resources they had available in egalitarian and highly knowledgeable ways.

In the 19th century, *Karl Marx* said that people in poor nations were comfortably off and people in rich nations were usually poor.

In 1978, *Albert Tévoédjré*, writing in 'Poverty, Wealth of Mankind' announced that poverty could be an asset; a state of wellbeing founded on a mastery of needs. He maintained that we should find out how and why a redefined and reoriented 'poverty' might represent the way of achieving 'self-development'.

Two years later, *John Kenneth Galbraith* set out quite a different point of view in 'The Nature of Mass Poverty' in which he outlined the concept of 'poverty balance'. Rich countries tended to increase

their income, he said, and poor countries to balance their poverty, because in the latter, poverty deprived the poor of the means of overcoming their poverty. In their value judgments and economies, the rich world despised the way the poor came to terms with their poverty, he pointed out, and a decisive difference between the two was to be seen in the number of people who declined to come to terms with a poverty balance.

But, however rational it might be, coming to terms with poverty did not seem to be acceptable human behaviour and combating poverty was in fact combating the willingness to come to terms with it, something which Galbraith said could be managed by educating and traumatising people. Going beyond that, it had to be admitted that, in history, poverty was long considered to be part of the natural order of things.

Tortuous evolution of a concept

In pre-1750 Europe, there were four approaches to poverty — resignation, charity, precarious rescue and theft — depending on which side of the fence the approacher stood. But in urban systems, the emergence of mercantilism heralded the demise of a comfortable conviction and poverty ceased to be ineluctable. Since the era of mercantilism, *Georges Corm* maintains, the fight against poverty has marked the birth of the political economy.

With the advent of the mercantile economy and the urbanisation and monetarisation of society, the poor were defined in terms of lacking what the rich had.

What did the institutions say? According to the Declaration of the International Labour Organisation in 1944, poverty anywhere was a threat to pros-

perity everywhere, but the institutions' real 'discovery' of poverty goes back to a World Bank report in 1948-1949. At that stage, poverty was defined by means of the statistics on *per capita* income in comparison with US figures and world poverty by means of comparative statistics. And the industrial countries believed that poverty would be eliminated by economic growth.

However, towards the end of the 1960s, it was realised that economic development along western lines did not in fact spell a better standard of living for the people of the Third World and the time had come for a redefinition of poverty.

In 1973, World Bank President *Robert McNamara* said that there had to be a drive to eliminate absolute poverty by the end of the century. The concept of global poverty was in fact tied to the gradual — and now generalised — economisation of life and the (artificial?) integration of the traditional societies of the Third World into the world economy.

At that stage, absolute poverty was defined as living beneath a certain minimum standard. But gradually it became apparent that *per capita* income was no indication of the living conditions of people who were not part of a money economy and so poverty was then defined in terms of quality of life.

In the 1970s, penury was described as the result of modernised poverty and the suggested way of eliminating it was to cater for basic needs and stimulate economic growth.

Lack of what, perceived by whom?

Poverty is described in terms of what is lacking. But who needs what? And who is qualified to say so? Mercifully, there are no such things as pauperologists yet.

The classic definitions are traditionally those of absolute poverty (used

more in the poor countries) and relative poverty (used more in the rich countries). The first problem is to assess the value of the absolute poverty threshold, because basic needs vary from one individual to another, particularly in the case of a heterogeneous population, and what constitutes 'normal' involvement in the social and productive activities of an economy varies according to the complexity of that economy. The level of absolute poverty also varies with time and place.

Another technical problem is whether to look at spending or revenue and more difficulties arise when the unit of analysis is the household and not the individual. And it would be wrong to confine attention to private income, when access to public goods and services and to collective resources also contributes to the standard of living.

The concept of relative poverty shows that people are poor in relation to other people — but obviously, there again, the thresholds are arbitrary.

Can poverty be measured?

Given the degree of arbitrariness involved in defining a poverty threshold, it would be as well to see how sensitive poverty is to any shifting of that threshold. The more unequal the distribution of income-spending around the threshold, the weaker the sensitivity will tend to be. Indeed, sensitivity to the poverty threshold varies not just according to the rate of economic growth, but according to the effects of income redistribution.

Poverty perhaps could also be measured in terms of incidence and depth. There again, a comparative analysis is not really significant. The fact of knowing that a particular percentage of the population of France or Bangladesh is below the bread line tells us nothing about the relative extent of poverty in those countries.

The incidence of poverty is generally taken to be a percentage of the total population living below the poverty threshold. The depth of an individual's poverty can be measured as the gap between a poverty threshold and his/her level of income-expenditure and the figure can be used to determine how much would need to be transferred for the person in question to emerge from poverty. The average gap

of the whole of the poor population can be calculated and expressed as a percentage of the poverty threshold — the income gap ratio. But even this measurement is not sensitive to income distribution within the group of poor people.

Poverty can be approached other than through estimates of income and expenditure. The question of access to public goods and services, for example, can only really be pinpointed usefully by means of social indicators, which are difficult to quantify. A number of essential parameters (life expectancy at birth, infantile and maternal mortality, for example) are also wellbeing indicators and affect monetary comparisons.

Global data make no distinction between permanent poverty and temporary poverty brought about by the passing instability of some income. They do not reflect the risks of vulnerability, the dangers of precariousness, cyclical economic poverty or the exacerbation of poverty which is penury and a slide into structural exclusion.

If the European Community is to have a proper understanding of a phenomenon as complex and diversified as poverty, it has to use instruments of measurement which can handle several dimensions at once and, in particular, reconcile:

- a global approach, at the level of a whole society, and an individual approach, at the level of particular situations of groups of individuals or households;
- a quantitative approach (how many poor people?), to allow for comparisons, and a qualitative approach (how do they see and feel this poverty?), aimed at a better understanding of the diversity of poverty conditions;
- a structural approach (determinants and cause of poverty) and a cyclical economic approach (seriousness of situations and effects of poverty);
- a static approach, describing and comparing the situation at a given moment, and a dynamic approach, analysing the poverty-generation machinery;
- an economic approach (analysis of stocks and flows) and a sociological approach (behaviour analysis).

Understanding and acting

The academic and institutional literature reveals considerable uncertainty on our subject.

A look at the past shows that poverty has not always been the opposite of wealth, for in Europe, for example, the poor tended to be against the powerful rather than the rich. But clearly, the dimensions of poverty are not just material. They also relate, in particular, to our perception of poverty and the way in which others see the poor. Poverty is not just the result of economic factors. It also has to do with social phenomena, such as discrimination, lack of organisation and so on. And, increasingly clearly, the poor want to define their own poverty.

But the poor do not have, or have no longer, the codes of 'good society'. Poverty blunts the spirit and sometimes makes them incapable of rebellion. You have to listen to the poor for a very long time to find out what they have to say, yet listened to as they must be now, it is increasingly obvious that it takes more than economic growth to eradicate poverty and that anti-poverty campaigns are not just held back by lack of funds but by a failure to understand the machinery which grinds the poor down into exclusion.

Exclusion

Poverty is not just an absolute lack of the basic needs. It is also exclusion from the goods, services, rights and activities which constitute the basis of citizenship, so the eradication of poverty is inseparable from the promotion of social inclusion.

The concept of social exclusion is different from the concept of poverty, which is more static than dynamic and too exclusively focused on monetary poverty. The concept of social exclusion also caters for the fact that the various dimensions of exclusion strengthen each other.

If there is a process which actually generates exclusion, it would be more efficient to try to change it than to seek palliatives for its effects. Understanding poverty, rather than just measuring it, is the only way of repairing the social damage it embodies. ■ Dominique DAVID

The nature of poverty has changed a great deal since the 1960s. Significant progress was made and every indicator of wellbeing improved in the period of great economic growth which lasted until the late 1970s. But that progress is now being undermined, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, and in other parts of the world too, while different regions have very different prospects, which very much depend on the future speed of economic growth and such things as political and social stability.

The 1960s and 1970s — two decades of social progress

The average *per capita* consumption in the developing countries has gone up 70% in real terms over the past 25 years, according to the World Bank, with average life expectancy up from 51 to 63 years and primary school attendance at 89%. There have been some spectacular results, both in economic growth (real average growth in 1965-1980 of 5.9% in the developing world in general, but only 3.7% in the developed world) and on the social front (access to drinking water doubled and infant mortality halved).

Behind this very sound general record, the situation in different countries and groups of countries, as in different areas of social development, varies considerably. Sub-Saharan Africa started well behind the rest of the developing world and it is still a long way from catching up, with its real *per capita* GNP showing only a 2% p.a. improvement, as against 3.4% for Latin America and 4.8% for East Asia. But some countries in Latin America (Brazil and Ecuador, for example) and Asia (Indonesia and the newly industrialised countries) did particularly well during the period of growth.

Progress in education and health was particularly good, but less noticeable in nutrition, where the coverage of calorie requirements only improved by two points (from 88% to 90%) between 1965 and 1980 in the least developed nations, with an increase from 90% to 107% in the

¹ Source: Commission of the European Communities.

Poverty in the developing world: 'The main trends'¹

developing world as a whole. Generally speaking, major economic advances over these two decades pushed back the frontiers of poverty and the incomes of even the poorest sections of society rose. But, during the 1970s, discrepancies in development began appearing in countries where population expansion had got out of hand and this considerably restricted improvements to individual wellbeing.

concerned. According to the World Bank, more than a billion people, almost a third of the population of the developing world, were below the breadline of the \$370 p.a. needed to cover basic food and other requirements (1985 prices).

The income of the richest 20% of the world population was 59 times the size of that of the poorest 20% in 1989, up from the 1960 figure of 30. So poverty began to take on a new dimension, with increasing inequality between rich countries and poor countries, as well as between the rich and poor within those countries.

In 1990, 49% of the population of South Asia were poor and the figure was 48% in sub-Saharan Africa, 33% in the Middle East and North Africa, 25% in Latin America and the Caribbean and 11% in East Asia. The general rise in the standard of living slowed down in the 1980s and,

The recent trend towards widening gaps

The 1980s are said to have been a lost decade as far as development was

TABLE 1
Breakdown of poverty by region
(as a percentage of all developing countries)

	Total population	Poor population
Sub-Saharan Africa	11.1	16.1
East Asia	40.2	25.0
South Asia	29.7	46.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	11.2	6.6
Europe, Middle East & North Africa	7.7	5.9
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: World Bank.

TABLE 2
Trends in real growth rates of per capita GDP (average % p.a.)

	1965-80	1980-91
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.0	-1.2
East Asia	4.8	6.1
South Asia	1.2	3.1
Latin America & the Caribbean	3.4	-0.3
Middle East & North Africa	3.9	-2.4
Total developing countries	3.4	1.0

Source: World Bank.



Homeless people, sleeping rough in Delhi
'Although there are more social services and facilities in towns, the urban poor may not always have access to them'

VIVANT UNIVERS

although the overall incidence of poverty is probably still declining, it is not doing so sufficiently to prevent the world's poor from increasing in number. Between 1985 and 1990, the poverty head count ratio went down from 30.5% to 29.7%, but the rise in the world population was such that there was in fact an 80 million increase in the number of poor people over those five years.

The trend in social indicators, measured since the 1960s, also revealed a slow-down which began in 1980, in close correlation with the decline in the real growth rates of the developing states' economies. The countries of sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean were particularly badly affected.

Inequality also grew in the 1980s, not only between North and South, but between different developing countries within those groups and between rich and poor within those countries. The UNDP's Human Development Report (1992) says that, when it came to human survival variables, inequality between North and South evened out somewhat in such areas as average life expectancy, infant mortality and access to drinking water, but that

there was a widening of the gap in human progress variables such as years of schooling, numbers in tertiary education and scientists and technicians as a percentage of the total population. However, the most flagrant difference between rich and poor was in incomes.

In most of the countries for which data are available, poverty is essentially rural. The differences in levels of wellbeing in town and country are particularly striking in Africa and South Asia, although the incidence of urban poverty is on the increase everywhere. But although this distinction between town and country is always pertinent from the point of view of the extent and the depth of poverty, estimating it through income (which is always lower in rural areas) produces only an imperfect reflection of the truth. Although there are more social services and facilities in the towns, the urban poor may not always have access to them and live in deplorable conditions, with bad housing and hygiene, overcrowding, pollution etc.

The growth rate of the urban population is high and it has been rising ever since 1960, sometimes at twice the rate of the population as a whole. In Latin America, the number of urban poor apparently rose by 30 million and rural poor by 10 million between 1980 and 1989, a phenomenon which hit all the developing nations to varying degrees.

Sub-Saharan Africa was the worst hit region in the 1980s, with its poor increasing at roughly the same rate as its population as a whole, by about 3% annually. And the poor got poorer.

The highest incidence of poverty was still in South Asia (about half of the world's poor people live there), although it has declined over the past year or two, and the percentage of the population living below the bread line is shrinking.

In the Middle East, North Africa and Latin America, where there was a 40 million increase in the number of poor people between 1980 and 1989, it appears that the rise in poverty was broadly in line with the population increase during that decade. And again, in these three regions, the poor got poorer.

East Asia is the only region where both the number and the percentage of poor people declined.

Prospects for the year 2000: Will there be enough economic growth?

If the trends of the second half of the 1980s (poverty up by 1.5% p.a. overall) are maintained, the number of people with an annual income of \$370 (\$1 per day at 1985 prices) or less could well be up at 1.3 billion — one fifth of the world population — by the year 2000. These prospects, obviously, are tied up with economic growth forecasts and any extra steps taken to help the poor.

The number of poor and the incidence of poverty in the world are expected to decline by the year 2000 and the spread of poverty over the various regions should alter considerably.

The incidence of poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa is expected to stay high, somewhere near the 1985 level, with a more than 45% increase in the numbers living in poverty, giving it almost a third of the world's poor by the year 2000 (as against 16% in 1985). The most spectacular decline should be in East Asia. The position is likely to remain stagnant in Latin America, the Middle East and North Africa, as well as in Eastern Europe. South Asia will keep the largest number of poor, but its incidence of poverty will be halved. So Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia will be the regions with the biggest poverty problems. ■

D.D.

Incidence of poverty in the year 2000, by region

TABLE 3

	Incidence of poverty (% of total population)		Number of poor (in millions)	
	1985	2000	1985	2000
Sub-Saharan Africa	46.8	43.1	180	265
East Asia	20.4	4.0	280	70
South Asia	50.9	26.0	525	365
Latin America & the Caribbean	19.1	11.4	75	60
Eastern Europe	7.8	7.9	5	5
Middle East, North Africa & other European countries	7.8	7.9	5	5
Total	32.7	18.0	1 125	825

Source: World Bank.

The fundamentals of poverty in the developing world ¹

There is very little by way of comparative data on the causes and determining factors of poverty in the developing countries, which is unfortunate, because it makes it difficult to identify the poor, analyse poverty and target policies.

However, great strides have been made in our knowledge of the field through the efforts of multilateral and bilateral organisations, the World Bank's social indicators and the UNDP's human development indicator being particularly useful here. But although analysis shows that social development often correlates to economic progress, there is no direct or general linkage between the two.

There are two big problems — the degree of comparability of the specific situations of countries and regions and the level of understanding of the process by which poverty is reproduced.

Economic and social indicators — the determining factors of poverty

Over and above the general characteristics of income levels, the incidence of poverty differs greatly from one country to another according to the specific socio-cultural features and the extent to which basic social needs are met. There is poverty in every country. It is particularly evident in the developing countries and subsists in countries with very different average income levels. Basically, it has a great deal to do with structural factors of inequality and the importance which Governments attach to social and human development, be it for political, economic or cultural reasons.

¹ From the Commission of the European Communities.

Education is vital when it comes to boosting the productivity of the human factor and making people more aware of opportunities of earning a living and many studies have highlighted its effect on both production and productivity. According to the World Bank, for example, a one-year increase in the average length of schooling could push up GDP by 3%, a figure which must be seen in the context of the region concerned. Such an increase seems far less likely in sub-Saharan Africa.

There have been huge improvements in educational coverage since 1960, but the rate of progress has slowed down considerably. Some countries are even experiencing de-schooling because of the cost of education and the relation between the cost and the job opportunities — a primarily rural phenomenon which hits girls particularly hard and keeps the wheels of poverty grinding from generation to generation.

In the absence of welfare facilities, physical problems, be they the temporary afflictions of disease or longer-standing infirmities, have an immediate effect on the living conditions of the poorest members of society, who must maintain their physical potential if they are to survive. The crucial thing in the longer term is the health of children and pregnant women, for poor diet and disease undermine the gestation and physical and intellectual development of the child dramatically.

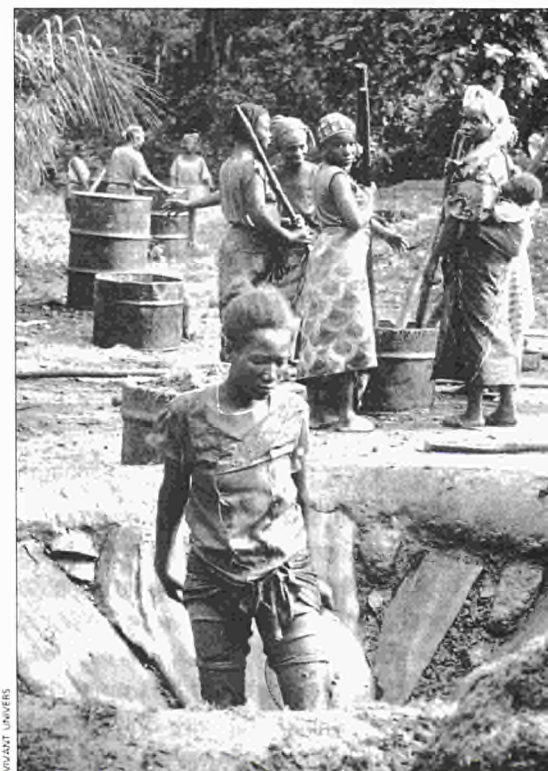
In most developing countries, there is still a sharp difference between men and women. It is apparent in infant mortality, in schooling (women's schooling is less than half as long as men's, on average, and only a third as long in South Asia), job sharing in the home, adult

mortality (maternal mortality has not declined as much as infant mortality) and economic factors (access to productive resources, credit facilities etc).

The characteristics of poverty vary widely from town to country. However, the average levels of low incomes in rural areas give but an incomplete idea of rural poverty, because other factors, such as food security, access to social services, housing and social integration, affect the comparisons too.

There are many other characteristics. They may relate to ethnic origin, to the cultural or social organisation of societies or to natural factors such as the supply of natural resources or the climate. They may have to do with the distribution of markets, basic infrastructure (transport and communications) and access to basic

'In most developing countries there is still a sharp difference between men and women'
Here, village women in Guinea use traditional methods to produce palm oil



social services and they may have to do with population movement (natural or economic immigration, displacement after fighting, persecution or natural disaster).

Regional analysis — outcasts from an expanding world economy

Sub-Saharan Africa is at one end of the world poverty scale. Not only did its social development indicators not evolve as well as those of the rest of the world between 1960 and 1980, but it is expected to have the highest incidence of poverty in the world by the year 2000, in particular because it started at a much lower level. Whatever the projections, its percentage of poor people is very high and, most important, that percentage is likely to stay high for years to come. The World Bank suggests that it will take annual growth of 5.5% before *per capita* consumption is just enough to stabilise the number of poor in this part of the world. But even the most optimistic forecasts are more than two points below this optimum level.

East Asia is right at the other end of the world poverty scale. The number of poor in the region had dropped to 280 million, most of them in China, by 1985 and its incidence of poverty should decline further in the coming years, provided there is more economic reform and faster growth in China.

South Asia has far better prospects than sub-Saharan Africa, despite the fact that it will still have the world's largest contingent of poor people in the year 2000. India (which had 420 million of the region's 525 million poor in 1985) should do a lot to reduce poverty if it can keep its economy growing at the rates it achieved in the 1980s, but the outlook for Bangladesh and Pakistan, where the predicted figure is very close to that of sub-Saharan Africa, is far less hopeful.

There is still a gulf between the richest and the poorest in Latin America and the Caribbean. According to the World Bank, the income of all the poor people in that region could be pushed up to just above the bread line with only 0.7% of regional GDP — the equivalent of a 2% tax



on the income of the richest fifth of the population.

In North Africa and the Middle East, the situation is shaped, basically, by the reconstruction programmes carried out after armed conflict and by a commitment to economic and political reform. But most of the countries there are still very sensitive to conditions on the oil market. Future trends in poverty will depend very much on the sort of success which the countries in the region have with carrying out their reforms and stabilising the political environment. The prospects for Algeria and Egypt especially give considerable cause for concern.

A better knowledge of poverty

There is no typical international poverty standard or basic recipe for combating the phenomenon, because situations vary considerably from one region to another, one country to another and even one section of the population to another within a given country. The main challenge in fighting poverty in the world is to find the right combination of approaches for the individual country. Poverty factor analyses based on quantitative indicators tend to fall short when it comes to determining the guidelines for cooperation policies.

The 'gulf between the richest and poorest in Latin America' can be a source of tension. The photograph shows poor people in an urban neighbourhood in Venezuela whose homes were threatened by redevelopment plans. The slogan on the wall reads:
'This is my home. It may only be four walls but I am happy living here. Why do they want to move me?'

First of all, the more global policies (the world trade system, the international financial and monetary system, for example), which are essentially the work of the industrialised countries, have a major effect on the developing countries and that effect has to be taken into account, because it acts as an external constraint on the specific policies of the developing countries.

The determining factors of poverty are varied and complex and need close analysis at the grass roots, i.e. at the level of the poor themselves. If the poor and their problems are to be identified more clearly, then they must be asked what they think and given the opportunity to express their needs as they see them. So it is vital to move on from quantitative evaluation — regrettably the only one currently available for comparative analysis — and promote techniques of evaluation which focus more on the poor themselves.

D.D.

Measuring poverty

Some observers of the development 'scene' — usually those of a cynical nature — insist that the external aid policies of developed nations' are motivated solely by self-interest. Others take a more positive line, arguing that such policies are underpinned by the essentially idealistic aim of helping those who are disadvantaged. The truth is probably that both motives are present in the formulation and implementation of development strategies. In other words, governments provide official development assistance (ODA) both because they recognise a moral obligation to help those 'less fortunate than themselves' and with an eye to the commercial opportunities which might be created. In crisis situations, they supply emergency aid as a human response to the suffering of others, but also because crises, whether natural or man-made, mean instability, and this is bad for business.

Irrespective of whether one is motivated by idealism, self-interest, or a combination of the two, it is widely recognised that development policies have a single, fundamental goal, which is to tackle *poverty*. (The idealist would say that this is worth doing for its own sake, the cynic would perhaps view it more in terms of creating new markets.) The mission statements of most development agencies, both public and NGO, focus on the need to alleviate — or more optimistically, to eradicate — poverty, and, given that this is the case, it is useful to consider what exactly is meant by the term. The definition of 'poverty' is obviously important, not only in determining who should benefit from the (limited) resources provided for development purposes, but also in measuring afterwards the extent to which the policies have succeeded.

At first sight, defining 'poverty' would appear to be a matter of simple common sense. A person who has few assets and no regular source of income, and who therefore struggles to meet his or her basic needs (and the needs of any dependants), would normally be considered to be poor. A locality, region or country with a large number of people living in such circumstances should, in turn, also be

regarded as poor. The problem for governments and development agencies is that they need more than subjective impressions of poverty, if they are to devise appropriate policies for sharing out what is, unfortunately, a rather small cake. Bureaucracies need concrete facts and figures to work with, both to justify their proposals and as a basis for evaluating their subsequent actions. And the more poverty that exists, the less likely it is that reliable information will be available to measure the scale of the challenge. While this might imply that poverty is inversely proportional to the amount of information available, such a finding is hardly an acceptable basis for making choices on where support should be given. In practical terms, if one were to agree to focus assistance on country X rather than country Y, on the dubious grounds that the absence of information about the former is evidence of its greater poverty, there would be no incentive for country Y to continue collecting statistics and it would be very difficult, in the longer run, to gauge whether the policies were working.

Accepting that basic information is required, one then enters a minefield of unclear terminology, conflicting statistics and divergent opinions which reveal the complexity of the issue. The subjective poverty of an individual, family or community within a given society may be plain to see, but, at the more academic level, it is a highly fluid concept which creates difficulties for decision-makers.

Two definitional problems may be highlighted here. The first concerns the 'basic needs' mentioned above, failure to meet which is seen as a determinant in establishing the existence of poverty. Related to this is the dichotomy between relative impressions of poverty within a particular society and the more 'absolute'

concepts arrived at when examining the phenomenon in a global context. The second involves the information chosen to illustrate the existence of poverty and, more particularly, to differentiate between groups of poor people.

Basic needs

Looking first at what constitutes 'basic needs', the traditional starting point is to be found in the three essentials for survival — food, clothing and shelter. Sadly, there are many people in the world who lack one or more of these essentials, but a definition of poverty based simply on the above three elements would clearly exclude many millions of people who are generally regarded as poor. There are those who have basic food and shelter today, but who may face hunger or homelessness tomorrow without the safety net of social security, private insurance or realisable assets. And many of these people live in countries that are particularly vulnerable to droughts and other natural disasters. Their plight may be less acute but their poverty is difficult to deny.

There is also the question of *variable* needs. All human beings have broadly similar requirements as regards nourishment but, when it comes to shelter and clothing, there may be considerable variations, depending principally on local climatic and environmental conditions. A simple and relatively inexpensive dwelling which is adequate in one region may be wholly inappropriate in a colder or wetter climate. Some people may be obliged to earmark a considerable proportion of their resources for heating fuel while others need fuel only for cooking. Families living in areas subject to earthquakes or hurricanes have special needs (which are rarely fulfilled) for secure housing, or at the minimum, a safe place to shelter. In contrast to those living in tropical climes,



Food, clothing and shelter: traditionally the three basic essentials of life

people living at high altitudes or in colder regions must have winter clothing which may involve more expensive outlays. Those living in desert regions, who are exposed to the full force of the sun, may need more voluminous and hence more expensive garments.

To those in the developed world who are comfortably off, these differences may appear to be of marginal importance, but when most or all of one's income is spent on meeting basic needs, they are likely to be a significant factor in determin-

ing what poverty actually means in practice.

It is also questionable whether mankind's needs are limited to the three 'basics' mentioned. There is a strong argument for adding health-care to the list. A person may be housed, clothed and fed but have no additional resources to cope with illness in the family, or to pay for preventive measures against disease. Taking the argument a stage further, access to education might also be added since this enhances a person's ability to fend off poverty by equipping him or her with skills which can be translated into earning capacity.

It would seem, therefore, that the concept of poverty goes beyond the traditional starting point, both in terms of what constitutes 'need', and in the temporal sense (in other words, to encompass people whose immediate situation is not desperate, but whose existence is precarious and future insecure).

As for the dichotomy mentioned earlier, it is clear that perceptions of poverty vary widely according to the level of development of the society in question. It is probably true to say that in any given country, the bottom 10% of the population (in terms of disposable incomes) are generally regarded as poor by the society in which they live. Indeed, many states officially or unofficially set a 'poverty line', not in absolute terms, but by reference to a level of income which is more than a fixed percentage below the average. In the absence of rigorous policies to ensure income redistribution — and the trend in developed countries now appears to be away from this approach — such countries will, using their own criteria, *never* eradicate 'poverty', even if they achieve spectacular growth rates, since high growth will merely move the goalposts further and further away.

Those who come from places where the poor face a daily struggle for survival may have difficulty sympathising with people whose 'poverty' is defined according to whether they can afford a washing machine, are obliged to buy second-hand clothes or have difficulty paying for the television licence. But in the context of the 'conspicuous consumption'

which is to be seen in most developed states, this form of 'relative poverty', even if it is rarely life-threatening, can have important implications for the social and political stability of a country. Thus domestic 'poverty' appears on the political agenda of even the richest countries.

Getting the right data

This leads us neatly to the second definitional problem, mentioned above, regarding the information one uses to measure poverty. The simplest approach, and one which is still sometimes employed to determine which are the poorest (and richest) countries, is to look at the GDP per head. For ease of comparison, the figures are almost always expressed in US dollars. This approach clearly has some merit in that it is relatively easy to obtain the information (almost all countries have some system for measuring GDP) and it reflects the growing tendency of people to measure their own 'worth' in monetary terms. At the same time, it has certain drawbacks, the most serious of which is the fact that there are enormous variations in prices, and hence in the cost of living, from one country to another. If, for example, a particular developing country has a GDP per capita of \$500, as compared with a figure of \$20 000 for a developed state, one cannot immediately conclude that the latter is 40 times richer than the former. In reality, it is likely that \$500 will buy a lot more in the developing country. A related problem concerns currency fluctuations, which can seriously distort the figures in any given year. Economists and statisticians have recognised these basic flaws and commonly seek to iron them out by converting the actual income in dollar terms into a notional sum which reflects purchasing power (PPP\$). This, however, implies having access to more sophisticated information about prices which may be less readily available, as well as about currency trends.

Even when adjusted, GDP per capita figures do not present a complete picture of wealth and poverty. Economic activity in the so-called 'informal sector', which rarely appears in the official figures, is a feature of all countries, but it is much

more significant in developing states than in developed ones. How, for example, does one categorise the subsistence farmer who obtains most of his food from his own land but who, in cash terms, appears to be chronically poor? What value should be placed on barter trade, which is still an important feature of life in many places? How can one ascribe a monetary value to the communal efforts of a village in rebuilding its primary school using locally available materials and voluntary labour? These unmeasured components of a person's or community's living standard should clearly be part of the poverty/wealth equation but it is difficult to see how they can be gauged with any accuracy.

A further defect in the GDP per capita approach is that it deals with averages by country and does not, therefore, take account of the distribution of wealth. A state with a higher average GDP per head may have a more serious poverty problem than its 'poorer' neighbour because the wealth is heavily concentrated at the top end. For these variations to be taken into account, even more detailed information, and more complex calculations are necessary.

The conclusion to be drawn from the above is not that GDP per capita statistics are worthless as a measure of wealth and poverty. Despite the flaws outlined, they provide the most readily available (rough) guide to the levels of prosperity in different countries, in a form which is easily understandable, and this is clearly useful. What is important is to recognise their limitations and to avoid using them as the sole basis for defining poverty.

The Human Development Index

It was in recognition of these limitations, and of the fact that 'a person's access to income... is not the sum total of human endeavour',¹ that the UN

Development Programme (UNDP) decided to devise a more sophisticated approach. The result was the so-called 'Human Development Index' (HDI).

The HDI, as its name clearly suggests, is not concerned solely with 'poverty' or 'wealth' but with the broader concept of 'human development'. As such, it introduces two new elements — longevity and knowledge — while retaining adjusted GDP per capita statistics as the basic 'standards of living' indicator.

The way in which the UNDP arrives at a classification (of countries) in the Human Development Index is to assign a value to each of the three indicators mentioned. Thus, in addition to using the GDP per head statistics, the Index takes the life expectancy figures at birth for each country as the measure of longevity, and the average years of schooling as the best available way of assessing knowledge. These are given equal weight in a somewhat complex mathematical calculation, and then combined to produce a figure between 0 and 1, calculated to three decimal places. The nearer a country is to the upper figure, the higher its assumed level of human development.

It could be argued that the statistical result achieved gives a better overall picture of who the poor are in the term described earlier, since longevity is, crudely speaking, a reflection of health care availability while knowledge equates with educational opportunity and is one of the key factors enabling people or societies to escape from poverty. However, it is worth noting that such an approach produces a very different 'league table' of poor and rich countries. The absence of an automatic link between income and human development is specifically acknowledged by the UNDP (see issue no. 140 of the Courier, page 86) with countries such as Sri Lanka and China revealing a much higher level of human development than their income might suggest, while the reverse is the case for states such as Gabon and the United Arab Emirates.

The authors of the Human Development Report do not claim that theirs is the definitive approach. In the first Report, published in 1990, they acknowledged that 'the idea would be to include many variables to obtain as comprehensive

a picture as possible.' But as they go on to point out, 'the current lack of relevant comparable statistics precludes that' and, in any case, 'too many indicators could produce a perplexing picture — perhaps distracting policymakers from the main overall trends.'

Even as regards the information which does exist, and which they make use of in constructing the HDI, the UNDP recognises certain limits. Indeed, in the first Index, the 'knowledge' component was derived from looking at literacy levels and the replacement of this with 'years of schooling' was a later refinement.

In the context of defining 'poverty', the choice between restricting oneself to data about income, and taking a broader approach such as that used in the HDI, depends ultimately on whether one views poverty in narrow 'material' or wider 'quality of life' terms. Whichever approach one takes, the best result is bound to be only an approximation. It seems that the perfect solution is only available in the perfect world, in which case there would presumably be no need to talk about poverty in the first place! However, it should be recognised that, in the short time that it has existed, the Human Development Index has become the yardstick for many development experts in their efforts to focus on the areas of greatest need.

In the final analysis, of course, no amount of statistical information will help to feed, house or clothe the world's poor. This can only happen if the policies — of both developed and developing nations — are right. And if there are problems in defining poverty, few would deny that these pale into insignificance when compared with the problems that exist in trying to tackle it. ■

Simon HORNER

¹ Taken from the 'Overview' section of the UNDP's first Human Development Report, published in 1990.

Gerry Rodgers is the Head of the Labour Institutions and Economic Development Programme at the ILO's International Institute for Labour Studies in Geneva. Recently, the Institute organised a symposium entitled 'Poverty: New approaches to analysis and policy'.

At the end of the proceedings, The Courier had an opportunity to speak to Mr Rodgers about aspects of the fight against poverty and about some of the issues raised in the preceding discussions. Noting the recent work of the ILO and ILS in this field, we began by asking him for his personal view as to why 'poverty' seemed to be re-emerging as an issue of international concern.

— Well, it is interesting to see that poverty is back in the international limelight after a fairly long period when economic issues such as growth and production were the priority. Distributional issues were really off the agenda for the whole of the 1980s, but now they are back again. The United Nations is organising a summit of heads of government on social development in 1995. UNCTAD and the World Bank are both starting to pay much more attention to poverty again, while the Inter-American Development Bank has actually adopted a policy that 50% of its loans have to contribute directly to poverty reduction. So it is a very widespread phenomenon at the international level.

Why is it happening now? Well I think there is a growing perception that what took place in the 1980s, when inequalities both within and between countries increased, has created unacceptable situations. In that decade, the gap between Africa and Latin America on the one hand and the industrialised world on the other widened considerably.

At the same time, inequalities grew very substantially in the industrialised countries, especially in the UK and the USA, where the real incomes of the bottom 10%-30% declined while those of the rich rose. I guess all of that has come to a head in the 1990s, with the growth of unemployment and social exclusion, and the

'Poverty anywhere is a threat to prosperity everywhere'

An interview with Gerry Rodgers of the International Institute for Labour Studies

feeling in both industrialised and developing countries that governments are increasingly unable to master the social issues.

As far as the ILO is concerned of course, poverty is not a new issue. In 1944, the Organisation was relaunched with a major declaration in Philadelphia. One of the most powerful statements in that declaration was that poverty anywhere constitutes a threat to prosperity everywhere. So the fight against poverty, in which all the social partners — governments, trade unions and employers — were to be involved, has long been one of the major objectives of the ILO. In the course of the 30 years after the Second World War, a series of programmes aimed at poverty was developed within the Organisation, rather different in the industrialised states as compared with the developing countries. In the former, it was basically a question of social security — welfare measures, unemployment benefits, social assistance systems, health and education. To some extent, these were divorced from economic policy. Economic growth occurred through other processes and state intervention attempted to prevent poverty from growing on the margins of the system. In developing countries, the notion was different. It quickly became apparent in the years after independence that the forms of social insurance being established in industrialised countries were financially out of reach. So the notion became built in that tackling poverty had somehow to be part of the development strategy. The idea was that you had to shift the production system in such a way that you were

producing the goods consumed by the poor and that the incomes were spread throughout the economy. In other words, action against poverty should be a structural part of development strategy and not just a question of alleviation and social welfare measures. That approach very much influenced the work of the ILO, which attempted, in the 1970s, to set the terms of the debate on poverty with its 'Basic Needs Strategy'. The World Employment Programme, which was launched at the beginning of the 1970s, saw the creation of productive employment as the answer to poverty. Development strategy had to be oriented towards creating jobs. In the course of the 1970s a series of research projects was undertaken on how to orient technology towards job creation, what to do about population policy and how the informal sector could be developed. This came to a head in 1976 at the World Employment Conference, which spelled out 'the satisfaction of basic needs' as the priority objective for development strategy — covering consumption of food, clothing and housing, but also social services, health, education, access to productive employment and participation in the economic and social system. I think we have to admit that this strategy failed to take off. In fact, the types of policy changes which would have been required for it to work were never widely implemented. Many countries felt that the notion of basic needs was inappropriate. They didn't want to be confined to the production of basic goods and services. The political economy seemed to be wrong and it was not, therefore, possible to mobilise powerful political groups behind the strategy. The

timing also seemed to be wrong: it was a period of economic crisis and recession.

Whatever the reasons, the notion of basic needs lost ground in the late 1970s and early 1980s as the world moved further into recession and structural adjustment issues came on to the agenda instead. It was a period of debt crises and huge budget deficits and the immediate problem seemed to be one of stabilisation — dealing with the fiscal and financial problems. In effect, the social questions dropped out of sight, and poverty increased in many countries.

In the 1990s these issues are back on the table again. The ILO is now in process of thinking about its past strategy, looking at what worked and what didn't, and at the elements which, under today's new conditions, could provide a basis for its future action.

■ *Can you tell us something about the results of the symposium which has just been held? Beyond identifying the issues at a conceptual level, is it likely to lead to any practical measures?*

— The symposium was an attempt to take stock, to review the range of ILO activities that have a bearing on poverty, whether directly or indirectly, and to try and reflect on how effective they have been. We were also looking at the extent to which these activities have a direct impact on policy and how far they are linked together in a coherent way. On the basis of that, the aim was to think about what revisions are needed and to consider the new issues and ideas which might contribute to the ILO's work in the future.

The symposium was based on a series of papers. Some of these were prepared inside the organisation, analysing the work we have done in the past. Others came from the academic community, governments, other international organisations, action groups, trade unions and employers' organisations. They had the opportunity to inform us about new issues, ideas and approaches which the ILO might have to deal with. So, overall, it was an attempt to be self-critical — to try and analyse what we have been doing and what might need to be changed for the future.

We began with a general paper which reviewed all the ILO's action against poverty, in terms of both the broader development strategy and the many specific projects which it is engaged in around the globe: in areas such as social security and public works programmes, employment promotion in the informal sector, asset distribution and mobilisation/organisation of the poor.

I think there was a consistent view in the debate, from both 'insiders' and 'outsiders', that while the Organisation is doing many things quite effectively, we need to think about building up an overall framework to ensure that the different elements fit together. The ILO faces an enormous challenge of employment creation. Much of our work is focused on creating jobs but if we look at what is happening in the world, we see that unemployment is still rising. As one of the participants pointed out, there seems increasingly to be a labour-saving bias in technological change, whether in high-tech industries or the agricultural sector.

Another important point is that while there are a lot of people working for the ILO in local or national projects in developing countries, on the whole, our operation is somewhat different from that of NGOs, for instance. They are working on the ground, with the homeless and the dispossessed, trying to develop actions at the level of local communities. It is not possible for an organisation like the ILO to be directly involved in highly dispersed actions of this kind. So, our problem is to try and find a mode of operation where we can complement this local activity effectively. In this the ILO has one major advantage in comparison with other bodies of the UN system: it has built into its structure two major nongovernmental groups — trade unions and employers. This means that a basis for developing modes of action at a nongovernmental level is already there. What is not there, and it is probably important to try and create it, is the linkage with other social actors at the local level. We know that many trade unionists are engaged in local action, so there is scope for building on the ILO's trade union base to try to involve other groups. There is also a great deal of scope for enterprise activities. We know of many

people in businesses around the globe who are directly concerned with social policies aimed at the poor. Our problem is, how do we structure what we are doing so as to bring these different groups effectively into the work of the ILO, so that we can make a direct contribution to consensus-building and policy design at local level; in other words, creating a framework in which individual actions can add up to more than was the case sometimes in the past.



The Courier

Moving containers in Benin
'There seems increasingly to be a labour-saving bias in technological change'

Looking at the labour markets

The symposium went on to consider a number of specific items. We looked at patterns of labour market operation: at how the market is structured, what sorts of job are created and what kinds of intervention are likely to be effective. There is a major debate taking place in this area. Some are arguing that the most useful thing you can do in the labour market is to keep out of it. Their view is that the market will be efficient if you do not attempt to regulate it and that intervention simply reduces its potential to create jobs. That is not the ILO philosophy. Its approach is based on the view that you do need minimum conditions and that you want to take certain things out of the competitive arena. For instance, you do not want to allow competition on the basis of cheap child labour or of lousy working conditions. Everybody agrees on those two. Then you start to get into more controversial areas such as whether there

should be competition on the basis of paying wages below a certain minimum, or through precarious irregular jobs as opposed to protected permanent ones. These are the kinds of things which the ILO debates actively all the time because it is in the business of trying to set standards in the labour market. And we try to look at how these debates and issues relate to the problem of poverty. We have also looked at policy for vulnerable groups in the labour market. How do you reach the disabled, for instance? It may come as a surprise to some people to discover that disability and poverty are closely related but this is the case in many countries. Handicapped people make up a significant proportion of the very poorest groups. How do you generate access to jobs for these people?

We looked at other vulnerable groups such as child workers and at the position of women in the labour market. We considered ways in which you can target specific types of intervention — in the social security field, for instance — so as to help female-headed households, which are particularly vulnerable to poverty. We looked at minimum wages and the circumstances under which these are likely to make a direct contribution to poverty reduction. The consensus here was that minimum wages are often very important, not just for the people who get them, but also because they provide a reference point for everybody else.

We considered other forms of labour market intervention such as training programmes, which are vital if skill-levels are to be raised. This is a crucial part of policy against poverty, but it is often not seen that way. The design of such programmes is particularly important, if the aim is genuinely to tackle poverty. Very often, they simply provide additional credentials for people who have access to the labour market anyway. They need, therefore, to be oriented in such a way as to reach the lowest income groups.

We also considered the macro-economic framework within which labour market policies could be implemented. We discussed systems of social insurance and social assistance and the kinds of labour market institutions that might contribute

to a macroeconomic strategy. There is some very interesting material coming out of Latin America on how a minimum wage policy can be an important element in redirecting structural adjustment programmes in such a way as to protect the lowest income groups and ensure that production and incomes do not fall so sharply. There is a very interesting experience in Costa Rica, for instance, where careful use of minimum wage policy has been very important in protecting the poor during the process of structural adjustment.

These are all areas where the ILO is already active. However, we then went on to two areas which, from the point of view of the ILO, are more innovative. These are the issues of *social exclusion*, and the *organisation and mobilisation of the poor*.

We looked at the notion of social exclusion as it applies to the work of the Organisation and we linked this to its more traditional work on social security. The ILO has been supporting social security programmes, as a major part of its work, for many years, but it has not really stressed the contribution of these programmes to poverty reduction, especially in developing countries. There is a wide demand for social security programmes but it tends to be concentrated in the formal sector so that on the whole, the people who are best protected by such programmes are those who are already relatively better off. Now, in the course of this discussion, I think we identified important roles for social security programmes as a means of fighting against exclusion. We had a very interesting paper based on Indian experience. We looked at the different ways you can intervene to provide a degree of security. Security, in the broad economic and social sense, was the key word here. There are various groups who are vulnerable in different ways — the old, the disabled, the landless, migrants and so on. The view was powerfully expressed in the debate that even in very low income settings, broadbased social assistance programmes could have a major role — at a cost of 1%-3% of GDP — in reducing poverty, provided they are part of a wider package involving other types of policy as well. I think this is significant because it is somewhat contrary to the prevailing view, which is that social security

cannot really perform that function.

In general, the notion of social exclusion, as it has come to be defined in industrialised countries, has not featured strongly in ILO programmes. It has not really informed the work on social security or on labour market policy and the papers which were presented raise questions as to whether it is actually a useful route to take. What does exclusion mean? Does it tell us anything we didn't already know? Is it just a relabelling of poverty or is it something which can help to develop new forms of action? We had a very powerful presentation by *Jean-Baptiste de Foucauld*, the French 'Commissaire au Plan', who argued that there *is* something new in the concept: that social exclusion equals exclusion from economic and social exchange and that this raises new policy issues and opens up new perspectives for intervention. But those sorts of perspectives must involve organisations at the local level.

