

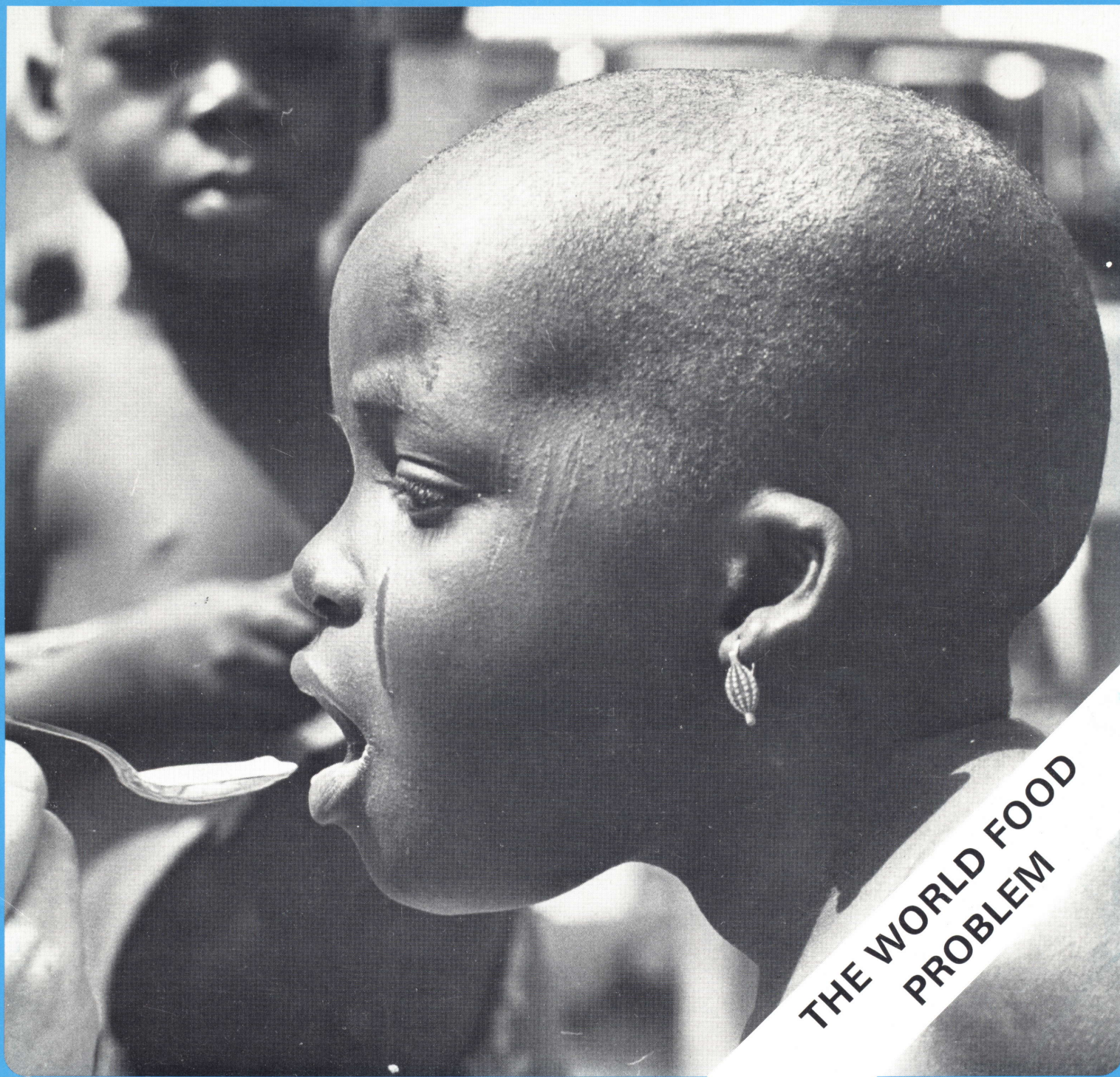


the courier

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY — AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC

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THE WORLD FOOD
PROBLEM

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

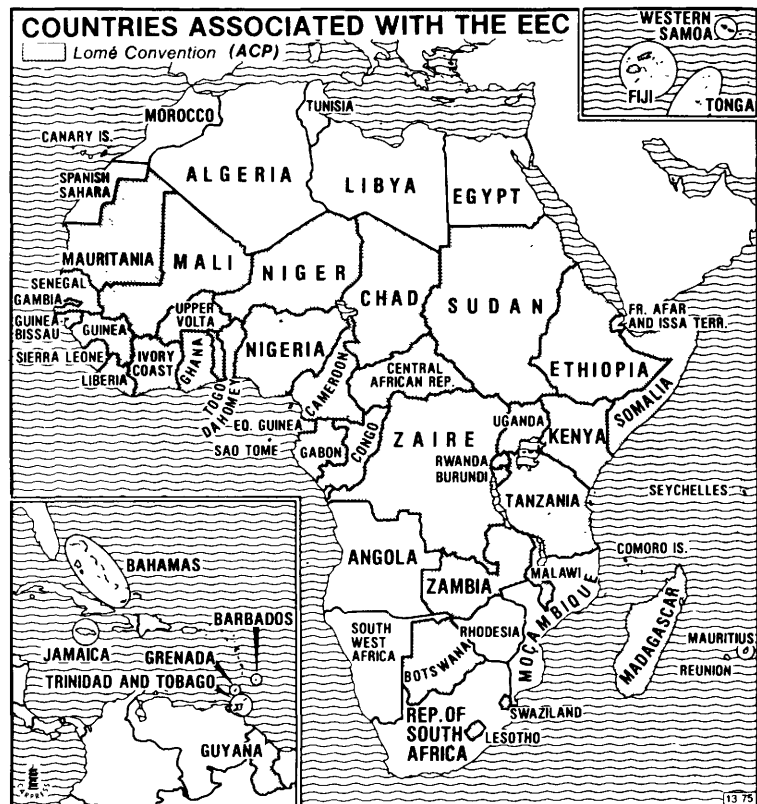
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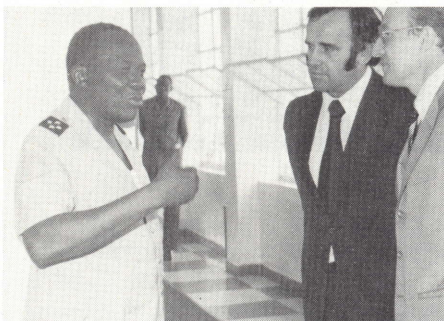
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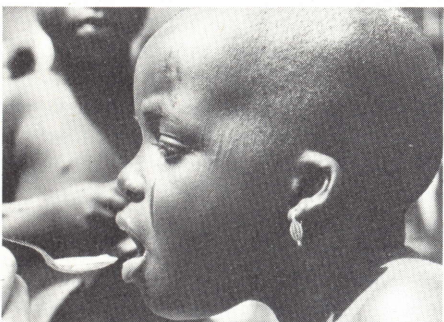


Alwin Brück — For some months there has been controversy between the socialist West German government and the Christian Democrat opposition over Germany's policy of co-operation and aid to the countries of the Third World. This took on renewed vigour with the publication in June 1975 of the Bonn government's 25 points defining the new policy. Last month (see Courier No. 34) a Christian Democrat spokesman summarised his party's position. In this issue Herr Alwin Brück outlines Bonn's new targets for aid, especially from Europe, and replies to opposition criticism. **Page 3**



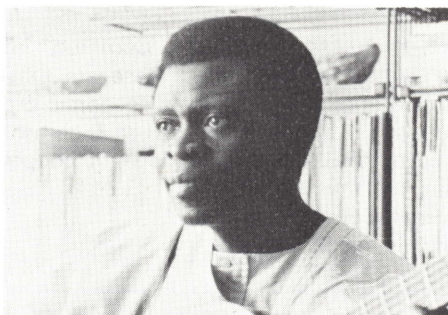
General Lamizana — Upper Volta is one of the 25 poorest countries in the world. It is a land-locked country in the Sahel and has suffered severely from the long drought of recent years. As a result of the great efforts made recently, it is now gradually recovering. President Sangoulé Lamizana sketches the country's development prospects, especially under the Lomé Convention. **Page 5**

Abdou Diouf — The Prime Minister of Senegal is regarded by observers of Senegal's political life as one of the outstanding figures in his country. He owes this reputation to a simplicity of approach and profound knowledge of economic matters and national and international policies. The Senegalese Premier explains to the "Courier" the current economic situation in his country and the positive role the EDF is playing in its development. **Page 13**



Dossier — Hunger and malnutrition are now a crucial international problem. Since the last World Food Conference important new moves have been made towards a solution; meanwhile, it is increasingly clear that food aid is less than enough. Dr. Boerma, who has just ended eight years as Director General of the FAO, describes how this organisation is tackling the problem and adds his views on how the food aid question should be solved. This, in his view, has become "a major political issue". **Page 26**

Music — Francis Bebey is an author and composer from Cameroon, whose music can be described as a hybrid strain of the African and the contemporary traditions. He is also a novelist and poet, and would like to see Africa involved in music as positively as in the other arts, but keeping its roots still deeply embedded in the essentials of its own culture. Francis Bebey in profile. **Page 67**



THE COURIER

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY — AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

No. 35 — January-February 1976

CONTENTS

2. **EDITORIAL:** Hopes for the New Year
3. Interview: Alwin Brück, West German State Secretary for Cooperation: "A comprehensive set of commercial and financial measures to aid developing countries".

AFRICA, CARIBBEAN, PACIFIC

5. Upper Volta — Interview with General Lamizana, President of the Republic
7. — Antoine Dakouré, Upper Volta Minister of Development: "We still need aid"
13. Senegal — Abdou Diouf, Prime Minister: "a sense of common destiny"
20. B.O.A.D. — The West African Development Bank
21. Caribbean — Small-scale problems on a large scale
25. In perspective: — The chances of success in the "north-south dialogue"

26. **DOSSIER:** The World Food Problem

28. FAO — Dr. A. Boerma, former FAO Director General: "Hunger and malnutrition are not just a question of producing more food"
32. — Dr. S. Aziz, Deputy Executive Director of the World Food Council: "A global system of food security".
35. EEC food aid policy and food policy
37. — Aims, instruments and beneficiaries
40. — Community food aid in action
44. — Food aid in the future
47. The International Committee of the Red Cross and the Community
49. The EDF and food production

DEVELOPING COUNTRY TOPICS

51. Cocoa: a new international agreement
53. Niger: progress on solar energy
55. Pumping water with solar energy

EDF PROJECTS

58. Development projects in Madagascar

THE ARTS

65. The African cinema: its market and its future
67. Francis Bebey: portrait of an artist

BOOKS (inside back cover)

NEWS ROUND-UP (cream pages):
President Nyerere of Tanzania visits Brussels

HOPES FOR THE NEW YEAR

by **CLAUDE CHEYSSON**



Despite the difficult world in which we live at present, my New Year's greeting to you is one of hope, of solidarity and of reasonable confidence in the future. During this coming year we should draw the real benefit of the efforts of previous years in the field of development aid. We should be able to look forward to the continuation of the results that have already been achieved, seeing them complete each other while new paths open to enable us, step by step, to reach a truly comprehensive Community development aid policy.

As 1976 begins, I base my personal convictions on what has been achieved and on our efforts in three main directions.

First, the new year should see the application of all the provisions of the Lomé Convention. This convention, which now brings together 500 million people, divided fairly evenly between the Community and the ACP, and 55 countries, serves as an example in the search for original solutions to the problems of development. Soon a number of new countries will be joining it, to widen it still further. This success has done much for the Community's image in the outside world; but it must not remain an academic formality. The trade provisions have been in force since July 1st, 1975; now the other sections of this convention must be brought to life within the next few weeks, as the ratification procedures are almost finished. The Community and the ACP countries face a new challenge: to make sure that the Lomé Convention lives up to the hopes raised during the negotiations that led to it.

A second part of the Community development structure is the general approach to the Mediterranean. For the southern Mediterranean countries, the Community is going further than the trade aspects to reach comprehensive agreements on economic and financial cooperation. We are convinced that a decisive step will be taken by the Maghreb and Levantine countries in 1976. When it is, the "Courier" will draw up a dossier on this overall Community Mediterranean policy, which, as you know, is particularly

important to me. The Euro-Arab dialogue is equally part of this perspective and we hope it will make real progress in 1976.

Thirdly, this year should give us the blueprint of a development aid scheme without geographical limits, i.e. financial and technical aid to non-associated developing countries. The Community's contribution to the United Nations emergency fund was its first real move in this direction, but it was an exceptional one. The new plan will complete what the Community has already begun in the year-by-year development of food aid and the constant improvement of the generalised system of tariff preferences.