De Foucauld argued that new forms of organisation, perhaps allied to traditional trade unionism, are most effective in representing the excluded. If people are excluded from the labour market and from productive activity, then trade unions, on the whole, will not have a basis for representing them. So the idea of *alliance* is very important because the representatives of those in work and of the unemployed or non-employed have many common interests. If each organises and promotes his own interests in a sectional and fragmented way, then there is little hope of making progress at the level of society as a whole. There is even a danger of direct conflict between the two groups. So there is a really basic problem of creating alliances.

Mobilising the poor

The other 'new' issue was the mobilisation and organisation of the poor. There was a presentation by a trade unionist from the Philippines, who has a lot of experience with casual labour in rural areas. He explained the problems he faces in organising such groups, but also

emphasised the importance of building up local level organisations to achieve collective action. *ATD Quart Monde*, which gave an NGO perspective, offered a contrasting view. Their approach, which is highly decentralised and participative, is geared towards the poor expressing their own needs. Somewhere between these two, we had a contribution from the 'Programa Economía y Trabajo' in Chile, which has become very influential in the debate about social organisation in that country. They have done an analysis of the different types of organisation in society: trade unions, cooperatives, local alliances of producers, popular economic organisations and so on, and have looked at the way in which these different groups could link together. I think there are many lessons here for the type of action which can be proposed.

■ *You referred to the difference between the formal and informal sectors with organisations such as your own tending to be more involved in the first of these. The governments of many developing countries argue that they do not have the capacity to create jobs. From both the conceptual and the practical standpoint, what is your view of the relationship between employment and poverty in the developing countries?*

—Employment is central. If there is one point on which everybody agrees, it is that the route to reducing poverty is through creating jobs. But what sort of jobs and how do you create them? This is not a new debate. Twenty years ago, the strategy was already to create jobs and even then it was clear the formal sector could not do it on its own. So we need to promote activities in the informal sector. But we are also increasingly recognising that the distinction between the two is perhaps not as clear as was once thought. There are many different levels of informal activity: small-scale, marginal types of work, small but highly productive enterprises and large firms which appear to belong to the formal sector but which subcontract a lot of their work, or use a great deal of casual labour and are therefore, in fact, based very largely on informal types of employment relationship.

I think the evidence of the last 20 years is that we do not know how to guarantee that a particular pattern of growth will create enough jobs. This is true of the industrialised countries, as well as the developing ones. The countries which are successful in employment creation are basically those that are growing at 8%-10% a year. But we have a fundamental problem. The globalisation of the economy means that in order to survive you have to be competitive. In order to be competitive, productivity has to rise fast. Rising productivity implies that you are creating fewer jobs which means that growth has to be even faster. The way in which the global economic system is structured, we are always directed towards a process of creating fewer jobs for every additional unit of output. Now, I guess that there are partial solutions. We do have ideas about how you can create jobs in specific circumstances. There have been employment guarantee schemes which have been quite effective, for instance. There is a lot of experience in small-scale enterprise development which suggests that you can create many jobs in small firms and you can redirect the rural economy in more labour-intensive directions. The problem is that, taken together, these different elements do not lead to the creation of sufficient jobs to tackle the problem of poverty.

I believe that that is our major research and policy challenge for the future. How do we handle it? Do we accept the argument that there are only a certain number of job opportunities to go round, in which case the problem is one of sharing the proceeds of employment? In other words, do we try and develop systems where a basic income is guaranteed to all? And then we can focus on growth of productivity and output without worrying about jobs. There are people who think that the solution is not to try to change the production system, because we do not have the capacity to do that, but simply to try and make sure that everyone's basic living standards are satisfied. But even if a system like that functions, it does so at the expense of participation. One of the commentators in the symposium quoted a novel by Kurt Vonnegut which describes a society in which there is a guarantee of subsistence

for the population at large, but they still ultimately rebel. What happens is that you create an underclass, not in the sense that is used in the poverty debates today, but a group which is nevertheless marginalised and excluded from society. They are able to exist because their basic consumption needs are met but they do not actually participate in the life of society. That sort of solution does not really seem to be viable. And in any case, in developing countries, it is not the way things are structured. Incomes are available only to those who have some foothold in the production system.

We haven't found the answer to this problem yet and we need a very considerable research effort. We have to try to understand what is going on, reflect on new types of social and economic system and design institutions which provide access. One of the problems is that labour markets are very fragmented and the sorts of jobs which provide a decent income are strongly defended, by all sorts of mechanisms. Even the lower levels of labour markets in low-income countries are often protected because, regardless of the fact that jobs might be irregular or poorly paid, they nevertheless assure survival, so all sorts of social mechanisms come into play to control access to them. All the actors involved in the labour market have an interest in trying to put up barriers to protect their livelihood. In order to change that and to widen access, you need to bring about a radical transformation in the institutions of the labour market. You need to open up access to jobs at all levels and to bring down the barriers. You need to transform both the formal and the informal institutions. This is an enormous task and we don't have all the answers yet. I would argue for a considerable research effort to try and understand how labour market institutions function and to find out what sort of interventions might be effective in broadening access to jobs.

So I think your question is absolutely right. The fundamental issue in dealing with poverty is employment and it is one which remains to be solved. ■

Interview by Dominique DAVID

Clear the streets and start again?

by Jacques Bugnicourt, Raphaël Ndiaye and El Hady Sy *

Where does this idea come from that people cluttering up the streets and pavements are a 'nuisance' — all these beggars, shoe-shine boys, car-minders, hawkers, street-peddlers and the rest of them, that get under one's feet? Why is it that we want to be rid of them all — sweeping them up and clearing them away as if we were putting out the rubbish; seeing them just as a tiresome encumbrance, with no thought for the services they provide or for the obviously useful fact that they make their living from these bothersome activities?

Perhaps buried somewhere in the subconscious there is an image of a 'golden city' — a clean, bright, modern place which draws tourists and visitors to it — the image, in fact, which for so long has impelled us to push the shanty towns further and further out and to ban particular kinds of vehicles from the main streets. Looked at in the long term, there is another factor at work too which is the demand for public order. Especially when it comes to petty swindlers and thieves, fake Koran students begging for alms, young glue-sniffers and streetwalkers, the attitude seems to be, 'get them out of sight'. Rules are rules, people say; and they must be applied.

The current economic situation, and the demands of structural adjustment are both pushing us in the same direction. To pay off our debts, which means exporting more, we have to encourage up-to-date, competitive forms of activity. Even if we tolerate the informal sector as a safety-net, for want of anything better, we still want to formalise it to the nth degree and bring it into the tax net. Any attempt to take our place on the world's markets — where salvation is supposed to lie — falters because we are saddled with the handicap of having this part of the economy which is difficult to grasp, unfamiliar to us, poorly controlled and even, so the accusation runs, outside the law.

Why have we let these worries, both long-standing and more recent, come together inducing us to clear the streets of thousands of young people, women and men who used to do their business there. Why have we been driven to confiscate their possessions, and sometimes their means of subsisting, by bringing to an end their innumerable small-scale activities.

* Originally published in «Vivre autrement», ENDA, Dakar, September 1993.

The Courier



Why have we chosen to strike a blow against the urban street economy — which people mistakenly call 'informal'?

'These street traders, perching anywhere they can get a foothold in the big city, sell almost everything'

Here, a small trader sells cassettes

The street economy — where the jobs are really created

Take the small trading and business which is carried out on the streets of Dakar. The first thing you notice is that small-scale street vending provides an occupation for tens of thousands of the city's people and that more and more of them are becoming involved. Of all the branches of the economy, this is the one that constantly provides work for new arrivals. If it did not respond to a demand, then it would not survive.

Why do most of the city's inhabitants use the services these street-traders provide? Mainly because they are handy: they mean you do not have to go to the shops. Also because the traders are willing to deal in small quantities and, it is said, charge lower prices. In other words, they adapt very easily to the fact that their customers may have little to spend, whether all of the time, or at particular periods (for example, just before the paycheque comes in at the end of the month).

The fact is that street trading is primarily a response to the needs of social categories in what we might call income-bracket 'C', as opposed to the average 'B'

category or the 20% or so of the population who are better off and fall within bracket 'A'. Of course, this does not stop customers from categories 'A' and 'B' from going to their nearest, or cheapest, street trader to buy things. This happens a great deal, even though they would tend to be the natural clientele for the modern stores in better-off areas.

The goods sold in the bracket 'C' trade are not usually as good or as durable as those that can be bought elsewhere, but they do have the advantage that buyers do not have to expend large sums of money at one go. This end of the market also depends heavily on credit, and is just as likely to advance credit to its less well-off customers. By and large, the system favours personal ties. This type of business is in a state of permanent flux and adjustment. Traders vary their prices to suit the customer's purse, or on a whim if the customer haggles. They sometimes even sell at a loss to win a customer's loyalty or to help out on the spot with an urgent cash flow problem, and they can do this because they balance the losses at the end of the month against what they earn at the beginning.

These street traders, wandering the pavements, working from fixed pitches, or indeed perching anywhere they

can get a foothold in the big city, sell almost everything. Raw or cooked food (at *tanganas* and wayside stalls) is available as a service to people working a long way from home. Clothing, whether cheap castoffs or more expensive wool and terylene articles can be obtained. There are beauty treatments to be purchased from street barbers and peddlers of creams and potions. There are transport services, from boneshaking fast coaches to pushcarts, and all kinds of building material, from corrugated iron to electric light switches. You can get furniture — a stool perhaps, or a compressed paper and cotton mattress in a floral cover. Non-material needs or desires are catered for as well — pleasure, hope, and perhaps even a healthy dose of conscience — purveyed by, among others, beggars, cardsharps, fortune-tellers, students of the scriptures and even the occasional streetwalker! Nor is this the complete list — you can complete it from your own experience.

All of this thriving and expanding activity is there to fulfil people's needs as well as responding to the acknowledged vicissitudes of limited spending power. But the essential, crucial, unavoidable point is this: everyone from the hawker to the lady selling food is trying to earn a living, and to do so as honestly as possible. This rejection of idleness and refusal to become a 'parasite' is an attitude which deserves to be recognised and respected. Whenever you help someone to live, through their own trading or craft skills, you are recognising that person's dignity and giving him or her a chance. But what about the current rules and regulations? What do they have to say about this form of entrepreneurship?

Between legitimacy and legality

The activities of the so-called 'underground economy' tend not to be sanctioned by the law. In effect they find themselves forced into illegality — because the rules have been formulated to restrict or prevent them. Most of the codes, laws and regulations in question are based on what happens elsewhere — which means in practice, Europe or America — or on the recommendations of international institutions. If anyone took any notice of them, they would lead rapidly to the ruin of this popular enterprise and to an even more dramatic unemployment problem.

The regulations, which ought, in theory, to be enforced by administrative officers of various kinds are a constant threat to the small operators who risk suppression at any time by a controller, whether real or bogus. Many street sellers and local traders have no licence, no authorisation and no medical certificate (compulsory for vendors of food and drink). Often, they have no domicile, no fixed abode and no valid identity papers either. These are the '25% citizens' whose human rights, not to mention women's and children's rights, have yet to be recognised. It is only thanks to the close-knit nature of their society; the solidarity of family and clan, and a genuine spirit of tolerance, that the life of these 'informal' traders is something more than the nightmare it would otherwise be. Culture, in effect, permits what the law disallows and we should be glad that the authorities have so far placed legitimacy above formal legality, in respecting the desire of people to make an honest living and to take something home to their families in the evening.

Crisis, taxation and fraud

Economic crisis, to a certain extent, changes the landscape. Many who lose salaried employment are finding themselves plunged into the 'informal' economy and they use their initiative in their new role, exploiting the fact that the potential clientele has also increased — as many who used to have fairly good purchasing power are forced to take their custom to the cheaper informal sector.

Of course, it is true to say that the 'popular' urban economy is outside the law and it may be the case that it does not pay any tax. That is the argument of the World Bank, not to mention the impecunious national authorities. But in a way, one can say that those in the informal sector do in fact 'pay their dues'.

As far as their means allow, the people concerned are consumers and they do pay tax when they buy such things as fuel. They also support their parents, look after their sick as best they can (with dispensaries increasingly levying charges), school their children to the best of their ability and train more apprentices than anyone else in the country. They use little electricity but often pay twice for water —

once to the water company and then again to the water sellers. They are also the main users of the city's most dilapidated roads and dirt tracks.

If they paid tax 'like everybody else', they would effectively be paying twice over. And we should bear in mind that those who 'point the finger'; the well-placed shopkeepers who pride themselves on being taxpayers, in fact pay as little as possible. It would be interesting to know the true extent of their tax evasion — and the extent of their corruption in some cases.

And although it is probably true that no customs duties have been paid on the Chinese or Gambian goods, for example, that are sold on the streets, the big importers have long had their own way of getting round the customs tariffs. Can anyone really judge who is the most 'virtuous' in these circumstances? All we know is that it is a problem which affects both parts of the economy, although there is no denying that thieves and other wrongdoers are more visible on the street (where the informal traders sometimes apply their own rough justice).

The simplistic idea that all street sellers are rogues and bagsnatchers is not justified — such people may be found at all levels of society.

The tone of this article may appear to the reader to be unduly harsh but if it does, this is because it reflects both indignation and sorrow. The highest authorities in the land and people of goodwill in society are striving to emerge from the crisis and to reduce poverty. At a time when the aim is to create 20 000 new jobs each year, and all are committed to this task, how can one come to terms with the idea of wiping out several thousand existing jobs in a single blow?

Is any attempt being made to look beyond the immediate economic, social and health effects, and measure the extent to which creativity would be crushed? Has anyone stopped to consider the feelings of the thousands of people whose survival depends on a route which is now barred to them? Is any attempt being made to gauge the effect of this proscriptive action in terms of increased crime and possible wider social upheaval?

It was with these dangers in mind that we felt the need to speak out — to ensure that the informal urban economy is better known and understood, to give a hearing to those who have no voice and to keep hope going. ■ J.B., R.N. & E.H.S.

Child labour*

Poverty is not the whole story

Child labour is still a major issue, because of the number of children involved, the degree of abuse and the risk they run.

ILO action is based on the threefold belief that:

- childhood is a time for education and training, not labour;
- the nature of child labour and the conditions in which it takes place frequently jeopardise the child's chances of becoming a productive, socially useful adult;
- child labour is not inevitable and can be eliminated if there is the firm political will to oppose it.

The causes of child labour — poor families, the shortcomings of the education system, passivity and even resignation — are, of course, deeply rooted and the costs are high, first and foremost to the child, but also to society.

* From the ILO magazine 'Work', No 4, June 1993.

Internationally speaking, the framework of social legislation envisaged by Albert Thomas, the ILO's first Director, still stands three quarters of a century later. But, alas, public opinion is still ill-informed. When the UN adopted the declaration on the rights of the child, it was recognising that mankind owed the child the best it could give, certainly, but there is still a yawning gap between word and deed.

From theory to practice

This persistent gap is highlighted by the following reports:

- In Sri Lanka, an employer who was dissatisfied with his 12-year old servant had

no hesitation in pouring a can of petrol over her head and setting her on fire. She burned to death.

— In the USA, labour inspectors recently found children in a clothing workshop in New York working in conditions that would have been considered inhuman 50 years ago. It was so cold, the inspectors said, that the children could run their fingers under a blade without even noticing it.

— Child victims of the South Asia slave labour trade are the favourite jockeys for camel racing in some countries in the Gulf, the ILO says, and not just because they weigh very little. Far more important is the fact that their screams of terror spur the animals on and make them run faster.

The catalogue of horrors is endless. There are millions of cases like them — 100 or 200 million more, to be precise, the ILO reckons.

The IPEC programme: flexibility and selectivity

IPEC, the International Programme for the Emancipation of Children, was set up under the terms of an agreement between the German Government and the ILO and has been operational since the beginning of 1993.

It is funded by a DM 50 million grant from Germany with additional financial support from Belgium.

Its immediate aims are to:

- increase the potential of ILO workers and NGOs when it comes to devising and implementing policies and programmes to abolish child labour and protect children who work;
- make people at national and international level aware of the dimensions and the consequences of the scourge and the obligations attendant on the relevant international labour standards.

Ultimately, IPEC's great ambition is to help hold back and ultimately completely stop

both the tendency to exploit child workers in general and the worst forms of abuse (dangerous work, forced labour, employment of the under-12s and street children in particular).

It covers every country in the world. Initially (1992-93), however, six countries — Brazil, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Thailand and Turkey — were targeted for concerted action and the ground is being prepared in six more, which applied to take part — Bangladesh, Cameroon, Egypt, Pakistan, the Philippines and Tanzania.

The intervention strategy, which is both flexible and selective, varies in accordance with the nature and extent of the problem and the possibilities of action at national level. IPEC acts at three levels:

- individual action programmes, often run by the local authorities, employers, employees or NGOs;
- national programmes which combine and coordinate all the individual initiatives;

— the international programme itself, which harmonises all the national schemes.

Everyone involved at every level takes part in the decision-making, a process which inspires (in particular) the protocols signed by the ILO and the participating countries and the steering committees responsible for approving the content and supervising the implementation of the national programmes. An international steering committee approves IPEC's programmes of activities, which are drawn up on a two-yearly basis.

IPEC cooperates with other UN institutions concerned with this issue (UNICEF, UNESCO, the WHO and UNFPA), as well as with NGOs working in the field.

Different realities

The ILO is not against all forms of children's work. On the contrary, if children do simple jobs or help with the family business, useful knowledge can be passed on from one generation to another and it is easier for the smallest children to fit into society.

What the ILO objects to is children doing paid or self-employed work which is a daily necessity, or which carries a risk to health or safety or is a danger to their moral welfare or dignity. *Claude Dumont*, who is in charge of working conditions and wellbeing activities at the ILO, says this means all forms of work which deprive the child of the right to childhood.

Once again, poverty is not the whole story. There are the qualitative and quantitative shortcomings of the educational facilities and there are all the holes in the legislation which is supposed to provide protection (but usually only applies to the organised sector of production) and its enforcement. But the most powerful reason is still indifference and lack of will.

The ILO campaign against child labour

This has been in three stages, starting with 1919-1973, a period of legal work during which the whole battery of norms was established. Then the problem was brought to the notice of the general public and now, in the most recent period, technical assistance has been given to member countries which request it.

Ever since its inception, the ILO has devoted a great deal of its energy to doing away with child labour. Only a few months after its foundation, in 1919, it adopted a convention prohibiting the under-14s from working in industrial firms. Other conventions followed banning child labour at sea, in the fishing industry, in farming, in non-industrial firms and down the mines.

Convention No 138 (1973), on the minimum working age, was a milestone in international legislation. Countries which ratify it undertake to:
— pursue a policy of abolishing child labour;

'Childhood should be a time of education and development'

In the North

Child labour is now a relatively marginal phenomenon in the North, but it has never entirely disappeared and is now re-emerging with the economic recession.

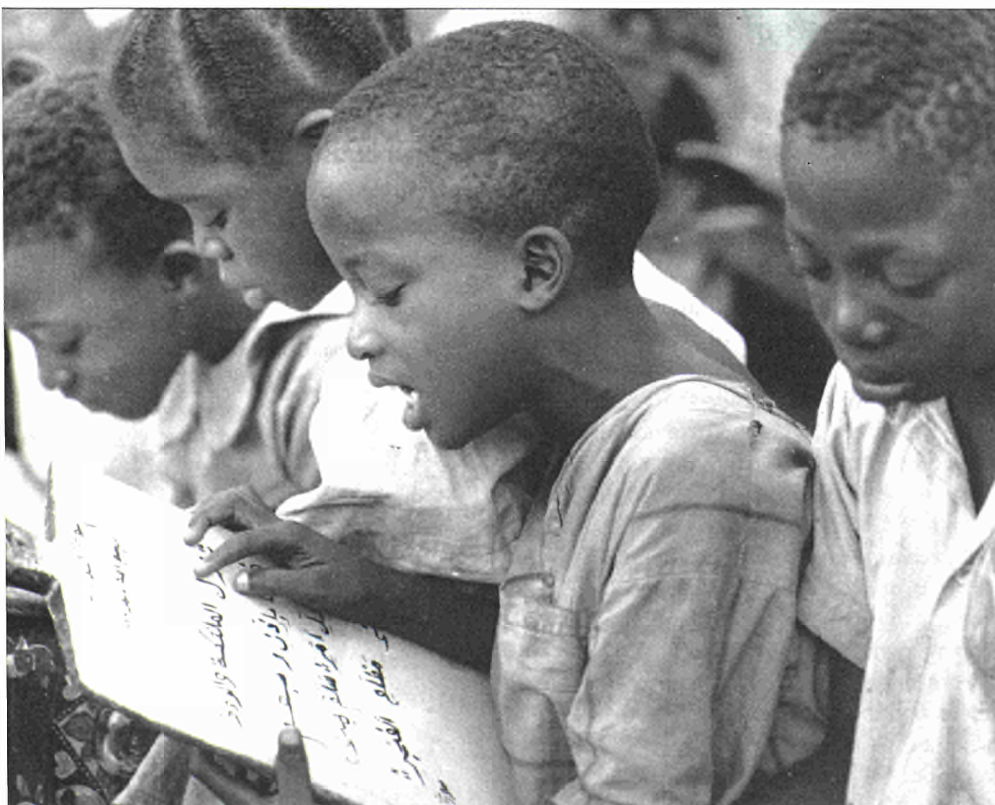
The countries of Mediterranean Europe are some of the worst affected. In Italy, for example, tens of thousands of children work in the leather and footwear industry, especially around Naples, and in agriculture and some services. In Portugal girls have jobs in clothing workshops or do outwork for industry.

In Birmingham (UK), a recent study showed that 43% of 10-16s did some sort of prohibited work and 75% of them were illegally employed.

In the United States, about 28% of 15 year-olds and 51% of 16-17 year-olds are employed for part of the year — and more of them come from well-off families than poor ones. However, when youngsters from poor families work it tends to be in agriculture or one or two apparently dangerous areas of activity. A report from Congress suggests that about one fifth of under-15s were working in breach of the law.

In Russia, social and economic change was leading to more and more child and adolescent workers, often in a self-employed capacity, a recent report revealed. Half the young workers screened by the study were under 15.

Over the past few years, it has become increasingly common to see children working in advertising and various branches of show business, where there is a real risk of abuse. In Belgium, for example, a social law survey revealed that agencies were recruiting children as photographic models on a very large scale and parents out for gain were always looking for more contracts — which the agencies fixed without regard for the children's schooling.



Child labour in Africa¹

In seeking to define what is meant by the expression 'child labour' in the African context, *Michel Bonnet* recommends that schooling, and what the children (in this instance, boys and girls of under 15) themselves just call games, should be disregarded. Everything else, whatever its status in the social environment, should be treated as work.

Failure of the education system

The poverty of the economic and social environment and the shortcomings of the education system in particular are such that parents send their children out to work. More than half the children in any age group continent-wide drop out of regular education and the situation is quite naturally worse in the underprivileged categories of the population, in country areas and among girls. With failing school attendance and paper qualifications losing their value or indeed already worthless on the job market, Africa's folk wisdom may be reviving traditional educational practices in which children take part in the life of the

¹ Source: Michel Bonnet, ILO, *International Labour Review*, Vol. 132, 1993, No 3.



community by working, particularly in the non-structured sector.

Child labour

Officially, the structured sector (which occupies less than 10% of the working population) employs no children, other than on the plantations, although its sub contracting to the unstructured sector is an indirect encouragement to child labour.

In rural areas, children's working conditions tend to be hard, and it is common, although quite wrong, to confuse it with family work. For example, it has been calculated that a child has to walk 27 km to water 200 camels with a 30 litre bucket from a 40 m well.

One of the first effects of such hard work is to make city life look attractive.

In the non-structured urban sector, children are involved in four main kinds of activity — small-time business (fewer than 10% of the under-15s), domestic work (more than 90% girls), family domestic work and begging. And of course there is apprenticeship, which, with its family-employer link, can help protect children and is as much a process of social acclimatisation as transfer of know-how.

Towards the emergence of a norm

Michel Bonnet concludes that 'for the rural masses, the problem is survival rather than development and any norm, however flimsy, which is not a life-raft or a springboard from which to provide a better answer to basic needs will find it difficult to win the people's interest.' Does this mean that particular categories of the population or particular economic activities could find themselves outside the protection of the law? Of course not. But it does mean that the various people involved, albeit poor and illiterate, should be able to help take decisions on what is to be achieved and how to achieve it. The first step, and a vital one if there is to be progress towards a normal situation and the emergence of a norm, is to help them get organised and join forces to find and define what needs to be done to ease their harsh living and working conditions. ■

— lay down a minimum age for paid employment or other work, to be no lower than the minimum school leaving age and not 15 (14 initially in special circumstances);

— gradually raise the minimum age to a level where adolescents can achieve the fullest physical or mental development;

— ensure that the minimum age for any kind of salaried employment or other work likely to endanger the health, safety or moral welfare of adolescents is at least 18 years.

All this points up something self-evident, namely that childhood should be a time of education and development, not hard work, and that child labour often destroys the chances of a productive future.

The ILO is coming up to its fourth quarter century and has new reasons for making the fight against child labour one of the top priorities in a context which, fortunately, sometimes changes.

Under pressure from human rights groups, media and the ILO itself, some Governments seem genuinely willing to act. The drive has taken practical shape, in particular, in the new international Programme for the Emancipation of Children (IPEC - see box), which now operates on three continents. ■

D.D.

D.D.

Poverty and official development assistance *

There has been a considerable change in the make-up of financial flows to the developing countries over the past decade. Official development assistance (ODA), which only accounted for 30% of the total in 1980, went past the halfway mark between 1984 and 1991, but slipped back to just over 40% in 1992 when bank loans surged, although it still represents three quarters of the amounts received in the low-income nations and almost all of them in the least developed group.

The grants (non-debt generating flows) total also increased regularly, from 28% in 1980 to 61% in 1991, although they came back down again, to 53%, in 1992.

However, from the point of view of the recipient countries themselves, the total amount of official development assistance has gone up very little, because of the collapse of supply from donors who do not belong to the OECD Development Assistance Committee, i.e. mainly the Arab countries, the former USSR and the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, whose ADC has fallen from \$20 billion in 1980-1981 to less than \$3 billion today.

Although the destination of aid is not a sufficient criterion to determine its anti-poverty content, details of its relative use in the poorest countries are still the best indication of what the donors actually intend.

* Source: European Commission.

The percentage of official development assistance which goes to the low-income nations is relatively small (64% of all ODA in 1989-1991 and only 60% of that from the Community and its Member States). These countries, in fact represent 82% of the total developing world population.

This gives slightly more than \$10 *per capita* p.a., as against an average of nearly \$13 for the developing world as a whole.

Official development assistance to the (currently 47) least developed countries represented 29% of total aid in 1989-1991 and 33% of the aid from the Community and its Member States, making the average *per capita* assistance in these countries (which only have about 12% of the population of the developing world) almost \$30 p.a.

A brief look at the breakdown of aid by major developing regions shows that sub-Saharan Africa, which has the acutest poverty problem and the bleakest

outlook, is benefiting from a large and increasing flow of ODA, with almost a third of the present total, more than \$36 *per capita* (2.5 times the average in the developing world as a whole), representing almost 11% of GNP (as against less than 2% in the developing world as a whole).

ODA from the Community and the Member States

The Member States of the Community together are the developing world's biggest supplier of ODA, some of which is bilateral and some Community and some distributed through multilateral organisations. They actually provide something like 46% of the ODA paid by the 21 members of DAC, which is about 43% of world ODA. The Community gives 0.43% of its GNP as official development assistance, as compared to the 0.33% average for all the DAC countries. The ODA commitment, however, is to pay 0.7% of GNP, a figure reached only by the Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands.

In the anti-poverty campaign, priority must be given in the future to a debate, on the implementation of ODA and external support in general. A broad and open discussion should be the opportunity to join with all the partners to define the right vehicles for anti-poverty operations. One of the main things to consider will be opening up to non-governmental partners, the involvement of recipients at every stage (and particularly the identification, execution, monitoring and evaluation of schemes), the promotion of decentralised development and, of course, better integration of economic and social policies and guidelines for the social sectors themselves. ■

D.D.

'Sub-Saharan Africa is benefiting from a large and increasing flow of ODA'

The notices pictures here relate to a Community - funded development programme in Senegal



Poverty control policies in the developing world*

Poverty in the developing countries is not going to change much in the near future. Inequality between North and South, between the various countries of the South themselves and, even more dramatically, between different sections of the population within those countries is escalating. Poverty has reached such proportions that it is undermining development possibilities and the developed countries are wondering just how efficient their aid is.

Not only is poverty a brake on world growth, a constant factor of instability and one of the determinants of environmental deterioration. It also interferes with proper population involvement and the enhancement of democracy and respect for human rights. So combating poverty is a priority when it comes to economic, political and social stability and development and one of the major challenges of the modern world.

The 1980s — crisis management for development

The constraints of new macro-economic and financial balances

Faced with persistent and deep-rooted crisis, some developing countries, particularly in Africa and Latin America, were forced into internal and external stabilisation policies and structural adjustment at one and the same time. But when these economic policies were applied, it was not always possible to make a precise assessment of the implications for the social and political structures, so social interventions were often envisaged after the event, without being properly integrated into a broader, consistent view of development.

* From the Commission of the European Communities.

This two-stage approach, in which economic and financial balance was sought first and the social counterpart implemented afterwards, handicapped both the chances of success of the economic reforms and the effectiveness of the social back-up.

Weakness of reciprocal commitments

The campaign to alleviate poverty is a long-term affair whose object is to influence the structural bases of poverty, particularly those related to access to productive resources, the development of human resources, social organisation and solidarity.

Poor grasp of poverty in the developing countries

Poverty programmes have found it difficult to establish full and reliable data bases whereby a coherent dialogue can be developed with developing country governments and populations and between these governments and their external partners. The complexity and multi-dimensional nature of the poverty phenomenon make it particularly difficult to measure and keep regularly monitored. Its diversity also makes international comparisons difficult.

Different perceptions of poverty

In many developing countries, poverty is socially accepted and may even be an integral part of the social structures. There will often be a collective organisation, outside the administration, which gives the poorest people a specific status and looks after them — a traditional system of social assistance which has not encouraged the authorities to provide welfare. The responsibility for social policy, and particularly its implementation, are shared widely with the local associations.

An over-quantitative, over-static approach to poverty

An understanding of poverty derived more from a dialogue with both the poor and the project recipients (and from a search for instruments of dialogue potentially determined by the local contacts in particular) should also make it possible to focus schemes more on the practical concerns of the poorest groups. It should also make for tighter, more efficient targeting in identification, monitoring and evaluation.

The way poverty develops is no doubt more significant than its level at any given moment, so it is important to set up the means of constantly monitoring the living conditions of the poorest sections of the population and of the way they perceive their own state of poverty.

No systematic analysis of impact

There has been no systematic evaluation of the effect which anti-poverty operations have on their target groups. Not only are the causal links difficult to identify, but no developing country government or provider of external assistance has really developed a means of analysing the effect of either individual social projects or the social welfare drive as a whole.

So it is virtually impossible to look at the battery of anti-poverty schemes of the past few years and say just which have had the best results and are worth reproducing. More generally, there has been no systematic evaluation of the 'poverty content' of external assistance programmes whereby lessons could be learnt and, where necessary, schemes brought into line with the aims of the poverty alleviation campaign.

Most of the macro-social analysis frameworks used to identify the social effects of reform programmes and measures have been developed in the light of economic reference models (social compatibility matrices, calculable general balance

models in particular) based mainly on quantitative data. Although they have in some cases clarified the effects of price and distribution and transfer of revenue and employment, they have tended not to establish any explicit links between the economic and the social spheres.

The move to a broader field of intervention, that of general development and active approach, encouraging such things as reflection on the relations between poverty and growth. It is now realised that poverty puts a firm brake on

income, widening land ownership or improving access to credit.

But although such policies are decisive when it comes to laying the foundations for sustainable and equitable development, their nature (as broad-based, long-term reforms designed to affect the population as a whole) makes it difficult to target the poorer members of society. Indeed some of them, which are designed to improve the management of these sectors (and especially those geared to cost recovery and to replacing public management by private), may hit the poorest people particularly hard. And on the face of it, there is no guarantee that schemes to improve the education and health services, for example, will ensure better access for the poor. So the sectoral approach has to be adjusted to take account of the specific considerations of the poverty alleviation campaign.

It is also important to avoid the sort of sectoral compartmentalisation which would prevent a proper perception of the poverty phenomenon in its entirety.

Intersectoral approaches are to be encouraged. Indeed, the effect of a consistent global social policy will be greater than that of the sum of the individual parts and delays in one sector will often compromise the effectiveness of policies in other social sectors.

Poor recipient involvement

Experience has supplied a practical demonstration of the now well-recognised fact that recipient involvement goes a long way to making poverty alleviation schemes effective. If we ask what the poor think and listen to what they have to say, a better job can be made of targeting action on their real needs and encouraging them to take their own development in hand.

Poorly balanced intervention

The conventional instruments of development cooperation, taken individually, have not so far supplied an effective short-term (emergency) or long-term (eradication) answer to the poverty problem. But that does not mean to say that new answers have to be devised for the purposes of the poverty alleviation campaign, for what in fact is called for is an adjustment of the existing instruments to



The Courier

Restrictive operational approach

'On the face of it, there is no guarantee that schemes to improve health and education services, for example, will ensure better access for the poor'

This is a hospital ward in Kampala, Uganda

The nature of measures to alleviate poverty has profoundly altered over the past ten years. The schemes started as back-up for essential economic and financial reforms (the social dimension of adjustment especially) and gradually became fuller and more independent, but they have not yet reached the stage where they are an integral part of a global approach to development from the very beginning.

One-off, short-term offset schemes

The anti-poverty campaign was long seen as a series of measures designed to offset the potential social costs of economic policies, whether or not triggered by structural adjustment or stabilisation programmes. The original idea was that they were passive, secondary things destined mainly to provide partial, temporary solutions to the poverty problem.

growth in the developing countries and all development plans should take it into proper account, although few in fact do. There is still a long way to go, institutionally and politically especially, before the concepts are put into practice.

Too much priority for the sectoral approach

The poverty alleviation campaign includes schemes to give the poor access to productive resources and essential social services, both of which are vital if these people are to make the most of their human capital, which is their main, if not only resource. Sectoral policies are particularly linked to this objective, whether directly, as is the case with health, education and nutrition or more indirectly in areas such as infrastructure, transport and agriculture, where reforms can have a 'knock-on' effect in generating jobs or

ensure closer targeting and a more global view of the problem.

So we need to promote an integrated, carefully modulated approach, a policy mix, which caters for the specific features of each country and includes the means of evaluating the probable impact on poverty (a kind of poverty visa) and making the necessary adjustments.

Inadequate coordination and synergy in external schemes

We now know that the extent of the poverty problem far outstrips the capacity of individual funders to tackle it and that overall coherence of the poverty alleviation measures in each country is vital factor to their success.

Too little emphasis on boosting local potential and supporting democracy

Poor internalisation of poverty alleviation control policies has been a deciding factor in the indifferent outcome of the various social operations carried out to date. When such policies are formulated, it is essential to have partners versed in the new techniques of social action and local networks able to apply them, but local capacities have not been given the support whereby the developing countries could wean themselves off external assistance and take their social policy in their own hands.

The conditions of dialogue and debate in each developing country have to be right for the whole population to help design the policies and then be responsible for running them and sharing the benefits fairly.

Boosting technical potential

Boosting the poverty control potential of the people involved has been a popular theme of the various anti-poverty operations, but the results have not been up to expectations, mainly because of over-emphasis on the strict sharing of responsibilities among the operators and a failure to bring them together properly in the end.

A major effort is still called for with training and technical assistance, mainly on-the-job, in an area in which

traditional training tends to be sporadic and piecemeal.

Institutional improvements and regional cooperation

Better individual technical skills must go hand in hand with institutional improvements. This should guarantee the sustainability of methods and processes and encourage the emergence of a technical memory. Individual mobility and, above all, the instability and rapid development of the developing countries' economic, political, social and cultural structures are very good reasons for setting up stable institutions and organisations to transfer know-how.

The need for institutional improvements is not restricted to the administrative structures. It applies to all the partners, State and non-State, and the process should encourage a broad and structured dialogue between governments and populations.

It should also be possible to spread South-South technical assistance. Some of the developing countries have devised poverty alleviation strategies which work or could be an example to others, but this sort of cooperation has not been developed systematically in the past and aid bodies have provided information on a case-by-case basis. Yet the advantages of South-South cooperation are now obvious to all and systematic recourse to it would bring in rapid improvements to the quality and targeting of anti-poverty schemes.

Not enough attention has been paid in the past to the potential synergy which regional cooperation could generate. Every country has its own special features, of course, but regions have common characteristics too and they could be pinpointed more clearly and combated with schemes larger than those run at national level. This is not specific to poverty control either, although it is particularly relevant in this case.

The democratic framework

Lastly, it is now widely recognised that a real democratic debate can only take place if the whole of society, without exclusion for political, economic or social reasons, is involved in development. Conversely, poverty control will only work

in a democratic framework in which the poor can take charge of their own destiny and of the efficiency of their representational networks.

If a proper strategy to alleviate poverty is to be formulated, there must be a political framework which is both stable and democratic. Funders in general and the Community in particular have an obvious responsibility here.

Development policies over the past 10 years have given priority firmly to economic and financial problems, a choice which in most cases has under-estimated the force of structural constraints on development processes and kept the poverty alleviation campaign from being included in a consistent approach to development in which social progress and economic progress are combined. And the anti-poverty campaign has not so far carried out a proper analysis of the specific nature of poverty, taking account of socio-economic causes and other qualitative factors, in each of the developing countries. Policy combinations have put too much emphasis on using packages and sectoral approaches for what is in fact a complex, multi-dimensional phenomenon. They have not always been inspired by any firm internal political will or given enough encouragement to getting the poor to take their own affairs in hand. So success has been limited and piecemeal.

Despite its own importance in development cooperation and the importance it attaches to the problems of social exclusion, and in complete contrast with what it has done in other fields, the Community has not explicitly embarked upon a global campaign to alleviate poverty in the developing countries so far. Its experience over the past ten years and the political will expressed in the Development Council on 18 November 1992 should mean that it can equip itself with the means of doing so now. ■ D.D.

The Member States of the European Union have made the poverty alleviation campaign one of the top priorities of their cooperation programmes.

On 25 May 1993, they agreed to coordinate their policies and asked the Commission of the European Communities to put forward proposals.

The idea of these proposals is to improve the cooperation policies of the European Union and the Member States by coordinating them in a better structured political and operational framework to ensure greater consistency and efficiency.

The Commission points out the extent to which international constraints weigh on poverty in the developing countries and emphasises the essentially political nature of the poverty alleviation campaign, which hinges on ensuring that the poor are fully involved in the process of development.

There is no choice but for anti-poverty strategies to be specific to each case and, if development cooperation is to make a contribution, it has to shape its approach to each country, using all the instruments available and ensuring continuity.

The Commission proposes that priority for coordinated action by the European Union and the Member States should go to three things:

- coordination to improve our knowledge of poverty situations and evaluate the effect of policies and projects;
- coordination in international organisations;
- coordination of the political dialogue with the developing countries, leading to reciprocal commitments wherever possible.

Political dimension of the campaign

At the Development Council of 2 December, the Member States approved the Commission's analysis and principal recommendations and agreed on the policy guidelines set out below.

Despite improvements in many countries, the frontiers of poverty have not been pushed back in the developing world as a whole and the situation has even

Combating poverty in the developing world and involving the poor in the development process

Coordinated European action

worsened in some places over the past decade, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa.

The aim of eradicating poverty in the developing world will never be achieved without improvements to the international environment. There also need to be fewer of the often decisive constraints in economic relations with the outside world which often shackle individual countries' efforts to alleviate poverty. External factors, debt and commodity price trends included, have combined with policy shortcomings to make it more difficult to operate poverty alleviation schemes.

No country will eradicate poverty unless it has the clear, sustained political will to do so, the people behind it and the specific aim of evening out inequality in the distribution of the benefits of growth and access to productive resources and social services. The extent to which the poor can provide for themselves must be increased. Efforts to alleviate poverty should be the common task of the Government and the nongovernmental forces in society.

With these fundamentally political considerations, it is clear that the process of democratisation and the existence of regimes in which law and sound public administration prevail and the poor are involved in taking political, economic and social decisions, are vital to efforts to eliminate poverty.

Poverty alleviation should be a fundamental component of development

Persistent poverty is a key issue for the developing countries, not a side-effect of underdevelopment, so poverty control must be an integral part of every development project and programme.

Strategies to alleviate poverty should encourage self-sustaining growth models which reduce inequality, maintain socially integrating links and are based on augmenting the productive potential of the poor by, *inter alia*, promoting job-creating activities, particularly in small businesses and craft concerns, and improving access to productive resources. Special emphasis should be placed on the informal sector.

Policies to alleviate poverty

Policies in this area should:

- take an integrated, long-term approach involving all the instruments of development;
- give priority to the least developed nations and the most deprived sections of the population of the developing world;
- take account of the political and economic nature of the causes of poverty;
- pay due regard to the advantages of a dialogue on policies between donor and recipient countries;
- cater for the vital need for recipient populations to take part in the political process and the design, implementation and evaluation of development projects and programmes;
- reflect local situations by varying the approach from one country to another, from one part of a country to another and in rural and urban areas;
- recognise the decisive contribution which women make to the efficacy of development policies in general and therefore involve them systematically in all policies to alleviate poverty;
- ensure that the essential features of the poverty alleviation campaign are taken into account in structural adjustment programmes.

D.D.

If there is any one inexhaustible controversial subject in the literature of development, it is the impact of structural adjustment on the poor.

For example, in a recent issue of the FAO journal (*Ceres*, No 143, September-October 1993), John Weeks, Professor of Development Economics at the University of London, said that structural adjustment had failed in most of the low-income countries and, where it had succeeded, it had done so in spite of the World Bank's policies.

Macroeconomic models and structural models

In 1989, *Philippe Hugon*, a French university lecturer, contributed an important article on the social effects of adjustment policies to the 'Third World' journal (vol. XXX, No 117, January-March 1989).

His basic argument was that the adjustment model implicitly hinged on the deterioration of subsidised groups which were protected from the market and on the improvement of operators linked to the market. Urban poor and landless peasants lost out here, of course, but it was assumed that compensatory measures could be taken in the short term and that the dynamics of accumulation would reintegrate these people in the long term.

Notwithstanding this view that the poor would ultimately 'catch-up', *Philippe Hugon* said, austerity programmes put into effect in the developing countries had, in fact, penalised the poorest members of society.

He suggested that structural models which combined economic behaviour, social structures and power relations were more likely to cater for the plurality of systems than macroeconomic models. So it would be wise to integrate asymmetrical international relations, temporal powers, the heterogeneity of the productive sectors and the social structures.

He gave devaluation as an example. Devaluation in theory had re-

'The important thing is not how much we don't know as how wrong we are in what we think we know' (Mark Twain)

Structural adjustment and poverty



distributive powers which affected the consumers of imported products — this, on the face of it, meant the privileged, although in some countries, the rural population and the poor were relative consumers of essential imports.

He also said that loss of income had very different effects on different people, according to their status. Reducing the parallel circuits could affect operators at the bottom of the scale, while operators with a broad financial basis could move

'Adjustment leads to transfers from one generation to another, with the burden of the debt, in particular, being passed on to generations which had to pay it back'

and raise their income elsewhere, transferring the cost of that adjustment to other groups.

Another remark was that adjustment led to transfers from one generation to another, with the burden of the debt, in particular, being passed on to generations which had to pay it back.

All effects were specific to economic and social structures. Countries with diversified production and diversified social and technical systems seemed to be able to manage a positive reallocation of resources which encouraged growth. The poorest countries, however, experienced regressive adjustment, which ultimately excluded the most vulnerable groups from the market and interfered with the satisfaction of their basic needs.

Philippe Hugon concluded by saying that, from a developmental point of view, it was less a question of bringing social considerations into the balance or offsetting the cost of adjustment with social measures than of reversing the social-economic-financial sequences.

The EC Commission — adjustment and fair distribution of public spending

Jürgen Zattler (European Commission) has contrasted the short and long term aims of structural adjustment. Adjustment is supposed to boost growth in the long term, but it has often been associated with economic recession in the short term — a contradiction which could have highly detrimental effects on both the productive capacity and the situation of the poor.

The European Commission has always pleaded for the social dimension of structural adjustment to be taken into account, not just before the process starts, but actually at the macroeconomic level. Social aspects must not just be catered for afterwards, with schemes to compensate for structural adjustment. They must be dealt with by the adjustment projects themselves — and not just at macroeconomic level either.

Jürgen Zattler believes that fairer sharing of public spending is one of the best ways of improving the situation of the poor.

The World Bank — disease confused with the cure

In 1990, the authors of Making Adjustment Work for the Poor. A Frame-

work for Policy Reform in Africa; a World Bank study, claimed that obtaining a proper grasp of the social effects of adjustment meant analysing the links between the macro-economy and the micro-economy of companies and households. The key problem here was how to assist the target groups without distorting the economic machinery.

In 1993, *Michael Lipton* and *Martin Ravallion* (Poverty and Policy, Working Papers, World Bank) said that mass poverty existed long before adjustment and all the imbalances and distortions which it sought to reduce. So it was wrong to say that adjustment or the absence of adjustment worsened or improved the poverty situation. There was no significant evidence of the effect of adjustment on the poor in either theory or practice.

As Lipton and Ravallion said, the lot of the poor has improved sometimes, where adjustment neither worked nor was needed. But it has deteriorated sometimes too, right where adjustment was in fact needed but never introduced, or at any rate was introduced and failed.

Edward V.K. Jaycox, IBRD Vice-President for Africa, reported on the benefits of adjustment in the FAO's Ceres mentioned earlier (No 143, September-October 1993), maintaining that structural adjustment had raised the standard of living of a large majority of poor Africans. The continual decline in the situation of the poor in some countries was the result of crises indicating that some policies needed to be changed, he said, rather than of the structural adjustment policies used to deal with the underlying problems. Disease and remedy had often been confused.

There is no doubt that, given time, reform will contrive to stimulate economic growth and the poor will have better opportunities in a more mobile economy.

Even in the short term, most of Africa's poor have seen reform, for 80% or 90% of them are smallholders and net producers of marketables, whose income has had a boost from structural adjustment. The urban poor, representing between 4% and 20% of the total, have suffered on occasion, particularly when the prices paid to the farmers have gone up,



J. Hudleston - WHO

'Countries undergoing structural adjustment have seen their real levels of public health and education spending go up'

but all this should change in the medium term, as the example of Ghana shows.

Countries undergoing structural adjustment have seen their real levels of public health and education spending go up.

The basic question is whether the countries carrying out reforms and the poor themselves would have had a better deal without structural adjustment. The answer has to be no, as a look at Ghana or Tanzania makes clear.

At the Conference on World Hunger on 30 November 1993, World Bank President *Lewis Preston* backed self-help credit programmes for the poorest countries.

The poor should be helped to help themselves through income generating programmes, which do more than just distribute income to the recipients, but enable them to become independent and productive in their own right. ■ D.D.

ATD Fourth World Movement

A record of poverty

The ATD Fourth World Movement was set up by Father Joseph Wresinski in 1957, when one or two families in abject poverty revealed that there was a whole section of society living in exclusion. ATD has worked ever since to ensure that these people are respected and that they can extricate themselves from their situation. It wants the families to live in dignity, have the means of bringing up their children and contribute work and experience as their share in the country's future, and it wants them to take part in the plans made for society and to have the same opportunities for self-expression and representation as other groups.

The Movement finds out about the Fourth World and spreads its story. It tries to analyse the machinery of exclusion and recommend ways of handling it. It offers a great deal of training in the field and it centralises all the information, observations and personal testimonies collected from the most deprived families, retracing their experience and their hopes.

It has teams of permanent volunteers in Africa (Burkina Faso, the CAR, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana and Senegal), America (Canada, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras and the USA), Asia (the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Taiwan), the Indian Ocean (Madagascar, Mauritius and Reunion) and Europe (Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom) and correspondents in 112 countries.

Father Joseph Wresinski's own words — taken from a book of interviews with Gilles Anouil in 1953 — serve to illustrate the philosophy of the Fourth World Movement.

'If you want more players to join the game, there is no point in just dealing the cards again. You have to change the rules.'

'The Movement is not trying to solve the problem in anyone else's place. Everyone has to work out his own solution.'

'We are calling for a global effort with the poorest members of society ... it is difficult to make people realise that everyone will benefit from it.'

The Courier met Jean Tonglet, the ATD Fourth World Movement delegate to the European Communities, to find out more.

■ *Mr Tonglet, can you, first of all, tell us about the Movement, how it started and what its ideas are? Why is it called Fourth World?*

— Our ATD Fourth World Movement is an international movement which combats the most abject forms of poverty. That is to say that, wherever we are in the world, we try to reach the people whom economic and social development projects have passed by, people who have never seen anything of the general progress of the West. You find such people in the rich countries too. Back in the so-called 'glorious thirties' when there was supposedly full employment, there were people living in slums (in the 1950s), and exactly the same situations are occurring in the countries of the Third World today. On some continents, Africa, for example, where the informal sector is expanding, there are jobs for fewer than 10% of the working population. In other places, Asia especially, there is talk of development, but the price of the top-speed development of the dragons of South East Asia, as we all know, is the exclusion of the weakest members of society. And the same processes have the same effects here and everywhere else.

Reaching out to the 'most tired'

Our idea is really to get to the people Africans sometimes call the 'most tired'; which is a good description of those who have been excluded. We want to reach those who cannot keep up, the weariest, poorest and the most underprivileged members of society, whom we on the continent of Europe call the lower proletariat and the British and Americans call the under-class. The terms vary widely. We ourselves talk about the poorest and

the most underprivileged. We have come up with the term 'Fourth World' which we added to our title in the 1960s. We were mainly in Europe at that stage, virtually only in Europe and the USA.

We were convinced that the idea that poverty concerned only the individual, isolated some people from the rest as if they had nothing to do with them, was wrong and that, over and above any cultural differences and communication problems, what we were up against was in fact a collective, global phenomenon.

We started by bringing back into use terms which modern sociology had left on the sidelines — a term like proletariat, which was obviously not a new word because Marx used it. Then, we started talking about the Fourth World at a time when Alfred Suave had just coined the term Third World, and we did so in a frame of mind similar to his. We invented the term Fourth World in 1968-69, after historical research into the *Cahiers du Quart Etat*, more precisely the *Quatrième Ordre des Mendiants, des Infirmes, des Vagabonds et des Journaliers* at the time of the French Revolution, in 1789.

The three letters A, T and D were in the Movement's first titles and you might like to know how that came about. The first association, which Father Joseph set up for slum families, was called Action and Culture Groups of the Friends of the Fourth World in the Paris Area, or something along those lines and, when it went to register with the authorities, it was turned down, because most of its organisers were former offenders, in a way, people whose poverty had brought them into conflict with the law. So Father Joseph had to appeal to friends to vouch for the association and one of them, Jacques Beaumont, a Protestant pastor, suggested that we add the words Aide à Toute Détresse (Aid for All Distress) to the title, to

show that the organisation did more than cater for immediate needs, such as food.

But we are gradually phasing out the term now. For historical reasons, we have kept the initials, particularly in France, but of course this can sometimes create confusion, because it can easily be taken for an organisation that provides immediate assistance, which is not what the Movement is all about.

■ *You must have to tread a very fine line between enabling the poor to express themselves and helping them get organised, which is absolutely vital, and being some kind of an institution?*

Not just another charity

— I think that both of these functions were present at more or less the same time. The pace was different, but the courses were parallel. The founder of the Movement arrived in this place of poverty and identified with it. 'When I got there, I felt two things,' he always said. 'I found my people. I was back where I had come from.' And he gathered those people together and asked them to speak their minds. 'That was when I realised that, if I wanted to change the situation of these families, there was no point in just creating another charity and going on dishing out soup and things like that,' he said. 'I had to go for a complete change of course and ground.'

'And this triggered all the work on culture and knowledge and the sharing of knowledge and training and led to the creation of street libraries and vocational training workshops for people without a trade in Africa and on the rubbish tips of Guatemala and in the cemeteries of the living dead in the Philippines. And then there was a third thing, the idea that it was up to me to get these people to appear in public, in the places where our future is shaped.' Father Joseph put it in a rather imaginative way. 'That was the day I realised that I had to get my people to climb the steps of the UN and the Elysée and the Vatican.' And we are still concentrating on being with the poorest people in society now, being constantly alert to the

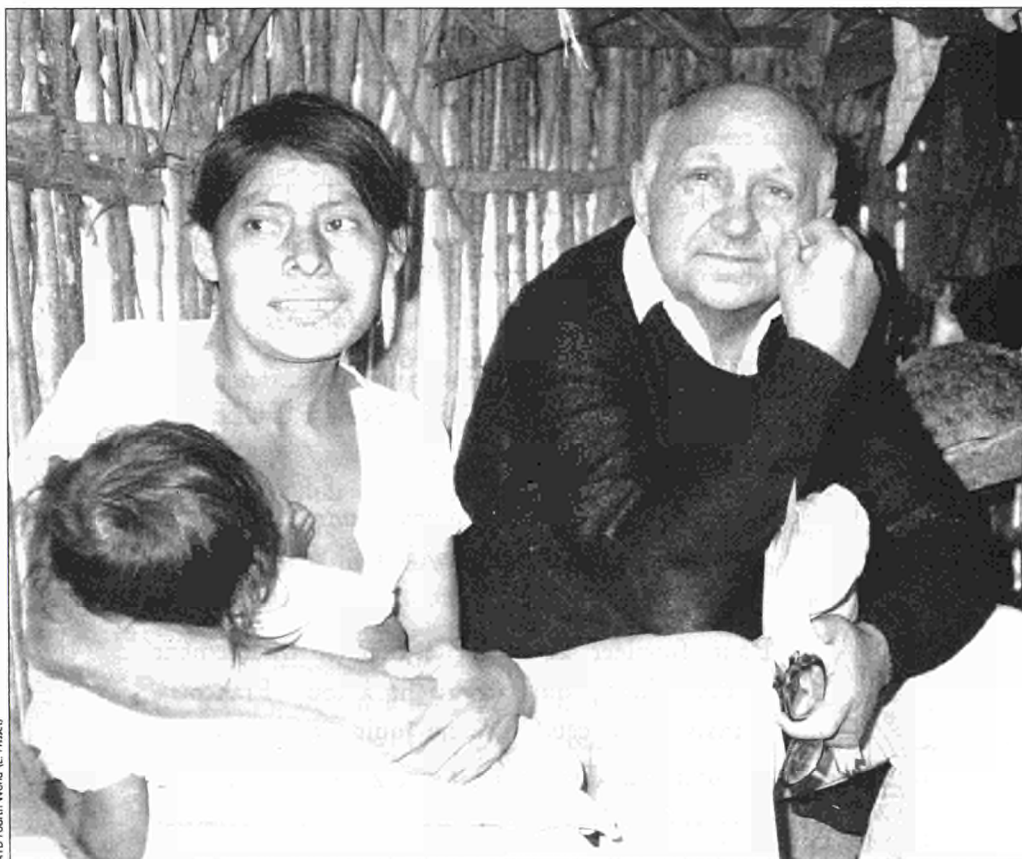
latest trends in poverty. It means we have to move about, leave some districts and go to others, leave some countries and go to others and cater for new developments.

We certainly do ensure our presence, of course, but not just being present. We make our presence tell through actions in many different areas, but, above all, when it comes to listening to what these people have to say. Our demands are very high. Right from the start, our founder, Father Joseph, said that all volunteers involved in the work of the Movement had to undertake to write down everything they learnt about these people every day and we have built up an incredible mass of writing, an incredible record of the daily life of the very poor over the past 35 years. All of these, that is to say,

us most. The rest is lost. People use our records to reconstitute family history from monographs and there is more theme-oriented research too, such things as in-depth investigation of the family in the midst of abject poverty.

And we work with the institutions too. This is something we began very early on, back in the 1960s. We had our two first conferences with UNESCO in 1961 and 1962 and then we tried to develop contact with other bodies, including French bodies, of course, which was a long, hard job, but one day it all led to some kind of public recognition of our role as a spokesman and representative.

In 1985, mounting poverty, as shown by the emergency measures taken



ATD Fourth World (L. Phinet)

the sum of all this knowledge, are in a place we call 'the Register'. It is a unique body of knowledge and very useful, because otherwise there is very little material on the poor and their opinions. There are the records of people who have worked with the poor and of religious institutions set up to combat poverty and so on, but there is very little evidence of what the poor themselves actually have to say. They don't write it down. Legal record offices perhaps can tell

Father Joseph Wresinski, founder of the ATD Fourth World Movement, in Guatemala

in the winter, which involved the setting up of soup kitchens and so on, led to the French Economic and Social Council realising that there had to be some more serious thinking on poverty and that there was more to it than opening up metro stations and dishing out soup. That was when Father Joseph was asked to produce a

report on abject poverty. We tried to develop our action through other international bodies from then on and we soon went to the Council of Europe, because it did not take us long to realise that more had to be done to get poverty recognised as a violation of human rights. We also developed contact with the ILO, because fighting poverty of course means ensuring access to jobs and employment, and with UNESCO, because the fight for culture has always been one of the cornerstones of the Movement. The first action all our teams take all over the world has always been cultural. There have been other actions too

but the starting point has always been something cultural, be it with children and babies or with young people and adults.

Meeting with the European Community

We had to meet the European Economic Community too. It all began through the friendship of Albert Coppé, then a member of the Commission, who received Father Joseph. That was the decisive meeting, which led to a first study

in which the Movement tried to put a figure to the number of the poor in the European Community, and then there was another meeting, with Mr Hilary this time, and the adoption of a first European anti-poverty programme. Jacques Delors has also received us on a number of occasions and we had a very long audience with Edgard Pisani to discuss development policy.

Work goes on constantly in the field, data are gathered systematically, the knowledge is organised and this is the basis, the broadest possible basis, on which we can negotiate with the various authorities. We categorically refuse to confine ourselves to poverty issues, although that is always what people want us to do. In 1980, we set up an inter-political group in the European Parliament, the European Fourth World Committee. If we listened to the MEPs, we should spend our whole time giving opinions on the poverty programmes and the Community's exclusion initiatives and so on, but, if we did this, we would miss out on all sorts of other reports, directives, recommendations etc. which are of great interest for the future of the poorest people in society and often of far greater interest than poverty control programmes.

■ You are often seen as defenders of the Fourth World in the countries of the North and some people think that you do nothing at all for the South. Can you tell us what you are doing for the countries in the South and how you see the link between North and South here?

— In fact, our ties with the countries of the South are both long-standing — in terms of the contracts — and recent. In 1958-59, when the Movement was just beginning, Father Joseph and the first volunteers sought contact in other countries of Europe, if only to help clarify what they themselves were experiencing at Noisy-le-Grand and borrow other people's ideas and look at solutions tried out in the Netherlands and Switzerland and Great Britain. And links outside Europe were soon established too. We ran exchanges with the USA in the early 1960s, as part of the American poverty control

CAHIERS

D U

QUATRIÈME ORDRE,

CELUI

Des pauvres Journaliers, des Infirmes, des Indigens, &c.,

L'ORDRE SACRÉ DES INFORTUNÉS;

O U

Correspondance Philantropique entre les Infortunés, les Hommes sensibles, & les Etats-Généraux :

Pour suppléer au droit de députer directement aux Etats, qui appartient à tout François, mais dont cet Ordre ne jouit pas encore.

Par M. DUFOURNY DE VILLIERS.

*Consolamini, consolamini, Popule meus :
Quare mærore consumeris? quare innovavit te dolor?
Salvabo : te no'ii timere.*

O mon Peuple! dis-moi, quel chagrin te consume?
Quelle douleur te rend méconnoissable?
Console-toi, console-toi; cesse de t'alarmer : ton bonheur est proche.

N^o. I, 25 Avril 1789.

programmes launched by Presidents Kennedy and Johnson. In 1967, for example, I know that Father Joseph went out to India to meet people working in the slums there. He would have liked to send volunteers out to the Third World straight away, but it was out of the question at that stage, because there weren't enough volunteers and the Movement probably wasn't ready, so that sort of thing didn't start until 1978. The Movement first started its action in both Guatemala and Thailand in 1979 — the year in which we ran a campaign right across Europe in what we call the people's universities of the Fourth World (training centres for fourth world adults), with the idea of combating racism and fostering friendship with foreigners, because we could sense worrying tendencies emerging in public opinion — especially, perhaps, in public opinion in the poor sections of society. We had refugees from South East Asia in some of these people's universities, and they told us about life in the refugee camps. Some people said that we should be out there too, that the Fourth World Movement should be present in South East Asia, so we sent out volunteers.

■ *Some say that poverty could be the 'wealth of nations', others that penury must be transformed into controlled poverty. This idea of the dignity of poverty is a common one, but many people in the South object to the idea and think it is just another piece of side-stepping by the North! Has your Movement developed a particular line of thought on this?*

Recognising dignity

— What we have found in every latitude is that the biggest threat to the poorest families is still a failure to recognise their human dignity and usefulness. Are they good-for-nothing or are they good for something? That's the way people put it and it is a philosophical question which can well be applied to the West too.

Frankly, I very much doubt that there is any point in expecting an eventual and still hypothetical return to economic growth to create jobs for Europe's 40 mil-

lion social outcasts. Indeed, I do more than doubt it. I am convinced that we need something new, for the traditional model of paid employment is a thing of the past. The world model for western-style development is a thing of the past too and we are moving towards another form of development, which does not mean that people have to be kept poor. That is why we have always made a distinction between penury and poverty, although it is one which has not always been properly understood. In Europe, we go one step further, particularly in Community circles, because we don't even talk about poverty any more. Exclusion is the word and it seems to me to be very dangerous, because I can see us gradually sliding into a situation in which the concept of exclusion covers a host of people who are more or less excluded, practically speaking, for a host of reasons other than poverty and who are far better placed in terms of public opinion and lobbying than the actual poor. MEPs and national MPs and general advisers in French departments find categories like the disabled and the aged far more interesting and politically manageable than the poor.

■ *Thereby running the risk of losing sight of the genuinely poor and deprived in the vast category of outcasts.*

— Absolutely. And with the additional danger of there being no assurance whatsoever that we can actually reach the poor handicapped and the poorest old people in categories defined in this way. Quite the opposite, in fact. However, in the end, the important thing as far as we are concerned is for the people themselves to be able to choose. Those who want to continue to have access to jobs should be able to do so, but some way has to be found of catering for the fact that there will no longer be enough jobs to go round.

A Ministry of Cooperation director said of an ATD Fourth World scheme in Upper Volta that 'the State cannot finance the run up to development' and it is a great pity, because a scheme which does not give the beneficiaries the time or the means to prepare for development, could well be uncaring, in fact, by intervening in people's lives and totally

ignoring their sensibilities and being blind to any reactions. This betrays profound disrespect. The so-called helpers have no idea that there could possibly be any ideas or any sensibilities to respect. It does not occur to them that people are free to decide for themselves whether or not to go for a scheme or whether to adjust it, counter it or refuse it. Just thinking about that would already constitute a revolution, but it is still a far cry in the Third World and over here too. Partners get together and come up with projects and they only wonder whether and how to involve the poor afterwards — which is quite different from looking upon them as partners from the outset.

■ *You mentioned contact with the International Labour Organisation just now. One thing bothering a lot of people at the moment is social dumping. Some say it is a good thing, because it means work for the Third World, and others say that, alas, it creates unemployment over here. Suppose the ILO asked you, in the ATD Fourth World Movement, to think about this one day. Do you already know just where you stand?*

— We haven't analysed this subject specifically so far, but there are two things. I should like to say. First, the best thing we in the Community can do for the recognition of ILO norms, particularly in the social sector, is to apply them ourselves. In many cases, young people at work for example, I fail to see the logic of undoing at Community level what has been agreed in the ILO. As far as the Third World is concerned, the question is the inclusion of social clauses in the international trade agreements which is the way we should be moving. ■

Interview by
Dominique David

NGOs, who were among the first to say that poverty was, in essence, being and, above all feeling excluded from a particular system, have been fighting poverty for years. They have gone beyond the stage of running one-off charity projects and are now committed to giving everyone the opportunity to get involved and help decide, manage and control the system in which they live. One specific aim, which comes back in their programmes time and time again, is to back up the poor in their efforts to earn better, more reliable incomes, and there are many ways of achieving this. A favoured approach recently has been to ensure that the poor have access to banking — i.e. to a credit and savings system which is right for their needs. Many of these decentralised finance systems hark back to the 'friendly society' spirit which motivated us in our countries in the construction of savings and credit bank networks such as France's *Crédit Coopératif*.

Decentralised finance systems in Southern Mali

One scheme of this sort, which started up in 1987, with the backing of the EC and four European NGOs, resulted in the establishment of an association under Malian law called *Kafo Jiginew*. In Bambara this means the Union of Grain Stores, because every Savings and Credit Bank in the 4000 villages in Southern Mali is likened to a grain store in which the family stores its cereals. The project area, Southern Mali, is relatively wealthy because cotton growing was introduced on an industrial scale more than 50 years ago and *Compagnie Malienne pour le Développement des Textiles (CMDT)*, the Malian textile development firm, is located there. The industrial cotton production and marketing company has looked to integrated rural development from the very beginning and, although it has made the odd mistake and had to feel its way, it has brought the area a better standard of development than that achieved elsewhere in the country.

The guiding principles of *Kafo Jiginew*, a network of independent banks, are as follows. In line with the principles of

Combating poverty and exclusion

Women and banking A case study from southern Mali

by Catherine Dom *

subsidiarity and freedom, each bank is able to take responsibility for its own affairs, under the guidance of a board of directors made up of peasant farmers from the villages served. Decisions to grant loans are taken at this local level, in accordance with the second principle, which is that some money must already have been saved (no grain can be taken from an empty store). Solidarity being the watchword, the money need not necessarily, have been saved by individuals: the 'place of solidarity', in other words, the village, will do. So individual loans granted by a local credit committee are secured on a combined warranty from the community and the rate of reimbursement is very good as a result. Lastly, the funders' wish to see the scheme continue has put the emphasis on profitability and each bank has to be autonomous within five years of start-up.

This is an ambitious goal, given the context. There are many obstacles to be overcome, starting with the illiteracy of at least three quarters of the peasants and their tendency not to trust a banking system which has often exploited them in the past. Their attitude to money is not easy to understand either and a common saying is that 'Money burns your fingers in Mali.' The situation is complicated further by the changes now taking place — democratisation and decentralisation, structural adjustment, problems in the world cotton industry, the gradual decline of the animism that was still prevalent in Southern Mali 15 years ago and its replacement by a brand of Islam more rigid than that of the country's long-standing Moslem societies, the break-up of the extended family, the painful emergence of

new forms of solidarity in the villages against a background of monetarisation which is still not fully under control and, lastly, the widening of the gulf between the economically rich and the economically poor, with the appearance of new power concentrations in village society (the local banks are just one more example).

Without old values to guide them or new yardsticks which are clear to everyone, any individual and any society will adopt atypical behaviour and Southern Mali, in common with many other parts of the world, can only be described now as a checkerboard of disparate features grafted, in this particular case, on ethnic differences.

Where do women stand?

The one question running through all this is where women stand in the various societies — mainly the *Senufo*, *Mynianka*, *Bobo*, *Bambara* and *Gana* tribes — which share the cotton-growing South. Traditionally, they provide farm labour in exactly the same way as the other 'workers' in the extended family, on top of their household tasks. Their workload has accordingly expanded in proportion to the increase in the area of land on which cotton is grown to provide an income for the holding (i.e. for its head). This has happened without any change — any improvement, that is — in the traditionally minimal level of independence allowed them in the various tribes. Their access to land, to training (including better agricultural techniques), to paid activity from which they can keep the income and to various aspects of social life (going to school, belonging to associations,

* The author is a development economist.

travelling etc.) all depends on the goodwill of the head of family and husband.

Polygamy, a traditional practice endorsed by Islam, is a part of their lives which it is difficult even for them to put aside. It fosters envy and mistrust and can prevent the emergence of proper female solidarity, despite the fact that the women's main concern is for their children. In a monogamous household, on the other hand, the workload may be heavier than when it is shared among a number of wives. The rather stern brand of Islam now taking over these societies entails the structural marginalisation of women and thus reinforces the view that they are not potential development operators.

In an economic context which some families are finding increasingly difficult, the traditional distinction between the head of the holding's budget and the women's budget is tending to become blurred, and the women are no longer sure of keeping a hold over the tiny amounts they earn for themselves by cultivating fields of their own or trading on a small scale. Traditionally, it is the women who meet everyday household costs and they often also take responsibility for children whom they want to see better looked after, better fed and possibly better educated than thought to be strictly necessary by the adult men. They are also more and more likely to be asked to help

out the head of the holding by transferring resources to him when he is financially embarrassed. Tradition and social pressure are such that women cannot refuse to do this even if they want to. It is not easy to see exactly where they stand here, because they are anxious 'not to bring shame on the head of household', even if the money is used simply to maintain prestige and could therefore be said to have been misspent.

So one of the problems, clearly, is the risk of women losing control of what they 'officially declare', hence the importance of tontine arrangements and the informal savings systems and mutual aid networks peculiar to them.

The socio-economic context of women and their relations with men is widely known, but CMDT, represented by men, takes little notice of it and Kafo Jiginew decided, in the interests of efficiency, to base its own network on structures set up by the cotton company. What should have been a strength also turned out to be a weakness, because the project naturally fell into the same pitfall and made women more marginalised, when the aim of the local banks was in fact

Women have seen their workload increase, but without any accompanying improvement in their – traditionally minimal – level of independence

to bring in the whole of the rural population. The women were not really involved in setting up the new system at any stage.

The 242 women who had joined by the end of September 1993 represented less than 2% of the membership of the local banks and there are practically no women at all on their management and decision-making bodies. There is no point in making comparisons with situations that are too different, such as those in Senegal and Togo and other African countries where women have carved out a place for themselves as economic operators in their own right, particularly in the urban areas. The results of Kafo Jiginew should in fact be seen alongside those achieved by similar operations in comparable surroundings — in Burkina Faso, for example, or in Dogon country in the poorest parts of Mali, where at least 25% of women are involved and a figure of about 40% is the rule.

The main reason for this new form of exclusion has to do with the sequential approach to rural society adopted by Kafo Jiginew, which went first for the rich, or potentially rich, and the familiar (i.e. the income from cotton). A more general and at the same time more differentiated approach would have made it possible to cater more for the specific constraints and needs of the target groups (women, young people, nuclear families etc.), instead of which women's involvement was pushed to the end of the line, when the first beneficiaries already had their hands on the existing funds and it was consequently more difficult to bring women into something often seen as a male preserve.

Cost-benefit is also a problem for the local banks and the project as a whole. In the context, women seem to be a less interesting target group for an organisation seeking rapid financial returns. And neither time nor money was put into highlighting the drawbacks of that context (women's training and their management practices and habits), although this could have led people to reflect on ways of improving it as women were integrated into the financial system.

In addition to this form of exclusion, caused by a failure to understand the activities and therefore the hopes and needs of women, there were other ob-



stacles which were not overcome at the outset.

For example, there is the fact that Kafo Jiginew is based on 'official' power structures and it has failed to transmit information to women. Data have often remained with the men who ought to have handed them on but saw the Bank as a potential means of independence for their women and therefore undesirable. In this society, there is no point in giving women information unless it be via the men, but there should have been a parallel direct, specific, information and awareness campaign (which would have pushed up the costs). The project cadres responsible for public relations, marketing and training — i.e. for contact with rural society — are all men, which does not help. Nor does the fact that there is even more illiteracy among women than among men.

A further impediment is the relative lack of understanding of the specific needs of women and the failure to take them into account. This has led to the drafting of rules of operation which exclude them. One or two deserve mention; this is not to say that they should be systematically changed, but it is at least important to grasp the fact that they are potential obstacles. For reasons of profitability, one bank will serve several villages, and this poses an access problem, since women will find it much more difficult to get there than men or youngsters. The prior savings principle may well not work if women have only limited access to income generating activity and the principle of solidarity as currently applied only brings men's 'places of solidarity', i.e. essentially the village associations, into play.

There are other hindrances, but instead of listing them, let us make it clear that there is more to it than changing the rules. Women's independence must also be preserved and possibly increased. They must not be allowed to embark upon a process which causes them to 'officialise' their resources and thereby to lose both the control and the benefit of them. There is no point in trying to replace the tontines unless women have proper control over the suggested alternative.

So, what Kafo Jiginew has to do now is rectify a typical exclusion situation

in which women have no powers of decision or management or any control over a system in which it is hoped to integrate them. The measures which have been or are taken, and which are discussed below, should, if they are accompanied by real determination at every level, result in a constant weighing of priorities and in the making of choices which may sometimes be in contrast with those made hitherto.

Integrating women

An initial socio-economic study focusing on women members of Kafo Jiginew was an opportunity to take the thinking further, to take stock of measures already being implemented and to suggest ways of enhancing the effects of the first improvements. Long-term schemes which should then follow include:

— detailed socio-economic studies of the location of the banks, to obtain a better understanding of the female milieu, the individual and collective activities of women and the savings and money circulation systems which already exist among them;

— an intensification of joint work, information exchange and coordination in the field with other people involved in Southern Mali and particularly with the women's initiative support organisation, including CMDT's Women and Development Project; ¹

— more thorough-going information exchange with other decentralised finance systems in Africa, including some very interesting operations, often specifically aimed at women as one of the most deprived target groups and adapted from the Grameen Bank ² system.

This might be the basis on which to join with women (and the various interlocutors involved) to think how to

¹ A scheme has been running in the CMDT, for the past ten years or so, to include a Women and Development section in all CMDT activities and thereby rectify the imbalance baldly expressed by a Dutch economist — 'There are no women involved anywhere in this business.'

² These involve credits — from external funds — before any money is saved, so that the beneficiary can develop some form of economic activity leading gradually to independence and a higher standard of living. These monies are guaranteed jointly by small groups of people (the 'credit units' often have no more than ten members).

change the system in their favour and to integrate the traditional informal sectors into it, if there is any real advantage in doing so.

A recent development in the project could well be very much in their favour. In view of the extent of the financing needs in the area and the constant difficulty of collecting savings, local banks will not be able to meet the demand for loans from their own funds, so the project promoters and the Kafo Jiginew board have decided to cope with this by calling on external refinancing lines. So here is an opportunity to include women's needs in the list when requirements are being inventoried. They are considerable, of course, because women's potential savings are smaller than those of the average farm and the context is one in which it is hoped to support them in a process of (*inter alia* economic) development.

The first schemes to prove effective in various pilot villages are described below. Information about their results and the practical arrangements and circumstances of their application is now being disseminated through the network. One decisive factor was the temporary lowering of the price charged to women for the obligatory share in the local bank.

Other ways of catering for women's needs should be envisaged. Careful diversification of the products on offer would enable Kafo Jiginew to look beyond the cotton industry. In the early stages, diversification could involve greater flexibility as to duration, dates of availability and loan repayment arrangements for loans — which, in amounts and duration (typically less than one year), would not be far removed from the seasonal loans which heads of holdings currently use primarily to finance production or, more broadly, to cover the costs and various commitments which arise between two cotton marketing seasons. These 'new' loans would open the way to a range of activities, some then very popular with women.

Women should be involved in running the system, where they are open to the idea. Opening departments for women in banks, having women delegates on loan committees and admitting the mutual aid aspect of such existing arrange-



For women, the example of Fizankoro offers hope, showing that it is possible to 'break out' from a situation of exclusion

ments as women's associations, self-help groups and tontines as forms of joint security are other things to think about at every level of Kafo Jiginew and outside (project leaders, the board of the union and the banks, public relations officers from CMDT and, of course, the women themselves).

A case study

By way of conclusion, let us look at Fizankoro, a pilot village in the Koutiala area, whose bank, in existence since 1989, is proud to have 47 women members, representing more than 13% of the total membership (though it is entirely average from all other points of view). This positive example of women's integration gives us an opportunity to demonstrate what they have gained from it and the improvements that they would now like to see. The process was to a very large extent spontaneous. The members of the board and the manager embarked upon the 'adventure' and took it upon themselves to set up the following system.

The cost of the start-up shares which the women had to take out was brought down to CFAF 2000 from CFAF 5000 and they were given access to short-term loans. These revolving loans, involving relatively small amounts, are enough to cover many of the remunerative activities carried on by the women of Fizankoro — who have the advantage of a fairly large weekly market at which they can sell food (ready-prepared meat and rice) as well as their home-made karité butter and ma-

caroni and various other little things. Short-term loans are granted for a maximum of three months at 4% per month, with weekly repayments. If the member can repay the capital easily on the prescribed date, she can also carry over the loan or take out another short-term loan for the same or a different amount.

If a woman can buy rice in bulk, and thus get it more cheaply and increase her profit margin, she can save, or save more, once she has covered her household costs. The savings can then be used to launch another paying proposition such as the purchase of 'nere'³ seeds to store and resell or of an animal to fatten for the Tabaski festival⁴. Some women have obtained a first loan and gone in for something they knew to be profitable but which they had not had the working capital to set up without help before. One example of this is a woman who buys a macaroni machine and repays her loan with the profits from this new activity. Once the investment has paid for itself (in a few weeks), she is financially independent. Women can make extra (or a completely new) profit of between CFAF 1000 and CFAF 7500 per month in this way, although CFAF 7500 would be fairly unusual. The

³ A basic ingredient of sumbala, the local equivalent of stock cubes and essential to many dishes.

⁴ Animals are purchased cheaply months in advance and fattened and slaughtered for Tabaski, when large quantities of meat are eaten.

figures have to be seen alongside their previous earnings, which could be less than half this amount.

Women are invited to save to complete their CFAF 5000 share of the capital as quickly as possible, and thus this gives them access to different kinds of loans, which are cheaper and may well be for larger amounts and longer terms (i.e. seasonal credit at the moment). The main purpose of this sort of loan has dictated the arrangements — an 8-11 month term, typically, fixed by the bank's board, at 1.5% per month, with the monies released in May or June and repaid after payment has been made for the cotton, i.e. in about February the following year.

Given the activities they are involved in and encouraged by their initial success, the women of Fizankoro are suggesting other possibilities, such as the loans which they themselves have dubbed 'storage loans'. What they are doing here, in fact, is calling for the diversification and flexibility we mentioned earlier, which would enable them to buy the rice at a good price, at the right moment, and thus meet their needs through the off-season when purchase prices tend to be sky high. Such loans could also be used to buy rams on credit for fattening and resale. The women are also thinking about the sort of groups they could set up to provide joint security for their loan applications (at the moment, individual loans to women are guaranteed by their husbands). Thus a new form of solidarity is gradually emerging amongst, for example, women caterers, who see the advantages which an association would bring in terms of grouped purchases and spreading storage risks.

The case of Fizankoro holds out hope. It is also proof that it is possible to rectify a situation of exclusion and, particularly, to head it off from the very beginning. There is no miracle recipe, but this particular example shows that everyone in the society concerned has to help. Nothing would have been possible here without the support of the men and without some of them being ready to act. Another important factor is the leadership which some women may exercise. Poverty and exclusion will not be fought by principles, ideas or recipes, but by determined men and women. ■ C.D.

Exclusion in North and South

by Sophia MAPPA (*)

Exclusion now has reached massive proportions in societies in the North and in the South alike, but it would be wrong to imagine that conditions are identical all over the world, for both the understanding and experience of the phenomenon and the things that trigger it differ radically from one place to another. Let us say outright that exclusion is brought about by economic pressures and cultural negation in the North and by cultural pressures and economic negation in the South.

What makes Western societies stand out from the rest, in fact, is the heightened consideration of economic matters as supreme, above all others, be they social, political, ethnic or cultural, and the fact that economic development has ceased to be a way of serving mankind and has become an end in itself.

One of the features of this ideology, known as pragmatism, is a call for generalised conflict and competition, i.e. for war to be waged by all against all. And, in this war, the losers are the excluded, those who are unable to conform, for there is no room in it for a different ideology, let alone plurality. The individual whose values are not those of economic warfare has either to conform or become an outcast. Solidarity and altruism have no place here.

Another feature, and by no means a minor one, is the enormous importance attached to economic activity. In the West, man's sole recognition is through his function as a producer. Without work, the individual is nothing. Work has ceased to be a source of creativity and sublimation of passions; it has become a source of exclusion and anyone who has no

work feels and is seen by society as worthless and in a situation of assistance. What could be worse disgrace for a system of warriors? It makes the unemployed inward-looking, gradually lose his or her links in society and thus sink into exclusion.

This mechanism, economic activity as a source of exclusion, is particularly dangerous in that it is at the very heart of the western economic system, in which the wealth of nations depends not on man, but on the instruments which he has created, i.e. on technology. Could man be deprived in front of his own creations? Easily, if the ideology of pragmatism is anything to go by. Currently, man has no choice. It is up to the economy, even the market, to solve the problem of exclusion like an invisible hand, which is a mighty step backwards for societies which, like the civilisation of Ancient Greece, created democracy and set man up as the protagonist of his own future.

Not only is there exclusion in the western camp. Almost the whole of the Third World is excluded from triumphant liberalism, for, one or two miracles apart, its integration in world trade is still a pipe-dream, and one of many. Basically, the values on which capitalism is founded — freedom of individual choice, competition, competitiveness, unlimited expansion etc. — are foreign to Third World societies, which do not see the economy as an entity in its own right and certainly fail to capitalise on it.

The important thing is not individual choice (although the degree to which this is true differs in, for example, Latin America and Africa), but the submission of the individual to the community. What counts is not competing with other people, but being true to tradition. Economic activity is part and parcel of other activities, of sociability and family and

religious relations and more, and no value is put on it. The outside world is not something to be controlled or changed, for change is not valued. The whole idea is to go on reproducing the community as it stands, avoiding all risks, and so the only aspect of capitalism which comes into those societies is consumption — hence the importance of trade, of the marketplace, which, misguidedly, is confused with capitalism. Modern production is something for tiny minorities, fewer even than that, when the consumption of western goods spreads and traditional output diminishes.

The Third World is finding it difficult to go for economic rationality and devise its own plan for the future and may be cutting itself out of the dominant system because of it. So far, it has spent more time copying and rejecting the model than criticising it and its self-exclusion is aggravated by its enforced inclusion in a dominant system which denies local values. There is no need to illustrate how damaging this is.

Then, of course, there is the massive exclusion caused by the restricted loyalties within Third World societies. Every society, caste, tribe, village and religious group thrives by opposition to the neighbouring family, caste etc. and the Other, any Other, is seen as an enemy and a persecutor, so there is a whole chain of exclusion every day — passions of identity which make it difficult to create a social and public space and which hamper the possibility of coming up with local plans to deal with western domination. These societies are currently governed by a triptych of internal exclusion, self-exclusion and exclusion by the dominant system.

The basic problem in the North and in the South is not recognition of the radical Otherness of each of the partners and the absence of mutual understanding. It is economic intolerance in one camp and cultural intolerance in the other which causes the exclusion. ■

S.M.

* Director of Delphi Forum.

Working to prevent exclusion

by Paola Antolini¹

One of the most complex issues at the end of the 20th century is that of human beings living side by side. Never in recorded history have there been so many displaced persons; even larger numbers are in search of refuge elsewhere. The population bomb is exploding and, with galloping demographic expansion, there will be six billion people on the planet by the year 2000,² almost half of them living in towns.

The underprivileged already flock to the cities, to live in the worst possible conditions, whether in the slums of the developing world or the ghettos of the industrialised world. There they are often sealed off in squalid pockets of deprivation (known nowadays as 'touch- and go' areas), living in conditions every one of which constitutes a handicap.

Against a backdrop of social and ethnic segregation, unemployment and poverty, non-existent public transport and failing services, delinquency is rife. Most of these areas are cheek-by-jowl with industry and about two thirds of them are in outlying zones, yet they have an irresistible fascination for the deprived. Refugees, immigrants, peasants and minorities converge on cities that are deaf to their needs — and this polarised situation breeds misconceptions about the fate of these people on the fringes.

The big challenge to European civilisation now that the Community's internal frontiers are down is to revive the values of democracy enshrined in the Declaration of Human Rights. If individuals, societies and States are to be organised to live together, then poor people, immigrants and the excluded of every kind have to be included too.

Much has been said about mounting poverty, soaring immigration, population pressure and refugees, i.e. about the need for the have-nots to go to the land of the haves.

The European city, land of ambiguous promise, is seen as a place of both wealth and freedom. Uprooting, which often goes hand in hand with progressive pauperisation, is the price which has to be paid for the keys to the city and to westernisation. In fact, large-scale infra-

structure, all those motorways and railways which cut up our towns and create divisions, exacerbated by the distance from the facilities of the city centre, dooms many seekers after that promise to a life on the margins. The people who live there tend to be young, more than a third of them in the under-20 bracket (which usually accounts for something like a quarter of all urban populations). The couples have more children than average and the working classes and the underprivileged are heavily represented.

Everyone in Europe now feels concerned by the presence of these 'other people'. Socio-cultural differences are hard to come to terms with and may well look like threats and, in the end, individuals have been disoriented by the market economy and by the vast influx of migrants from eastern Europe and the developing countries, which frantic westernisation has triggered.

The acceleration and expansion of political, economic and racial exchange and communication have helped destroy traditional yardsticks and marginalise the living conditions of large sections of the population, facilitating defensive, inward-looking doctrines and clouding hitherto familiar signs. Such ideologies, which are characterised by veiled apprehension of the future and often convey a mythical idea of a not-so-distant past, are frequently inspired by ideas of racial purity, xenophobia and a fear of mixing and losing identity.

After overcoming the tensions and division of the post-war era in only a few years, Europe, which stands for unity and solidarity, is now showing signs of a desire for exclusion imbued with all the weight of history, and questions are being asked about changing or continuing outlooks in an attempt to understand the import of the socio-cultural movements of the late 20th century. Should we mourn the loss of our old points of reference? Should we hope for history to come to a



Lagos, Nigeria

It is the cities towards

which the underprivileged usually gravitate

sudden halt? Should we accept a return to nationalism, xenophobia, racism and integrationism as unavoidable? The ideologies of self-interest and defence in the new world economic structure adjust well to the ideologies of all-out productivity and are reflected in the intolerance of cultural division.

However, European civilisation has always involved several cultures existing side by side, offering maximum diversity, and action to halt social exclusion has to be taken straight away. European Community schemes fostering the integration and dignity of the marginalised sections of society highlight the enormous difference in social management between Europe and the United States.

Developing an integration policy implies that we can no longer ignore the scale of the task and the risk of social explosion that exists. With patient education, it should be possible to ensure the unity in diversity which is vital to the construction of a multicultural, multiracial European civilisation on this, the eve of the third millennium. We need to eliminate all discrimination, prevent conflict by respecting the demands of plurality and bring about more and more contact and exchange. Building that edifice is a task which has to be worked on every day.

P.A.

¹ Ms Antolini, an ethnologist by training, has written various important papers and is particularly well-known for her work on exclusion, *Au delà de la rivière*, published by Nathan.

² And a potential 7.5-9.5 billion by the year 2025, as compared to 5.4 billion today (UN report).

Social exclusion and Community action in Europe *

Extreme, persistent, widespread poverty has robbed more than 50 million Community citizens of their dignity and made them outcasts from the normal life of society.

The fight against social exclusion is a challenge for the 1990s, Padraig Flynn, the member of the Commission responsible for employment and social affairs, announced in June 1993. And Commission President Jacques Delors told the Copenhagen seminar on combating social exclusion that the cohesion of European societies was under threat, primarily because of social disintegration, the fact that many people were unable to find work and the loss of meaning in our societies.

The European models of society and solidarity were being undermined by the growing numbers of the excluded, he said. Had technical progress in fact been put to good use? In recent times, it had done more to destroy jobs than create them. But he refused to believe that there was any contradiction between social security and the fight against exclusion as long as the money used to finance our welfare schemes was not being allocated at the expense of job creation.

'The European model is under threat,' was his final contention. It is threatened from the outside by a new international division of labour and, therefore, by the want of rules whereby internal solidarity could be reconciled with external solidarity. And it is threatened from the inside by a breakdown in social ties, a decline in the feeling of solidarity and the fact that there is no development model which combines competitiveness, cooperation and equal opportunity.