All this means that in 1976 the overall Community development aid policy should grow stronger in the service of the solidarity so necessary to the world, which the north-south dialogue has made better known to the man in the street. This policy is no longer a sideline. For the Community there is no contradiction between a zonal policy and a world-wide policy; they are complementary and both approaches are in the interests of Europe and of the developing countries. The Community countries can achieve together what they cannot achieve alone. Development aid is one of the few fields in which the Community has made progress during this period of economic difficulties. It is a form of aid which can be modulated, selective and, as I have previously had occasion to say, adapted "to each according to his needs". Markets, raw materials, capital, technology, industrialisation, employment—these are the areas in which development aid must be used in the interest both of the beneficiary countries and of the Community. Common interests, complementarity and solidarity—these are the driving forces behind the new international economic order of tomorrow's world, which we shall construct together. I hope 1976 will see the dawn of a new age of cooperation. This is our master plan. ■

Claude Cheysson
Commissioner for development

**Alwin Brück^(*) West German State
Secretary for Cooperation**

**"A comprehensive set of
financial and commercial
measures to aid developing
countries"**

Six months ago the West German government laid down a new policy for cooperation with the Third World and a 25-point document was adopted on June 9, 1975. It raised many comments from the CDU opposition; in the last issue of the "Courier" (Nov.-Dec. 1975, no. 34) the CDU spokesman in the Bundestag (Lower Chamber), Jürgen Todenhöfer, explained the different standpoints.

Alwin Brück, Secretary of State in the Federal Cooperation Ministry, in the interview by Lucien Pagni below, fills in some of the details on various aspects of the new federal policy, especially in relation to "continuity and concentration", stronger participation by Member States in drawing up aid programmes and carrying out aid projects" and "triangular cooperation".

► *Herr Brück, at a special meeting on 9 June 1975 the Federal Cabinet adopted 25 points regarding policy for cooperation with the developing countries. The first of these points states that the principle of continuity and concentration also applies to development policy. What exactly does this mean?*

— In his statement to the Bundestag on the policy of his government in May 1974, Chancellor Schmidt placed the work of the government under the heading of "continuity and concentration". In terms of development policy this means: our view of development policy, adopted in 1971, has proved it-

self and won wide international recognition. We are continuing to base our work on this view which will be adapted this autumn to take account of developments in the world economy. Development policy is and remains a key factor in the Federal Government's peace policy, the aim of which is to help reduce confrontation in north-south as well as in other relations. Here we want to focus our resources in bilateral cooperation on those countries which have been particularly hard hit by world economic developments over the past two years, since most of them have few exportable products and can hardly improve their position by increasing trade.

► *Points 5 and 22 insist on increased participation by the Council, in other words the Member States, in the planning and implementation of the European Community's development aid. The procedure for carrying out programmes and projects in cooperation*



with the developing countries is also to be simplified. Is there not a contradiction here? The example of Community food aid — for which the procedure was simplified only a short time ago — has certainly shown the delays and complications which can arise when the Council is involved directly in the day-to-day management of the Community.

— I see no contradiction here. It is up to us to ensure that both Community measures and the continuing bilateral action fit into an internally balanced overall concept of commercial policy and financial measures in favour of the developing countries.

As an illustration, let us take cooperation with the 46 partner States of the Lomé Convention. Here early participation—at the programming stage—by the Member States should help prevent Community measures and bilateral action from overlapping, avoid the duplication of work and ensure that things do not go wrong. At any rate, I believe it is a sounder and ultimately more rational approach to clear up possible problems which might prejudice future action at an early stage of discussion, rather than leaving it until the relatively late stage at which projects are decided to come up with any doubts which might arise.

As regards Community food aid I am glad that the procedure has been simplified, as recently agreed by the Council. However, there has never been—nor can

(*) Herr Brück, a former journalist, has been a member of the West German Socialist Party (SPD) since 1952. His appointment as Secretary of State in the Federal Cooperation Ministry dates from 1974; before this he held responsible jobs in a number of national organisations for cooperation, including the DSE (Deutsche Stiftung für Entwicklung). In 1965 he was a member of the Bundestag.

there be today—any question of Council participation in the day-to-day management of Community affairs. As always, however, it is the Council which is responsible for guiding and supervising programmes, both politically and from the angle of development policy.

► *The Federal Government intends from now on to recommend to the OPEC countries that they focus their aid more on the degree of need of the developing countries and extend that aid further geographically. How does this fit in with the principle of concentration which is to apply to your own policy?*

— The underlying situations are different. While we are cooperating with a large number of developing countries in many fields, the OPEC countries have initially confined themselves to very few countries, which they are supporting with massive sums. We would welcome them continuing this tendency to give more and more consideration to the least developed countries.

► *The German contribution to multilateral organisations is not supposed to exceed 30% of your budget, with priority being given to cooperation within the framework of the European Community. If the proposals recently presented by the Commission are carried through, the increased field of action will inevitably demand even greater financial contributions from the Nine. Could this lead to the Federal Republic's contributions to other organisations being reduced? Or is it to be feared that we should forget about elaborating the Community's development policy instruments over the next few years if this is to involve additional expenditure?*

And this leads to the question of what you think about the principles of Community development policy as defined by the Commission in its "Fresco of Community action tomorrow", which came out at the end of 1974. These principles can be reduced to a single formula: "to each according to his needs by bringing all our means to bear". What do you think about the "Fresco"? Do you believe the available resources can ever meet the needs if official aid is reduced in real terms?