* Source — Commission of the European Communities.



COMMISSION

The Commission of the European Communities was quick to respond to the fifth of its population which had fallen into deprivation. Its paper on a Europe of solidarity (1992) continued the line followed in the three poverty control programmes carried out since 1975.

The European Parliament — a Community instrument

Parliament regrets that the main purpose of the poverty alleviation campaigns has been to back up the Member States' own anti-exclusion efforts and believes that Community programmes from now on should be designed with more reference to the actual possibilities of intervention and the possible effects of the Community instruments.

Here, we see a positive vision of Europe but Jacques Delors fears that solidarity is 'being undermined by the growing numbers of the excluded'

It also wants to stop treating the symptoms of poverty and exclusion and get to the root causes instead. Action should not be confined to social policy either, for poverty alleviation should be a part of every policy pursued by the Community and its Member States, it maintains. With this in mind, it has produced a series of practical proposals on:

- fundamental freedoms and rights;
- social rights;
- family rights;
- faster integration;
- schools;
- the environment;
- changing outlooks.



D. H. CHU, Jensen-Petersen

The despair of the homeless. Social exclusion is also a European phenomenon

The Commission — economic and social integration

The Commission has just put forward a special Community programme to combat exclusion which proposes doubling the amount released for the ongoing

The European cake — there should be enough for everyone but more and more people are having to make do with crumbs from the table



COMMISSION

Poverty 3 programme, to bring the figure to ECU 121 million.

The idea of the new programme is to back up innovations to facilitate economic and social integration — they are to be aimed at marginal or potentially marginal groups or tied to urban/rural development operations — and, although it is mainly the responsibility of the Member States, the Community should be a useful catalyst.

Indeed, the Community has shown that it can both respect the principle of subsidiarity and provide added value when it comes to development, to disseminating innovations, to getting operators moving and to stimulating discussion. The European nature of the programme opens the way for exchanges, comparisons and a new synergy, for which there would have been no room in the purely national contexts.

The Community's approach is founded on a common understanding of the phenomenon of social exclusion. It tackles both the process of exclusion and the various situations which it produces,

typically diverse ones in which a variety of factors combine to encourage the exclusion of particular groups, individuals or sectors from the workings of society and their traditional rights. There is a serious danger of this structural and multidimensional situation getting worse.

Lessons of the past

The analyses of the Poverty 3 action programme focused on the need to:

- concentrate on particular geographical areas and specific categories of strategic problems over a number of years if tangible results are to be obtained;
- promote partnership, in particular with the social partners;
- develop integrated strategies;
- develop synergy between local, regional, national and European levels by providing better support for innovative approaches.

Principles of the action programme

The Commission put forward three main principles — multidimensionality, partnership and participation — and a programme of study and trans-national exchange.

Special attention will be paid to forging stronger links with other Community policies and programmes and, in particular, to improving working relations with the structural funds, in the light of the emphasis which the European Social Fund's new rules put on exclusion from the labour market.

But, as the European Parliament made clear, none of these schemes will work unless there is a radical change in ideas and outlook on poverty and exclusion. ■

D.D.

World social development summit¹

There is a huge increase in social inequality, both between different parts of the world and between different parts of countries, developed and developing alike. Collective wealth, the common environmental heritage, employment, knowledge, power and proper citizenship are unfairly distributed. Both phenomena are getting stronger all the time. This is why the UN has decided to call a World Social Development Summit.

The three aims of this meeting, to be held in Copenhagen on 6-12 March 1995, are to:

- make for greater social integration;
- attenuate and reduce poverty;
- develop productive employment.

New mode of development

The above finding shows that, alongside the end of the cold war and the surge of democracy, major changes are under way in our methods of economic management. Decision-makers and field workers are actively seeking a new mode of development which is focused on the people, sensitive to social needs, keen to combat poverty and hunger, based on and conducive to the development of human resources and both self-sustaining and ecologically rational.

However, the desire to promote development along these lines is being thwarted by the fact that the international economy is clearly slowing down. Yet the world is still firmly divided into rich and poor — rich and poor individuals and rich and poor countries. According to UN figures, almost three quarters of world income (\$20 000 billion) goes to just 16% of the population, concentrated in the de-

veloped countries, while a mere 15% of world income goes to three quarters of the world population, concentrated in the developing countries. A fifth of the world population (upwards of a billion) gets by on just 2% of total world income. There are 180 million of these people living in Africa, 120 million in India, 210 million in China and 75 million in Latin America and the Caribbean, and most of the rest are in the other developing countries.

About 500 million of these poor people, representing 10% of the world population, live in conditions of abject poverty. And in all parts of the developing world, except Asia, the total number of poor is increasing in absolute and relative terms.

The level of poverty and the uneven distribution of income are direct results of the unequal division of capital and technology.

In the developing countries, internal and external factors have upset the traditional social safety nets and made life very much more difficult for vulnerable groups, particularly women and children.

Social and political conflict has also marginalised some groups. The number of refugees in the world has doubled, reaching 20 million in 1992, in just over ten years. There were major cross-frontier population movements over that period, with people shifting from one developing country to another and between developing and developed countries. And immigrants often remain marginalised in their host country.

Social development and integration

'Social development' is used in the broadest sense here to mean a

change leading to a higher standard of living, equal opportunity and the satisfaction of certain basic human needs. It is not to be confused with social assistance.

The three basics, which are social integration, the relief and reduction of poverty and the provision of productive employment, are closely related.

For the UN, the development of productive, remunerative employment is the *sine qua non* of the relief and reduction of poverty and improved social integration. But millions of people in the world have work and still live in poverty, on the fringes of society.

The common denominators of social integration, poverty reduction and productive employment are deprivation and exclusion, both of which are found in every country and at every level of development. They are worldwide phenomena to be tackled with sustained international solidarity and that solidarity should be fostered at the Summit, which should commit itself to the mobilisation and allocation of resources for social development in every country.

One of the main issues which the Summit has to address is how to make the involvement of the poor the common denominator of all development strategies. The poor are not just the recipients of social assistance. They are genuinely productive members of society and the answer to the problems of poverty and social integration lies in boosting their output and improving their access to resources.

Social integration is often taken to mean stability, but apparently stable societies can experience sudden and violent upheavals. So going beyond the general agreement as to the aims and values of society, and to the institutional framework, equal access and equal opportunity constitute one of the pillars of social integration.

¹ Based on papers by the United Nations (Economic and Social Council).

Improving social integration means trying to solve the problems arising from discrimination and social isolation without triggering conflict between the marginalised and the dominant élite. Governments are not alone in shouldering the responsibility for such action. It is also a job for individuals, groups and communities, especially the international community. The keys to social integration are dialogue and peaceful communication.

Reducing poverty

More than a billion people — one fifth of all mankind — have to survive on an annual *per capita* income of less than \$370, which (at 1995 prices) is less than a dollar a day.

The only decline in the number of poor has been in East Asia. It has increased in South Asia, Africa, the Middle East and Latin America, in both relative and absolute terms.

Vigorous, sustained economic growth is vital to the reduction of poverty, obviously, as is clear from the countries of East and South East Asia. But the structure of growth is also important when it comes to boosting the incomes of the poor.

So, as well as a macroeconomic growth policy, there have to be more targeted policies geared to reducing the extent and intensity of poverty. The UN points to the fact that these measures have proved to have more impact when they are designed and applied with the help of the poor themselves and capitalise on their skills and qualifications.

What the Summit has to ask is this: what growth rate is socially necessary and how can it be achieved and maintained in all the countries?

Expanding productive employment

Almost every group in society has seen its rate of unemployment rise over the past ten years. At the beginning of the 1990s, there were an estimated 70 million unemployed in the developing world, 28 million in the developed countries and

7.5 million in the countries in transition (agriculture excluded).

These figures both discount rural unemployment and underemployment and ignore the constantly expanding non-structured sector, although this accounts for more than 60% of the urban labour force in sub-Saharan Africa, 50-75% in South Asia and 10-20% in the new industrial nations of East and South East Asia.

respective roles of government, the market and society.

It will be a great step forward when the word 'social' no longer refers just to welfare schemes and operations in the social sector, but encompasses the idea of 'society' too.

The World Social Development Summit should not be seen as an end in itself, but as the starting point of a process

Poverty in the developing world, 1985-2000

TABLE

Region	Population below the breadline (%)			Number of poor (million)		
	1985	1990	2000	1985	1990	2000
South Asia	51.8	49.0	36.9	532	562	511
East Asia	13.2	11.3	4.2	182	169	73
Middle East and North Africa	30.6	33.1	30.6	60	73	89
Sub-Saharan Africa	47.6	47.8	49.7	184	216	304
Latin America and the Caribbean	22.4	22.5	24.9	87	108	126
Eastern Europe	7.1	7.1	5.8	5	5	4
All low- and medium- income countries	30.5	29.7	24.1	1 051	1 133	1 107

Source: World Bank, report on development in the world, 1992. Development and the environment. New York, Oxford University Press — 1992.

When it comes to job creation, sustained non-inflationary growth is the first essential, obviously. But the UN says that experience shows that it takes more than economic growth to create enough work for the whole of the working population. And we ourselves might add that economic growth, in the developed countries at least, has started to destroy jobs through the spiral of automatic productivity improvements. Many parts of the world have growth without job creation, the UN points out.

which will have practical results, particularly a sharper focus on the social dimension of development and a reformulation of national and international policies to cater for new priorities.

All the nations have a common interest in the progress and social stability of all the others. There is a global dimension to social development. ■ D.D.

For an integrated approach to economic and social issues

The sectoral approach to economic and social issues has to be dropped if unifying themes are to be found. And greater attention has to be paid to the

Safeguarding traditional music in Niamey

Development is hard. Everything has to be done at once. There is the State to build and democracy and the economy to work on and, after years of neglect in the name of progress, there are cultural and moral values to be restored, again in the name of progress. After the Yaoundé Conventions and Lomé I and II, which said little or nothing about culture, the authors of the cooperation agreements between the Community (European Union since 1 November 1993) and the ACP States adjusted their sights and restored culture to its due place in economic and social development.

In 1989, the Community decided to support the creation of a Music Training and Promotion Centre in Niamey,¹ with EDF financing, to 'safeguard and revitalise' the cultural and artistic values of music in Niger. In essence, it involved a two-pronged approach: first, the methodical restoration of the country's music and musical instruments, and second, the teaching of performers to promote traditional music and instruments. Promotion, which entails more than just making people familiar with local music played in traditional ways, involves giving musicians the modern technical facilities they need to make available works which would otherwise be little known at national and particularly international level. The Centre is working on national musicology and has musicians who can play both modern and traditional instruments. The

¹ Centre de Formation et de Promotion Musicale, BP 11203, Niamey — Niger.



Courier was lucky enough to hear them in rehearsal.

The Centre aims high and it has the staff to achieve those aims, for alongside the two technical assistants, Dominique Pagani and Etienne Plagiau, there is Mamane Garba, the ethno-musicologist, as co-director and Issa Daouda as promoter, with Oumou Sissoko to take care of the logistics.

Interest extends to the region as a whole, as illustrated in the festival of African

Musicians in rehearsal during The Courier's visit to the Music Training and Promotion Centre, Niamey, in September 1993

music, scheduled for November 1993. This was designed to bring performers together for a comparison of knowledge and achievements in the matter of musical research.

Director Dominique Pagani's article on safeguarding the musical heritage appears below. ■ L.P.

Safeguarding the musical heritage

by Dominique Pagani

More than 60 countries were represented at the UNESCO headquarters in Paris in June at an international meeting on how to 'safeguard and redynamise' the non-physical heritage. Pilot projects to implement the strategies involved in a programme of this kind had been presented by five countries and the Elhadji Taya Centre in Niamey, Niger's traditional

music watchdog, was singled out as 'exemplary'.

A letter from the Directorate-General of UNESCO to the Commission of the European Communities² even paid tribute to the progress which the Centre, which was set up in 1989 with help from

² Letter from Henri Lopes to Manuel Marín (10 May 1993).

the European Development Fund, had made in both the nation and the region. It is quite unusual for one international body to congratulate another for having achieved its own aims and it will perhaps be easier to understand UNESCO's satisfaction if we try to answer the following questions.

- What makes safeguarding of the non-physical heritage a priority?
- Within the general notion of non-physical heritage, is music predominant or decisive?
- Why does sub-Saharan Africa have such a great traditional music heritage?



The Courier

— Why is Niger, and more specifically the Elhadji Taya Music Training and Promotion Centre, a particularly good location for a pilot project with the twofold aim of safeguarding and revitalising the heritage?

The remoteness of this West African country has given rise to a remarkable musical paradox by helping to prevent Niger's musical culture from being watered down and turned into variety-type entertainment of the sort popular in the last years of the colonial era, that bogus exoticism, that nice soft lilt of what used to be called Afro-Caribbean, then Congolese and then Zairi music, which in fact was no more than musicians playing what the colonials wanted to hear.

Niger, for years only a French military outpost, was the last country in West Africa to be colonised and it was hit by the sweetened version of Saturday Night Fever far later than other countries in the sub-region. But to Niger's young people, the fact that their country had escaped the banal fate of so much of Africa's urban music, increasingly the stuff of unpaid subcontracting in the international music business, was a handicap. The mass desertion of rural areas, which increased sharply with the catastrophic droughts of 1973-74 and 1984-85, pro-

Fati Mariko, one of Africa's finest singers, with backing from the Music Training and Promotion Centre, Miss Mariko is planning an international tour which will take in Europe

duced a whole new urban music generation which was isolated, in two ways, from:

— its traditional origins by the classic phenomenon of acculturation, with its refusal ever to 'go back';
— conversely, the avant-garde of international music, jazz and classical, which no music institution (until the Niamey Centre was opened in 1989) and no national or international mass medium bothered to disseminate. It was an impasse which led the best motivated musicians to set up a major conference at Tillabery in 1985, the most tangible result of which was the creation of the Taya Centre of Music Training and Promotion, financed mainly by the European Community.

The problem is how to express the threefold question which the whole operation inevitably raises:

— Is it the right time yet for this rescue act?

— Can the Sahel countries, particularly Niger, which are finding it extremely difficult to provide the basics of development (self-sufficiency in food, education,

health etc.) afford the sophisticated equipment needed for this?

— Even if the operation is carried out, will the essential not have been sacrificed to the necessary? Because, ultimately, the traditional music which reflects the way of life of the people is supposedly alive, and saving it may well mean embarking on a whole process of redynamisation — a very different job from, say, saving a temple which has been abandoned for 5000 years.

In other words, can the creativity of traditional music survive the society in which it originally emerged? The undeniable singularity of Niger's situation and its unique musical situation (in every sense of the word) suggest that it probably can.

The historical background

Niger is a rare but not unique case of black African cultures thriving alongside a culture which can be handily described as Arab-Mediterranean (covering what the linguists call the Libyan-Berber language area).

But it is the *only* place to be a meeting point both of North and South and between West and Central Africa. Lake Chad, which is at the heart of this region, is still 'the end of the world', whichever country it is approached from, and the remote nature of landlocked Niger, which would in most cases rightly be viewed as a handicap, turns out to be a great asset in the protection of the African musical heritage.

The Taya Centre

No advertising or information campaign has ever succeeded in halting the desertion of rural areas, particularly by youngsters from the Sahel who have drifted into the towns and cities, with all this means in terms of food production.

But instead of moralising, perhaps we should try to understand what it is that underlies this abandonment of the land and to learn the lessons accordingly.

What could make young people stay in their villages?



The Courier

Traditional musical instruments on display at the Centre

There are the obvious things, of course, like availability of work, but what about the opportunity to take a girlfriend or boyfriend out dancing? Or being able to listen to a band? In short, taking the attractions of town life out into the country and recognising that there is also such a thing as cultural desertification. The idea of integrating culture and development started gaining ground when Lomé III was signed. Niger set the tone with its Centre of Music Training and Promotion, which is neither academy nor tourist office for musicians nor ethnomusical research centre but a mixture of all those things, and which provides extensive training for related professions. But what does it have to do with UNESCO's new concept of non-physical heritage?

It is the only organisation south of the Sahara to combine three facilities which are normally separate:

- a school of music (covering all genres, from the classical fugue to bar piano, through traditional instrument classes);

- a research centre investigating Africa's traditional music (with the valuable help of Dr Garba);

- material and above all educational support for all local musicians.

The analogue and digital sound recording equipment for location and studio work is outstanding for the region, as are the camera and projection equipment (VHS and laser) and, of course, the collection of traditional and modern instruments.

The main aim is to develop local music in two ways — by linking young urban musicians with their traditional roots (this approach takes them through the theory and practice of 'classical' music) and encouraging the best young traditional musicians to use their instruments and instrumental skills to play foreign music, from contemporary classical pieces to jazz-rock.

So, instead of traditional music being deliberately forced through an

artificial revitalisation which is bound to end up with the heritage being turned into folklore for tourists (as happens all too often with art and craft), it is involved in a general redynamisation of the music in the region, but as source rather than target.

It need hardly be said that the whole system, far from being confined in an ivory tower of 'culture', is first and foremost an instrument of development with considerable economic spin-off. The Taya Centre has regular earnings from commissions for musical services (film music, partnerships in the production and distribution of audio-visual support) from private operators and the international media, so a new focus of cultural engineering is taking shape where it was least expected. This is something worth thinking about in the light of the emergence of culture as an important issue during the GATT negotiations. ■

D.P.

Saving Biodiversity

A programme has been launched to save the crop plants of the Third World from extinction. The Community Biodiversity Development and Conservation programme (CBDC) is an attempt to safeguard the plant varieties which have fed the populations of Africa, Asia, and the Americas over the past millenia and, indirectly, those of Europe in more recent times. These landraces, which are uniquely adapted to local conditions, are now in danger of being replaced by artificially synthesised varieties from the West, or of simply being lost forever due to the destruction of their environment.

The programme was launched on 12 December 1993 during a seminar at the Agricultural University of Wageningen, in Holland. *Jaap Hardon*, the director of the University's Centre for Genetic Resources, and one of the initiators of the programme says: 'It's high time that the voice of the farmer was heard. The formal system must learn from farmers rather than replacing them.' The programme is the outward expression of a new, slow 'green revolution'. The role of the farmer, often a woman, in the process of conservation and improvement of seeds is now achieving just recognition. Alongside this is the realisation that agricultural societies have evolved their own methods of safeguarding the biodiversity of crop strains.

A book entitled 'Cultivating Knowledge'¹ was launched during the seminar. It is a collection of articles by specialists in the field which argue for the inclusion of small-scale cultivators in agricultural programmes. It also calls for the conservation of genetic resources to be included in all new agricultural programmes run by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). The articles argue that conservation should be increasingly carried out *in situ*. That is to say, the best way to protect genetic resources (and by far the

most economical) is to maintain their natural habitats, rather than stockpiling them in genebanks, which are mostly situated in the developing countries. This will require more cooperation between farmers, the NGOs and the authorities in the countries concerned — something which has proven problematic in the past.

Melaku Worede, President of the Commission for Genetic Resources of the UN's Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) and ex-director of the Centre for Plant Genetic Resources in Ethiopia, says his country symbolises the paradox that many other countries are experiencing. Ethiopia has suffered numerous famines in recent years despite the fact that the country possesses more wheat strains than the rest of the world put together. The diversity of microclimates — from the rugged mountains in the north to the tropical forests of the south — provides a rich spectrum of different varieties of many species: barley, chickpea, sorghum, etc. These landraces are uniquely adapted to their particular environments.

Worede says: 'The farmers know a lot more about conservation than all of us experts put together. I've learnt that from my own experience. And all this knowledge is untapped. In the beginning of the droughts in the eighties there were cases of people eating all their seed. They were then forced to sow the grain given to them in food aid.' During the famines, the Centre for Plant Genetic Resources mounted a campaign to preserve as many varieties as possible before they died out. The seeds gathered were then redistributed to the farmers at the end of the emergency period.

Worede considers that the danger of imported seeds doesn't just lie in the fact that they consist of only a few different varieties and so do little to enrich the existing biodiversity. According to him,

'far from enriching biodiversity, a monoculture destroys it by replacing it. Monocultures are also very susceptible to disease'. The spectre of a new pest completely wiping out a variety haunts the biotechnicians incessantly, whereas there are always certain varieties which are more resistant to new pests within the mosaic of varieties produced by natural selection.

The poor farmers in the three countries of Africa's Great Lakes region — Rwanda, Zaire and Burundi — are those most at risk, according to *Louise Sperling*, an ex-researcher for the International Tropical Agriculture Centre. Sperling adds: 'Often, they sell all their grain at harvest time and buy inferior quality seed from the market later on. In Rwanda, 37% of poor small-scale farmers buy all of their seed on the market. In Zaire, it is more than half and in Burundi the situation is even worse with 71% using lower quality seed.'

Rural wisdom

Farmers' experience in seed selection is unsurpassed in Rwanda. A recent field experiment in which farmers were pitted against local breeders ended with the farmers clear winners. The farmer's bean selections gave production increases of up to 36% whereas the breeders only succeeded in getting improvements of up to 8%.

The superiority of local wisdom also applies to biodiversity conservation. It is often ancient traditions which require that the local inhabitants protect their environment. Whether amongst the Australian aborigines, the Buddhist peasants of China or the indigenous peoples of Micronesia and Hawaii, the ancient customs are consistently centred around the sacredness of the world surrounding them.

Canadian *Lawrence Hamilton*, co-author of the collective work entitled 'Ethics, Religion and Biodiversity'² and

² 'Ethics, Religion and Biodiversity: Relations between Conservation and Cultural Values,' 1993. Published by White Horse Press, 10 High Street, Knapwell, Cambridge CB3 8NR, UK. Price £29.95, paperback £14.95.

¹ 'Cultivating Knowledge: Genetic diversity, farmer experimentation and crop research,' 1993. Published by Intermediate Technology, 103-105 Southampton Row, London WC1B 4HH, UK. Price £22.50, paperback £8.95.

coordinator of a renewable resources programme in Asia and the Pacific, believes that the solution is to use the knowledge of the indigenous people. 'The application of ecological science alone will not prevent the loss of genes, species and ecosystems.'

Biotechnology playing at God

Over the past twenty years, genetic engineering has been widely considered as the panacea for all the ills of agricultural societies. This approach offers many advantages. Biotechnology is capable of circumventing natural barriers to the selection of improved varieties. The extreme case in point is the fusion of two completely different species which biotechnology permits. 'Playing at God' in the developed world has given new varieties of wheat and rice which have yielded significantly better harvests. Unfortunately, only the prairie farmers of the US and the farmers of the intensive rice-farming paddies of South-East Asia have benefited financially from this. Genetic engineering has tended to ignore those species which are the basic diet of many peoples in the developing world.

To make matters worse, artificial varieties need massive quantities of herbicides, pesticides and fertilisers which most developing countries can only dream of affording. In the same vein, they cannot adopt western irrigation and agricultural methods, given that equipment, spare parts and fuel must be paid for in precious hard currency.

While this may seem highly disadvantageous to Third World countries, it is worth asking the question: Is the hi-tech creation and growth of new species actually more efficient? Chilean scientist *Camila Montecinos* of the Latin American Consortium for Agroecology and Development warns against allowing ourselves to be blinded by science. Montecinos says: 'The biotechnology company Pioneer Hybrid has failed to outperform the maize which grows in the Lake Titicaca region. They've never managed to create a variety which could survive at such an altitude and in such low temperatures.' It is in the Andes

that agriculture reaches its highest point on the planet — at 4300 metres. The mountains are home to a large number of microclimates and micro-ecoregions which are subjected to severe solar irradiation.

In another case, a group of Danish researchers succeeded in reducing the cyanide-toxicity of cassava (also known as manioc or tapioca), which is the staple foodstuff of 200 million Africans. However, these experiments resulted in an improvement which hardly exceeded that obtained by selective breeding in the field. This so-called 'lo-tech' method is cheaper than the biotechnological alternative and the plants produced are immediately adapted to the local environment.

The question of appropriate technology also concerns conservation. In Ethiopia, the Centre for Plant Genetic Resources subsidises farmers so that they can grow less productive varieties. The Centre pays the difference between the average harvest and that of the less-productive variety grown. The annual cost is less than the electricity bill for the seed bank in Addis Ababa.

North-South exchange: a one-way road

The laboratories of the industrialised world have used the landraces of the South to improve the seeds grown, in Europe and in North America in particular. The introduction of the 'yellow dwarf' landrace, a barley variety native to Ethiopia, into European strains protected them from the ravages of the 'powdery mildew' pest. According to Melaku Worede, this saves the brewing industry \$100m per year.

Pat Roy Mooney, Executive-Director of the Rural Advancement Foundation International (RAFI) and one of the co-authors of 'Cultivating Knowledge', has calculated the benefit to the North of the genetic manipulation of wheat strains carried out by the farmers of the South. Mooney estimates that 'the North benefits by \$2.7m per year. To say nothing of the benefits accrued with other species... Most genebank directors privately acknowledge that farmers' varieties have made an immense contribution.'

Despite the juicy profits gleaned in the West, the South has received peanuts in return. The budget for the Centre for the Improvement of Maize and Wheat (CIMMYT), based in Mexico, was only \$27.1m in 1990. The developed world finances CIMMYT as well as the International Rice Institute (IRRI) in the Philippines. Mooney cites the estimate for improvements to western rice harvests at \$677m per year. In 1990, IRRI's budget was \$30.6m. A 1985 study carried out in America showed that tropical maize had only been incorporated into 0.1% of the maize harvest. This minuscule percentage was worth \$20m per year. Recently, the breeders associated with CIMMYT have reported that almost 30% of requests for tropical varieties come from private companies, a percentage which is growing rapidly.

Mooney emphasises the inevitable necessity of a transformation of the institutions in order to create a strategy for supporting the interests of informal networks of small-scale farmers. Does the renaissance of the International Institute for Plant Genetic Resources in Rome herald a new dawn in North-South cooperation? In the past, the institute had been accused of simply being an agent for western laboratories and companies.

The CBDC programme creates new issues for the NGOs. According to *Tony Bebbington*, from the Overseas Development Institute in London, 'there is a certain fear that the NGOs would simply play the role of the authorities... The autonomy of the institutions is also at stake.'

It came as no surprise that the green revolution of the sixties and seventies did not put an end to famine in the world. In Africa, for example, there simply was no green revolution. The chances of this new revolution do not look rosy. However, Melaku Worede is not confident about the alternative: 'I see Africa being transformed into a giant monoculture cheap labour farm. The governments are pushing farmers to adopt the modern methods while the multinationals are bribing them to carry out this policy. I don't see any possible success coming out of that.'

Stuart YOUNG

Southern Africa has just experienced its worst drought in 50 years. The crisis was so severe that its onset could not be missed. International donors were ready to respond and indeed took a lead.

This was a major advance, even if it had taken 20 years to achieve. The Bretton Woods institutions were particularly anxious that hard-won support for economic reform should not be derailed and played a major part in mobilising international resources. The speed of government response was more variable.

Few governments or donors had retained the lessons of past experience in institutional memory. In particular, there was an almost universal failure to recognise that drought needs to figure in economic reform programme design and that it requires a more sophisticated and calibrated response than the wholesale deliveries of food aid. As a result, response to drought was, at best, a hastily constructed add-on to programmes designed to mitigate the social costs of economic adjustment. More often, it bore neither conceptual nor operational relationship to long term programmes and policies.

Some lessons from Southern Africa

In Southern Africa, agriculture is closely linked with other productive sectors and with the macroeconomy as a whole. As a result, the effects of drought were not confined to an isolated peasant sector but induced a widespread recession. People lost their jobs in construction and mining, both substantial users of water, as well as in commercial agriculture. Agro-processing either prospered, if food aid donors could be persuaded to import unprocessed food commodities, or suffered from supply shortages if they could not. Energy from hydro-electricity generators had to be rationed affecting industries and services as well as households. The result was a reduction in alternative employment opportunities and remittance

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Getting drought on to the policy agenda

by Roger HAY *

incomes, a crucial factor for many rural households, exacerbating drought's direct effects on rural incomes and employment.

Second, drought was superimposed on long-term declines in the balance between people, on the one hand, and land and water on the other. Stocks of underground water are being used up in countries such as Botswana and Namibia more quickly than they are being replenished, primarily by mining companies and large-scale commercial farmers. Although the land seems empty compared with West Africa or Asia,

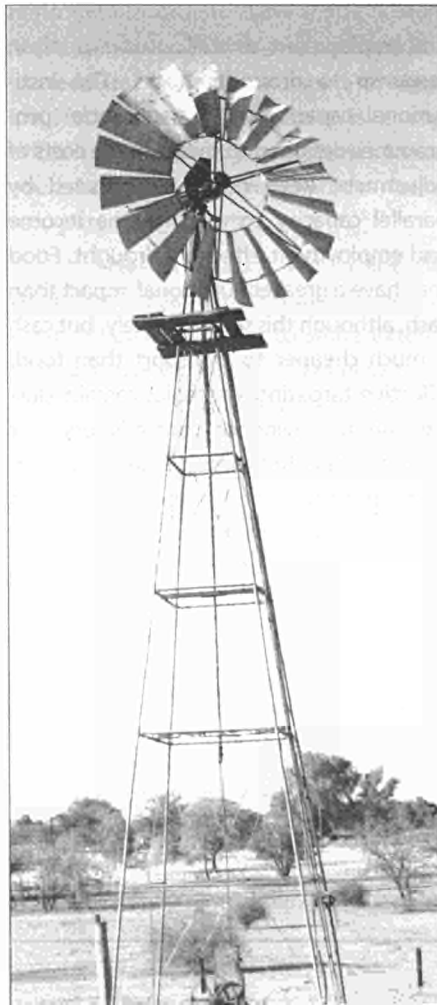
A wind-powered water pump in Namibia
'Stocks of underground water are being used up more quickly than they are being replenished'

there are twice as many people farming as there were 20 years ago and an increasing number are attempting to grow crops in conditions which are too dry for arable agriculture. Employment growth in other sectors is nowhere equal to the number of new job-seekers so that this pressure on increasingly scarce natural resources looks set to continue. The drought accelerated these long-term trends.

Third, the design of reform in drought-prone countries cannot afford to assume steady-state growth. Drought may exacerbate the problems which led to the need for reform: poor growth performance and government account and trade balance deficits. It may also be impossible to achieve macroeconomic targets if drought risk is disregarded. Reasonable consumer price stability may be difficult to secure in the face of a drought shock if public trading capacity has been reduced or dismantled before private capacity has had time to develop. Arrangements for public intervention to supply rural markets in drought years while private trading is gathering strength are a *sine qua non* of prudent market reform. More generally, an assessment of drought risk needs to have a greater influence on both private and public investment choices.

Fourth, the superimposition of a drought shock on economic reform requires different operational strategies. Drought may jeopardise the reform process itself. Reforms are likely to proceed more rapidly and have wider support when times are good. They may have to be halted or even reversed when times are hard. Embryonic markets for food and labour, previously supplanted by regulation, can be easily undermined by public distribution and employment programmes. Trucking food into rural areas past traders struggling to set up in business is in conflict with strategies aimed at supporting the growth of private trade. Embryonic

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markets, however, can also easily be overwhelmed if undue reliance is placed on them.

Finally, the drought-induced depletion of household assets affects the poorest first and most. Not only does this lead to a greater concentration of wealth, but it may result in a new class of impoverishment. This poses sharp dilemmas for private choice and public policy. Farming families may migrate to urban centres for wage employment, if jobs exist. If they do not, rural job-seekers may face even greater risks in urban labour markets. On the other hand, a prolongation of safety-net transfers in the presence of high structural unemployment is the surest way to induce dependency.

Economic policy in drought-prone countries

As long as drought continues to be regarded as unusual, unexpected and unknown in its impact, economic planners will ignore it. However, drought is not uncertain; it is a known hazard. The first key to more effective drought management therefore lies in turning drought uncertainty into a measured risk by estimating the chances of its occurrence. It may then be possible to decide how this risk should be financed. Fiscal provisions for drought expenditure are made only by Botswana and South Africa. Even if other countries believe that insuring themselves against drought is unaffordable, they might explore the possibility of regional insurance schemes, or insuring with the international donor community. This would have the advantage of setting clear criteria for a draw on resources when the rains fail.

Secondly, the direction and rate at which drought accelerates structural changes in the composition of incomes, employment, output and natural resource base needs to be examined. Otherwise policies can easily be directed at prolonging unviable economic activities. This is perhaps most important in the case of agriculture, where continued investment in, or subsidies to, farming on marginal land increases the long-term risks attached to livelihoods and accelerates environ-



(GT/Suzanne Esch)

mental degradation. Instead, more emphasis needs to be placed on public transfers, investment and job creation where the latter has a chance of being permanent.

A third issue is the need to find more efficient ways of stabilising incomes and employment, as well as food supply in response to drought shocks. The institutional capacity to manage social programmes designed to mitigate the costs of adjustment need not be duplicated by parallel capacity to manage the income and employment effects of drought. Food may have a greater nutritional impact than cash, although this seems unlikely, but cash is much cheaper to transport than food. Effective targeting strategies remain elusive and the evidence contradictory. For example, the Botswana experience suggests that public and private remittances may have maintained income and consumption distribution during drought years but that measures of wealth have become more unequal. Other evidence from the same country suggests that the lowest 40% of income earners receive less than 10% of government transfers.

Finally, government policy needs to be feasible as well as effective. Employment programmes may be better than free handouts, but the task of finding new

'As long as drought continues to be regarded as unusual, unexpected and unknown in its impact, economic planners will ignore it'

employment for three million people in three months is certain to be overwhelming. However, contracts with the private sector and NGOs, in food marketing, employment management and transport, may mobilise additional organisational capacities. The state could, for instance, provide financial incentives for private enterprises to take on more apprentices, or pay for training schemes, when drought increases unemployment. The management of more conventional labour-intensive works programmes could also be contracted out to the private sector. Public-private sector contracts may be a way of avoiding heavy public intervention and capitalising on private sector efficiencies but leaving the final responsibility for social welfare in public hands.

Making drought management a more central part of economic strategy should be part of the agenda for African governments and donors during the 1990s. ■

R.H.

A veteran of communication lays down his sword

Hubert Ferraton is taking his last leave at the end of more than 30 years of service in the European Community. During the past 20 years, he has been involved in the field of 'communication and development' within the Commission's information department, latterly heading the unit responsible for this work. Before clearing his desk for the last time, Mr Ferraton speaks frankly to *The Courier* about the difficulties facing 'development communication' specialists in a world of restricted budgets and competing priorities.

He begins — in response to a question about the changes he has witnessed over the past two decades — on a rather pessimistic note, pointing to a 'deterioration' in the situation in many countries. He speaks regretfully of the 'decomposition' of third world societies' and, referring particularly to Africa, suggests that while people no longer wish 'to be what they are', they have not succeeded in coming up with an alternative model. He refers obliquely to the process whereby old elites are driven out by new ones which then use their privileged position to feather their own nests.

Hubert Ferraton insists that communication is an essential element for both development and democracy. 'And there is another dimension', he adds, 'which is in cooperation at a regional or intercontinental level. How', he asks pointedly, 'can you cooperate with someone with whom you can't communicate?'

Despite this self-evident assertion, the former Community official suggests that development agencies have traditionally devoted insufficient resources to communication as a component of cooperation policy, although recently, he says, he has seen some signs of improvement. He points out that the sums of money required are not enormous. He particularly favours local radio, with a significant input from local people, citing tests carried out by NGOs showing that this kind of approach could be very successful.

The problem, in his view, is that 'actors' in the development arena seldom make proper provision for communication.



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Hubert Ferraton

'A need clearly exists, and some of those involved can see this, but it is always difficult to get funding for projects because you cannot rely on communication being recognised as a priority.'

He continues: 'We in the development organisations have tended to mistrust communication to some extent: both because we don't really know much about it, and because it is a politically delicate area.'

Ferraton argues passionately in favour of a better overall framework for communication policy, to replace what he sees as the current *ad hoc* approach which relies heavily on the enthusiasm or persistence of particular individuals, whether ministers or officials. He acknowledges recent improvements in this area but appears to doubt whether those working for development in the public sector — ambassadors and other civil servants — have the appropriate 'communication reflex'. On a more positive note, he sees

hope for progress in the many countries which are now governed by democratically elected regimes. There is a new 'dynamism' there, he agrees but he adds a *caveat*: the people concerned still have 'very limited means... and perhaps not enough political security and stability to fly the flag from the mast.'

Hubert Ferraton admits, in conclusion, that 'things never go as fast or as far as one would like', but as he takes his well-earned retirement, he may take some satisfaction from his own unstinting efforts to fly the flag of 'communication'. Just as secrecy and misinformation are the hallmarks of totalitarian systems, democracy depends on communication and knowledge to prosper. And in a world of emerging (and renewing) democracies, his dream to see his chosen professional field higher on the agenda may now stand a better chance of coming true. ■

Interview by Stuart YOUNG

With or without the support of the Governments and sometimes even without their authorisation, free radio has taken off in Africa. It will probably have a far greater influence and a far greater following there than the written press, which is still only distributed to the élite in the cities, and it will no doubt be quicker at shrugging off State supervision than television, which is a powerful means of communication, but a very expensive one.

Free radio, be it funded by advertising or associations, is becoming a way for the population to say what it thinks and thus of ensuring that the people take an active part in the social and political life of the country.

Local radio helps consolidate the democratic process; but there are formidable obstacles to overcome before it can actually do so, for promoters, national governments and international organisations have to join forces to promote free, independent, pluralist services first.

Those were the conclusions of a conference on pluralism in West African radio in Bamako (Mali) on 14-18 September 1993, an event organised by the Panos Institute of Paris and UJAO, the

* Official of the EC Commission (DG X) with responsibility for information on development cooperation policy.

Community, democracy and radio

The European Community has always attached a great deal of importance to human rights and democracy, which it believes are one way of assessing any development

programme or project.

Since 1992, it has had a special budget line to provide backing for human rights and democratic support schemes.

The European Commission is well aware that a free and responsible press is one of the pillars of democracy and of a State which respects the rule of law and it has welcomed projects designed to support a pluralist press. In March 1993, it set up a conference with bodies representing the press in North and South to determine the criteria and arrangements for aid for press support operations and that year gave ECU 2.4 million in grants to schemes to help

the independent press with freedom of expression, vocational training for journalists and press company managers, legislation and professional ethics and improvements to sources of information.

The written press got the lion's share of the funding, on top of the advantages of the drive to defend the freedom of the press, which benefited the sector as a whole. In the radio sector specifically, there was Community support for training schemes for radio journalists and technicians, plus various surveys and studies (including groundwork for Bamako)¹ on the situation and prospects for independent radio in Africa.

¹ The Panos Institute and l'Harmattan, the publisher, have brought out the West African radio surveys in two volumes (ISBN: 2-7384-2153-9).

Conference on pluralism in radio

Support free radio and consolidate democracy

by Mark LEYSEN *

West African Journalists' Union, with substantial financial backing from the Ford Foundation and a contribution from the European Commission. The vast majority of those taking part were representatives of State radios, association radios and free radios in the countries of ECOWAS, but there were also delegates from international radio (the BBC World Service, RFI and Radio Nederland), German, Swiss, Danish and Canadian cooperation and international institutions and organisations (UNICEF, UNESCO, ECOWAS, CILSS, URTNA/CIERRO, CRDI and the Commission of the European Communities).

The patron was the President of the Republic of Mali, Alpha Oumar Konaré, who displayed a genuine interest in the work of the conference — he made the opening speech and met a delegation of

participants — while the Communications Minister, either in person or through a close associate, followed the events closely.

Democratisation

The conference highlighted the close, two-way link between free radio and democratisation.

First of all, it is clear that there can be no free radio before at least a start has been made on the democratic process. Without freedom of the airwaves, be it *de facto* or *de jure*, and without the possibility of obtaining a frequency, free radio can only be pirate radio. But this is an area in which things move very slowly and very differently from one country to another. The groundwork for the conference, in the form of surveys on radio in the 16 countries of ECOWAS (except Liberia), painted a complete picture of what is going on, revealing very different situations, but a very clear trend towards State withdrawal from the mass media, under pressure of the concepts of democratisation, privatisation and structural adjustment. National radio and TV Offices (ORTM and ORTS) are dropping the 'O' in their titles and setting up as independent Organisations in preparation for privatisation and, most important, they are abandoning their monopoly of the airwaves and leaving the way clear for free radio.

The advance guard of free radio tends to be rural radio and community radio, often operating in a grey legal area and broadcasting on an unused frequency pending the freedom of the airwaves. Commercial radio then follows in their footsteps as soon as it gets a licence to broadcast. Under their influence, the newly independent State radio metamorphoses and 'His Master's Voice' becomes a means of communication which has to cater for the needs and desires of the audience.

Recommendations

We, the participants at the Bamako Conference, recommend that:
promoters of private radio and conference participants:

- 1) create associations of radio broadcasters, at national scale, to defend the interests of radio promoters and professionals and act as an interface between them and the institutions of regional cooperation. (It has been decided to call an inaugural congress within a reasonable time, with a view to regional cooperation);
- 2) officially transmit the Bamako Declaration to the President of the Republic of Mali to enable him to plead for it with his fellow leaders as well as at ECOWAS, the OAU and the United Nations;
- 3) run national and regional lobbying operations to promote pluralism of the airwaves and disseminate the texts of this Conference and implement its recommendations;
- 4) create a newsletter-link bulletin for radio broadcasters in West Africa and their partners;
- 5) organise study trips and exchanges between those involved in pluralist radio;
- 6) twin radios stations and federations (South-South and South-North);
- 7) ensure that professionals and their organisations adopt codes of professional ethics;
- 8) set up purchasing centres and a data base of available equipment;
- 9) set up radio equipment upkeep and maintenance units;
- 10) set up sound libraries for the regional distribution of programmes, particularly in the languages most commonly spoken. Such libraries should be located in institutions able to monitor and manage this service;

the States of West Africa:

- 11) design, pass and apply laws and regulations on the pluralism of information, with particular reference to radio;
- 12) set up independent regulatory structures to ensure that the texts are applied and organise the allocation of frequencies;

the national and regional bodies concerned:

- 13) improve existing training centres and adapt them to the new situation in radio broadcasting;
- 14) start up new courses in these centres, in particular to build the capacities of radio broadcasters in such areas as management, organisation and radio research and ensure that journalists specialise more in socially useful subjects;

the funders:

- 15) set up a programme production support fund for the various categories of radio, particularly local ones, so as to promote information on subjects related to sustainable development;
- 16) seek institutional and financial means of providing efficient back-up for the liberalisation of the airwaves in West Africa and, in particular, for the recommendations of the Bamako Conference;

the Conference organisers:

- 17) set up a coordinating committee to ensure national and regional monitoring of the recommendations of the Bamako Conference and look into ways of setting up a radio pluralism observatory, in the medium term, as recommended by the President of Mali at the opening ceremony;

the various Malian pluralist radio operators:

- 18) organise a two-yearly regional festival, forum or other event to promote thriving pluralist radio in Africa — another suggestion from the President of Mali's opening speech at the Bamako Conference.

There is no doubt that this gradually helps to consolidate the democratic process. One of the most efficient weapons of dictatorship is absence of information — silence. But free radio makes a noise. Independent radio provides news produced at low cost for a small audience. Radio can be broadcast anywhere and received everywhere. So it is always close by.

In Africa, the low cost of production (as compared to television) and the low cost of dissemination (as compared to the written press), the large numbers of FM sets and the poor rate of literacy make radio, especially local radio, the most cost effective of all the media. The diversity of its sources and information spells affordable pluralism and its associative and interactive nature can significantly improve people's active involvement in political life.

Obstacles

The scenario, alas, is not quite so idyllic in all the countries of Africa.

In many, the people in power are keen to keep their monopoly over broadcasting and, even where free radio is now legally possible, setting it up is not always easy, for equipment is expensive, maintenance is hard to organise, technicians are badly trained, production companies and associations are fragile, journalists lack professional ethics and the authorities rarely cooperate. A free, independent, viable radio can only emerge where there is national and international support for capacity building and training.

The Bamako conference recommended promoting free radio (see box) through:

- freedom of the airwaves and legislation to ensure the pluralism of radio;
- the creation of a regional free radio organisation to produce, in particular, a newsletter, promote twinning (South-South and South-North) and set up purchasing centres and maintenance units;
- the extension of existing training facilities to offer specific local radio courses;
- a radio production support fund.

Free radio has so far had only very modest support from the community of funders, as most support for the media has

gone to the written press. This was the first to emancipate itself, of course, and the first to provide impartial, independent information. But, as someone at the conference said, compare radio with the way the

written press has developed over the past few years and radio can be seen to be moving along similar lines, but faster — the same film, in a way, but speeded up. ■

M.L.

In a recent survey for the newspaper *La Croix L'Événement*, France's CSA Institute investigated French attitudes to work and the drive to tackle the unemployment problem.

Jobs emerged as a major concern in France (where, according to figures published in November 1993, 12% of the working population are unemployed) and the Institute decided to make the survey an international one and find out whether the French fears were shared by people in 11 other countries.

Identical questions were, therefore, put to national samples in four EU countries (Germany, Italy, Spain and the UK), three former Eastern bloc nations (Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland) and four others (the USA, Australia, India and Argentina).

In one of the questions, respondents were given 13 subjects and asked to list their personal concerns from among them in declining order of importance. The 13 subjects were:

1. drugs
2. corruption
3. employment
4. the environment
5. world hunger
6. social inequality
7. inflation
8. the threat of war
9. standard of living
10. racism
11. social security
12. Aids
13. violence/safety.

To determine the main concerns in each country, the Institute looked at the top three chosen by each respondent (this explains the totals, which exceed 100%). Employment, which was the biggest concern of French respondents, cited by 61% of those polled, cropped up again as the

The main concerns of the late 20th century

major worry in four other countries — Australia (78%), Spain (63%), Italy (57%) and India (56%). It came second in the UK (50%), third in Hungary (71%), fourth in the USA (34%) and Poland (41%), fifth in Bulgaria (25%), sixth in Germany (60%) and tenth in Argentina (28%).

However, violence/safety was in the lead in four countries — the UK (66%), Poland (56%), the USA (55%) and Bulgaria (60%). It also came second in Australia (70%) and Argentina (71%) and third in Spain (47%), France (38%) and Germany (63%).

The first three concerns across the 12 countries included:

- drugs in five (including Argentina, where it was in the lead);
- inflation in four (including Hungary, where it shared the lead with standard of living);
- standard of living in three;
- Aids in three (including the USA and France, both of which have been badly hit by the disease);
- the environment in two (number one concern in Germany and number three in Australia);
- war in two (Germany and Italy); and
- corruption in one (India).

Four of the subjects listed — world hunger, social inequality, racism and social security — did not, therefore, feature among the main concerns of the people in the countries under investigation. Social inequality came right at the

bottom of the list in most samples and world hunger was at the bottom of India's list.

Although employment and violence/safety emerge as the commonest concerns overall, there is still some contrast between public opinion in the various countries, reflecting the different peoples and cultures. In Eastern Europe (Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland), for example, standard of living and inflation are thought to be more serious than joblessness. This is doubtless because the whole population is affected by inflation, which is not the case for unemployment. And while Aids is a leading concern in some countries, for the people of India and Argentina the problem of corruption is seen as more important.

When it comes to solving the problems — in this case unemployment — different countries look to very different authorities, reflecting the variations in their economic and political situations.

It comes as no surprise to discover that respondents in the USA look first to the heads of the nation's firms to solve the job crisis. There, the Federal Government is only in fourth place behind the local authorities (the State governments) and the unions. Equally unsurprising is the fact that the Germans, with their social-democratic tradition, put the State first before those who run the private sector. Reflecting presumably the weakness of the State, the Italians put it in third place behind company heads and the unions.

Night work is seen as a good way of easing unemployment in economically developed countries such as Australia, the

TABLE 1

Who do you expect to solve the unemployment problem?	Germany		Argentina		Australia		Bulgaria		Spain		USA		France		UK		Hungary		India		Italy		Poland	
	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank	%	(1) rank
Government	45	1	45	1	19	4	37	1	27	3	19	4	33	1	22	1	31	3	56	1	16	4	39	1
Bosses	36	2	28	2	35	2	16	3	34	1	29	1	32	2	22	1	17	4	13	4	17	2	4	5
Local authorities	17	4	14	5	20	1	11	4	8	5	25	2	13	4	13	5	41	2	16	2	12	6	19	2
Trade unions	19	3	11	6	20	3	9	6	30	2	20	3	9	5	22	1	45	1	8	5	17	2	12	3
Associations	6	6	25	3	8	6	10	5	9	4	5	6	8	6	8	6	16	5	5	6	14	5	4	5
No-one (unprompted reply)	7	5	20	4	10	5	31	2	8	5	7	5	17	3	16	4	16	5	15	3	23	1	9	4
Don't know	13		4		8		6		6		5		10		12		5		5		11		13	

(1) Percentage totals exceed 100 because subjects gave more than one answer.

TABLE 2

Do you agree/disagree that the following could help create jobs for the unemployed?

	Germany %	Argentina %	Australia %	Bulgaria %	Spain %	USA %	France %	UK %	Hungary %	India %	Italy %	Poland %
Night work												
Agree	49	50	83	25	56	87	67	86	31	46	58	32
Disagree	42	44	14	64	42	11	27	10	64	52	37	51
Don't know	9	6	3	11	2	2	6	4	5	2	5	17
Sunday working												
Agree	26	20	69	24	31	61	53	71	16	46	38	16
Disagree	67	77	29	65	67	37	43	25	80	53	58	76
Don't know	7	3	2	11	2	2	4	4	4	1	4	8
Shorter hours plus a corresponding pay out												
Agree	29	10	38	14	51	26	43	30	13	41	50	11
Disagree	61	87	58	74	45	70	52	61	82	57	45	82
Don't know	10	3	4	12	4	4	5	9	5	2	5	7
One household member giving up work												
Agree	25	8	37	18	42	19	30	18	4	39	43	6
Disagree	64	87	54	73	49	75	60	70	92	58	45	86
Don't know	11	5	9	9	9	6	10	12	4	3	12	8

USA, France and the UK. There is less enthusiasm for it in Germany, however (49% approval), while it is an approach which is massively rejected in the former Communist countries.

Sunday work attracts a fairly similar response. Germany stands out from the rest of the more developed countries surveyed with only 26% in agreement, although Spain (31%) and Italy (36%) are also lukewarm. The firmest rejection of the idea is in Poland, where only 16% of respondents would agree to work on Sundays.

The idea of shorter hours and less pay was accepted, and even then by only a narrow margin, in just two countries — Spain (51%) and Italy (50%). This approach found least favour in Poland, Hungary and Argentina.

In no country was there a majority in favour of the proposition that one of the members of the household should give up work. In only Spain and Italy did the percentage in favour of this exceed 40%.

Table 3 reveals that a high percentage of those surveyed — approaching

one in two — in Bulgaria, Spain and Portugal, were concerned about losing their jobs. On the other hand, fear of unemployment is low in the USA (18%) and Germany (15%), where the market economy has a strong profile. A higher level of concern (29% — similar to the French figure of 30%) was recorded in the UK, despite its apparent confidence in the liberal economic system. Hungary, with 60% unconcerned about job security, stands apart from the other eastern countries, perhaps reflecting its greater success in adapting to a free market economy.

Without taking the interpretation of the survey further, and whatever we may think of the indicative value of opinion polls, do we really need to be told about the job crisis, the problems of violence and drug-taking, countries where the standard of living is less than satisfactory, diseases such as Aids, the mounting threat to the environment, corruption, social inequality, exclusion and persistent racism? For the truth is that we are all too aware of these problems already. We learn about them second-hand from our televi-

sion screens and, increasingly, first-hand, as impotent victims.

There are no ready-made answers to the concerns of our global village. But, taking each day as it comes, we need to find those answers because there is no salvation in flight. Despite all the difficulties that have attended its birth, and its continuing limitations, the European Union — with the backing of all its citizens — should be able to find those answers. It may be that the Member States' adoption of the Commission White Paper at the European Summit on 10 and 11 December 1993 points the way. But there are other ways that exist, or are still to be explored and discovered. It is a job for the young and indeed the not-so-young. Both should pay heed to the words of *Denis de Rougemont* who said: 'Those who lose face in the eyes of History will be those who said that Europe was finished when it was there to be built.'

Jeanne REMACLE

TABLE 3

Do you think you might lose your job over the next year? (people in work) ¹

	Germany %	Argentina %	Australia %	Bulgaria %	Spain %	USA %	France %	UK %	Hungary %	India %	Italy %	Poland %
— Yes	15	37	25	51	49	18	30	29	37	22	39	48
— No	79	59	73	49	48	81	68	66	60	73	60	46
— Don't know	6	4	2	—	3	1	2	5	3	5	1	6
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

¹ TRADUCTION???

Human resources development in agricultural information services

CTA's experience with PROGEFIA *

by M.-J. JEHL

Training in order to strengthen human and institutional capacities has become a very important part of development activities in the Third World. With the changing of the working environment and the rapid evolution of technologies, even educated people need further opportunities to build up their skills. Even the most brilliant scientist or information specialist is no exception and needs to improve and update the necessary knowledge and master the new techniques required to be efficient.

Unless information is used effectively and information units are properly organised, the development of the rural sector in the less developed countries, especially in the ACP states, cannot be sustained.

The Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation (CTA), which was set up under the Lomé Convention,

* General Programme for Training in Agricultural Information.

contributes to agricultural and rural development by providing the ACP countries with better access to scientific and technical information on agricultural research and rural development. Its mandate lays stress on the integration of information into development strategies in ACP states.

The Centre's aim is to develop the ACP's own capacity to produce, acquire and transfer agricultural, scientific and technical information. To achieve this, it relies on a regional and national information network which is steadily being established. The development of such a network requires a greater investment in the training of agricultural information specialists.

It has been noted that the major constraints in developing information and documentation infrastructures in ACP countries are the lack of qualified human resources and the high level of staff turnover. Many agricultural information professionals have difficulties in applying their professional knowledge to their work situation as their educational background does not match the requirements. In addition, their institutions are not sufficiently geared to furthering staff development in information services.

To overcome these constraints, the Centre has set up various training courses to meet the immediate needs of agricultural information officers so that they are better equipped to handle users' requests and to organise and manage documentation centres.

First, several workshops on 'Agricultural Information Sources' were held:

for French-speaking African countries, in Senegal (1986), for English-speaking African countries, in Malawi (1987) and, for the Caribbean region, in Trinidad and Tobago (1988). These courses were designed to develop the participants' capacity to manage the various aspects of documentation (research, collection, processing and dissemination) and to give them a better understanding of their role as purveyors of information.

After 1988, following the recommendations of Harry East's (FID) evaluation of CTA courses, the Centre embarked on a series of courses on 'Management of Agricultural Information Services'. These were held in Zambia (1989), Jamaica (1990) and Cameroon (1991). The main aim of these courses was to develop the participants' management techniques as well as their ability to justify and implement a programme for the development of users' services or of necessary organisational changes.

Like many other institutions, CTA considers that there is a need to restructure training opportunities so as to meet the demands for training from ACP countries, avoid redundancies and use the available resources in a rational way.

A meeting on international cooperation in the training of agricultural librarians and documentalists, held in Rome in June 1988 at the invitation of CTA, recommended the drawing up of a general programme for education in agricultural information which could serve as a platform for a collective effort aimed at overcoming these obstacles.



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PROGEFIA

In 1989, in accordance with this recommendation, CTA carried out a study of a training programme entitled the 'General Programme for Training in Agricultural Information' (PROGEFIA). This proposes a long-term master plan for education in agricultural information in the developing countries and especially in the ACP states.

The provision of specialised education for the various categories of personnel who contribute to agricultural information activities in these countries is limited and there are many obstacles to its efficiency.

The main sets of information functions are identified for the various categories of staff in three major groups: information producers/users, computer specialists and information specialists. Fourteen general education modules, whose objectives, levels and contents are outlined, have been defined. Five are about management of information services and resources, six are about organisation, processing and utilisation of information, and three are about computer applications, including a module for instructor training.

Five modules, including the one for instructor training, and a number of specific sub-modules, have been given priority as they are considered to meet the most pressing needs of the national agricultural information systems.

Most of the training is directly relevant to the routine activities of information officers. Admission should be linked to agreements between the participants, the organisations to which they belong and the organisations offering the education, with a view to ensuring that staff turnover is low and that the minimum conditions required for putting the acquired skills into practice are created by carrying out previously specified operations in the framework of developing agricultural information systems.

The implementation of PROGEFIA will require annual consultation between educational institutions specialising in agricultural information and cen-

tres for practical training which are willing to cooperate in order to develop their activities on the lines laid down by PROGEFIA. The action plan for the next five years covers the following areas:

— priority for short, specialised courses in information processing, microcomputing and management of information services and products;

— surveys of information needs: all relevant institutions must define their information needs and examine ways of participating in the plan at national and regional levels;

— production of teaching materials and directories to support training in agricultural information;

— instructor training;

— regular consultation, on an annual basis, with the major contributors such as EIB/ACCT (Ecole Internationale de Bordeaux), CAB International, CIRAD (Centre de coopération internationale en recherche agronomique pour le développement), the University of Botswana, EBAD (Ecole des bibliothécaires, archivistes et documentalistes, Senegal) and IDRC (International Development Research Centre), to discuss

and consider methods of interaction and cooperation.

CTA's activities within PROGEFIA

Since the consultation in Gabon, CTA has held several short training courses, produced a directory, undertaken regional needs assessments and assisted in the development of academic programmes in agricultural information.

Short-term training courses

Micro-computing: In view of the rapid development of new technologies in information, training in the use of microcomputers in the management of agricultural information is clearly a priority. The objectives of such courses are to make participants conversant with the process and methods of building information resources, to develop their skills in creating and maintaining information storage and retrieval systems relevant to their users, and to improve their skills in developing and managing relevant information products and services. The courses, held between 1990 and 1993, were divided into two modules of four weeks each. Between the modules, the participants had one year

TABLE 1

Courses organised by CTA within PROGEFIA

Title	Place	Year	Region
Micro-informatique documentaire pour la gestion de l'information agricole — niveau 1,2	Bordeaux Dakar	1990 1991	Francophone Africa
+ Perfectionnement en micro-informatique pour la gestion de l'information agricole	Bordeaux	1992	Francophone Africa
Use of microcomputers in the management of agricultural information services	Lilongwe	1990	Southern Africa
+ Use of microcomputers in the management of information services in agroforestry — level 1 & 2	Nairobi Addis Ababa	1992 1993	East & Southern Africa
Use of microcomputer in the management of agricultural information services in the Caribbean — level 1 & 2	Trinidad Trinidad	1992 1993	Caribbean
Gestion des services d'information agricole	Yaoundé	1991	Francophone Africa
Management of agricultural information services	Lusaka	1989	East & Southern Africa
Management of agricultural information services in the Caribbean	Kingston	1990	Caribbean
Traitement de l'information agricole	Yamoussoukro	1992	Francophone Africa
Utilisation of CD-ROM in agricultural information	Lilongwe	1993	Southern Africa

to apply their knowledge to their jobs and to link it with practical experience — which is crucial to any approach to database management — before attending the advanced module the following year.

Management and marketing of information: A number of courses in this area are planned for this year. The main aim of the training is to improve the ability of information officers to arrange and manage their centres for maximum efficiency and cost effectiveness. It includes courses in information product management, assessment of users' needs and information marketing techniques.

Processing of agricultural documentation and information: Training sessions on basic information processing and handling of documents are offered on a regular basis to documentation units whose staff have no professional qualifications or technical skills.

In the Pacific region, the long distances between countries make it more appropriate for the requisite training courses to be conducted on a national rather than a regional level. Each year, CTA supports a few short workshops organised by IRETA (the Institute for Research, Extension and Training in Agriculture, which operates in the Pacific region).

All the courses described above are oriented towards the trainees' needs. The courses are tailored to fit the trainees' specific work situation and environment, as most agricultural information professionals expect solutions to their immediate, everyday problems. Emphasis is placed on practical, problem-solving approaches rather than theory. Participants will be able to apply their newly-acquired knowledge on their jobs. The training provides short-term payoffs by increasing the performance of the workers at all levels.

Directories and teaching materials

CTA has produced a directory of Information Resources in the Training of Agricultural Information', in collaboration with the IDS (Institute of Development Studies) in the United Kingdom. The aim of the directory is to document existing resources to facilitate the identification of future trainers.

Publications on the creation and management of an agricultural inform-

ation library have been published jointly with SATIS (Socially Appropriate Technology Information System) in the Netherlands and IRETA in the Pacific. These are available to agricultural information specialists.

Assessments of users' needs

Over the last three years, CTA has carried out various regional studies on information needs in the agricultural sectors in Central, Western and Eastern Africa. Training ranks high among the priority requirements identified through these studies. Two other studies were already available for Southern Africa and the Caribbean. The results of these studies are complemented by recommendations from participants at previous CTA courses, and by interviews and group discussions with information personnel during regional or international meetings.

Development of academic programmes

With CTA's support, the University of Botswana undertook a preparatory study for setting up a programme leading to a certificate in agricultural information. The needs were assessed and a proposal prepared for the Board of the University. The first such course is being offered this year.

Annual consultation

Since 1990, two consultations have taken place at CTA with PROGEFIA partners. The next one will be held in November 1994 and the central theme will be the training of trainers.

'New seeds of knowledge will be sown that will be able to take root, grow and reproduce themselves'



Instructor training

In future, the Centre will be directing its energy to the training of potential instructors. It is hoped that these instructors will then take on the task of analysing the training needs in their countries or regions, translating these needs into training programmes and developing their knowledge in order to organise, manage and evaluate such programmes.

In 1992, a consultation on instructor training was held in Dakar, Senegal. This brought together 36 specialists in training and agricultural information to discuss a plan of action, formulate specific objectives, identify curricula and adopt teaching methods as well as to identify the resources needed (professional expertise, institutions, equipment etc.) and suggest evaluation techniques and follow-up activities.

A second meeting will be held at EIB, France, at the end of April 1994, to translate the recommendations of the Senegal consultation into a coherent training programme, including tuition and production of training material for the following two years.

Conclusions

Over the past seven years, CTA has managed to train more than 250 agricultural information officers on the various regional courses mentioned above. Yet this is a drop in the ocean considering the real demand. The Centre is increasingly feeling the need to scale up its efforts in training by building up national capacity to take over some of the training at a local level.

This new move will create conditions in which the impact of training can quickly be increased. New seeds of knowledge will be sown that will be able to take root, grow and reproduce themselves. It is up to each of the newly trained instructors to make this newly planted capital of knowledge fruitful in his or her own country. The long-term consequence is that a wider audience will be reached on a sustainable basis as the knowledge will trickle down and spread on a national level. ■

M.-J.J.

Analytical index 1993

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THE CONVENTION AT WORK

EUROPEAN DEVELOPMENT FUND

Following, where required, favourable opinions from the EDF Committee, the Commission has decided to provide grants and special loans from the 5th, 6th and 7th EDFs to finance the following operations (grants unless otherwise stated):

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE

Swaziland: ECU 1.1m for equipment improvements and expanded accommodation at the Vocational and Commercial Training Institute (VOCTIM) in Matsapha.

Kenya: ECU 0.385m to upgrade and extend a clinic in Nairobi specialising in the treatment of AIDS and sexually-transmitted diseases.

Mali: ECU 1.989m to improve village water infrastructures.

Fiji: ECU 1.135m to rebuild the Vunidawa and Korovou bridges.

Sierra Leone: ECU 7m for water supplies and the improvement of hygiene in the rural communities of five regions in the Northern Province.

Guyana: ECU 4.5m for the second phase of the New Amsterdam water supply project.

Chad: ECU 8.3m for a village water project involving the sinking of new boreholes, rehabilitation of existing wells and, in time, the building of new wells.

Congo: ECU 10m to support the implementation of the national sanitary development programme.

Chad: ECU 7m for the upgrading and maintenance of rural roads, with a view to facilitating the transport of cotton.

Benin: ECU 16m as a contribution to the cost of rebuilding the Parakou-Djougou road.

Gabon: ECU 11m to support the rehabilitation of the national health system.

Somalia: ECU 38m for the rehabilitation programme.

Suriname: ECU 4.5m, of which ECU 1.8m is in the form of a loan, for resurfacing a section of the main coast road linking the capital with the eastern frontier of Guyana.

Mozambique: ECU 12m for a reconstruction and resettlement programme, the latter being aimed at returning people displaced by the war to their home areas.

Mali: ECU 5m for a development support programme in 11 'secondary' towns in the Segou and Mopti regions.

Mali: ECU 2.9m to help bring about long-term improvements in the availability of drinking water through the provision of 70 supply points, powered by solar pumps, in rural and semi-urban areas.

Mauritius: ECU 7m to improve the irrigation infrastructure on the west coast.

Indian Ocean countries (Madagascar, Mauritius, Seychelles, Comoros): ECU 3.3m for the complete automation of telecommunications in the region.

Jamaica: ECU 25m (special loan from the Sysmin funds of the 5th EDF, transferred to the 7th EDF) for the upgrading of the sewerage systems of Negril and Ocho Rios.

Cameroon, Central African Republic: ECU 1.5m for a feasibility study in connection with the rehabilitation of the Bertoua-Garoua-Boulaï road.

TRADE PROMOTION/ STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT

Guinea Bissau: ECU 8m from the structural adjustment facility to support a general import programme.

Ethiopia: ECU 75m to support a general import programme.

AGRICULTURE

SADC countries (Angola, Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe): ECU 10m for a programme against foot and mouth disease in Southern Africa.

Central African countries (Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon): ECU 2m for a regional project in support of the banana research activities of the CRBP (Centre Régional Bananiers et Plantains) in Nyombé, Cameroon.

West African countries (Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Niger, Senegal): ECU 2.8m to participate in a research programme on the improvement and management of fallow lands.

Burkina Faso: ECU 9.6m for a sectoral livestock support programme.

ENTERPRISE

SADC countries: ECU 1.5m to support the 'EEC-Southern African Mining Forum' organisation.

EDUCATION

Mozambique: ECU 1.95m for financial support to Mozambican students in Eastern Europe.

ENVIRONMENT

Mali: ECU 6.81m for the battle against desertification and for the development of forest resources in the northern regions of the country.

Botswana: ECU 6.4m, for infrastructure, equipment and technical assistance for the use and protection of natural resources in the centre and south of the country.

INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

Uganda: ECU 1.5m, in the form of equipment, and technical and financial assistance, for the External Aid Coordination Department (EACD) of the Ministry of Finance.

Uganda: ECU 1.95m to support the election process for the Constitutive Assembly.

Central African countries (Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon): ECU 5.5m for the TIPAC (inter-state transit for the countries of Central Africa) regional project, in the form of technical assistance and training for the national TIPAC committees.

PALOP countries (Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe): ECU 4.3m for a training programme to be undertaken by CENFA (the Cape Verde national centre for training in public administration).

MISCELLANEOUS

Burkina Faso: ECU 2m for technical assistance and the provision of services for the Bagre hydro-agricultural scheme.

Countries of Southern and Eastern Africa (10 SADC countries — Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe — and three others — Comoros, Uganda and Ethiopia): ECU 4.95m to support the Eastern and Southern Africa Mineral Resources Development Centre (ESAMRDC). The assistance will be in the form of computer facilities, technical assistance and training.

Malawi: ECU 3.222m in the form of basic equipment and support for infrastructure and social services (roads, wells and health centres) for Mozambican refugees.

Burkina Faso: ECU 1m (Sysmin advance) for urgent assistance to the 'Société de Recherches et d'Exploitation Minières' designed to reduce costs and re-establish production capacity.

Pacific ACP States (Fiji, Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Western Samoa): ECU 5m for a regional project to evaluate and control tuna stocks in the South Pacific.

EUROPEAN INVESTMENT BANK

Loans

Tuvalu: ECU 500 000 to finance investments by SMEs in the manufacturing, agro-industrial, transport, tourism and industry-related service sectors.

Eastern Caribbean (Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines): ECU 3m to support investments in SMEs, principally in the tourist sector.

French Polynesia: ECU 10m for SME projects in the industrial, agro-industrial, fisheries, tourism and productive infrastructure sectors.

Zimbabwe: ECU 37m towards the cost of building a 400 km-long high-tension electricity line linking up with the South African network (from Matimba in the Transvaal, through Botswana, to the western frontier of Zimbabwe).

Zimbabwe: ECU 7m in risk capital to boost the finances of a private sector enterprise (Art Corporation Ltd), aimed at improving production of plastic and paper products.

MISCELLANEOUS

Eritrea joins Lomé Convention

The newly independent state of Eritrea in East Africa has become the 70th ACP State to subscribe to the Lomé Convention. The country seceded from Ethiopia, a party to the Convention, and declared its independence on 24 May 1993, but the new government announced that it would abide by the principle that a successor state continues to observe the treaties signed by its predecessor. A decision by the ACP-EC Council of Ministers dated 22 October 1993 has now laid down that the Convention will continue to apply to Eritrea as from 24 May, including those parts of it (Articles 329 to 331) which provide for special treatment for the least-developed ACP States.

Economic and Social Committee issues its Opinion on the Lomé IV mid-term review

On 21 October, the Economic and Social Committee of the EU, which brings together representatives of businesses, trade unions and consumers, adopted an 'Opinion' on the subject of the forthcoming mid-term review of Lomé IV.

Among its general conclusions, the Committee believes that revision is necessary to take account of the changed international context. It argues, however, that 'every effort should be made at least to maintain the real value of the Community's financial assistance to ACP countries for the second half of the ten-year period.'

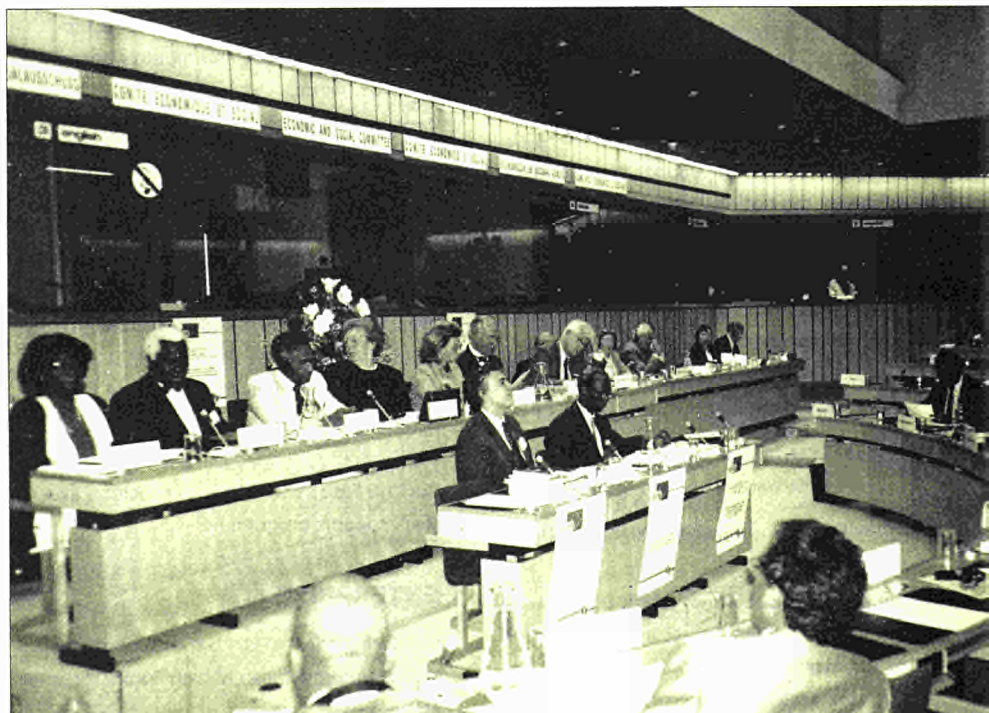
As regards specific aspects of the relationship, the ESC endorses the view that it should be possible to reduce or suspend aid in the event of sustained government breaches of human rights, the 'flouting' of free election results or the toppling of freely elected governments by force.' As a corollary to this, it should also be possible to enhance aid in response to progress in democratisation. Particular emphasis is given to the subject of decentralised cooperation, notably as regards encouraging small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the ACP States. The ESC also calls for closer control of, and greater transparency in, the procedures for selecting projects and awarding contracts. At the same time, it suggests greater devolution of decision-making from Brussels to the delegations, a process which

would require increasing the staff of the latter. Other areas covered in the Opinion include a proposal relating to debt reduction, a suggestion that new settlement procedures be established for dealing with disputes between the partners and a plea for greater leeway for NGOs to undertake small scale projects without the need for prior agreement from the ACP authorities.

Turning point for Economic and Social Partners

The economic and social partners are calling for a greater role in the national development funding programmes (the 'indicative programmes') agreed between the European Community and the ACP countries and have laid down a detailed set of proposals which they hope will be taken up by the ACP-EC Joint Assembly. In their final declaration on 8 December, following three days of discussion, the ACP and EC economic and social partners (the latter being members of the EC's Economic and Social Committee), called for the institutions of the European Union and the governments of the Member States to encourage ACP governments to involve representatives of industry, unions and agriculture in the construction of national economic policies. The declaration also calls for direct funding for projects in the ACP countries by the European Union, circumventing in certain cases the pre-

A view of the platform party at the Social Partners Meeting, held in Brussels in December



sent intermediary role of the national government of the country concerned. This procedure would take the form of a time-limit for a reply from the national government, after which the European Commission would be able to authorise funding, providing there was no objection from the national government.

The economic and social partners are also demanding a report on past investments by the EC in the ACP countries. They criticised, furthermore, what they saw as a lack of contact between EC delegations in the ACP countries and the local representatives of business, workers, farmers, women's groups and others. The declaration calls for EC delegations to be mandated to facilitate effective decentralised cooperation.

The participants also proposed the creation of a 'Follow-up Committee' comprising 12 ACP and 12 European representatives. The task of this committee would be to ensure that the viewpoint of the economic and social partners was heard by the institutions of the Lomé Convention during the negotiations relating to the mid-term review.

The Follow-up Committee would also conduct a trial procedure in six ACP countries aimed at the participation of the economic and social partners in the establishment of cooperation programmes under Lomé IV.

The ACP co-rapporteur, *Seydou Diarra*, who is President of the Côte d'Ivoire Chamber of Commerce stated: 'The European Union and the ACP-EC Joint Assembly have ignored the economic and social partners for too long.'

He added that the declaration was a 'turning point' for them. 'It is the culmination of three years work and is the first concrete and detailed set of proposals since our annual meetings began 17 years ago.' ■ S.Y.

The importance of being young

The Lomé Convention's contribution to youth went under the microscope at the fourth Assembly of Youth from the EC and ACP countries, held in Brussels on 10-14 October. While their elders were meeting in the Joint Assembly to debate the Convention's revision, the younger generation was emphasising the importance of youth — who make up a significant proportion of the ACP population. At the end of the proceedings, the Assembly adopted the second cooperation programme between youth organisations in the EC and ACP States.

EUROPEAN UNION

MEPs welcome Commission's ECU 1 billion rehabilitation proposal

The European Parliament's Development Committee has welcomed a proposal from the Commission to allocate ECU 1 billion to a special support programme to restore the economic and social structure of developing countries after crises, wars or major natural disasters. According to the proposal, the European Community would contribute 60% of the rehabilitation funds, with the Member States supplying the remainder. Priority would be given to Africa, where the countries most in need of this type of bridging aid between emergency assistance and long-term development are — Somalia, Angola, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Liberia and Mozambique. The Community has already committed ECU 100m to rehabilitation work in Africa this year, but the Development Committee believes that a single emergency programme is not sufficient, and calls for a permanent facility of this type to be established within the Community budget, so that it can be called on at short notice whenever the need arises.

At the committee's meeting on 4/5 November, its rapporteur on rehabilitation, *Sotiris Kostopoulos* (Socialist), said there should be better international cooperation in this area, plus more money from the Member States, and that procedures for paying out such aid should be speeded up. Programmes should focus on agricultural production, food security and the rebuilding of basic social infrastructure, and the people living in the countries concerned should be fully involved. *Margaret Daly* (European People's Party) added that locally available materials should be used where possible, as a contribution towards sustainable development at a later stage. The initial impetus for rehabilitation measures in Africa came from European NGOs a year ago.

A further call for increased funds for rehabilitation came in a report on the situation in Somalia by *Luciano Vecchi* (Soc.). *Maria Luisa Cassanmagnago Cerretti* (EPP) insisted that priority go to making sure that basic health, education and training services operated and that farming and herding could be resumed. The committee noted that the civil war was still raging despite the presence of UN peacekeeping forces, and called on the UN Se-

curity Council to reconsider its policy and its objectives in Somalia as a matter of urgency. The UN must keep troops there, however, to ensure that humanitarian aid is properly delivered and to help bring about reconciliation — though any political solution to the conflict must be found by the Somalis themselves. The report called on the EC Commission to reopen its office in Somalia and said the Community should use all the unused funds still available under the country's national indicative programme and Lomé III to develop those parts of Somalia outside the capital, Mogadishu, where comparative peace prevailed.

At the same meeting, the Development Committee adopted a report by *Maria Belo* (Soc.) on social protection for volunteer development workers, calling for binding Community legislation which would encourage more qualified young people to volunteer their services in developing countries by guaranteeing them a level of social security coverage while abroad comparable to what they would receive in their home countries. The committee also asked the Commission to investigate ways of setting up a European volunteer service and suggested that work done for it by young people could be treated as an alternative to military service.

At the end of 1992 there were nearly 9000 volunteers from the 12 EC Member States working in the developing countries, primarily in Africa. A survey done in the 1980s showed that 30% of volunteers were couples, often with dependent children, and that four out of five of all volunteers did not renew their contracts because of the serious social insurance problems they faced while overseas. Several hundred volunteers working for NGOs are jointly financed by the EC, but there is no funding for recruiting such workers under the Lomé IV Convention, a situation which Parliament believes should be corrected.

In an opinion on energy and development drafted by *Marijke Van Hemeldonck* (Soc.), the committee said it was assumed that in 20 years' time the developing countries would be using as much energy as the industrialised countries use today. Indeed, the developing countries possess a substantial proportion of the worldwide reserves of traditional sources of energy, including almost half the world's natural gas reserves. But increasing energy consumption poses a threat to the environment, so new technologies need to be developed and introduced to allow a switch to alternative sources of energy, such as biogas produced from slaughterhouse waste, manufactured vegetable oils which can be used in internal combustion engines, geothermic heat, wind and solar energy. In particular, the com-

mittee believes that development aid should be put into building up the infrastructure for solar energy, an inexhaustible source which in the near future is expected to meet some 50% of the energy requirements of the developing countries. The use of nuclear power, on the other hand, was fraught with problems, owing to difficulties with safety, reprocessing and storage, the possibility of using fissile material in the arms industry and the unstable political and social situation in a number of developing countries. ■ R.R.

NGOs meet Manuel Marin

A delegation from the Liaison Committee representing the Development NGOs in the European Union met Commissioner Marin on 30 November to discuss, among other things, the mid-term review of the Lomé Convention. This was the first meeting to be held in the context of Mr Marin's decision to engage in a more organised and systematic dialogue with the non-governmental organisations. The NGOs subsequently issued a statement setting out some of their views on the future of the Lomé system. They agreed that common ground existed between themselves and the Commission regarding the objectives (democracy, human rights, proper management, rapid and flexible procedures, and efficiency) but stressed the need for vigilance in safeguarding the Lomé 'spirit of partnership'. They also urged that the 'treatment' prescribed to make the Convention more effective should not result in 'killing the patient', and affirmed their desire to continue acting as the 'agents of European public opinion' in the Lomé IV discussions.

Denmark leads the field

Denmark may have started the jitters about the Maastricht Treaty, but it also leads the field when it comes to implementing the European single market. A new survey shows that most Member States are badly behind in turning EC single market legislation into the necessary national law. Out of 219 items in the Internal Market White Paper for transposition, only 106 had been brought into force in all 12 Member States — nine months after the official opening of the frontiers! Denmark had already incorporated 94% of the Community legislation required, at the time the study was completed, while Greece, at the bottom of the table, had managed only 77%.

COMMON FOREIGN AND SECURITY POLICY

The European Union has, within the framework of its Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP), recently issued the following statements on events of international interest:

Statement on Congo 18 November 1993

The European Union is following with great concern recent developments in the situation in Congo. It particularly deplores the violence and disorder which have caused numerous innocent victims in the capital of the country and have resulted in a climate of insecurity. The European Union appeals to all parties and authorities concerned to show moderation and pursue a constructive dialogue in the spirit of conciliation which marked the Libreville Agreement and with respect for democratic institutions.

The European Union reiterates its support for the Libreville Agreement, which it is helping to follow up together with other members of the international community. In this context it is more than ever essential that the international arbitration board dealing with the electoral dispute can carry out its task in complete independence and tranquillity. The European Union considers that all Congolese must make every conceivable effort to ensure that the electoral process is finally brought to a conclusion without disturbance.

Statement on Nigeria 19 November 1993

The European Union condemns the fact that the democratic process in Nigeria has been interrupted through the resumption of power by a military dictatorship, which constitutes a serious setback for both Nigeria and the whole of Africa. It strongly urges the Nigerian military authorities to reestablish democratic institutions with all speed.

The European Union has decided to examine without delay the consequences of this regression in the democratic process in Nigeria.

GENERAL INFORMATION

European Economic Area

The agreement on the European Economic Area (EEA) which was signed in Oporto on 2 May 1992 by the European Community and its Member States, and by the EFTA countries, entered into force on 1 January 1994. The Agreement creates a unified market, modelled on the EC's Single Market with common rules and conditions of competition, backed up by the necessary machinery and arbitration arrangements.

Of the seven EFTA countries, five (Austria, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden) are participating in the agreement. Although originally a signatory, Switzerland was unable to enter the system following the 'no' vote in that country's referendum. The seventh EFTA member, Liechtenstein has close legal and administrative ties with Switzerland which effectively rule out EEA membership in the meantime.

The EEA will radically alter the EU's relationship with the five participating EFTA countries. The 1972 and 1973 Free Trade Agreements were essentially concerned with the elimination of customs duties on industrial products. The EEA Agreement goes further, establishing the 'four freedoms' laid down by the Treaty of Rome relating to the movement of goods, persons, capital and labour. The five EFTA countries will, with certain exceptions, adopt existing Community legislation relating to these freedoms although transition periods are allowed in certain sectors. Special arrangements for agriculture, fisheries and transport are laid down in bilateral agreements.

The EFTA Surveillance Authority will monitor application of the EEA rules in the participating EFTA countries and the EFTA Court will have jurisdiction.

In addition to implementing the four freedoms, the EEA Agreement aims to strengthen and expand the ECU's relations with the participating EFTA countries by a process of extensive and balanced cooperation:

- in fields relating to economic activity which directly affect the four freedoms — the so-called 'horizontal' policies, including social policy, consumer protection, the environment, statistics and company law;

- in areas subject to Community 'flanking' policies outside the four freedoms, in the form

of EFTA participation in Community programmes, projects and actions concerning research and development, the environment, social policy, information services, education, training and youth, small and medium sized enterprises, tourism, the audiovisual sector and civil protection.

In the interests of narrowing the social and economic disparities within the EEA, the participating countries are setting up a financial mechanism to provide assistance in the form of interest-rate subsidies and grants to the poorer regions of the EU.

The Agreement establishes permanent arrangements allowing the EFTA countries to be informed and consulted throughout the gestation of Community acts in order to facilitate their application to the whole EEA. Rules are laid down for surveillance and implementation, dispute settlement and arbitration.

The EEA's institutional framework consists of the EEA Council, responsible for giving political impetus to the implementation of the Agreement and laying down general guidelines, the EEA Joint Committee, whose work should contribute to closer mutual understanding between the Community and EFTA countries, and the EEA Consultative Committee, a forum for contacts between representatives of the social partners.

African elected to be new Director-General of FAO

In the course of its conference, which was held in Rome from 6 to 25 November, the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) elected *Jacques Diouf* of Senegal to the post of Director-General. Of the 162 votes cast in the final round of voting, 90 went to Mr Diouf as against 72 for the Australian candidate, Mr Miller.

Mr Diouf (57) is a high level agricultural and financial expert and his appointment is being seen as a gesture of confidence in Africa by the majority of FAO members who wish to counteract the apparent marginalisation of the continent.

For the first time since its admission to the FAO, the European Union was represented by its agricultural and rural development commissioner in the person of *René Steichen*.

During his speech, Mr Steichen gave an assessment of cooperation between the FAO and the European Union and expressed the wish that this should develop further. He laid special emphasis on the question of specific EU action as regards increasing agricultural production and strengthening food security in the developing countries.

Common Market in Eastern and Southern Africa

On 5 November in Kampala (Uganda), 15 countries signed the treaty which is designed to turn the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern African States (PTA) into a Common Market (COMESA). The PTA has, since its foundation in 1981, been gradually implementing a programme of reduction of tariff and non-tariff barriers as well as promoting intra-regional trade. The transformation into a Common Market was envisaged in the original PTA Treaty.

15 countries have signed the treaty: Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia.

The signing ceremony took place during the summit meeting of the PTA Authority. The PTA currently has 23 members and the Kampala summit was also attended by observers from the South African Government, the African National Congress, the Inkatha Freedom Party and the Pan-African Congress. International organisations which assist the PTA, including the European Union (which has financed some of the preparatory work for the new treaty), were also present.

UNIDO Report predicts higher growth

Economic growth in the South is outstripping that in the North and this looks set to continue in 1994. This is one of the main conclusions of *Industry and Development: Global Report 1993/94* issued in November by the UN Industrial Development Organisation.

The UNIDO publication presents an overview of current changes in the international economic environment together with short- and medium-term growth projections for all countries and regions of the world.

Overall world output is forecast to rise by 3.1% during 1994 (1% in 1993) while the prediction for global manufacturing is +3.6% (almost stagnant in 1993).

Technological change and liberal, market-based economic policies are seen as the major factors likely to boost the global economy. These factors have forced industrial enterprises in both North and South to become more efficient through restructuring.

As regards the developed world, the Report foresees in the short term, sluggish recovery in the USA, and continuing recession in Western Europe and Japan. By contrast, a 4% increase in output is expected in the develop-

ing countries as a whole. The medium term projection, covering the next five years, is even more encouraging with growth expected to average 4.4%. China, which is excluded from the list of developing countries for this purpose looks as if it will be the star performer, with output rising by an average of 8% annually over the next five years.

The Report also contrasts the experience of Asia and the Pacific on the one hand and sub-Saharan Africa, on the other. It concludes that although the export successes of Asian countries have more to do with individual country experiences than trade policy and markets reforms, some aspects of the Asian model may offer broad lessons for the world's poorest continent.

Andean Group woo European traders and investors

Latin America is opening up to international markets and eager for Europe to help it play its part in the global economy.

This was the message to European businessmen and financiers at a conference in Brussels in November at which government ministers and representatives of trade and industry from South America introduced them to trade and investment opportunities in the new Andean market. Speakers were joined on the platform by the Vice-President of the European Commission and Member responsible for development cooperation, *Manuel Marín*, and the President of the European Union's Council of Budget Ministers and Deputy Prime Minister of Belgium, *Herman Van Rompuy*, for a detailed exploration of present and future relations between the Union and the Pact.

The Andean Pact is a grouping of five Latin American countries, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela, which agreed at Cartagena in 1969 to liberalise trade, integrate their economies and create programmes of regional investment (Chile was also a member until 1976). Put together, their territories are twice the size of the European Union, with a present population of nearly 100 million, and they are rich in mineral and hydrocarbon resources, though inhospitable terrain and large distances are serious obstacles to integration. In the early years, dirigiste policies of import substitution and external protectionism were pursued, while foreign investment in the region was restricted, so that more advanced technology was also kept out. In 1989, however, the Pact was relaunched with a decision to set up a free trade zone (the first of its kind in Latin America) and establish a common external tariff. This goal was achieved in 1992.

The President of the Andean Pact Council of Ministers, *Miguel Rodríguez Mendoza*, who is a Minister of State of Venezuela, told the meeting that on 1 January 1994 the free trade zone would become a customs union, the first ever in the developing world, and the objective was to build an economic area in which the five member countries could exchange goods, services and capital without restrictions by the year 2000. The new open attitude to international markets meant diversifying production and becoming competitive, which would require investment. The minister also hoped the EU could now allow Andean metal, mechanical and agricultural products access to its markets.

Looking at trade in the other direction, the greatest rise in exports from the European Community to another part of the world in the three years to 1992 was in exports to Latin America, which rose by 33%, compared with an increase of 20% to the ASEAN countries and falls of 3% in exports to EFTA and 4% to the United States and Canada. There was a 30% rise in exports to the countries of the Andean Pact alone.