— Nothing has changed as regards our desire for a comprehensive worldwide Community development policy. In the long term this hinges on supplementing

the Community development policy instruments—which in principle we are quite prepared to accept. However, we consider coordination and harmonisation of the development policies of the Member States and the Community to have greater priority. In the past, co-operation in Europe has too often meant that instead of a Community policy there has simply been fresh Community expenditure. But new funds are no substitute for increased integration. The Federal Government feels that increased European integration in the field of development policy must first and foremost be expressed in coordination and harmonisation of that policy. Only if progress is made here can we determine whether the Community is able to assume further financial obligations in this field.

► *Do you think the Lomé Convention is on the whole satisfactory, or could the EEC have done more, especially as regards financial aid?*

— I consider the arrangements negotiated in the Lomé Convention, for example, non-reciprocity in the granting of preferences, the measures for stabilising export earnings and the aim of increased industrial cooperation, as advances on the old Yaoundé Convention.

Of course, in some fields there could have been better arrangements for the developing countries. But you must not forget that, for example, further facilities for imports of agricultural products were not acceptable within the Community in view of the sensitivity of many Member States to a further reduction in agricultural protection.

I feel that the provision of 3 000 million u.a. for the ACP, plus 390 million u.a. from the EIB—as well as 150 million u.a. from the EDF and 10 million u.a. from EIB resources for the dependent overseas countries and territories—measures up to the obligations of Protocol 22 and to what the Community is actually able to do. In the present economic climate, I consider this achievement to be sound and adequate.

► *In GATT or UNCTAD negotiations the Federal Republic has invariably pointed out to the developing countries the advantages of the existing world economic order, especially from the point of view of promoting*

their foreign trade and from that of the progressive abolition of all barriers to trade. Are the results of the policy followed up to now in trade with developing countries satisfactory as far as access to the German market is concerned? This question, of course, refers to the States already associated with the European Community previously.

— The Federal Government has in fact been persistently working towards freeing world trade from restrictions and towards phasing out customs duties. Liberalised trade could become an essential part of the new world economic order sought by the developing countries. Of course, the tariff preferences scheme has so far been the most effective instrument for achieving this. Since the preferences scheme came into force on 1 July 1971, annual imports into Germany benefitting from the preferential treatment have more than tripled. The Community is constantly trying to improve the preferences scheme and we will continue to support this effort. The preferences still urgently need to be extended, for despite all the success achieved I feel that the results so far are not enough, especially as many key products of the developing countries, particularly processed agricultural products, are not covered by the preferences scheme at all. Only about 15% of the finished and semi-finished industrial and agricultural products imported into the Federal Republic in 1974 (including textiles) enjoyed preferential treatment—and with regard to the goods subject to quota restrictions, Germany's imports are frequently the highest among the Member States of the Community.

► *Do you think that the Lomé Convention will lead to a substantial increase in external trade between the ACP States and the European Community, and in particular West Germany?*

— The Lomé Convention will favourably affect trade between the ACP States and the Community. As regards trade with West Germany in particular, I am fairly optimistic here too in the light of the positive results of the Yaoundé Convention.

► *How does the triangular cooperation defined in the Federal Government docu-*

ment of 9 June 1975 fit into your bilateral or multilateral policy?

— Triangular cooperation means that we should sponsor development projects in other developing countries in conjunction with those countries which can provide funds for development aid but lack the necessary know-how. In this way additional resources can be mobilised for the developing countries.

► *What role do the private sector, especially industry, and the trade unions play in your policy and how are they to be brought in on your cooperation with the developing countries?*

— Basically any activity is to be welcomed which helps the countries of the Third World in their economic and social development. This includes private investment which fits in with the development process of the countries concerned. The Federal Government is promoting such investment by granting tax concessions and by means of capital participation by a government-financed undertaking for economic cooperation. Non-governmental bodies, like the trade unions, have an important task to perform which cannot always be accomplished by cooperation between governments; through specific contacts with their partner organisations they can directly contribute to encouraging people to help themselves. And progress in the developing countries ultimately depends on this.

► *What effect do you think the European Development Fund has had so far and what part do you feel it should play in the future?*

— From the outset the EDF was the main vehicle for European development aid and the cornerstone of the Yaoundé Conventions. It will grow in importance in the future, as is shown by the resources made available to the fund and the large number of new countries who are now receiving Community aid.