Mr Marín of the Commission said the European Union had followed the democratisation process in Latin America with great interest; it saw integration as the best response to the challenge of international competition and the best safeguard against political introspection and crossborder conflict. But the Union was not seeking to impose a European model of integration. The European Community had set the tone for its relations with the Andean Pact in a new cooperation agreement signed in April 1993. This was built on respect for democratic values and human rights; support for social programmes and action to alleviate poverty, particularly in order to offset the rigours of the structural adjustment programmes which the Andean countries had been brave enough to set in motion; cooperation in development through financial and technical assistance and economic cooperation; trade relations, with a system of Andean Preferences serving to help economies and societies rocked by civil strife and drug trafficking to reconstruct and diversify; and institutional relations through the Board of the Cartagena Agreement, which runs the Andean Group, plus political dialogue. But ultimately it was up to the Andean countries themselves to make this work: 'The essential condition for the success of development cooperation,' the Commissioner said, 'is the firmness and seriousness of the internal policies pursued by the recipient states.' And there was an important role for entrepreneurs: 'Only societies which succeed in

equipping themselves with a network of healthy, dynamic and competitive enterprises, especially small and medium ones, will find a way out of the crisis.'

Mr Van Rompuy, speaking for the EU's Council of Ministers, said that the Union was far ahead of the United States and Japan in institutional support for the Andean Pact and just behind the US in trade relations. Capital which had fled Latin America in the 1980s was now flooding back — and this was mainly private money, a sign of investor confidence. Social inequalities in Andean countries must be addressed, however, or the resulting political unrest would drive that investment back out again.

The attractions for European entrepreneurs were set out by the Coordinator of the Board of the Cartagena Agreement, *Manuel José Cardenas*. The Andean Group possesses over 50% of Latin America's proven and probable oil and natural gas reserves, 53% of its coal reserves, 40% of the region's hydroelectric potential and about 10% of the world's copper reserves. The President of the Andean Business Confederation, Venezuela, *Edgard Romero Nava*, invited European businessmen to look at the opportunities for joint ventures in tourism, construction, the service sector, aluminium extraction and hydrocarbon derivatives. This was the Andean Pact's first ever attempt outside the American continent to give a boost to economic relations with partners elsewhere in the world — and it is clearly an initiative to keep an eye on in the future. ■

R.R.

The Arvid Parvo Award for Research on the concept of the Common Heritage of Mankind

The UN Convention on the Law of the Sea, which was adopted in 1982, will enter into force on November 16, 1994 (i.e. 12 months after deposit of the 60th instrument of ratification, as foreseen in the Convention).

The Convention provides the legal framework, institutional arrangements and dispute settlement mechanisms affecting the use and exploitation of the world's oceans. But, even before entering into force, it has also had a remarkable influence on the progressive development of international law. One of the most novel — and significant — legal concepts contained in the Convention is the definition of the sea-bed, ocean floor and subsoil, beyond the limits of national jurisdiction, as the *common heritage of mankind*. Much of the credit for the elaboration of this concept must

go to Ambassador Arvid Parvo who argued for it eloquently during the negotiations.

The purpose of the Arvid Parvo Award, which is being offered annually by the International Ocean Institute at Dalhousie University in Canada, is 'to promote research, studies and wider dissemination of the concept of the common heritage.' Candidates for the award are required to submit the results of their research in an extensive essay or monograph. The prize will consist of three elements: an undertaking by the IOI Board to ensure the publication of the study; an award certificate to the author(s) and a token payment of US\$ 5000. The closing date for submission of studies for the 1994 award is 15 March.

Further details of the rules governing the award should be obtained from:

The International Ocean Institute,
Dalhousie University,
1226 LeMarchant street,
Halifax, Nova Scotia,
Canada B3H 3P7

HUMANITARIAN AID

Partnership agreement between European Commission and UNHCR

On 13 December, Manuel Marín, European Commissioner with responsibility for humanitarian aid, and Sadako Ogata, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees, announced the signature of a framework partnership agreement between the Commission and the UNHCR in the field of humanitarian aid.

Paying tribute to the work of Mrs Ogata, Mr Marín said that the agreement had been made with three objectives in mind:

- to achieve a secure and stable framework for action in the humanitarian field;
- to guarantee clarity and administrative transparency; and,
- to ensure that the organisation of humanitarian actions was both systematic and speedy.

He went on to say: 'This agreement will allow us to develop an ongoing dialogue on the political and logistical aspects of humanitarian aid, on the programming of actions and on experience gained in the field.'

Since March 1993, the Commission has signed 80 partnership agreements with almost all of its interlocutors working in this field. These include the large NGOs such as Oxfam, Caritas, the Red Cross and Médecins Sans Frontières, as well as a number of smaller, more specialised bodies. The agreement with the UNHCR is the first to be concluded with a United Nations Agency.

For her part, Mrs Ogata emphasised the 'excellent collaboration' between the UNHCR and the Commission. She viewed the agreement as a 'very important step forward' which would allow for relations between the two partners to be strengthened further. It would also, she stressed, be a 'determining factor in the efficiency and speed of humanitarian aid.'

A Commission/UNHCR Working Group has been set up under the agreement. This was due to meet for the first time on 14 December.

Aid decisions

The Commission has recently taken the following decisions to provide humanitarian aid (including emergency and food aid):

ACP countries

Haiti: ECU 1m to provide assistance, for a six-month period, under three separate headings: ECU 700 000 for a nutritional/medical programme, ECU 200 000 to maintain surgical work in two hospitals and ECU 100 000 for medical help to the people of the island of Gona.

Angola: ECU 1m to implement the four following projects (each of ECU 250 000) in favour of displaced people: Medical/nutritional aid for the north of the country; sanitary assistance and meeting basic needs in Kuanza Province; the establishment of two temporary medical centres in Bengo Province; and the distribution of food aid already supplied.

Papua New Guinea: ECU 56 000 for the purchase of basic essentials for the people of Bougainville, following the reopening of the island to humanitarian aid, and in pursuit of the peace process in the area.

Rwanda: ECU 1m to help meet the essential needs of displaced peoples and recent returnees following the ethnic conflict in the north of the country.

Senegal: ECU 1m for food aid and a vaccination programme for displaced people from the Casamance region.

Burundi: ECU 2m for food aid, basic equipment and medical help, for refugees from the recent conflict in the country.

Liberia: ECU 1m in nutritional support for displaced people.

Zaire: ECU 1m to supplement nutritional, medical and sanitary assistance for the people in Eastern Kasai who have been expelled from Shaba.

Somalia: ECU 650 000 to pay for the cost of transporting aid from Kenya to various Somali towns.

Tanzania and Zaire: ECU 1m and ECU 500 000 for Burundian refugees in Tanzania and Zaire respectively, for the purchase of basic essentials.

Somalia: 650 000 to pay for the cost of transporting aid from Djibouti to various towns in the north of Somalia.

Burundi: ECU 3m for essential equipment, food aid and medical assistance for displaced people within the country.

Liberia: ECU 1m in nutritional aid for displaced people in the area between Totota and Weala.

Angola: ECU 1m to rehabilitate the Lubango Central Hospital and to provide medical and nutritional aid in various provinces of the country.

Rwanda and Tanzania: ECU 2m (ECU 1m for each country) for food, medical and sanitary aid, and essential equipment.

Zaire: ECU 1m for refugees (of Kasai origin) expelled from Shaba, for food and medical aid.

Sierra Leone: ECU 650 000 for people displaced following the troubles in the Eastern Province of the country. The aid, which takes the form of medical/nutritional and sanitary support, seeds and agricultural tools, is designed to help the people involved to re-establish themselves.

Sudan: ECU 500 000 for nutritional and therapeutic support and the provision of basic essentials for displaced people living in the Atepi and Aswa camps.

Burundi/Rwanda: ECU 2 million for four projects aimed at helping people who have been displaced as a result of the recent upheaval in Burundi. Two projects will be undertaken in Burundi itself and the other two are aimed at refugees in Rwanda. The aid provided will include tents, medical facilities food and other essential equipment.

Ethiopia: ECU 350 000 to help Ethiopian refugees recently returned from camps in Kenya to reintegrate. The aid will include medicines

and food for children, many of whom are suffering from malnutrition.

Kenya: ECU 1 million for Somali refugees. The aid will be used to effect urgent repairs to the water distribution and sanitation systems in the Marafa, Dabab and Mandera camps in the north-east of Kenya.

Liberia: ECU 1 million to help in the repatriation of Liberian refugees to their country of origin. The money will help fund the establishment of transition centres in the northern county of Lofa to take returnees from Guinea and Sierra Leone.

Sudan: ECU 1 million for displaced people in the south of the country. The aid will be used to purchase basic essentials (clothes and mosquito nets) and to provide logistical support aimed at avoiding overcrowding around the food distribution centres.

Rwanda, Tanzania and Zaire: ECU 18.3 million in further support for Burundian refugees. The aid is intended to help meet the needs of some 700 000 people who have fled from Burundi to the neighbouring countries and will include food, basic essentials, transport, vital medical supplies and shelters.

Non-ACP countries

Caucasus region (Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia): ECU 400 000 for the purchase, transport and distribution of food parcels. The aid is divided as follows: ECU 160 000 for Georgia, ECU 140 000 for Azerbaijan and ECU 100 000 for Armenia.

Cambodia: ECU 285 000 for medical aid allowing for continued surgical care to wounded people, support for local dispensaries, essential equipment for the blood transfusion service and material for an orthopedic centre.

Pakistan: ECU 230 000 to support a hospital in Quetta providing care for Afghans wounded in the recent fighting.

Ukraine, Russia and Belarus: ECU 500 000 for a continuing medical programme for the victims of the Chernobyl nuclear disaster.

Mongolia: ECU 500 000 for food aid and essential products destined for the most vulnerable sections of the population whose standard of living has declined as a result of the economic reforms dating from 1990.

Azerbaijan: ECU 500 000 for additional food aid and essential products for people displaced by the conflict.

Tadjikistan: ECU 500 000 for additional food aid and essential products for displaced persons and the most vulnerable sections of the population.

Armenia: ECU 500 000 for additional food aid and essential products for displaced persons and the most vulnerable sections of the population.

Kirghyzstan: ECU 500 000 in additional aid for food and other basic essentials.

Sri Lanka: ECU 150 000 for hospital and medical supplies (ECU 50 000) and for sanitary facilities in public buildings occupied by the most vulnerable sections of the population (ECU 100 000).

Vietnam: ECU 110 000 for the manufacture of orthopaedic aids and medical staff training in Ho Chi Minh City, in connection with the injuries which continue to be caused by anti-personnel mines laid during the war.

Albania: ECU 350 000 for food parcels, hygiene products and medical aid for some of the poorest sections of the population living in Tirana and other regions of the country.

Armenia: ECU 300 000 to supply the Spitak Hospital (restored after the earthquake) with medicines and equipment.

Georgia: ECU 300 000 in additional support for the winter programme, in the form of medicines, food and items designed to protect against the cold.

Georgia: ECU 500 000 for displaced people following the conflict in Abkhazia.

Iraq: ECU 3.25m (derogation from the economic embargo) for the Kurds in the north of the country for the purchase and distribution of cooking fuels.

India: ECU 360 000 to help assist those affected by the recent earthquake.

Ex-Yugoslavia: ECU 72m to reinforce existing aid programmes for the victims of the war — in particular in Bosnia-Herzegovina where the need is most urgent.

Bolivia: ECU 25 000 to help improve the living conditions of 'street-children' in Santa Cruz de la Sierra.

Peru: ECU 85 000 for the purchase and distribution of medicines — in particular against cholera — to the people in the Lower Apurimac region displaced as a result of terrorist attacks.

Cuba: ECU 1.475m for logistical and sanitary assistance for hospitals, and for the distribution of medicines.

Armenia: ECU 425 000 for the rehabilitation of 25 small hydro-electric plants.

Ex-Yugoslavia: ECU 86m for the winter programme. This sum will be divided as follows: 68.6% for Bosnia-Herzegovina, 19.8% for Serbia-Montenegro, 6.6% for Croatia, 3.5% for the former Republic of Macedonia, 0.9% for Slovenia and 0.6% for ex-Yugoslav refugees in Turkey.

Russia and Ukraine: ECU 4m of which ECU 3.6m in medical aid and essential products for Russia and ECU 400 000 for a medical programme for child victims of the Chernobyl disaster in Ukraine.

Tadjikistan: ECU 2.9m for a winter programme for people displaced as a result of the civil war. This will take the form of medical assistance, food aid and other essential products.

Palestine: ECU 5.7m for medical aid and assistance for prisoners, with priority for those living in the camps in the Gaza Strip.

Kirghyzstan: ECU 3.1m for a winter programme for the general population, 40% of whom are now living below the poverty line, due to the social impact of the economic reforms.

Iraq: ECU 6.75m for food aid, medical supplies, de-mining operations and infrastructure repairs. The main beneficiaries will be people living in the north of the country.

Georgia: ECU 3m to provide people displaced by various conflicts with medical assistance, food and protection against the cold.

Azerbaijan: ECU 3m for people displaced as a result of the conflict between Armenians and Azeris, the money to be used for food and medical aid, and for the provision of essential equipment.

Armenia: ECU 3m for displaced persons and the other least-fortunate sections of the population, notably in the capital, Yerevan, in the northern region of the country which has suffered since the 1988 earthquake and in the southern area which has been most seriously affected by the Azeri-Armenian conflict. The aid will take the form of food, medical and energy supplies.

Afghanistan: ECU 500 000 for Tajik refugees in the north of the country, to pay for food

and, eventually, to help finance their repatriation.

Nicaragua: ECU 500 000 for the transport and distribution of food and hygiene products to people affected by floods following the passage of Hurricanes Bret and Gert.

Cuba: ECU 330 000 for food and hygiene products and other essential materials to assist those forced to leave their homes following torrential rain in the eastern part of the island.

Cambodia: ECU 250 000 to continue a programme for the provision of artificial limbs to victims of anti-personnel mines.

Afghanistan: ECU 500 000 in favour of people displaced by factional fighting. The money will be used to assist in the rehabilitation of the Kabul and Jalalabad Hospitals.

Afghanistan: ECU 350 000 to provide essential products, medicines and an epidemiological survey for Tajik refugees in the north of the country.

Peru: ECU 175 000 to provide medicines, additional medical personnel and local transport for cholera victims in the Amazon Basin.

Honduras: ECU 395 000 for essential products, medical supplies and food aid for flood victims in the northern region.

Bolivia: ECU 150 000 for essential help to flood victims in the poorer areas of the capital.

Albania: ECU 106 000 in logistic back-up for two mobile bakeries supplied by the British Government to help cope with the arrival of refugees from Kosovo and Bosnia-Herzegovina.

Romania: ECU 350 000 for essential products to support social structures for the least-favoured groups among the population (physically and mentally handicapped people, orphans, old people).

FOOD AID

The Commission took a decision to finance food aid as set out in the chart which follows:

Country/ Organisation	Cereals	Milk powder	Vegetable Oil	Other Products
El Salvador	5 220	1 090	415	0.5
Peru	35 000	1 125	4 000	2.5
Angola	21 280	—	1 500	1.6
Yemen	20 000	—	1 000	—
UNHCR	13 220	—	104	0.013
UNRWA	10 000	2 700	1 409	2 404.5



PARTNERSHIP

Information Bulletin from the Centre for the Development of Industry - January-February 1994 - No. 11

WHAT FUTURE FOR EURO-ACP INDUSTRIAL COOPERATION?

Brussels, November 1993. A symposium on the future of Euro-ACP industrial cooperation, organized by the CDI on the initiative of the Belgian Presidency of the European Union*, was held at the Palais d'Egmont - the very same place where, back in July 1973, negotiations began on Lomé I, which led, among other innovations, to the creation of the CDI. The event took place within the framework of the Belgian Presidency's mandate to prepare the agenda for the negotiations on the updating of Lomé IV and its financial protocol for 1995/2000, which commenced at the beginning of 1994.

Over these two days of lively exchanges, over 200 participants, essentially from Europe and the ACP States, conducted an in-depth analysis of the obstacles to the growth of a dynamic private sector in the ACP countries. They came not only from private industrial sectors, industrial cooperation promotion and support institutions and financial bodies such as the EIB and the ADB, but also from different Lomé Convention institutions involved in the future negotiations, represented at the highest level (ACP-EEC Joint Assembly, Committee on Development and Cooperation of the European Parliament, Economic and Social Committee, ACP General Secretariat, ACP Committee of Ambassadors, ACP-EEC Committee on Industrial Cooperation, etc.).

The conclusions of this symposium, which constitute an extensive "reservoir of ideas" in the run-up to major decisions for the future of Lomé, are to be published by the Maastricht Institute for the Development Policy Studies and Management.

Apart from the political conclusions and prospects outlined opposite by Mr Erik Derycke, President of the Council of Ministers for Cooperation of the European Union until December 1993 and Belgian Secretary of State for Development Cooperation, the following pages also provide a synopsis of the converging points of view and comments expressed at this meeting, both by the political and institutional speakers and by the ACP and EC industrialists who played an active part in the symposium.

* The European Union is the new name for the European Community since the Maastricht Treaty came into effect.

A CLEAR CONSENSUS

Strengthening Euro-ACP industrial cooperation, one of the central issues in the second phase of Lomé IV



Photos by J.M. Corhay/AGCD

Mr Erik Derycke, Belgian Secretary of State for Development Cooperation and President of the Council of Ministers for Cooperation of the European Union during the second half of 1993.

■ **Partnership:** The Belgian Presidency of the European Union asked the CDI to organize this symposium on the future of industrial cooperation just before the discussions between the European Union and the ACP countries on the start-up of the second phase of Lomé IV. Were the conclusions of the symposium brought to the attention of the Council of Ministers for Cooperation, held in Brussels on December 2nd?

□ **Mr Erik Derycke:** The objectives of this symposium were quite clear: development of the private sector is an absolutely fundamental priority, in the opinion of both the ACP States and the Community. But it must be acknowledged that not everything provided for on this subject in the 4th Convention has materialized or produced more than minimal results. The Community wishes to take advantage of the negotiations on the continuation of Lomé IV to improve implementation of the Convention's provisions in this field. We therefore wanted to "take the temperature" of the concrete difficulties encountered by listening to the main players, i.e. ACP and European entrepreneurs, financial bodies and technical support institutions such as the CDI.

It is no doubt a little too soon to draw technical conclusions from the numerous proposals put forward over these two days, but the general consensus is fairly clear: the main problem lies in poor or insufficient use of the cooperation potentials offered by the Convention, especially in industrial matters. The financing mechanisms are not adapted to the frequently microeconomic realities of SMEs in the ACP countries. What is absolutely essential is to create a favourable environment capable of generating industrial dynamism. It is also necessary to instil confidence in European investors, who at the moment are hesitating to embark upon forms of partnership with ACP companies due to the lack of profitability prospects and security guarantees. (cont. p.2)

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THE LESSONS OF THE SYMPOSIUM

Selectivity, complementarity, financing adapted to SMEs, role of the CDI

In his speech at the 17th annual meeting of the representatives of ACP/EEC economic and social circles, held in Brussels on December 8th 1993, Mr Erik Derycke returned to some of the conclusions drawn from the symposium organized by the CDI. He underlined the following points in particular:

- The need to establish a coordination structure linking the European Commission, the EIB and the CDI.
- Support for the new decentralized approach of the CDI, consisting in setting up local consultancy and technical service companies in the ACP countries.
- The need to introduce new mechanisms for financing ACP companies' own funds, especially through easier access to venture capital.
- "Enabling the CDI, which has a major role to play in the pursuit of industrial development objectives, to strengthen its action through an institutional framework better suited to the accomplishment of its tasks".

The main lessons of the symposium concern the strategic guidelines defined by the different participants as regards industrial cooperation under the Lomé Convention. Several general practical principles were set out in this way:

■ Selectivity and effectiveness in the host country

Development aid for SMEs should be directed as a priority towards those countries trying to create an environment favouring privatization of the economy and development of the private sector.

■ Complementarity between institutional players

The complementarity of the existing

(cont. from p.1) Consequently, the Council of Ministers meeting in December adopted the principle of a revision - perhaps quite extensive - of the modus operandi of the Convention, especially by introducing programming in stages and devising a new method of establishing specific budgets providing an incentive for actions targeted more on strategic objectives, such as democratization, reinforcement of the rule of law and revitalization of the economic fabric by promoting the private sector.

■ Which could, perhaps, take the form of the creation of local services companies for the enterprises, set up by the CDI?

□ Indeed. The experiments that the CDI is conducting on the ground at present to develop such incentive instruments will be very instructive. But it is also important to give the different formulae a thorough testing and to evaluate the results. And it is very regrettable in this respect that the process initiated by the CDI in Burundi should have been interrupted for the political reasons of which we are all aware.⁽¹⁾



Mr G. Livi of DG VIII, representing European Commissioner M. M. Marin: "Coherence, coordination and decentralization for greater efficiency".

industrial cooperation mechanisms is an essential objective, firstly between the three instruments of the Lomé Convention, namely:

- the Commission departments, which are responsible for managing all aid and cooperation policies, especially in the development of agricultural programmes and infrastructures;
- the European Investment Bank, the key player in the development of direct financing for companies, particularly in the field of venture capital;
- the CDI, the specialized tool for direct technical support to companies.

But this complementarity in Community action should then also be linked up with other company development policies pursued by the Twelve, and especially with various initiatives in favour of European SMEs (Euro-Info Centre network, BC-Net, Europartnership Days, etc.).

Finally, it should be developed in the closest possible synergy with bilateral or multinational cooperation initiatives.

■ Financing mechanisms adapted to suit SMEs

The aim here should be to create or strengthen networks of financial intermediaries in the ACP countries capable of affording SMEs easier access to venture capital. This objective can be attained only if the financial bodies become decentralized and cooperate with local service companies, which ensure close technical and economic support for enterprises.

■ What role will the CDI be asked to play in the years to come?

□ Clearly, the CDI's place as an instrument capable of cooperating with companies directly is of fundamental importance when it comes to strengthening the private sector, and it must be given the means to accomplish this task. The other instrument which must play a role much more in keeping with this objective is the EIB, whose intervention mechanisms in favour of SMEs must be rethought.

■ What is the timetable to be for the revision of Lomé IV at the half-way stage in the Convention?

□ Now that the broad political options have been established at Council level, it remains for us to define, between now and the end of February 1994, the package of proposals put forward by the European Union. We shall then also know the proposals made by the ACP countries, because the Convention operates on a partnership basis, with each party having the opportunity to set out its priorities. The negotiations will not,



Mr H. Saby, Chairman of the European Parliament's Committee on Development and Cooperation: "The Lomé Convention is as essential for Europe as it is for the ACP countries".

■ Role of the CDI

The CDI is currently the leading player given the task under the Lomé Convention of establishing this direct support for ACP enterprises and reinforcing their partnerships with European companies or organizations. Its role in this respect was closely analysed and commented on at length. The participants wanted the course of action pursued by the Centre since the beginning of Lomé IV to be reinforced, and especially its concern to achieve maximum synergy with other bodies, the finance institutions in particular. There was also a broad consensus in favour of the CDI continuing its decentralized approach, both at European level and in the ACP countries.

The creation of local service companies for enterprises is an essential formula for assisting SMEs whilst guaranteeing greater investment security for European partners and finance institutions.

However, the means at the disposal of the CDI still seem to be too limited to meet all the different needs of ACP countries wishing to develop their industrial fabric. Its place within the global Euro-ACP industrial cooperation strategy must be rethought. This is essential first of all in the interaction between CDI activities and the other aspects of European policy - notably with the EIB but also with the institutions of the Member States themselves. It is also necessary when it comes to strengthening the CDI's links with the private sector, which has clearly expressed the desire to be more involved in the Centre's overall policy.

therefore, be finalized before the second half of the year, by which time Germany will hold the Presidency of the European Union.

■ It is believed that the proposals to be made by the ACP States will include measures to allow part of the debt repayment to be allocated to the industrial revival of their economies...

□ Yes, this subject was raised and we managed to get the Twelve to agree to include this point on the agenda for the proposals to be studied. In actual fact, the role that the European Union can play at this level remains limited, because the debts owed to the Community itself are minimal. On the other hand, the Member States could take more concerted action to see what can be done in connection with this. It is a field that has never been dealt with so far at Community level. The mere fact of having requested and obtained the agreement of our colleagues at the Council to examine this matter therefore constitutes a first.

⁽¹⁾ Stop press: see article p. 8 for more on the Service company in Burundi.

THE PRIVATE SECTOR AT THE FOREFRONT

The development of SMEs: an essential factor in the industrialization of ACP countries

"Faced with the gravity of the situation and the urgency of the problems involved, especially on the African continent where special treatment is required, immobility must be eradicated once and for all. We must now release all the energies available and raise the level of awareness, rediscovering the links of complementarity and solidarity between Europe and the ACP States. The problem lies not so much in the search for new means as in a better link-up and reprofiling of existing means", said Mr Paul Frix, Director of the CDI, in introducing the debates at the symposium.

The tone was thus set. The purpose of these two days was not limited to merely examining the possible short-term adjustments to be made for the 1995-2000 stage of Lomé IV. It was also and above all a question of examining the conditions which will enable the industrial development of the ACP companies to be dragged out of its current stagnation and re-launched on new foundations.

Frank and critical participation

"One of the most positive aspects of this seminar was the frank and critical participation of the private sector representatives, from both Europe and the ACP countries", remarked Prof. L. de la Rive Box, Director of the European Centre for the Development Policies Management, based in Maastricht, who acted as coordinator and general rapporteur of the debates. On the European side, in particular, members of the "Group of Seven"* had appointed various representatives from Germany, Belgium, the United Kingdom, Spain, France and Portugal. They all underlined their willingness to participate in a revival of the industrial development of the ACP countries, but at the same time strongly urged both the Community and ACP authorities to fall into line with the logic of privatization and to turn their back on the mistakes made in the past which had discouraged investors.

"We want to have a realistic dialogue between equals with the ACP countries. We feel involved in their development and we are prepared to come and work with local partners", stressed Mr Ranchon, general delegate of the CIAN, the French professional association that is a member of the Group of Seven. *"But at the same time we would say to them quite frankly: do*

what is necessary to make economic activity possible, something which is not always the case at present. And to the European institutions, our message is as follows: if you wish to encourage cooperation at the level of the private sector, then be vigilant, put greater emphasis on this in your aid programmes and involve the private sector more in your deliberations and decisions".

For the ACP entrepreneurs, the desire to create a new industrial fabric laying the foundations for fruitful cooperation with European partners was also clearly expressed. *"Of course, we are requesting aid, concrete aid to equip our factories and train our personnel, to teach us to manage and to sell",* explains Mrs Sylla Diakite Fatime, head of SAFICA, a small Côte d'Ivoire company producing and printing note paper and envelopes. *"But we have also come here to demonstrate that we have something to offer: our knowledge of local realities and our determination to succeed. What we want to do is to create value added, to make a profit and to share it fairly with the partners wishing to team up with us".*

Showing imagination

"This reaction by private operators during the debates is highly significant and reveals a

new context", adds Mr de la Rive Box. *"Not just European countries providing aid but also many ACP countries have now realized that if they are to develop then the private sector must be recognized as having a key role to play. And that SMEs are a decisive factor in this sector. We must now show some imagination and move into action to turn this desire into something tangible".*

Moving into action was the leitmotif running through the contributions made during these two days. There were many far-reaching exchanges of ideas from which a number of interesting approaches emerged for reviving Euro-ACP cooperation, especially within the medium-term perspective of Lomé V, starting in the year 2000.

Link between agriculture and industry

First of all, which are the main areas of industrial development to which priority should be given? The participants were fairly unanimous in underlining the weak links that exist between the agricultural base, so fundamental in ACP economies, and industry. In spite of all the money invested through external aid in countless agricultural programmes, many ACP countries are increasingly dependent on imported food, spending their precious foreign exchange on imports of rice or oil from the countries of South-East Asia. Industrial dynamics must, therefore, be much more closely linked up to agriculture. Local SMEs can contribute towards the gradual modernization of the agricultural sector, either by increasing the value added of products and selling them on neighbouring markets or by helping equip and providing services to producers.



H.E. Mr Mamadou Bobo Camara, Guinean Ambassador and Chairman of the Committee of Ambassadors of the ACP countries: "The ACP States are ready to give priority to industry in their indicative programmes".



H.E. Mr Bisong Ekpang, Nigerian Ambassador and Co-Chairman of the ACP/EEC Committee on Industrial Cooperation, expressed the hope that the Commission would examine with the CDI the possibility of turning a significant proportion of the debts of ACP States into a fund to finance industrial projects in local currencies and to provide technical support to ACP enterprises.

Moving out of the informal economy

Another delicate point that was raised on several occasions: how to take account of the frequently essential place of the informal sector within the crisis economies of the ACP countries? The development of these parallel economies can be regarded both as a necessity - allowing large numbers of citizens excluded from "normal" economic life to survive - but also as a negative factor because they constitute unfair competition for companies trying to develop on sound competitive bases. "Relations with the informal sector must be handled with a great deal of flexibility", considers Mr de la Rive Box. "This parallel economy is also sometimes a very rich and diversified terrain, linked up in particular with the traditions of certain minorities, where operators can grow and gradually develop into small businesses. Over these two days, I could not help recall what has happened in many countries of South-East Asia, which have subsequently managed to take off economically. It is not a question of waging war on the informal sector but of using the source of dynamism that it represents and helping it evolve pragmatically towards legality".

Creation of regional markets

Even though it is a priority mentioned on numerous occasions in the past, the lack of any regional integration of the economies of the ACP countries remains as relevant as ever. How can the yoke of restricted local outlets be thrown off to allow SMEs to establish a position on neighbouring markets? It is in the interests of the leaders in the different countries, if they really want to support the rise of a dynamic private sector, to break away from the attitude of everyone for himself.

Venture capital and close support

But at the centre of the discussions, it was certainly the many concrete proposals in favour of an industrial cooperation policy adapted to the needs of SMEs in ACP countries which formed the substance of the symposium (see "The lessons of the symposium"). Clearly, an incipient private sector in the ACP States is unable to finance all the requirements with which it is confronted and there must be a net transfer of European and international public aid in favour of this sector. This presupposes the introduction of new financing mechanisms to reinforce ACP enterprises' own funds and their possibilities of obtaining loans, by providing them with easier access to venture capital. How? By promoting and supporting essential local financial networks capable of coordinating the funds available from different sources and directing sufficient amounts towards these SMEs. These networks must also include service companies acting as flexible, independent local interface structures close to enterprises, to advise them, monitor their development and help them in their management, all on the basis of practical realities (see on this subject the interview with Prof. Couvreur in Partnership No. 10, together with the working document that he prepared for the symposium - c.f. "Publications" further on).

A question of mentality

"For an ACP company head, there was something fresh about this symposium", says Mr Yoro Fall, who runs an electrical component manufacturing business in Dakar. "Only too often in the past I have heard development cooperation talked about in macroeconomic terms. Mentalities must be changed and people must also think in terms of companies. With the concern at all levels to create SMEs and develop intelligent kinds of partnerships. A very concrete idea to illustrate what I mean: when the European Community finances an infrastructure in a country, it is important to ensure that this investment has a knock-on effect for local private SMEs.

For example, by awarding works to a European subcontractor who has a valid partnership with one or more companies on the spot. Of course, this or these ACP partners have a lot to gain from this type of formula. But for the European partner too, the market can also prove to be very interesting. Setting up in a country for a contract gives him a chance to stay there and develop business with local partners. This is what I call a change of mentality as regards the private sector in the ACP countries. It must, of course, come from our colleagues, the heads of European companies, but it must also take place in the minds of those elaborating the infrastructure programme..."

Mentalities must be changed and at every level there must be a concern to create SMEs and develop intelligent kinds of partnerships.

(*) The Group of Seven is an association bringing together companies and investors from eight European states operating in ACP countries, aiming at strengthening the role of the private sector in the cooperation with ACP countries. Member organisations are: Afrika Instituut (the Netherlands), Afrika Verein (Germany), ASSAFRICA (Italy), CCBA (Belgium), CIAN (France), East Africa Association and West Africa Committee (U-K), ELO (Portugal).



Prof. M. Pedini, President of the Group of Seven (European industrialists): "Restoring confidence and improving the tools".



Mrs Cassanmagnano Cerretti, Co-President of the ACP/EEC Joint Assembly, with Mr Paul Frix, Director of the CDI, and Mr L. Ritto, Industrial Cooperation Division, DG VIII: "Maintaining and reinforcing preferential access to the Community market for ACP products".

WHO WAS WHO?



Mr Yoro Fall, Managing Director of Coselec (Senegal): "Ensuring a knock-on effect for local SMEs when the Community finances infrastructures in ACP countries". To his right, Mr A. Bouchiba of the Tunisian Union of Industry, Trade and Crafts, one of the representatives of non-ACP industrial circles who took part in the symposium.

■ The symposium was introduced by addresses from the following prominent personalities:

- Mr Erik Derycke, Belgian Secretary of State for Development Cooperation, President of the Council of Ministers for Cooperation of the European Union;
- Mrs M. Luisa Cassanmagnago Cerretti, Co-President of the ACP-EEC Joint Assembly;
- H.E. Mr Mamadou Bobo Camara, Ambassador of the Republic of Guinea, Chairman of the ACP Committee of Ambassadors;
- Mr Luis Ritto, Head of the Industrial Cooperation Division at DG VIII of the European Commission;
- Mr Paul Frix, Director of the CDI.

■ It brought together over two hundred participants, including:

- Dr Ghebray Berhane, Secretary-General of the Group of ACP States, H.E. Mr Bisong Ekpang, Ambassador of the Republic of Nigeria and Co-Chairman of the ACP-EEC Committee on Industrial Cooperation, together with numerous ambassadors and governmental representatives of the Twelve and the ACP States;
 - representatives of the Commission Departments, from Directorates-General VIII (Development Cooperation), I (External Affairs) and XXIII (Assistance for SMEs), and of the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and UNICE;
 - representatives of the development finance corporations: EIB, ADB, IFC, together with numerous institutions in the EC and the ACP States: CDC, DEG, CFD, etc.;
 - representatives of the different member organizations of the CDI's European Network;
 - entrepreneurs from the private sector in Europe and the ACP countries, along with numerous delegates from trade organizations: CNPF, Cofindustria, etc.
- One of the original aspects of the symposium was that it was also attended by representatives from non-ACP States in Latin America, Asia and Mediterranean.

■ The debates

● The two days of debates were organized around four major discussion themes:

Theme 1: What are companies' expectations from industrial cooperation policy?

Theme 2: Analysis of the support

instruments offered with regard to EEC-ACP industrial cooperation and comparison with the other Community instruments for promotion in this field.

Theme 3: Analysis of the Community financing resources available for enterprises in ACP countries and comparison with the situation in other developing countries.

Theme 4: How to strengthen, rationalize and coordinate more efficiently Community action in favour of industrial cooperation.

● Conclusions were drawn from the debates by:

- Mr L. de la Rive Box, Director of the ECDPM;
- Mr Maurice Bisong Ekpang, Co-Chairman of the ACP-EEC Committee on Industrial Cooperation;
- Mr G. Livi, from European Commission DG XIII, representing Commissioner Manuel Marin;
- Mr Henry Saby, Chairman of the European Parliament's Committee on Development and Cooperation;
- Mr Erik Derycke, Belgian Secretary of State for Development Cooperation, President of the Council of Ministers for Cooperation of the European Union.

■ Publications

The CDI had prepared working documents for each of the debates:

- Development of ACP-EEC Industrial Cooperation and Outlook (produced by IPC International).
- Companies' Expectations (Queyrane Conseil).
- Analysis and Inventory of Industrial Cooperation Instruments and Institutions (IPC International / Inparco Consult).
- Community Finance Instruments Accessible to Enterprises in ACP Countries (Patrick H. Willot).
- How to Strengthen, Rationalize and Coordinate More Efficiently Community Action in Favour of Industrial Cooperation (Alan McGarvey).
- Management Consultancy and Technical Service Companies (J.P. Couvreur).

The Belgian Presidency of the European Union will shortly be publishing a dossier containing all these analyses, together with a summarized report on the main conclusions of the symposium, published by the ECDPM.

Information: Mr Patrick Keene, Deputy Head of the CDI Interventions and European Network Division.
Press: Mr Kaninda Mbay, Communication Officer.

A RAPIDLY EXPANDING MARKET

The boom in poultry and cattle farming in West Africa has created particularly favourable conditions for partnership projects. This was particularly evident during the first professional meeting in what is regarded as a priority sector for the region.

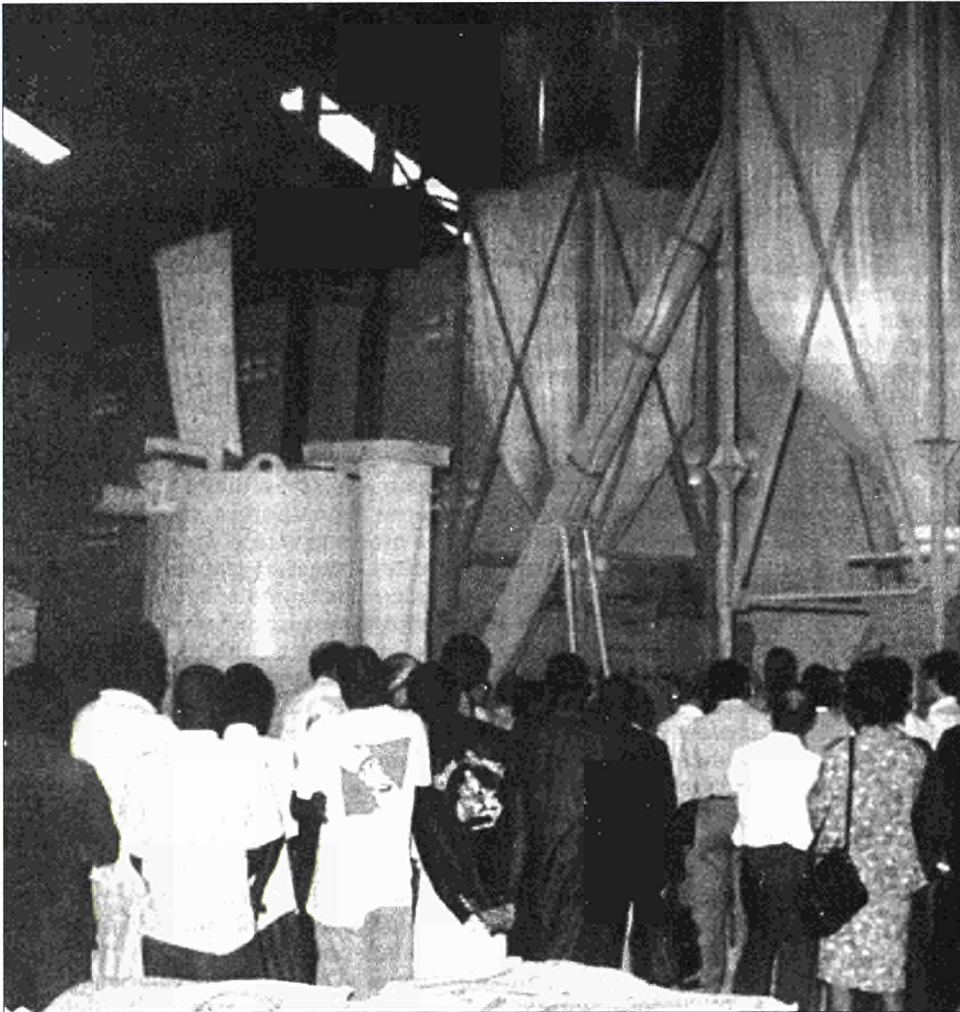
The development potential for poultry and cattle farming is especially high in the Sahel region of Africa. The average annual meat consumption is 10 kg per person and needs to be raised. The CDI is especially keen to support initiatives in the domain of poultry and cattle feed production, since the existence of a supply of adequate quantity and quality is vital for the development of the sector as a whole.

The first professional meeting for the poultry and cattle feed industry in the West Sahel region held by the CDI in Saly Portudal, Senegal, from 3 to 5 November 1993, brought together around thirty industrialists from Senegal, Mauritania, Niger, Burkina Faso and Mali, as well as a dozen or so professionals from four European Union countries (EU, formerly EEC). The aim was to assess the local potential on the ground by visiting dynamic Senegalese compa-

nies such as Sedima and the poultry-farming complex at Mbao, to discuss any technical and commercial problems, and especially to plan priority industrial partnership projects. The meeting was all the more useful and productive since, although ACP and EU promoters normally have very few opportunities to meet, it transpired that professionals in the region did not know each other much better either. In other words, the potential for sub-regional complementarity and cooperation is so far significantly under-exploited. The success of these meeting, which were attended by CDI Executive Board member Mr Zama Bantoro, is due in a large part to the care taken in the preselection of the industrialists taking part by both Mr El Hadj Diao (for Africa), Senegalese consultant, and by Belgian consultant Mr Jean Fraiture (for Europe). The Senegalese company, Management /...



Industrialisation of poultry-farming often acts as a catalyst in the modernisation of the stock-farming sector as a whole.



Professional meeting participants visiting the SEDIMA workshops in Malika, Senegal. Created in 1988, SEDIMA is comprised of a hatchery, a feedingstuff factory with production totalling 15,000 tonnes per year, and an egg marketing unit. SEDIMA supplies some 20 points of sale in the region and has a turnover of 1,000 million CFA francs.

Communication International, was responsible for the excellent organisation of the meeting. Each of the three days was devoted to a precise set of problems encountered in the sector: raw materials, technology and integration of the branch of activity.

Regional cooperation

High taxes are imposed on certain imported raw materials used in the manufacture of animal feed in West Africa. This constitutes a major obstacle to the competitiveness of the local poultry and cattle industries, which have to compete with surplus European meat and milk production which is disposed of at very low prices in Africa. The promoters present became aware of the potential advantage of teaming up to form

professional organisations in order to promote their interests, set up modern abattoirs and an analysis laboratory, jointly purchase raw materials and develop distribution networks. Improved collaboration would also enable them to make better use of local resources. In this way cotton cake, which is in abundant supply in Mali, could provide an alternative to groundnut cake, especially in the event of shortages. Thanks to better utilisation, the cattle from certain countries could find outlets in other countries with production shortfalls in the same sub-region. Experts from outside the sub-region concerned, who have proved their worth in Rwanda, the Cape Verde Islands, Mauritius and Angola, added their personal accounts to the stimulating exchange of experiences which took place during these meetings.

The technological demand was for correctly sized production units: 3-5 t/hour

for finished feedingstuff production, and 5,000 chickens per week for hatcheries in the less developed areas. The installation of small industrial abattoirs equipped with freezing rooms, which would guarantee meat output under good hygienic conditions, is seen as a factor in revitalising the industry in the more advanced countries, especially in the poultry sector.

The poultry farming boom

The industrialisation of poultry and egg production is a priority because, in comparison with cattle production, it can be achieved at a much lower cost. It also allows high quality animal protein to be supplied at the lowest cost price. Whereas it takes 7 kg of feed to produce 1 kg of beef, 2 kg of feed is enough to obtain 1 kg of poultrymeat. However, we must not lose sight of the fact that, even though poultry production and consumption is now taking off in these countries, demand is mainly satisfied by traditional small-scale production methods. Moreover, the people of the Sahel, with their strong tradition of cattle rearing, are culturally more inclined to eat red meat. Nevertheless, in other developed countries it is the industrialisation of poultry farming which has acted as a catalyst for the modernisation of the entire stock-farming sector.

Concrete results

The initial concrete results from the meeting in Saly Portudal included projects for a first feed production unit in Mauritania, mini milk-processing factories in Mali, renovation and privatisation of a hatchery and a feedingstuff factory in Niger. In addition to publishing a document summarising the results of the meeting, the CDI will provide practical assistance for priority industrial partnership projects and will support the creation of a regional economic interest group for local producers. Mr Tidjane Dially Ndiaye, the Senegalese Minister for Energy, Mining and Industry, also expressed his desire for a follow-up committee to be set up, to include the industry department of the Senegalese ministry, SONEPI and the CDI.

Information:

In Brussels: Messrs H. Sow and A. Ndiaye, geographical officers for the West African region at the CDI, and Mr Ch. Touré, sectoral officer.

In West Africa: from the local CDI antennae.