The more Brussels and the Member States not only agree with one another on programming and project policy but also work from a uniform and unanimously approved conception of European development policy, the more effective a part the EDF will play. ■

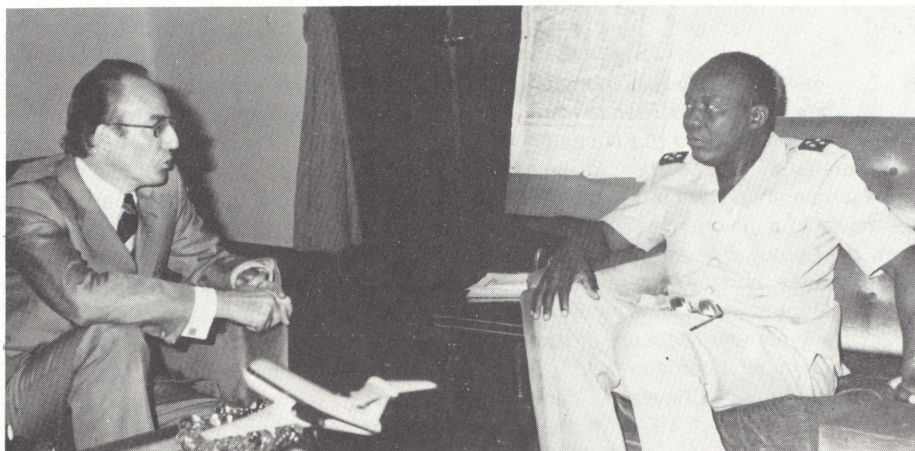
L.P.

AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

Upper-Volta: interview with General Sangoulé Lamizana, President of the Republic

Development aid officials describe their work and ideas regularly in the "Courier", but a better understanding and a clearer presentation of some aspects of development can be obtained only by meeting those who have to deal directly with these problems in the ACP countries and who have to make the actual decisions. "Courier" editor Alain Lacroix undertook an initial study trip in March 1975, mainly to Niger and the Ivory Coast; more recently he visited Upper Volta and Senegal to discuss development problems with top authorities. Among them were General Lamizana, Upper Volta Head of State, and Abdou Diouf, Prime Minister of Senegal (see page 13).

The President of the Republic of Upper Volta gave an outline of the present economic prospects of his country, especially under the Lomé Convention.



General Lamizana interviewed by Alain Lacroix

"we still need external aid"

► *General Lamizana, some of the economic commentary in the European press suggests that 70% of the Upper Volta five-year plan for 1972-1976 had already been carried out by the end of the third year. The estimate is in itself encouraging; can we hope that this second five-year plan will be completely carried out?*

— From the figures now available it is evident that our five-year plan is in a fair way to completion. Up to the present, of course, there has been more progress in some areas than in others. In the early years there were particular difficulties in the rural sector, because of the drought. Despite all our efforts, and the consid-

erable external aid we received, not all these difficulties have yet been fully overcome. In some parts of the country the percentage losses among the cattle were extremely high. This year rainfall was short in the crucial period September 10-30, so some of the crops in some parts of the country will not be as good as we hoped. In general, however, I am still quite optimistic and have every hope that the objectives of our five-year plan will have been fully reached within the appointed period.

► *Just how important for Upper Volta is external aid?*

— As you know, Upper Volta is poor and land-locked. This naturally raises problems and makes external aid indispensable in order to finance our development. In our eyes this aid is a kind of compensation for the defects of our climate and our geographical location. We greatly appreciate the action of the EDF, which provides about 25 % of the public aid Upper Volta receives. By the beginning of 1975 the EDF contributions amounted to F CFA 27 000 m, covering a total of 87 projects. We have also appreciated the EEC interventions by way of food aid, in the anti-drought campaign in the Sahel and in the Cheysson Fund.

► *Like many other developing countries, Upper Volta has had to bear the brunt of higher prices for oil and the fluctuations in raw material prices. The Cheysson plan provided temporary help to offset the deficit in the balance of payments. This was apart from the Community aid, through the EDF and otherwise, and the bilateral aid from individual countries, and it was appreciated. In your case, what was the scope of this additional aid and did it come in time?*

— Commissioner Cheysson came to Upper Volta in May, 1973, at the most critical point in the drought disaster, and his clear understanding of the special problems of the land-locked Sahel countries resulted in the creation of several new forms of aid, from which Upper Volta benefitted. These included emergency food aid, emergency aid to the Sahel and the Cheysson Fund designed to help our countries withstand the rise in oil prices.