FOUR NEW INDUSTRIAL PARTNERSHIPS UNDER WAY

Collaboration between the CDI and the Centre's partner institutions in Portugal has always been dynamic and productive. With the Programme for Internationalising the Portuguese Economy (PAIEP) coming into action, we spoke to Mrs Cristina Almeida, CDI's industrial cooperation advisor for Portugal.

Partnership: Mrs Almeida, you are attached to ICEP (see box), which is the CDI's correspondent institution in Portugal. What is the major problem you have encountered in your joint activities with the CDI in supporting industrial projects in ACP countries, and how was it resolved?

Mrs Almeida: Essentially, we were seeking to improve ways of financing industrial partnerships between Portuguese entrepreneurs and ACP countries. ICEP therefore concluded tripartite agreements with the CDI and two Portuguese banks, BPA (Banco Português do Atlântico) and BFE (Banco de Fomento e Exterior). 1992 saw the creation of the Economic Cooperation Fund (FCE), an official institution set up to support Portuguese businesses wishing to invest in developing countries through interest subsidies or through co-financing in the pre- and post-investment phases. Together with the CDI we therefore signed an agreement with the FCE, and the combination of the intervention possibilities of these different institutions' possibilities for intervention is producing good results.

■ Indeed, the CDI has recently approved four programmes to support industrial partnerships.

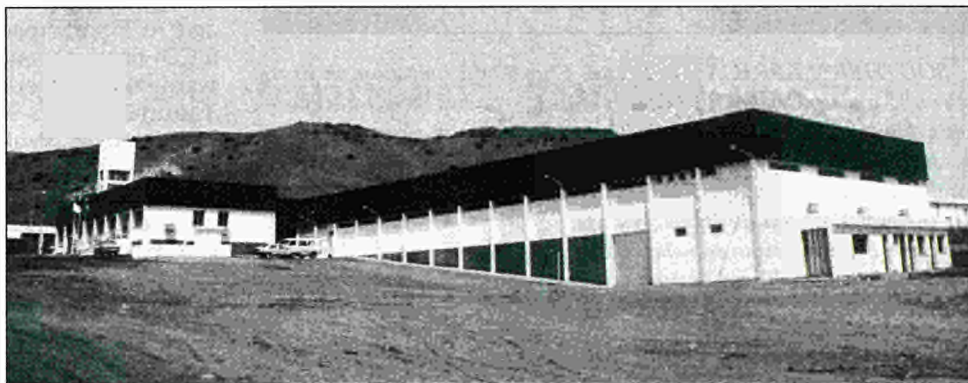
□ These are:

● **TEXLOM**, a Mozambique textile firm (Portuguese partners: GTM-FONCAR/COELIMA). CDI assistance is provided in two stages. Stage one, in late 1993, consists in analyzing the investments required to rehabilitate the factory. Stage two involves assistance in installing new production equipment as well as a study of progressive participation by the Portuguese partner in TEXLOM's capital. The CDI has

The CDI network in Portugal

● **ICEP**: Organisation for the promotion of Portuguese investment, trade and tourism (foreign investments in Portugal and vice versa). Since the signing of the cooperation agreement between ICEP and the CDI in 1987, more than 100 industrial partnership projects have benefited from the joint assistance of these two organisations.

- **BPA**: Banco Português do Atlântico
- **BFE**: Banco de Fomento e Exterior
- **FCE**: Economic Cooperation Fund



CAPE VERDE ISLANDS. Inpharma, a new pharmaceutical company in the Cape Verde Islands, a joint venture between the Portuguese company Labesfal and Cape Verde Emprofac E.P., was inaugurated on 1 October 1993. Inpharma, which has modern installations, will produce generic medicines for the national and regional market. This project received CDI and ICEP assistance for the feasibility study and for negotiations with financial institutions. A technical assistance programme for Inpharma is currently under examination at the CDI.

three other projects supporting Portuguese investors wishing to rehabilitate textile units in Mozambique. This is a priority sector given the country's desire to derive added value from its cotton production.

● **EFACEC**, a new engine and transformer manufacturing plant in Zimbabwe. The CDI has co-financed the services of a local lawyer in order to help the Portuguese partner, EFACEC, adapt to Zimbabwe's Anglo-Saxon legal system. The CDI also assisted with the negotiation of investment contracts for the project.

● **ANGOLAVES**: this State owned Angolan company and its Portuguese partner, AGROCARAMULO, have undertaken the rehabilitation of six chicken production units. Privatisation and expansion of the company are decided with a view to supplying the capital Luanda, whose population is growing rapidly. The CDI agreed to provide technical and staff training assistance, because of the special constraints on poultry farming in the southern African climate.

● **INAL**: converting a measuring instrument factory in Mozambique. The CDI approved technical support for starting up a water meter production line, as well as providing training assistance (see article in Partnership no. 10).

Finally we should like to point out that, although Portuguese entrepreneurs turn more readily to the Portuguese-speaking countries, more than a quarter of the partnership assistance projects approved under the ICEP/CDI agreement are nevertheless located in other ACP countries.

Launching of PAIEP

■ In 1993, the great innovation was the launching of PAIEP.

□ PAIEP is a global programme to support the internationalisation of Portuguese companies, and offers a range of complementary instruments tailored to each type of project. The Portuguese legislation establishing PAIEP specifically mentions the ICEP/CDI agreement as one of these instruments, and ICEP has been entrusted with implementing the programme. PAIEP can arrange interest-free or reduced interest loans and capital inputs from investment funds to be created by each Portuguese financial institution, seek out tax advantages, investment protection agreements, consultancy services, etc.

■ What is currently CDI's most important project in Portugal?

□ In collaboration with the Mozambique government, we have selected 41 companies in the country which could be privatised. We have carried out and published an individual analysis of each of them. We are now actively looking for potential Portuguese or European partners for these projects. Similar actions are planned for the Cape Verde Islands, where the emphasis will be placed on the priority textiles and leather sectors.

Information:
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SOUTHERN AFRICA. The Brussels Club held a symposium in Brussels on 15 and 16 October 1993 on the future of relations between the European Union and Southern Africa. One of the prospects discussed was the possibility of South Africa joining the Lomé Convention, or, alternatively, establishing bilateral relations with the Union. Mr Paul Frix, CDI Director (see photo), stressed the crucial role which Southern Africa could play in the revival of the African economy, especially as a source of technology and partnerships for neighbouring countries.

■ **MADAGASCAR.** The first "International Forum on Industrial Investment in Madagascar" will take place from April 12 to 15, 1994, in Antananarivo. A mission, lead by Mr. Herizo Razafimahaleo, Minister of Industrial Promotion and Tourism, who is organising the Forum with the UNIDO and the assistance of the CDI, will be visiting Europe from January 27 until February 12. The delegation will promote the Forum and present European industrialists with the new possibilities offered to investors since the establishment of a new democratic regime in the island.

Information: Mrs Mary-Jane Caudron, Regional Officer for Madagascar, CDI.

■ **FRANCE.** An original initiative is currently under way in Reims (France). The objective: to transform qualified Africans who have been unemployed for a long period in France into heads of companies in Africa. They are now being given one year's specialised training after which the CDI will provide the best of them with its support in starting up their activities. Trainees' projects include enterprises for compressed bricks, tapioca flour, meat smoking, poultry farming, etc. This initiative, which is arousing a good deal of interest, could be repeated in other French towns.

Information: contact ILAF in Reims, Tel: +33 26 472071, or Mr H. Sow at the CDI in Brussels.

■ **BURUNDI.** Mr. Paul Frix, Director of CDI, and M. A. T. Adade-Helledy, regional officer for Central Africa, were invited by the Government of Burundi to attend the January 7 inauguration of the Burundi Industrial Development Company (CDIBU), a local service company for close assistance to entrepreneurs. A convention between the CDIBU and the CDI was signed at the ceremony, entrusting the management of the new company to the CDI.

■ **MAURITANIA.** Following the visit to Europe of a group of fishing industry professionals from Mauritania organised by the CDI last September (see Partnership no. 10), the Centre launched a training programme in long line fishing techniques for Mauritanian fishermen. This fishing method, hitherto unknown in Mauritania, will enable them to fish selectively for species with a high commercial value, especially on European markets. Initial results were conclusive, as fine specimens of species thought to have disappeared from the region were caught. Mauritanian fishermen now plan to extend the use of this technique throughout the country through small fishermen's cooperatives.

In addition, the CDI antenna in Mauritania, Mr Chebib Cheik Meilaine, an article by whom was published in the September 93 edition of Partnership, has since been promoted to the post of Minister for Trade, Crafts and Tourism in Mauritania.

CAMEROON

The fifth Central Africa-EEC Industrial Forum (FICAC) took place in Yaoundé, Cameroon, from 22 to 26 November 1993, on the initiative of the European Commission, with support from the CDI. During this event the CDI organised many individual meetings between potential industrial partners from the Twelve and from Central Africa. Almost one hundred EEC and ACP participants received a CDI financial contribution towards their travel expenses to Yaoundé. CDI's Mr. Patrick Keene and Mr. Fernando Matos Rosa also led a seminar on acquiring new and second-hand industrial equipment.

In parallel with FICAC, Mr Paul Frix, CDI Director, and Mr Anani Adade, Central African geographical officer at the Centre, met with Dr Patrice Mandeng, Minister for Industrial and Commercial Development, and Mr Frédéric Kodock, Minister for Planning and Regional Development. During this interview the Cameroon authorities reiterated their desire to see the CDI rapidly set up a service company in their country which would act both as a local support structure for businesses and as an interface between entrepreneurs and financial institutions (see article in Partnership no. 10). In a similar vein, the CDI delegation was also welcomed by various institutions involved in industrial cooperation, including the European Union (EU, formerly EEC) delegation, the Belgian Embassy (Belgium currently holds the European Union presidency), the Caisse Française de Développement (French Development Bank), the World Bank and the Centre de Création d'Entreprises (Enterprise Creation Centre) set up by the Canadian Cooperation Agency.

Partnership is a publication by the Centre for the Development of Industry (CDI), created under the ACP-EEC Lomé Convention.

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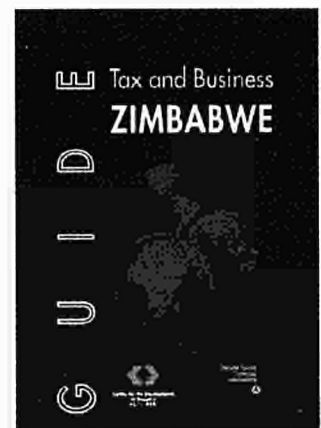
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CDI GUIDES



The CDI is publishing a collection of practical guides summarising the expertise acquired by the Centre in various industrial sectors. These guides are intended above all as effective everyday tools for ACP and European managers interested in industrial partnerships in developing countries. Each guide analyses a specific area of activity in simple practical terms. Already published are: in the "Taxation and the Company" series, **Zimbabwe** (jointly published with Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu International, available only in English); in the "Contracts and Partnerships" series, **Setting up in ACP Countries** (jointly published with Inparco Consult, in French, English version in preparation); **Purchasing Industrial Equipment** (jointly published with Bivac International/Bureau Veritas, available in French and English); in the "Technologies" series, **Briquettes of Vegetable Residues** (jointly published with the Gembloux Agronomic Research Centre, in French, English version in preparation); **Valorisation of Phosphates in Africa - Volume 1: Phosphate Fertiliser Production; Volume 2: Phosphoric Acid Production** (In French, English version in preparation).

Information: at the CDI.

Operational Summary

No. 78 — January 1994

(position as at 10 January 1994)



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), Lomé III (8 December 1984) and Lomé IV (15 December 1989), 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 since 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:

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Commission of the European Communities
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B-1049 Brussels

Please cover only one subject at a time.

DESCRIPTION SECTOR CODE

A1 Planning and public administration

- A1A Administrative buildings
- A1B Economic planning and policy
- A1C Assistance to the normal operations of government not falling under a different category
- A1D Police and fire protection
- A1E Collection and publication of statistics of all kinds, information and documentation
- A1F Economic surveys, pre-investment studies
- A1G Cartography, mapping, aerial photography
- A1H Demography and manpower studies

A2 Development of public utilities

- A2A Power production and distribution
- A2Ai Electricity
- A2B Water supply
- A2C Communications
- A2D Transport and navigation
- A2E Meteorology
- A2F Peaceful uses of atomic energy (non-power)

A3 Agriculture, fishing and forestry

- A3A Agricultural production
- A3B Service to agriculture
- A3C Forestry
- A3D Fishing and hunting
- A3E Conservation and extension
- A3F Agricultural storage
- A3G Agricultural construction
- A3H Home economics and nutrition
- A3I Land and soil surveys

A4 Industry, mining and construction

- A4A Extractive industries
- A4Ai Petroleum and natural gas
- A4B Manufacturing
- A4C Engineering and construction
- A4D Cottage industry and handicraft
- A4E Productivity, including management, automation, accountancy, business, finance and investment
- A4F Non-agricultural storage and warehousing
- A4G Research in industrial technology

A5 Trade, banking, tourism and other services

- A5A Agricultural development banks

- A5B Industrial development banks
- A5C Tourism, hotels and other tourist facilities
- A5D Export promotion
- A5E Trade, commerce and distribution
- A5F Co-operatives (except agriculture and housing)
- A5G Publishing, journalism, cinema, photography
- A5H Other insurance and banking
- A5I Archaeological conservation, game reserves

A6 Education

- A6A Primary and secondary education
- A6B University and higher technical institutes
- A6Bi Medical
- A6C Teacher training
- A6Ci Agricultural training
- A6D Vocational and technical training
- A6E Educational administration
- A6F Pure or general research
- A6G Scientific documentation
- A6H Research in the field of education or training
- A6I Subsidiary services
- A6J Colloquia, seminars, lectures, etc.

A7 Health

- A7A Hospitals and clinics
- A7B Maternal and child care
- A7C Family planning and population-related research
- A7D Other medical and dental services
- A7E Public health administration
- A7F Medical insurance programmes

A8 Social infrastructure and social welfare

- A8A Housing, urban and rural
- A8B Community development and facilities
- A8C Environmental sanitation
- A8D Labour
- A8E Social welfare, social security and other social schemes
- A8F Environmental protection
- A8G Flood control
- A8H Land settlement
- A8I Cultural activities

A9 Multisector

- A9A River development
- A9B Regional development projects

A10 Unspecified

Notes
 All the information provided is subject to modification in line with the development plans and priorities of the beneficiary country or with the conditions laid down by the donor. The BECs in no way bound by the primary which is for information only.

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

Rehabilitation national roads in the South-West region: Namibe-Serra da Leba section. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Construction. 18.5 mECU. Road rehabilitation by int. tender (conditional). Supply of equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th and 7th EDF. EDF ANG A2d

Health project «After urgency». 15 mECU. T.A. to the Ministry of Health, supply of medicines, health projects in Luanda, fight against AIDS. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. Date financing September 93. 7th EDF. EDF ANG 7007 A7

ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA

Livestock development. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 0.130 mECU. Supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF AB 5003 (7001) A3a

BAHAMAS

Queens Highway, Long Island. Rehabilitation of the road. Estimated cost 4.800 mECU. EDF part 3.860 mECU. Works by acc. ★ tender. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF BM 7001 A2d

BELIZE

Community Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry for Social Services. 0.150 mECU. Project preparation study. Short-list done. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BEL 6002 A6b

BENIN

Fish breeding. Applied research and popularization actions. Resp. Auth.: MDRAC. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BEN 6009 A3d

Support programme to the health policy. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé. 11.846 mECU. Rehabilitation of the health infrastructure, supply of equipment, medicines and T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF BEN 7002 A7a

Structural Adjustment Programme — General Import Programme — II ★ 1993-1994. 15.700 mECU. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF BEN 7200 A1c

Construction works, Lot 1b Parakou-Djougou road. Km 65.000 — Km 136.634. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics et des Transports. Estimated cost 16 mECU. Works, supervision, geotechnical control, follow-up and evaluation. Works by int. ★ tender. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF. EDF BEN 7004 A2d

Beroubouay — Malanville road rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics et des Transports. 29 mECU. Works, by int. tender. T.A. Date financing October 93. 7th EDF. EDF BEN 6022/7001 A2d

Decentralized cooperation programme. Estimated cost 1.950 mECU. To strengthen role, means of action and organization of the representative partners in the civil society. Support to the management of urban communal administrations in Zou and Cotonou, support to the associative sector. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF BEN 5018 (7) A8b

BOTSWANA

Wildlife Conservation in Northern Botswana. Resp. Auth.: Department of Wildlife and National Parks. (DWNP). 6.800 mECU. New tracks, construction of administrative office quarters and accommodation. Supply of equipment (earthmoving — tractors — 4x4 pick-ups). T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF BT 6026 A3e, A5i

Wildlife conservation and utilization in Central and Southern Botswana. Resp. Auth.: DWNP. Estimated cost 6.4 mECU. Construction of buildings and staff houses, supply of equipments, T.A. and ★ training. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF. EDF BT 6001/7001 A3e, A5i

BURKINA FASO

Douana Plain development. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Élevage. 2.050 mECU. EDF 2 mECU, local 0.050 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF BK 6005/7002 A3a

Electrification of 3 secondary urban centres. Resp. Auth.: SONABEL — Soc. Nat. d'Electr. 7.100 mECU. Power centre and distribution network in Diébougou, Kongussi, Nouna. Works, supplies and T.A. for supervision and control. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF BK 7001 A2ai

Tougan — Ouahigouya — Mali border road. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Modern earthroad. Supervision: short-list to be done. Estimated cost 18.5 m ECUs. Project on appraisal. 6th and 7th EDF. EDF BK 7004 A2d

Support programme to S.M.E.'s. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Industrie, du Commerce et des Mines. 10.500 mECU. Investments, agencies, T.A. and training, line of credit. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF BK 7006 A4, A5

Support to the Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. 93-95. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC goods, with negative list. 38 mECU. T.A. for starting and follow-up. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF. EDF BK 7200 A1c

Sectoral Adjustment Programme — Agricultural — Livestock. 9.6 mECU. Works for production, supply of equipments, T.A., training. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF. EDF BK 7008 A3a

Sectoral Adjustment Programme — Agricultural — Cereals. Estimated cost 12.500 mECU. Support for institutional

reform, works, supply of equipments, T.A., lines of credit. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF BK 7009 A3a

Sectoral Adjustment Programme — Agricultural — Environment. Estimated cost 1.950 mECU. Soil map and inventory, soil management and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF BK 7010 A3a

Project to place solar equipments in the Provinces of Sourou, Yatenga and Passoré. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Eau. 2 mECU. Water supplies, works, wells, T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF BK 6001 A3a

Institutional Support to develop the Bagré region (610 ha). EDF part 2 mECU for T.A. Date financing October 93. 7th EDF. EDF BK 7011 A3a

Setting up cartographical schemes to manage the environment. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Environnement et du Tourisme (MET). Direction Générale de l'Environnement (DGE). 1.950 mECU. This task will be carried out by local organisations. T.A. and evaluation by direct agreement after restr. tender. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF BK 7010 A1g

BURUNDI

Ruvubu Game Development. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Aménagement, du Tourisme et de l'Environnement. 4 mECU. Supervision and management. Elimination of conflictual sources between the game and population. Make the game accessible to the tourism. Works, supplies, T.A., training and awareness-raising. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF BU 6029 A5i

Support project for micro-entreprises. 10 m ECU. Support to prepare technical dossiers, management follow-up. T.A., training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF BU 7004 A4, A5

Global plan on urgent humanitarian aid to the burundese refugees in Rwanda, Tanzania and Zaire. 18.3 mECU Date financing December 93. 7th EDF. EDF BU 7RPR 277 A8

CAMEROON

Rural development programme in the Logone and Chari. Resp. Auth.: Semry. Estimated cost 12 mECU. Consolidation and extension of existing actions. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF CM 6013 A3a

Support to the Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC goods. There is a negative list. 29.5 mECU. T.A. for starting and follow-up. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF CM 7200 A1c

Support to the health services. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. 8.5 mECU. Works, supplies of medicines by int. tender, T.A. by restr. tender after pre-qualification. Project in execution. 6th and

7th EDF.
EDF CM 6030 (7004) A7e

Road maintenance programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 22.5 mECU. Maintenance in 3 regions: Tikar plain, Ayos-Bertona, Yaundé. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF CM 6031(7005) A2d

Integrated rural development programme in the North-East and North-West Benoué regions. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de Plan et de l'Aménagement du Territoire. Estimated cost **13.350 mECU**. Works, equipments, T.A., training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF CM 6002/7001 A3a

Development of the Mandara Mounts region. Resp. Auth.: Mission de Développement Intégré des Monts Mandara (MIDIMA). 9 mECU. Works, supply of equipments, T.A. evaluation, studies. **Date financing December 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF CM 6026 A3a

'Bertoua-Garoua-Boulai' Rehabilitation Road - Feasibility study. 1.5 mECU. **Date financing December 93** 7th EDF
EDF CM 7002 A2d

CAPE VERDE

Water distribution and sanitation in Praia. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Infrastructures et Transports. Direction Générale de l'Aménagement du Territoire et de l'Environnement. 7 mECU. Works and works supervision. **Projet in execution.** 7th EDF.
EDF CV 6001/7002 A2b,A8c

Development of an industrial zone in Praia. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Infrastructures et transports. Estimated cost 1.290 mECU. Roads, electricity and telephone network and sanitation. Work supervision. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF CV 7002 A2,A8

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

North Region development programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Economie, du Plan, des Statistiques et de la Coopération Internationale — Ministère des Eaux, Forêts, Chasse, Pêche et Tourisme (M.E.F.C.P.T.). 14.6 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Works by direct labour, supplies by int. tender, T.A. by restr. tender after prequalification. **Date financing December 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF CA 6002/7002 A3a

COMOROS

Seed, support and market-garden development. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. Total estimated cost 5.650 mECU. EDF 5.5 mECU, local 0.150 mECU. Production of improved vegetable material. Rural development actions, infrastructures, training teams. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF COM 5002(7001) A3a

Line of credit for SMEs. Resp. Auth.: Banque de Développement des Comores. 1 mECU. Small loans for farmers. **Projet in execution.** 7th EDF.
EDF COM 7002 A5b

Micro-projects. Estimated total cost 3.4 mECU, EDF 2.5 mECU, local 0.4 mECU, local communities 0.5 mECU. Warehouses, rural hydraulic and electrification, health, education, works, supplies, T.A. Project on

appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF COM 7102 A3a

Support to the Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. 93-95. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC goods, with negative list. 5.500 mECU. T.A. for starting and follow-up. Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF COM 7200 A1c

Sea-access to the Moheli island. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Équipement — Direction Générale des Travaux Publics. 3.250 mECU. Works, by int. tender. T.A. for further investigations, tender dossier and works supervision. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF COM 6006/7003 A2d

CHAD

Support programme to improve maintenance and road infrastructure. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des T.P. 15 mECU. Works, bridges, Moundou-Touboro road study, institutional support to the Ministère des T.P. Training. Road study: short-list done. Project in execution. 7th EDF
EDF CD 6001 (7003) A2d

Cotton rural roads maintenance. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 7 mECU. Rehabilitation works and supervision. **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF CD 7004 A2d

Rural hydraulics programme in the concentration zone. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Mines, Énergie, Ressources en Eau. Estimated total cost 8.509 mECU. EDF part 8.300 mECU. Drillings, wells, hand-pumps, solar pump, T.A. Works, supplies and T.A., follow-up, works supervision. **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF CD 7003 A2b

CONGO

Support to the private sector and S.M.E.'s promotion. Resp. Auth.: National Authorizing officer, Ministère for SME, EEC delegation, Associations. 10 mECU. Lines of credit, development, promotion, viability of micro — small and medium enterprises. T.A., supplies and line of credit. Project in execution. 6th and 7th EDF.
EDF COB 6005/7001 A4, A5

Support to the anticipated general elections. 0.200 mECU. Contribution for the printing of ballot papers. Imprimerie Nationale and Imprimerie des Armées. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF COB 7004 A1c

Support to the Health Development National Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé. 10 mECU. Construction and rehabilitation works, T.A., training, supply of equipments and medicines. **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF COB 7005 A7

COTE D'IVOIRE

Central Region food crops programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. EDF 40 mECU. Irrigation, agriculture modernization, young settlements. Food crops production marketing improvement. Works, soil improvement, supplies. T.A. studies, follow-up and evaluation. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF.
EDF IVC 6009 A3a

Health sector support programme. 11.2 mECU. Strengthening basic care, correcting balances between regions and support to decentralization. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF IVC 6011 (7001) A7

Support programme to coastal cities. 28.5 mECU. Social and economic infrastructure, planning and management of municipalities. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF IVC 7002 A8a, b

Research — development programme for market gardening, agro-forestry and fruit-trees sectors. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique and IDESSA-IDEFOR/DFO and IDEFOR/DFA. Ministère de l'Agriculture. 8.760 mECU. Supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF IVC 7003 A6f, A6c, i

Forest settlement programme in the Urumbo-Boka sector. Estimated cost 9 mECU. Rehabilitation and conservation of 7 forests. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF IVC 7006 A3c, A8f

Wholesale market in Bouake. 10 mECU. Market construction and installation and starting. Works and T.A. **Date financing December 93.** 7th EDF.
EDF IVC 6009(7) A5c

Support to the Structural Adjustment Programme. Phase II. 18.5 mECU. **Projet in execution.** 7th EDF.
EDF IVC 7200 A1c

DJIBOUTI

Fight against desertification and development of livestock husbandry in Western-Djibouti. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et du Développement Rural. 1.665 mECU. Supply of equipment, studies, T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF DI 6008 A3a

Health training programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique et des Affaires Sociales. 0.750 mECU. T.A., scholar-ships, seminars, training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF DI 7101/002 A7e

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Integrated rural development project in the NOROESTE (PROLINO). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. EDF 23.61 mECU. Building of earth-dams, infrastructure, supply of equipment, T.A. and lines of credit. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF DO 7006 A3a

Integrated programme to develop primary education at local level. Resp. Auth.: Secretaría de Estado de Educación, Bellas Artes y Cultos (SEEBAC). Total cost 8 mECU. EDF 7 mECU, local 1 mECU. Buildings, equipment, T.A. Works by direct labour or acc. proc., the equipment will be purchased locally. T.A.; short-list done. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF DO 7007 A6a

Integrated health programme in the south-east. Resp. Auth.: Secretaría de Estado de Salud Pública y Asistencia Social (SESPAS). Total cost 9.8 mECU. EDF 8.8 mECU, local 1 mECU. Physical health infrastructure by direct labour or acc. proc., health materials and equipment by int. tender, training, health education, T.A.

Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF DO 7008 A7a,b,c,e

Sectoral Import Programme for petroleum products. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Refineria Dominicana de Petroleo S.A. 9.500 mECU. Purchase of petroleum products, T.A. for follow-up and evaluation. **★ Project in execution.** 7th EDF. EDF DO 7200/001 A4ai

Geological and mining development programme. 23 mECU. Studies, programmes managements, works, T.A. and evaluation. **★ Date financing December 93.** 7th EDF. EDF DO SYS 9999 A4a,e

Hydroelectric project «Los Toros». Construction of an hydroelectric power station. Civil works, supply of electromechanical and hydromechanical equipment. Capacity 9.2 Mw. Annual output 57.27 Gwh. Estimated cost 25.4 mECU. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF DO 7005 A2ai

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

Essential goods import programme. Resp. Auth.: Presidency of the Republic. Estimated cost 1.5 mECU. Hard currency allowance to import essential goods. Project on appraisal. 5th and 6th EDF. EDF EG 0000 A1c

Conservation and rational utilisation of the forest ecosystems. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock farming, Fisheries and Forests. Directorate General for Forests. 5.070 mECU. Land Classification and Use Master Plan — National System of Conservation Units — Forest Training and Research Centre. T.A. and supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF EG 6001 A3c, e, i

Rural development programme in the South-East. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture. 4.500 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF EG 6005 (7001) A3a

ERITREA

Small Scale irrigation in the Western Lowlands of Eritrea. Resp. Auth.: Department of Agriculture. Estimated cost 1.690 mECU. Rehabilitation works, supply of drinking water, agricultural inputs, T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF ET 7255 A3a

ETHIOPIA

AFAR Rural Development. To improve living conditions. Human health facilities, better animal disease control programmes, microprojects programmes. T.A. **★ Projet en execution.** 7th EDF. EDF ET 7004 A3a

Structural Adjustment Support Programme. General Import Programme. Hard currency allowance to the Central Bank. 75 mECU. T.A. for counterpart funds, **★ social policy and G.I.P. follow-up.** **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF. EDF ET 7200 A1c

Strengthening of water supply and sanitation in Addis Ababa. Resp. Auth.: Addis Ababa Water Supply and Sewerage Authority. Estimated cost 1.990 mECU. Supply of metering and control equipment. T.A. and consultancies. Project on appraisal.

7th EDF.
EDF ET 5006/7 A2b,A8c

FIJI

Construction of 2 bridges (Sigatoka, Ba). Resp. Auth.: Public Works Dept. 10 mECU. EDF 9.640 mECU, local 0.360 mECU. Bridge reconstruction after cyclone Kina. Study to revise drawings: short-list done. Project on appraisal. **Date foreseen for financing February 94.** 7th EDF. EDF FIJ 7002 A2d

Vunidawa and Korovou bridges construction. Resp. Auth.: Public Works Dept. 1.135 mECU. Drawings and construction of Korovou bridge, deck construction for Vunidawa bridge. **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF. EDF FIJ 7002 A2d

GABON

Support for rehabilitation of the national health system. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population. 11 mECU. Supply of equipments, essential medicines, T.A. and training, evaluation. **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF. EDF GA 7002 A7

GAMBIA

Rural Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs. 14.5 mECU. Rehabilitation of water schemes, supply of road equipment and materials, T.A. and supervision. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF GM 6004 A3a

Structural Adjustment Support Programme — General Import Programme 1993. 4.200 mECU. Hard currency allowance. **★ Project in execution.** 7th EDF. EDF GM 7200/001 A1c

GHANA

Accra Plains Livestock Development Project (APLDP). Estimated total cost 4 mECU. EDF part 3 mECU, local 1 mECU. Provision of veterinary and animal husbandry extension services, including construction of cattle treatment centres, water points and other inputs. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF GH 6006 A3a

Twifo oil palm development. Maintenance aid 1988-1991. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (M.F.E.P.). Total estimated cost 12.6 mECU. EDF 5 mECU, local 7.6 mECU. Works, supply of equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF GH 6007 A3a

Third microprojects programme. (Lomé III). EDF 18.500 mECU Construction of schools, clinics, wells, sanitation facilities, markets. T.A. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF GH 6102 A6, A7, A8

Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. 1993. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EEC goods. There is a negative list of items not eligible (military-luxury and environmentally hazardous products). 29 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF. EDF GH 7200 A1c

Human resources development programme. 5 mECU. Supply of equipments. T.A. and evaluation. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF GH 7003 A6

Small and Medium Enterprises Development Programme. Assistance in the preparation of business development plans. Financial contribution to the Ghana Venture Capital Fund. 4.8 mECU. **★ Project in execution.** 7th EDF. EDF GH 7004 A5b,e

GRENADA

Microprojects programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Labour, Social Service, Community Development. 0.220 mECU. Water supply, road improvements, repairs and extension of schools, medical and community centre and sports grounds. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF GRD 7102

GUINEA

Agricultural Programme in «Guinée Maritime» (PAGM) II. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et des Ressources Animales. 15 mECU. Infrastructural works, supply of agricultural inputs, equipments, **★ T.A. and training.** **Date financing December 93.** 7th EDF. EDF GUI 6001(1) A3a

Development of the secondary towns. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Aménagement du Territoire. Estimated cost 7 mECU. Buildings, market, railway stations, roads, T.A. and training, management, work supervision, supply of equipments. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF GUI 7008 A8a,b

GUINEA BISSAU

Rural development programme. 23.8 mECU. Improvement of food and fisheries production, line of credit, micro-projects, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF GUB 6001 A3a

Project for the rehabilitation of social and economic infrastructures. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. 11 mECU. Road rehabilitation, schools, health centres, urban roads, markets, water and sanitation. Construction of secondary bridges, access roads, supply of a ferry. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 6th and 7th EDF. EDF GUB 6013 (PRI) A7, A8

Farim bridge construction. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 11 mECU. Bridge over Cacheu river. Works and supervision. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF GUB 7006 A2d

Cultural actions promotion programme. Resp. Auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Culture et à l'Information and EEC Delegation in Bissau. 1.650 mECU. Safeguard of the cultural heritage, training, manifestations, studies. **★ Project in execution.** 7th EDF. EDF GUB 7008 A5g,i

General Import Programme. 8 mECU. Hard currency allowance. T.A. foreseen. **★ Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF. EDF GUB 7200 A1c

GUYANA

Sea defence programme. Resp. Auth.: Hydraulic Division. 12 mECU. Rehabilitation of 11 km of sea defences, procurement of materials and equipment. T.A. and training. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF. EDF GUA 6003 (7001) A8g

Immediate action programme for the Demerara Harbour Bridge. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. 8 mECU. Works, supplies, T.A. and training. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF. EDF GUA 6011 (7002) A2d

New Amsterdam water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance. 4.5 mECU. Construction of the ring main system, reservoir, supplies T.A. and training. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF. EDF GUA 6012 (7003) A2b

JAMAICA

Credit scheme for micro and small enterprises. Resp. Auth.: Planning Institute of Jamaica. Implementation by Apex Institution and Coordination and Monitoring Unit. 7 mECU. Line of credit, T.A. and evaluation. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 5th, 6th and 7th EDF. EDF JM 5020 A4,A5

Water Supply, sewerage, institutional strengthening programme. Resp. Auth.: National Water Commission (NWC). Estimated cost 18 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF JM 7005 A8a,b,c

KENYA

Revival and Development of the Swahili Culture. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Home Affairs and National Heritage. National Museums of Kenya (N.M.K.). 1.990 mECU. Safeguarding, acquisition and restoration, supply of equipment, T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF KE 7004 A5i

AIDS/STD Control in Kenya. Renovation and extension of the STD referral clinic in Nairobi. 0.385 mECU. Date financing October 93. 7th EDF. EDF KE 0/8000 A7

MADAGASCAR

Kamolandy bridge reconstruction. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 1.540 mECU. Submersible-type bridge. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF MAG 6027 A2d

Renovation of provincial airports. Cofinancing with France. EDF 16.4 mECU. Works, equipment and supervision. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing *January 94.* 6th EDF. EDF MAG 6016 A2d

Improvement of the agriculture and fishing in the Far South. Resp. Auth.: Ministère d'Etat, du Développement Rural. Estimated cost 1.900 mECU. Works, supplies, study, T.A. and evaluation. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF MAG 7003 A3a

Road infrastructure rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimation 70.850 mECU. Rehabilitation works, supervision. Project on appraisal. 6th

and 7th EDF. EDF MAG 7004 A2d

MALAWI

Aid for refugees. Resp. Auth.: Food Aid Coordination Unit in the Office of the President and Cabinet (OPC). 5.224 mECU. The programme concerns basic needs for refugees from Mozambique. Roads, wells, drinking water, health, education. Management by UNHCR, Red Cross, MSF, Concern Universal. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF MAI 7255 A6, 7, 8

AIDS prevention programme Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. 1.200 mECU. Supply of information material, laboratory equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF MAI 7001 A7

Structural Adjustment Facility (SAF) — General Import Programme. Resp. Auth.: Reserve Bank of Malawi. 30.6 mECU. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC goods, with negative list. T.A. for management and audit purposes. *Date financing October 93.* 7th EDF. EDF MAI 7200 A1c

MALI

Health programme and population. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Santé Publique. Estimated total cost 50 mECU. EDF 10 mECU, F.R. Germany and France 6.4, World Bank 21.6 mECU, local 3.5 mECU, USAID 8.2 mECU. Rehabilitation of health centres. T.A. for pharmaceutical sector, supply of medicines (with anticonceptionals and condoms). *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF MLI 7002 A7

Support to the Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. 93-94. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC goods, with negative list. 26.250 mECU. T.A. to improve efficacy of the taxes and incomes department. Project in execution. 6th and 7th EDF. EDF MLI 7200 A1c

Fight against erosion around the road Bandiagara-Dourou. Dogon region. Estimated cost 0.900 mECU. Resp. Auth.: Commandant de Cercle de Bandiagara. Works by direct labour, T.A. by Association Française des Volontaires du Progrès (AFVP). Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF MLI 6001/003/7 A3i

Support to develop rural credit. Resp. Auth.: Banque Nationale de Développement Agricole. BNDA. EDF part 1.910 mECU. T.A. and line of credit, training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF MLI 6001/002 A5a

Fight against silting up and development of forest resources in the Northern regions. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Environnement — Direction Nationale des Eaux et Forêts. 6.810 mECU. Infrastructural works, forest and trees, supplies, follow-up and training. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF. EDF MLI 6001/001 A3a

Strengthening of hydraulic village infrastructures in the Bankass and Koro Cercles in the 5th region. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Mines, de l'Energie et de l'Hydraulique. Direction Nationale de l'Hydraulique et de l'Energie (DNHE). 1.989 mECU. Drilling works by acc. tender. Supply

and installation of hand pumps. T.A. and follow up. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF. EDF MLI 6005/001 A2b

Development of secondary towns in the 4th and 5th regions. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Administration Territoriale et de la Décentralisation. 5 mECU. Water supply in 3 towns, sewage works, markets, schools, waste collect systems in 6 towns. Works by acc. tenders. Supply of equipments and T.A. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF. EDF MLI 7008 A2b

Programme for the reception of 70 solar pumps. Resp. Auth.: DNHE. 2.9 mECU. Works by acc. tenders. Supply of equipments and T.A. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF. EDF MLI 7011 A2b

MAURITANIA

Support for the structural adjustment programmes. General Import Programme. Hard currencies allowance to purchase EEC and ACP goods with negative list. 18 mECU. T.A. foreseen for implementation of the G.I.P. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF MAU 7200 A1c

Second Road Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. 7.350 mECU. Supply of equipment and materials by int. tender. Studies, auditing, T.A. and training. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF. EDF MAU 6004-7004 A2d

MAURITIUS

West Coast Irrigation Project. Resp. Auth.: Irrigation Authority. 7 mECU. Improvement of the water intake structures at Magenta dam. Rehabilitation of the Magenta canal. Works and supply of equipments by int. tender. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF. EDF MAS 6013 A3c

MOZAMBIQUE

Structural Adjustment Support Programme. General Import Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministères du Commerce et des Finances. 54.7 mECU. hard currency allowance to import ACP and EEC goods. There is a negative list of items not eligible (military-luxury and environmentally hazardous products). T.A. for management, follow up and evaluation. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF MOZ 7200 A1c

Training for railway staff. Phase II. T.A. for the regional School at Inhambane and the provincial centres of railway training. 20 mECU. T.A. and supply of equipment. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF MOZ-REG 6409 A2d, A6d

Support for the rural health sector. 15.390 m ECU. Assistance to populations, assistance for mutilated and disabled war victims. Management by existing N.G.O.'s. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF MOZ 7255 A7

Support for road rehabilitation and water supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Construction et de l'Eau. Direction Nationale des Routes et des Ponts (DNEP) and Direction Nationale de l'Eau (DNA). 10 m ECU. Works and supplies. T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF MOZ 7005 A2d

Reinstatement of displaced, refugee and demobilized people. 11 m ECU. For about 108,000 families. Supply of T.A., workshops, tools, building materials and equipments, 'Kits' for S.M.E's, agricultural tools, seeds. Project in execution. 7th EDF
EDF MOZ 7006 A3a

Support to the students in eastern countries. Resp. Auth.: O.I.M. Organisation Internationale pour les Migrations.
★ 1.950 mECU. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF.
EDF MOZ 7101/002 A6i

Rehabilitation project for the reinstatement of refugees and returned people in the rural sector. 12 mECU. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF
EDF MOZ 7012 A3a

Roads rehabilitation programme in the Zambezia and Sofala provinces. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de la Construction et de l'Eau. Estimated cost 30 mECU. Roads and bridges rehabilitation. Works and supervision. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF
EDF MOZ 7005/001 A2d

NAMIBIA

Support programme for the mining sector. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Mines and Energy. Day-to-day administration by the Industrial Development Corporation. 40 mECU. Mine development, expansion, drillings, tiling plant, recuperations, small scale mining. Works and supplies by int. tender. T.A. and training. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF NAM SYS 9999 A4a

Institutional support for the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development. 1.3 mECU. T.A. for agricultural planning and marketing and production economics. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF NAM 7003 A1c

Namibia Integrated Health Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health and Social Services. 13.500 mECU. Infrastructures, equipment, training and T.A. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93.* 7th EDF.
EDF NAM 7007 A7

Upgrading and rehabilitation of primary school physical facilities in rural areas. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education and Culture. 1.800 mECU. Construction, equipments, T.A. for supervision, evaluation. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF NAM 7008 A6a

Expansion of NBC transmitter network and production facilities for educational broadcasting. Resp. Auth.: Namibian Broadcasting Corporation. Estimated total cost 5.7 mECU. EDF 5 mECU, local 0.700 mECU. Works, supply of equipments, technical training and technical consultancies. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF NAM 7005 A6i

Rural Development Support Programme for the Northern Communal Areas. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development. 7.7 mECU. Strengthening of the agricultural extension service, training of extension officers and establishment of a rural credit system. Supply of office equipment, vehicles, agricultural inputs, T.A., training, evaluation.
★ Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing January 94.* 7th EDF.
EDF NAM 7011 A3a

NIGER

Sectoral Import Programme for medical supplies and inputs for the productive system. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de Finances et du Plan. 23 m ECU. Hard currency allowance to finance imports. T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF
EDF NIR 7002 A1c

Sanitation of the Agadez Town. 1.600 mECU. Sanitation works, interception and drainage canals, supervision works by acc. tender. Supervision by a local consultant. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF.
EDF NIR 7006 A8b

Small-scale irrigation in the South Zinder. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Elevage. 1.750 mECU. Works, supplies, training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF NIR 7009 A3c

Vocational and technical training project (NIGETECH). Resp. Auth.: Ministère de Finances et du Plan. 3.8 mECU. Seminars, scholar-ships, trainer training, T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF NIR 7101 A6d

NIGERIA

Export Development Programme. Resp. Auth.: Nigerian Export Promotion Council. 37 mECU. To transfer export know how to ± 250 Nigerian firms. Components: sectors, market, human resources and institutional development. Others: T.A. for management and supervision. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF UNI 6011 A5d

General Import Programme. 55 mECU. Hard currency facility to import goods and equipment not specifically excluded via a negative list. T.A. foreseen. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF UNI 7200 A1c

Rubber Research Institute of Nigeria (RRIN). Resp. Auth.: R.R.I.N. 8 mECU. Works, infrastructures, rehabilitation of building, repair of roads, water supply. Supply of vehicles, tractors, laboratory and comp. equipment. T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF
EDF UNI 6012 (7002) A3a

University Libraries Project. Resp. Auth.: National Universities Commission. 11.500 mECU. Small repair work, supply of book, and scientific journals, equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 7th EDF
EDF UNI 7004 A6b

Katsina Arid Zone Programme. Resp. Auth.: Governor of Katsina State. 25 mECU. Soils and forests protection, livestock, increase agricultural productivity, irrigation, rural and social infrastructure, management and coordination, training. T.A.: restr. tender after prequalification. Project in execution. 7th EDF
EDF UNI 7005 A3a

Urgent assistance for the News Agency of Nigeria (N.A.N.) Resp. Auth.: N.A.N. 1.300 mECU. Repair-reconstruction of N.A.N. communication building, procurement — installation of new telecommunication equipments. Works, supplies and T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF UNI 7007 A5g

NITEL Maintenance training programme. Resp. Auth.: Nigerian Telecommunications. 10.5 mECU. Rehabilitation

works, supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF UNI 7008 (6004) A2c

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Third Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. 8.5 m ECU. Same as 2nd programme. Project in execution. 7th EDF
EDF PNG 7201 A1c

Human resources development programme. Resp. Auth.: National Dept. of Education (NDOE) and Commission for Higher Education (CHE). 15 mECU. Works: building renovation, university construction, rehabilitation works, works supervision, scholarships, training. Works for the university by int. tender. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93.* 7th EDF.
EDF PNG 6008/7001 A6a,b

Ramu road improvement. Resp. Auth.: Department of works. Estimated cost 20 mECU. Upgrading of 73 Km of the Ramu highway (Pompuquato bridge to Usino junction) from the present gravel pavement to a bituminous sealed pavement and associated bridge works. Works and supervision. Design study: short-list done. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing February 94.* 6th EDF.
EDF PNG 6017 A2d

Environmental Monitoring of Mining. Resp. Auth.: Dept. of the Environment and Conservation. EDF 1.4 mECU. T.A. for 30 man/months and technical consultancies. Training. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF
EDF PNG 7001 A4a

RWANDA

Drinking water supply in the Bugesera East. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de Travaux Publics. 9.920 mECU. Pumps, treatment, tanks, renovation existing network. Works, supplies and supervision. Works: int. tender already launched. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93.* 7th EDF.
EDF RW 6007 (7002) A2b

ST. KITTS AND NEVIS

Development of Social Infrastructure - Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education and Ministry of Works, Communications and Public Utilities. 0.872 mECU. Construction and supply of furnitures for primary schools, supply of equipments, T.A. for supervision of works. Project on appraisal. 5th and 6th EDF.
EDF SCN 6001 A6a

SAO TOME & PRINCIPE

Sectoral Import Programme for Structural Adjustment Support. Resp. auth.: Secrétariat d'Etat à la Coopération — Délégation de la Commission à Libreville et Antenne de la Commission à Sao Tomé. 1.5 mECU. Medical supplies, school equipment, foods and T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF STP 7200 A1c

Improvement of the port. 0.450 mECU. Works and supervision. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF.
EDF STP-REG 6202/001 A2d

SENEGAL

St-Louis regional development programme. 22.5 mECU. Jobs creation, lines of credit, T.A. to the S.M.E's, training, studies. Health centres, clinics, medical equipments and consumables, training, information. T.A. to the Direction Régionale in St-Louis and to the Service des Grandes Endémies in Podor. Drainage network, sanitation. Environmental protection with wind-breaks. T.A. Study of a water-engineering scheme in Podor. Works by acc. tender. Supplies by int. tender. T.A. by restr. tender. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF. EDF SE 6002/7002 A3a

Support to the national programme to fight AIDS. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Comité National de Lutte contre le sida. CNLS. 1.700 mECU. Works, rehabilitation, supply of equipment, T.A., management, training. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF SE 7003 A7

SIERRA LEONE

Agricultural Sector Support Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. 14.3 mECU. Construction of roads, rehabilitation of feeder roads, vehicles, agricultural inputs, materials, T.A. for project management, training. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF SL 7001 A3a

Electricity Sector rehabilitation project. Resp. Auth.: National Power Authority. Estimated total cost 52 mECU. EDF 12.5 mECU, E.I.B. 15.5 mECU, World Bank 17.5 mECU, local 3 mECU, Japan 6 mECU. EDF part: rehabilitation of the distribution network. Works, supply of equipments and T.A. for supervision. **Date financing December 93.** 6th EDF. EDF SL 6005 A2ai

Rural water supply and sanitation. Estimated cost 7 mECU. Wells rehabilitation, water points, equipments and T.A. **Date financing November 93.** 7th EDF. EDF SL 5001/7 A2b, A8c

SOLOMON ISLANDS

Rural fishing enterprises project - Phase II. Total cost estimated 1.630 mECU. EDF 1.5 mECU, local 0.130 mECU. Construction works, fishing and office equipments and T.A. for project coordinator. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF SOL 6010/001 A3a

Cyclone Nina Rehabilitation Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministres of Transport, Work, and utilities, Agriculture, National Resources and Education and Human Resources development and the EC delegation. 1 mECU. Rehabilitation of roads and public schools. **Projet in execution.** 7th EDF. EDF SOL 7002 A8g

Malaita rural infrastructure programme. Resp. Auth.: Malaita Provincial Government (MPG). 6 mECU. Roads and wharves, supply of equipments and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing February 94. 7th EDF. EDF SOL 5013 (7) A2d

SURINAME

Rehabilitation Road Section Jenny - Ingikondre. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works. 4.5 mECU. New asphalt surfacing on

37 km and ancillary works. T.A. for supervision and tender dossier preparation. Works: acc. tender (conditional) launched. Opening 27.1.93. **Date financing November 93.** 5th EDF. EDF SUR 5011 A2d

SWAZILAND

Technical Cooperation programme. Resp. Auth.: Government of Swaziland (N.A.O.) 1.860 mECU. T.A. 12 person-years to selected agencies in the public and parastatal sectors. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF SW 7001 A1f

Institutional Strengthening of Government's Central Agencies. 5 mECU. To achieve an appropriate level of institutional planning and management capacity in the central ministries. Three T.A. for 4 years under 'link' arrangement with a European Public Administration training institution. Fellowships. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF SW 5019/7003 A6c

VOCTIM - Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works and VOCTIM. (Vocational and commercial Training Institute Matsapha). 1.100 mECU. Construction and equipment of buildings and staff houses. **Projet in execution.** - 7th EDF. EDF SW 5006/001 A6b

TANZANIA

Port development, Zanzibar and Pemba ports, phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. Zanzibar. Estimated total cost 13.4 mECU. EDF 10 mECU, Italy 3.4 mECU. Procurement and rehabilitation of cargo handling equipment. Rehabilitation of transit sheds, construction of passenger terminal with RO-RO facilities. Study: design of passenger terminal with RO-RO facilities for Zanzibar port. Short-list done. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 6009 A2d

Structural Adjustment Support Programme - General Import Programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Central Bank of Tanzania. 55 mECU. Import of goods in the context of Tanzania's open general licence system, subject to a negative list. T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF TA 7200 A1c

Support for Aids Control in Tanzania. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Health. 3 mECU. To strengthen health and other support services. Supply of equipment and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 08000/000 (7001) A7c

Serengeti Conservation and Development project. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Tourism, Nat. Resources and Envir. 9 mECU. Road and water supply rehabilitation, supply of equipments, studies and T.A. **Projet in execution.** 7th EDF. EDF TA 7002 A3a

Mwanza-Nyanguge Road Rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Transport and Communications. Estimated cost 35 mECU. Rehabilitation of 62 Km of trunk roads (Nyanguge-Mwanza and Mwanza airport) and rehabilitation of Mwanza sewerage system (main works). Design study ongoing. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 6021 A2d

Training and Training Institutions support project. Training materials, equipments, training, University Twinning.