We were keenly appreciated the steps taken by M. Cheysson at the beginning of 1974 to set up a world fund of



General Lamizana and Alain Lacroix. Josef Haffner (centre) is EEC Commission delegate in Upper Volta

\$3 000 m to be contributed by the wealthy nations for the benefit of the worst-hit countries. If I remember right, it was in the autumn of 1974 that the European Community decided to subscribe \$150 m to the UN emergency operation for the benefit of the developing countries most seriously affected by the international rise in prices, especially for energy. This was a first instalment of a contribution which might ultimately amount to \$500 m; in 1974 Upper Volta was allotted a sum of \$4 m. This made it possible to buy primary necessities, such as fertilizers, medicines and the plant and machinery needed for enlarging a sugar works to keep down the country's import bill.

► *There is an important Upper Volta scheme to work the manganese seams at Tambao. Where has this project got to, and also the connected problem of financing the railway between Ouagadougou and Tambao?*

— This project is extremely important for Upper Volta. Meetings are currently being held on a number of points, including the route the railway will take, since it is by no means limited to the offtake of ores but also affects the economy of the regions we propose to cross. We shall have to raise considerable sums under a joint financing plan,

to which we hope the EDF will contribute. The railway, incidentally, might well lead to increased trade and other connexions with neighbouring countries.

► *What specific projects and programmes does Upper Volta contemplate promoting under the Lomé Convention? As a land-locked country have you any special interest in regional programmes, which were given particular emphasis at Lomé?*

— We shall be talking about this in the near future with a programming mission from the EEC. For Upper Volta, with its total absence of seaward outlets, regional projects could be of great interest. I am thinking especially of the Koupela-Fada-N'Gourma road, which is part of the Ouagadougou-Niamey trunk road; and the Ouagadougou-Yako road, which is part of the international Ouagadougou-Mopti highway.

Before you leave Upper Volta, I should like to add that I appreciate your review. You are doing a useful and necessary job. I am a regular reader, and it is no surprise to me that the paper should have become both a link between the Community and the ACP and a link between the ACP themselves, keeping them better informed and giving them a better knowledge and understanding of one another. ■

A.L.

Facing the aftermath of the drought and looking ahead

Antoine Dakouré, Upper Volta Minister of the Development Plan and Tourism, is the chairman of the Inter-State Committee to combat drought in the Sahel. He gives an account of economic conditions in his country and the coordinated action taken against the drought, after first assessing what the EDF has done in Upper Volta.

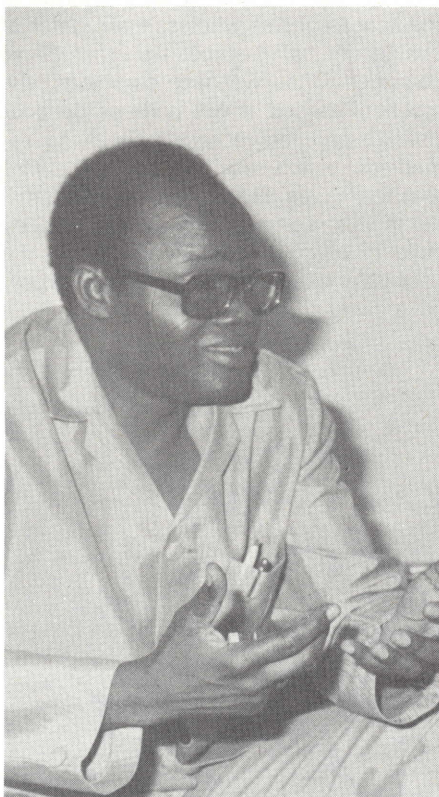
► *I should like to begin with a question which goes to the essential value of the Yaoundé conventions. What do you think of the past action in your country of the European Development Fund?*

— In my view a proper appreciation of the Common Market aid to Upper Volta, especially the aid from the EDF, must combine two approaches. The first is quantitative. I think the Common Market aid has certainly been very commendable, but so great are our development needs in a situation in which absolutely everything has priority, where everything must be done at once, that the quantity of this aid is less than enough. We agree, however, that the effort it shows has been most commendable.

The second is the quality of the aid. I should like to put the main emphasis on this because however good the quantity, the quality is still better. As we see it, aid has got to cover real requirements, and make it possible to satisfy the needs of which the aided country is conscious. The help Upper Volta has had from the European Development Fund has, I believe, been in those fields where it was most needed.