★ T.A. **Projet in execution.** 7.1 mECU. 7th EDF. EDF TA 6001 A6b

Support to Ministry of Finance, Zanzibar. Estimated cost 1.300 mECU. Equipments and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 7007 A1c

Support Unit to N.A.O. Estimated cost 2 mECU. Equipments and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 7008 A1c

Mwanza Water Supply. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water energy and minerals. Estimated cost 11.100 mECU. Works, pumping equipments, studies and supervision. Short-list done. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 5005(7) A2b

Iringa Water Supply. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of water, energy and minerals. Estimated cost 9.100 mECU. Pumping, Treatment, storage and distribution. Works, equipments, design and supervision. Short-list done. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TA 7009 A2

TOGO

General Import Programme. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and E.C. goods. T.A. for management and implementation. 17 mECU. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF TO 7200 A1c

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

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Support to the Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. Hard currency allowance to purchase EEC and ACP goods with negative list. T.A. for six months for GIP implementation and the use of counterpart funds. 9.7 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 6th and 7th EDF. EDF TR 7200 A1c

Rural Electrification. Resp. Auth.: Trinidad and Tobago Electricity Commission. 2 mECU. Connection of isolated rural communities to electricity supply network. Works, supply of equipments and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF TR 5014 A2ai

Road rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Works. 16 mECU. Rehabilitation of several road segments in Western Trinidad. Works by int. tender. Supervision. **Date financing December 93.** 7th EDF. EDF TR 6003 A2d

UGANDA

Structural Adjustment Support Programme General Import Programme. Phase II. 30,250 mECU. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC goods. There is negative list of items not eligible (military-luxury items). Project on appraisal. Identification study: short list done. 7th

EDF. *Human Resources Development Programme*.
EDF UG 7200 A1c

Human resources development programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance and Economic Department. 12.8 mECU. Infrastructural rehabilitation, equipments, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF UG 7001 A6b, c, d

Smallholder Tea Development Programme. (STDP). Resp. Auth.: Uganda Tea Growers Corporation (UTGC). 20 mECU. Increase in the production and quality, management improvements, infrastructure development, institutional and financial sustainability, environment conservation and regional development. Works, supply of equipments, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF.
EDF UG 6002/7002 A3a

Uganda health project. Phase III of the Rural health Programme, West Nile Health Programme and the Uganda Blood Transfusion Service Project Phase II. Infrastructure rehabilitation equipment (vehicles, furnishings, offices), medical supplies and tests, in service training and T.A. and management. 20 mECU. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF UG 6012/7003 A7

Institutional Support. Resp. Auth.: National Authorizing Officer. 1.5 mECU. Reinforce the capacity of the NAO office. T.A., training and supply of equipments.
★ *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF.
EDF UG 6023/7004 A1c

Support to the Constituent Assembly elections. Resp. Auth.: Constitutional Commissioner. 1.950 mECU. Supply of equipments with the exception of vehicles. *Date financing November 93.* 7th EDF
EDF UG 7003 A1c

VANUATU

Rural primary school rehabilitation. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Education. 3.600 mECU. Rehabilitation of 36 schools and 5 maintenance workshops, Works, T.A., training and evaluation. Project on appraisal.
★ *Date foreseen for financing January 94.* 7th EDF
EDF VA 7005 A6a

Rural access roads project. Resp. Auth.: Public Work Department. EDF 2.305 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. for design and supervision and P.W.O. management. Project on appraisal. *Date foreseen for financing January 94.* 7th EDF
EDF VA 6009/001 A2d

ZAMBIA

General Import Programme. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Bank of Zambia. 39 mECU. Hard currency allowance to import ACP and EC good. T.A. already financed on previous funds still on the spot. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF.
EDF ZA 7200 A1c

SYSMIN III - General import. Resp. Auth.: Bank of Zambia. 60 mECU. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF ZA 9999 - SYS A1c

Zambian Centre for accountancy studies. Phase II. EDF 6.8 m ECU, T.A., supplies and Works. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF.
EDF ZA 6001/7001 A6a

Social Sector Support Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministries of Health, Education,

Water Affairs and Local Governments. 12 mECU. Rehabilitation works and health infrastructures, water supply, education. Supply of drugs and equipments, and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF.
EDF ZA 7003 A7,A8

Reorganisation and restructuring of the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Services. Resp. Auth.: Department of National Parks and Wildlife services. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF ZA 7002 A3c,d

ZIMBABWE

OMAY Kanyati and Gatshe Gatshe land use and health programme. Resp. Auth.: A.D.A. 4.6 mECU. Raising the standard of living of rural populations. Conservation and improved utilisation of the Wild Life resource, support to agriculture and improvement of social infrastructure. Road network, water, sanitation, building of a district hospital, equipment and supplies. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF ZIM 6004/7002 A3a

Structural Adjustment Programme. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development. 28 mECU. General Import Programme and T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF ZIM 7200 A1c

Support to the Faculty of Veterinary Science of the University of Zimbabwe. Resp. Auth.: Faculty of Veterinary. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Supply of vehicles and equipments. T.A., University link, fellow-scholarships. For Zimbabwe and SADC region. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF ZIM 5004/7001 A6b

Mashonoland East Fruit and Vegetable Project. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Agricultural Development Authority. 3.300 mECU. Provision of transport, construction of houses and assembly markets. Supply of equipments and T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF.
EDF ZIM 5012/7003 A3a

Wildlife Veterinary Project. Resp. Auth.: Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management. EDF 1.500 mECU. Increase of wildlife population, particularly of endangered species: black and white rhino — tourism development, works, supplies, T.A., training and evaluation. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF
EDF ZIM 6018 A5c, A8f

Overseas Countries and Territories (OCT)

NETHERLANDS ANTILLES

Curaçao - Business Development Scheme, phase 2. Estimated total cost 5.366 mECU. EDF 4 mECU. Development of international competitiveness in the export sector. Management training strategy. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF NEA 6013/001 A5d,e

NEW CALEDONIA

Construction of a vocational training centre for apprentices. Estimated total cost 2.95 mECU. EDF part 0.830 mECU. Works by acc. tender. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF.
EDF NC 7002 A6d

Construction of section 5 of the Koné-Tiwaka road. Resp. Auth.: Direction de l'Aménagement de la Province Nord. ★ EDF 3.950 mECU. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF
EDF NC 7002 A2d

FRENCH POLYNESIA

Development of fishing-boats fleet. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: Etablissement pour la Valorisation des Activités Aquacoles et Maritimes (EVAAM). 7.125 mECU. EDF part 3.160 mECU, local 3.965 mECU. Construction of 5 tuna-vessels (24-25 m). Int. tender (conditional) no. 3665 launched. Date submission and opening in Papeete 30.9.93.
★ *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF.
EDF FP 6002/7001 A3d

Pearl Oyster programme. Resp. Auth.: EVAAM. 1.150 mECU. Supply of research equipment and training. T.A. and researches.
★ *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF
EDF POF 6006 A3d

FRENCH SOUTHERN AND ANTARCTIC TERRITORIES

Rehabilitation of the «Vie commune» building in the Kerguelen Islands. Lasting improvement of the daily life quality for scientists, researchers, technicians, meteorologists on duty. Works, supplies. Estimated total cost 0.900 mECU. EDF 0.600 mECU, France 0.300 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th and 7th EDF.
EDF TAA/6001/001 A6f

Regional Projects

ACP COASTAL STATES OF WEST AFRICA

Improvement of the legal framework for fisheries cooperation, management and development. Resp. Auth.: F.A.O. 1.500 mECU. T.A., workshops, publications, evaluations. *Projet in execution.* 7th EDF
EDF REG 710 A3a

WEST AFRICA

Post harvest improvement study in West Africa. Resp. Auth.: I.S.R.A.: Institut Sénégalais de Recherche Agricole. 2.8 mECU *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF.
EDF REG 7111 A3a

BENIN — BURKINA — NIGER

Regional project for the management of the 'W' national park and adjoining game reserves. Estimated total cost 10 200 mECU. To establish three management units and 10 bridges and 20 observation posts with their equipment. Building and rehabilitation of administrative, technical and social buildings, tracks and bridges. T.A., training and studies. Project on appraisal 6th EDF.
EDF REG 6122 A5i, A8f

CENTRAL AFRICA AND UDEAC

Regional Centre Bananas and Plantains (C.R.B.P.). Resp. Auth.: C.R.B.P. *Strengthening of infrastructures and management.* 2 mECU. In Nyombé. *Date financing December 93.* 7th EDF
EDF REG 6217 A3a

Inter-states transit in Central African Countries (T.I.P.A.C.) 5.5 mECU. To set up a regional scheme for transit transport. T.A. and training. Date financing December 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7202 A2d

EAST AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Statistical training centre for Eastern Africa in Tanzania. Resp. Auth.: Secretariat of the centre. 5 mECU, Widening of capacity. Construction of class-rooms, ★ offices and housing. *Project on appraisal.* 5th EDF. EDF REG 5311 (7) A6b

Institutional support to Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute (ESAMI). Resp. Auth.: ESAMI, Tanzania. 1.9 mECU. Extension of ESAMI installations plus provision of library, audio visual and printing equipment and improvement of kitchen and laundry facilities. ★ *Project in execution.* 6th EDF. EDF REG 6311 A6b

Strengthening Economic and Policy Research in NARS in Eastern Africa (NARS: National Agricultural Systems). Technical and logistic support for building-up strong socio-economic programmes in NARS in Eastern Africa. Estimated cost 1.200 mECU. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7306 A3c

PALOP COUNTRIES - ANGOLA - MOZAMBIQUE - GUINEA BISSAU - SAO TOMÉ & PRINCIPE - CAPE VERDE

Support to improve educational systems. 4.450 mECU. Trainers training, production of pedagogical equipment, T.A. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7901-001 A6b

Regional training for Middle Staff Statisticians. 3.5 mECU. Training of 900 middle staff statisticians in the five countries. Building-up a modular training system, training for trainees, workshops-newsletter. T.A. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7901-002 A6b,j

Regional Centre for Health Development. 3.480 mECU. Strengthening of public health systems in the 5 countries and better management of 385 sanitary districts. Training programmes, trainers training, T.A. ★ for starting. *Project in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF REG 7901-003 A6bi

COTE D'IVOIRE - ETHIOPIA - MALI

PAN African Rinder - Pest Campaign. Phase III. To improve financial autonomy of the livestock services, improving the vaccination programmes, supporting farmers associations and privatisation of certain profession in the livestock sectors. estimated cost 15.600 mECU. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 5007/003 A3a

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF C.O.I. - INDIAN OCEAN COMMISSION COMORES - MADAGASCAR - MAURITIUS - SEYCHELLES

Support for environmental programmes in C.O.I. countries. Resp. Auth.: Mauritius Regional Authorising Officer. 11

mECU. T.A. for the regional coordinating unit - for national coordinating units - for surveys on the coastal area and on the protection of plant biodiversity. Supply of equipment by int. tender, training. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6511/7 A8f

Regional programme to develop tourism in C.O.I. countries. Resp. Auth.: C.O.I. - Comité Permanent du Tourisme - C.P.T. 6.239 mECU. T.A. for setting-up the training programmes, sale, promotion and marketing, back-up operations to assist management, transfer of know-how and intra-regional solidarity, specific studies. Supplies and training. Project in execution. 6th and 7th EDF. EDF REG 6944/7 A5c

Integral automatization of telecommunications in the Indian Ocean. Resp. Auth.: C.D.I. 3.3 mECU. Date financing December 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 5512 (7) A2c

BURUNDI - RWANDA - TANZANIA - UGANDA - ZAIRE - KENYA

Northern Corridor-Rwanda. Rehabilitation of the road Kigali-Butare-Burundi border. Resp. Auth.: Ministère des Travaux Publics. Estimated cost 8 mECU. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF REG 6310 (RW....) A2d

MEMBER COUNTRIES OF ECOWAS

Improvement of postharvest utilisation of artisanal fish catches. Resp. Auth.: Sierra Leone National Authorizing Officer as Regional Auth. Off. Technical Secretariat in Abidjan. 8 mECU. Interventions in 16 countries. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6126 (001) A3a

PACIFIC ACP STATES

Human resources development in energy sector. 4.400 mECU. T.A. to improve management, technical performance and regulation of conventional power supplies and petroleum import. Project in execution. 6th EDF. EDF REG 5705/001 A2a,i

Pacific Tourism Development programme. Phase III. To assist Pacific ACP countries and OCT to develop their tourism sector. 11.530 mECU. Tourism marketing and promotion of the Pacific destination. Planning and policy capacities, research and statistics, manpower. *Project in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF REG 7701 A5c

Senior Public Sector Management Programme. Resp. Auth.: Forum Secretariat. Institute of Social and Administrative Studies (ISAS) of the University of the South Pacific (USP). 1.855 mECU. Training programmes, seminars, T.A. and evaluation. ★ *Project in execution.* 7th EDF. EDF REG 7703 A6j

Integrated Regional Programme for management and Control of Fishery. Resp. Auth.: South Pacific Commission. 4.650 mECU. Supply of equipment and T.A. Date financing December 93. EDF REG 6709/001 A3a

South Pacific Regional Tuna resources assessment and monitoring project. Resp. Auth.: South Pacific Commission 5 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A., evaluation, training. Date financing December 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6709/002 A3a

Assistance to the Pacific Plant Protection Service. Resp. Auth.: South Pacific Commission. 2.950 mECU. Supply of equipments, T.A. and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing. January 94. 6th EDF. EDF REG 5719/6 A3a

ANGOLA - MOZAMBIQUE

Training in the port and maritime fields. Training by experts and consultants. T.A., training and equipment. 0.950 m EC. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7403 A6b

SADC

Senior Managers' Training in Road Traffic and Transport. Resp. Auth.: SATCC. 2 mECU. Supply of equipment, T.A. evaluation. Fellowships. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6426 A6d

Collaborative effort for a maize and wheat improvement network. Resp. Auth.: SACCAR - CIMMYT. 3.970 m EC. T.A., training, supply of equipment. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7402 A3a

SADC Regional Customs Training Programme. Long-term. T.A. to the Botswana, Lesotho, Namibian and Swaziland customs services. Training and equipment. 1.9 mECU. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 5412/7 A1b

SADC Language Training Programme. Resp. Auth.: Institute of Languages in Maputo as Regional Project Coordinator (RPC). 2 mECU. English language training and Portuguese language training. Monitoring-evaluation. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6415/6430/6433/7 A6

Regional training programme for food security. Resp. Auth.: Food Security Technical and Administrative Unit (FSTAU) in Harare. 5 mECU. Training and T.A. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6420/7 A6ci

Southern African Foot and Mouth Disease Control Project. Resp. Auth.: Botswana as coordinator. 10 mECU. Works, supplies: vaccines, drugs, T.A. and training. ★ Line of credit. Date financing November 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 5406/001 A3a

S.I.M.S.E.C. - Sadc Initiative for Mathematics and Science Education Cooperation. To establish a professional unit, called SIMSEC Unit for information exchange, teacher training curriculum development, staff development, research cooperation and support for teachers' organisations. Project on appraisal. Estimated cost 5 mECU. Date foreseen for financing September 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6428 A6b

Development of the mining sector. Resp. Auth.: SADC Secretariat. 1.5 mECU. Preparation of the EEC-Southern Africa Mining forum (FOMIN). Preparation and promotion. T.A., monitoring and evaluation. Date financing December 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6444(7) A4

SADC — MOZAMBIQUE

Beira port dredging contract. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Construction and Water. 15 mECU. Dredging for two years of the access channel to the port of Beira. Works: 2 years, 4 million m³/year. Supervision and training. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7401 A2d

BENIN — COTE D'IVOIRE — GHANA — GUINEA — GUINEA BISSAU — TOGO

Regional programme to increase awareness in western coastal African countries of natural resources protection. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Environnement-Togo. Estimated cost 10 mECU. Priorities: fight against bush fires and deforestation and for soil protection. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF REG 6113 A3e

OECS — TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO BARBADOS — GUYANA

Regional fruit and vegetable marketing programme. Resp. Auth.: Caribbean Food Corporation. 6.2 mECU. T.A. and supplies. Project on appraisal. 6th EDF. EDF REG 6620 A5de

EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Support to the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre (ESAMRDC). Resp. Auth.: ESAMRDC — Dar es Salaam — Tanzania. 4.950 mECU. T.A., consultancies — databases, training, supply of equipment. Date financing November 93. 7th EDF. EDF REG 7407 A4-A7

ANGOLA, CAPE VERDE, ETHIOPIA, GHANA, GUINEA BISSAU, KENYA, MOZAMBIQUE, SIERRA LEONE, UGANDA, ZAMBIA, ZIMBABWE

Return and Reintegration of qualified african nationals. Phase II. Resp. Auth.: I.O.M. Geneva. 11.700 mECU. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing January 94. 7th EDF. EDF REG 6018/001 A8d, e

ACP COUNTRIES

Programme for fighting AIDS. Funding of regional actions. 20 mECU. Support for regional structures, improvement of information, funding of research and training actions. Supplies, T.A. and training. Project in execution. 7th EDF. EDF REG 8000 A7

Trade promotion. Trade development project. ACP-EC. To improve commercial performances. Estimated cost 7.200 mECU. T.A. actions, in twenty ACP countries on a preliminary period of two years. Project on appraisal. 7th EDF. EDF REG 70001/010 A5d, e

MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

ALGERIA

Structural Adjustment Support Programme. Sectoral Import Programme for building materials to finish 100.000 social houses. 70 mECU. hard currency allowance to cover CIF imports. Management by Crédit Populaire d'Algérie (C.P.A.). Special accounts in the Central Bank. Banque d'Algérie (B.A.). Purchase by a positive list (electrical equipment — spare parts). Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93. SEM AL 688-92 A1c

Support to the algerian rural sector. 30 mECU. Date financing November 93. SEM AL A3a

EGYPT

Oil pollution combating emergency centre at the entrance of the Gulf of Aqaba. 4.300 mECU. Project in execution. SEM EGT 771/91 A8f

Channel Maintenance Project (CMP). Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Works and Water Resources (MPWR). 40 mECU. Integrated weed control, irrigation, biological control, institutional support, training, T.A. for general management, procurement and contracting, planning, monitoring and supervision, works, supplies and training. Project in execution. SEM EGT 881/92 A3c

Public Enterprise Reform and Privatisation Programme. Privatisations, restructuring operations, addressing policy and managerial issues (employment and labour issues, public sector indebtedness, financing of the restructuring operations, use of privatisation proceeds). Training action programme, Project Management. Estimated EEC contribution 43 mECU. Project in execution. SEM EGT 506/93 A1b

Nile Valley regional programme — Phase 2. 5 mECU. Date financing October 93. SEM EGT A3a

JORDAN

Ground water investigation in the Hammad and Sirhan basins. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Water and Irrigation, Water Authority. 4 mECU. Initial studies, drilling exploration, surveys and analysis. Project on appraisal. SEM JO 589/90 A2a, A9a

Structural adjustment. Support programme. Hard currency allowance with negative list. 50 mECU. T.A. for follow-up and evaluation. Project in execution. SEM JO 440/92 A1e

Water sector intervention. 11.715 mECU. Date financing October 93. SEM JO A2a

Family Planning strengthening. 1.100 mECU. Date financing December 93. SEM JO A1h

LEBANON

T.A. to the Administration. Resp. Auth.: Conseil pour le Développement et la

Reconstruction. C.D.R. EEC contribution 30 m ECU. Establishment of consultant teams for CDR and various Ministries and Public Offices. Management Units and Implementation Units. Sectors: Water, electricity, sanitation, public works, finance, economic affairs. Studies. Project in execution. SEM LEB 1044/92 A1,A2

T.A. to prepare reconstruction works. 3rd phase. Resp. Auth.: C.D.R. EEC Contribution 1.500 m ECU. Sectors: oil and gas, agriculture, industry and non financial services. Project in execution. DEM LEB A8a

MALTA

Protection of Malta's coastline against oil pollution. Resp. Auth.: Oil Pollution Executive. 2.4 mECU. Supply of specialized equipment, training and T.A. Project in execution. Int. tender foreseen in February 94. SEM MAT A8f

Strengthening educational and economic relations with the Community. 1.7 mECU. Scholarships and traineeships, establishment of a Euro-Information Centre, integrated marketing programmes and tourism promotion. Different T.A. and purchase of equipment. Project in execution. SEM MAT 91/431 A5c, d

MOROCCO

Structural Adjustment Programme Support. General Import Programme. Hard currency allowance to the Central Bank — Bank AL-Maghrib, to import EC goods. With negative list. 80 mECU. Project in execution. SEM MOR 334/93 A1c

Rural development in the Central Haouz and Tassaut Aval. Resp. Auth.: Office régional de Mise en Valeur Agricole de Haouz. ORMVAH. EEC contribution 21.5 mECU. Irrigation works, tracks, T.A. and training. Works and supplies by int. tenders. Date financing December 93. SEM MOR 1088/93 A3a

Drinking water supply and sanitation in the small center. 16 mECU. Date financing December 93. SEM MOR A2b

SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC

Water Supply Bseira and Hama Rural Regions. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Local Administration. Governments of Deir Ez Zor and Hama. EEC contribution. 7.5 mECU. Drinking water supply. Supply of pipes and fittings and electrical-medical equipment. T.A. Project in execution. SEM SYR 662/91 A2b

TUNISIA

Date-palm trees in the Rejim-Maatoug region. Resp. Auth.: Office de Mise en Valeur de Rejim-Maatoug. EEC contribution 15 mECU. Italy 7 mECU. Drilling works by int. tender. Drilling equipment — Italy. Electrical equipment: Italy. Irrigation equipment: int. tender. T.A. Italy Project in execution. SEM TUN A3a

Support for the Structural Adjustment Programme. General Import Programme. Hard currency allowance. T.A. for

follow-up and evaluation. EEC contribution 40 mECU. Project in execution.
SEM TUN 000/92 A1v

Water and soil conservation. Resp. Auth.: Ministère de l'Agriculture — Direction de la Conservation des Eaux et des Sols, EEC contribution 45 mECU. Works by acc. tenders or direct labour. Supplies by int. tender. T.A.: ORSTOM (F) funded by France. Project in execution.
SEM TUN 000/92 A3c

Building of two vocational centres. 8 mECU. Date financing December 93.
SEM TWN A6d

TURKEY

Vocational training programmes for tourism and mining. EEC contribution 5.4 mECU. Seminars, staff, trainers, supply of equipment, studies. Project in execution.
SEM TU A5c, A4a, A6d

Programme to broaden relations between EEC and Turkey. EEC contribution 3.6 mECU. Scholarships, supply of equipment for the Universities of Ankara and Marmara. Training centre and language laboratory in Marmara. Establishment of a Euro-Turkish 'Business Council'. Project in execution.
SEM TU A6b

WEST BANK AND GAZA OCCUPIED TERRITORIES

Exceptional Aid for the benefit of the Palestinian population of the Occupied Territories. 60 mECU. To counteract the negative consequences of the Gulf war. Grants to extend credit and to create revolving funds, supplies of equipment and other materials and contributions to operating costs, technical assistance and training. Project in execution.
SEM OT 91 E A5e, A8a, b, c

Assistance to the Palestinian population of the West Bank of the Jordan and of the Gaza strip. EEC contribution 15 mECU. Health, education, production, environment, water, research and T.A. Project in execution.
SEM OT 93 A3, A6, A7, A8

Assistance to the Palestinian population of the West Bank of the Jordan and of the Gaza Strip. EEC Contribution 20 mECU. Assistance to the educational sector and T.A. Date financing November 93.
SEM OT 93/Ex A6b

Sanitation and drainage in Rafaj. 15 mECU. Date financing December 93
SEM OT A8c

EURO-MAGHREB COMMUNICATIONS S.A.R.L. PARIS

Euro-Maghreb training programme in communications. EEC contribution 1.400 mECU. Seminars, scholarships for young professionals from Maghreb countries. Project on appraisal.
SEM REG 687.92 A5g

A.L.A. developing countries ASIA and LATIN AMERICA

BANGLADESH

Cyclone Protection. Project II. Resp. Auth.: Bangladesh Water Development Board. Estimated total cost 78 mECU. EEC contribution 3.2 mECU. The EC will finance the existing T.A. provided by Kampsax International - BCEOM and the Danish Hydraulic Institute. The investment costs of the project will be financed by: Bangladesh (2.4 mECU), I.D.A. (19.6 mECU), Japan (17 mECU), Saudi Fund for Development (11.3 mECU). Project in execution.
ALA BD 9118 A8g

Jamuna-Dhaleswari Left Bank Studies (J.D.L.B.S.). Cofinancing with France. EEC contribution 4 mECU. France 4 mECU. Short-lists done. Date financing November 93.
ALA BD 9305 A8g

Coastal Embankment Rehabilitation Project (CERP). EEC contribution 15 mECU. Flood protection, forestry, agricultural development. Works, supplies and T.A. Project on appraisal. Date foreseen for financing 2nd half 93.
ALA BD 9320 A3a

Bangladesh rural advancement Committee (BRAC). EEC contribution 8.150 mECU. Project on appraisal.
ALA BD 9307 A3a

BHUTAN

Cultivation of Medicinal Plants for Traditional Medicine. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) - Dept. of Agriculture (DOA) - EEC Contribution 3.5 mECU. Short-term and long-term T.A.: coordination, agronomist, economist, pharmacology, processing. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Project in execution.
ALA BHU 9222 A3a

BOLIVIA

Flood protection for the town of Montero. Resp. Auth.: CORDECRUZ and SEARPI. Total estimated cost 15.670 mECU. EEC contribution 12.500 mECU. SEARPI 0.674 mECU, CORDECRUZ 2.5 mECU. (SEARPI: personnel, logistics, ancillary services, maintenance of works - CORDECRUZ: works - direct labour, logistics, operating costs). Studies, monitoring, training programmes, defence works. Works by acc. proc. supplies by int. tender. Project in execution.
BO 9235 A8g

CHINA (P.R.)

Gansu provincial irrigation experiment and training centre. Resp. Auth.: Water and Electricity Bureau of Lanzhou Municipality. EEC contribution 1.700 mECU. Supply of sprinkler irrigation systems by int. tender. Specialized T.A.: agronomist and engineers, training specialists. Project in execution.
ALA CHN 9313 A3a

Quinghai livestock development project. EC contribution 3.200 mECU. T.A., equipments, vehicles, training. Date financing December 93.
ALA CHN 93 44 A3a

COLOMBIA

Fondo Amazonico. Cofinancing of project with private or public institutions in different sectors: mining, forestry, agricultural, environmental, institutional development, information, educational, health, tourism. T.A. line of credit: EEC contribution 5 mECU. Project in execution.
ALA CO 9213 A3a

Drinking water - Sanitation - Pacific Coast. 7.5 mECU. Water conduits and sewers in 57 villages. Supplies: int. tender to be launched. Project in execution.
ALA CO 9239 A7c

COSTA RICA

Rural Integrated Development Programme in OSA-GOLFITO (Consolidation). EEC contribution 5.500 mECU. Supply of equipments, infrastructures, line of credit and T.A. Project in execution.
ALA COS 93/19 A3a

ECUADOR

Support to develop woman peasants and families in the Chimborazo Province. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio de agricultura y ganadería (MAG). EEC contribution 3.562 mECU. T.A., supply of vehicles and office equipments training, studies, line of credit. Project in execution.
ALA EQ 9317 A3a

EL SALVADOR

Rural development programme in the Chalatenango Department. EEC contribution 7 mECU. Cofinancing with IFAD. T.A. for monitoring, coordination, commercialisation, soil protection, reforestation, dynamisation of associations, specific action for women. Project in execution.
ALA SAL 9245 A3a

Health and basic health programme in the western region. EEC participation 10 mECU. Drinking water, sanitation, health centres, infrastructures, training, T.A. Project in execution.
ALA SAL 9330 A7c

Sonsonate Hospital Rehabilitation. EEC participation 7 mECU. Infrastructures, supply of equipment, T.A. and training. Project in execution.
ALA SAL 9331 A7a

GUATEMALA

Rural development programme in the Quiche Department. Resp. Auth.: Ministerio de Desarrollo (MINDES). 17.500 mECU. Support to the agricultural production and environment production. Support to the micro-industry. Works, supply of equipment, line of credit, T.A. Project in execution.
ALA GUA 9322 A3a

INDIA

Sector Support for Primary Education. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Human

Resources Development. EEC contribution 150 mECU. Support to the sectoral programme and T.A. for follow-up and education. Project in execution. ALA IN 9314 A6a

INDONESIA

Palawija Seed Production and Marketing. Resp. Auth.: Directorate General of Food Crops Agriculture. Ministry of Agriculture. EEC Contribution 9.7 mECU. Improvement of production and marketing of certified Palawija Seed Crops. Seed processing equipment by int. tender foreseen in January 94. Project in execution. ALA IND 8621 A3a

Development of Punggur Utaran Irrigation System Lampung. Resp. Auth.: Directorate General of Water Resources Development. (DGWRD). Ministry of Public Works. EEC contribution 29.3 mECU. Enlargement and upgrading of feeder, primary and secondary irrigation canals, construction of tertiary canals. T.A. for supervision of works and institutional strengthening for O&M and extension services. T.W.O.: int. tenders for feeder and primary canals, and restr. tender after prequalification by the end of 1993. Project in execution. ALA IND 9019 A2b

Ground water irrigation and water supply in North Bali. Resp. Auth.: DGWRD. EEC contribution 10.300 mECU. T.A. construction of production wells, institutional strengthening of agriculture extension and water user association. T.A. contract awarded. Project in execution. ALA IND 9119 A2b

EC-Indonesian Forest Sector Support Programme. Resp. Auth.: Directorate General for Forest Inventory and Land Use Planning - Ministry of Forestry. EEC contribution 25.882 mECU. Forest Inventory and monitoring. T.A. for detailed forest survey and mapping, training. Integrated Radio Communication Systems; T.A. for installation and training. Short-lists to be done. Project on appraisal. ALA IND 9242 A3c

EC-Indonesian Forest Programme: Forest Fire Prevention and control in South Sumatra. Resp. Auth.: Directorate General for Forest Inventory and Land Use Planning Ministry of Forestry. EEC contribution 4.050 mECU. T.A. for establishment of fire prevention analysis and procedures, 3 pilot projects for fire management units and equipment. Short-list to be done. Project on appraisal. ALA IND 9212 A3c

LAOS

Thakek water supply project. Resp. Auth.: Nam Papa Lao (NPL). EC contribution 3.5 mECU. Buildings, equipment and T.A. for supervision. Date financing November 93. ALA LA 9329 A2b

MERCO SUR

EC-Merco Sur (Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay). Cooperation programme and T.A. for technical standards. EEC contribution 3.950 mECU. Specialized T.A. and supply of equipments. Project in execution. ALA REG 9315 A1c

EC-Merco Sur cooperation programme and T.A. for the agricultural

sector. EEC participation 11.200 mECU. Institutional and technical support in the phyto-pharmaceutical and veterinary sectors. T.A., supplies, training and popularisation. *Date financing December 93.* ALA REG 9316 A3a

MONGOLIA

Strengthening of the Veterinary Services. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Agriculture. Dept. of veterinary medicine. EEC contribution 2.3 mECU. Purchase of equipment by int. tender. T.A. and training. Project in execution. ALA MNG 9209 A3a

NICARAGUA

TROPISSEC — Development of small rural production in the dry tropical zone. EC contribution 7 mECU works, supplies and T.A. *Date financing December 93.* ALA NI 9354 A3a

PAKISTAN

Rural roads in the Buner Area. Resp. Auth.: Provisional Government's Construction and Work Dept. (C & W) and District Council. 5 mECU. Construction of new sections of rural roads, upgrading of existing roads. Works by acc. tender. Supervision by European Consultant. Project on appraisal. AIA PK 9106 A2d

Rural Electrification in Punjab. Resp. Auth.: WAPDA Project Management Unit. EEC contribution 21 mECU. Electrification of 540 villages. Equipment by int. tenders, T.A. and training. Project in execution. ALA PK 9211 A2ai

Institute for Educational Development (IED). EEC contribution 5.4 mECU. Training and university cooperation. Management by Aga Khan Foundation-Karachi and Aga Khan University. Project in execution. ALA PK 9208 A6a, b

PANAMA — COSTA RICA — NICARAGUA — HONDURAS — EL SALVADOR — GUATEMALA

Regional programme for the collection and treatment of the hospital waste. Resp. Auth.: Ministry of Public Health in each country. EEC contribution 4.900 mECU. This programme covers the hospitals in the various capitals. Supply of equipment, incinerators, vehicles and tools. Training and European T.A. Supplies by int. tender. Project on appraisal. ALA REG 9133 A7a

Regional support programme for plant health. Resp. Auth.: O.I.R.S.A.-Organismo Internacional Regional de Sanidad Agropecuarias in San Salvador. EEC contribution 6.4 mECU. Supply of equipment, vehicles, tools by int. tender. Works by direct labour or acc. tender. T.A. long and short term. Training. T.A.: contract awarded. Project in execution. ALA REG 9137 A3a

Regional programme for T.A. and development of the telecommunications sector in Central America. EEC contribution 13.800 mECU. T.A. to COM-TELCA and centro-americans operators. Rural telephone networks and improvement of transmissions capacities. T.A.: contract

awarded. Supplies by int. tender. Project in execution. ALA REG 9123 A2c

PERU

Support for disadvantaged rural populations in the RENOM and INKA regions. EEC contribution 10 mECU. Microprojects, reafforestation, road infrastructure rehabilitation, improvement of production and marketing, educational and health programmes. T.A. and training. Project in execution. ALA PE 9244 A3a

Majes II Programme. Resp. Auth.: The Regional Government of the Arequipa Department. EEC contribution 11 mECU. Support for production (milk, fruit, vegetables), livestock, infrastructural works. T.A., line of credit. Supply of equipment by int. tender. Project in execution. ALA PE 9302 A3a

PHILIPPINES

Western Samar — Agricultural Resources Development Programme (WS-ARDI). Resp. Auth.: Department of Agriculture (DA). Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR). Department of Public Works and Highways (DPWH). EEC contribution 15 mECU. Works, supply of equipment, agricultural inputs, vehicles, long term T.A., training, evaluation. Project in execution. ALA PHI 9215 A3a

Agricultural Support Services for Small Islands (ASSSI). EEC contribution 20 mECU. To support local community oriented micro-projects, in agriculture, fisheries, livestock, marketing, training. T.A. and line of credit. Project in execution. ALA PHI 9232 A3a

Rural integrated development programme in the Aurore zone. EEC contribution 13 mECU. Works, supply of equipments and T.A. Project on appraisal. ALA PHI 9326 A3a

Tropical forests protection in Palawan. EEC contribution 17 mECU. Works, supplies and T.A. *Date financing December 93.* ALA PHI 9337 A3a

COSTA RICA — HONDURAS — NICARAGUA

Action programme for adolescent women and young unmarried mothers. 4 mECU. T.A., coordination, management, follow-up. Supply of equipment. Project in execution. ALA REG 9246 A8e

VENEZUELA — EQUATOR — COLOMBIA — PERU

Fishing programme VECEP. EEC contribution 20 mECU. Artisanal fishing, resources evaluation and training. Project in execution. ALA REG 9243 A3a

SRI LANKA

Moneragala Irrigation and Community Development. Resp. Auth.: Project Management Unit (PMU) — Project Steering Committee (PSC) — Ministry of Agriculture. Total cost 7.03 mECU — EEC

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Agricultural Transformation in Africa

Edited by David Seckler — *Winrock International Institute for Agricultural Development, North Kent St, Arlington, USA — 1992 — ISBN 0-933595-77-8 — 208 pages*

This is the report of a seminar of specialists in the economic development of sub-Saharan Africa held in Baltimore in May 1992. It covers four main topics, starting with a definition of the notion of agricultural transformation, in which we learn that there is a growth dynamic in rural households which enables them to go on producing cheap food.

Next, there is the problem of natural resources in sub-Saharan Africa, discussed against the backdrop of environmental decline and a population which doubles its size every 25 years. However, one or two positive aspects are highlighted. Malnutrition has spread no further, for example, and food prices and the growth in the average output of agricultural work are stable.

The third subject of discussion is the link between agriculture and other sectors and, most important, the link between agricultural processing and faster economic growth.

The book ends with a consideration of the means to be deployed to promote agricultural transformation.

No practical solutions are provided for the problem of Africa's agricultural development, for what the seminar does, in fact, is suggest one or two subjects of reflection and set aside many others (how to spread technology and the importance

of cooperation among donors, for example).

It is worth noting that the organisers of this event earlier ran a seminar on what Africa could learn from Asia. ■

Lorenza SQUARCI

Policy Options for Agricultural Development in sub-Saharan Africa

Casin/SAAGlobal 2000 — Edited by Nathan C. Russel and Christopher R. Dowsell — Airlie House, Virginia, USA — 1992 — 190 pages

This is the report of a working seminar involving the SAA (Sasakawa Afrika Association) and Global 2000 (Carter Centre), two organisations which combined to form SG 2000, an association which runs agricultural projects in sub-Saharan Africa. It reflects genuine cooperation between agricultural development specialists, SG 2000 and the Agriculture Ministers in the countries concerned.

The idea behind the cooperative venture is to use contrasting opinions to highlight what is needed to maintain and protect farming and so the discussions focused not on the end, which is self sufficiency in food, but on the fastest means of achieving it.

The report highlights the importance of introducing and transferring new agricultural technology. One vital question is how Africa's main farmers and producers can cope with the challenges of technological change — i.e. what can most beneficially and practically be done on the continent?

Two things, the writers suggest. First of all, the formation of a network of operators to transmit new technology to groups of farmers and use the feed-back to determine the best solutions to the problems of agricultural development. Second, provide practical training in the new technologies, with the possibility of direct testing (although this raises problems of technological dependence).

Macro-economically, they maintain, it would be wise to have flexible exchange rates, fewer trade barriers, more privatisation and less State intervention and, of course, there must also be a policy of disseminating and supporting internal technology.

Rural capital formation is also important, because it ensures the potential for a rural financial market. Thus, Africans should create a more hospitable environment that will attract businessmen and their investments.

In the final chapter, on the results of the structural adjustment policy, the writers discuss practical problems and take a clear and balanced approach to suggesting solutions. ■ L.S.

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Partial view of the Central Market in
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