Some of the other sources of finance are apt to lay down special principles and start out with specific constraints

Antoine Dakouré



"We still need aid"

saying in effect, "we can only intervene in this or that particular way", which is not always the way we want. This is not the case with the EDF; perhaps because it has had experience which the others have not, it has made an effort to deal with the real needs of the people it sets out to help. The EDF interventions could be modulated to provide what was really needed in the way of grants, technical advice and general assistance to get the population to work on the spot, and give people a hand in whatever they undertook to improve their standards of living. This is very important because, in my view, aid during the first development decade ran into enormous difficulties and worked with only a very low standard of effectiveness for the simple reason that it did not put the essential things first.

You may ask what are the real essentials. If you ask a peasant to make a contribution which is within his capacity and to do so for the sake of getting the benefit of the aid given him, there is no problem whatever. He will take part in the aid plan and make the contribution expected of him. If on the other hand you ask him for something outside his competence, his level of comprehension and his contribution capacity, it is sure, and obvious, that his contribution will not be made. People are apt to jump too quickly to the conclusion that the peasant is not interested in the operations concerned, simply because no real attempt has been made to interest him.

► *So the important thing is that the beneficiary should have the feeling of being directly concerned?*

— This is absolutely essential. If he does not feel concerned in what people are doing for him, he will have no truck with

it, and even if he takes part his heart will not be in it. We could take a specific example of this. There were various operations launched in Upper Volta which were extremely successful and in which the EDF took a hand. These involved wells. We found that we did not need to whip up the motivation because it was already there. The peasant, at his own level, felt these wells were a requirement of his daily life and as soon as there was talk of sinking a well, women and old men were all anxious to help, and even children of six would soon be bringing up sand and gravel in their little baskets. The operation was a big success because it touched a real need and a real interest, and nobody had to be told what he should do or why he should do it. I believe all this was taken into account when the project was considered at Common Market level. It is a very important aspect and much to the credit of the EDF.

► *You are still chairman of the Inter-State Committee to combat drought in the Sahel. Has any consideration been given in this committee to long-term measures for reconstituting the livestock?*

— It is true that the herds were terribly affected by the drought, and they are the main wealth of the Sahel countries.

In some regions we estimate the losses were as much as 85 %, and in some of the up-country regions in the drought areas the herdsmen lost all of their livestock 100 %. It was because of this that all the Community countries put it among their top priorities as early as the Ouagadougou meeting in September 1973 that the herds should be restored and reconstituted in each of the regions.

Each country therefore has worked out a programme for reconstituting its livestock. In our own case we have certainly worked out these programmes, but we consider that we shall have to go very carefully. This doesn't mean sitting still and doing nothing, but neglecting precautions would expose us to the risk of starting out on lines which might well look at the outset to be salutary attempts to undo the damage, but might have just the opposite effect. In our view the first step must be a serious study of the causes of this wholesale slaughter of our cattle and that of the other Sahel countries. Once we have pinpointed the essential causes, it will perhaps be possible to proceed more effectively to remedies. For example, we are well aware that there was undoubtedly over-pasturing in this region, and if we start off by building up our herds without taking the necessary precautions, we shall simply be making things worse.

► *In regard to sinking wells, aren't there various rules which have to be observed?*

— As regards the use of water resources there are a number of phenomena of which we knew nothing a few years ago but which have now come to our attention. Everybody used to think in terms of building dams. It was not till five or six years ago that we noticed the importance of the slope we give to the weir which determines the speed of the current; after a good deal of research and observation, we realised that the speed of the current above or below certain specific levels would create conditions favouring the development of the sand-fly. It was only after the event that we knew this. The same sort of thing applies to wells. You have to investigate the secondary effects, especially health and drainage, before you decide to step up the operations.

Reverting to the reconstitution of the cattle herds, our programme has in fact been laid down and the first phase has begun. The most important thing is to consolidate the progress already made on the health side, for the condition of the herd has to be restored before you can really talk about production. Even before the drought the Common Market had financed a campaign for wiping out of cattle pest. We must maintain the results of this campaign, and we must also deal with those sicknesses which were most increased by the drought. Once we have got the hang of these problems it will be possible for us to embark on a large-scale campaign for reconstituting the herds.

► *President Lamizana said rainfall had been rather short between September 10-30 this year, so that some of the Upper Volta crops in 1975 may not be as good as might have been hoped. Can you give us more details about this and the prospects for the forthcoming crops?*

— The President put it very well. I should tell you that in our part of the world, the level of the crop is determined by the most recent rainfall. A season may begin very well; but later, simply because two or three of the rains have been lacking, the harvests are reduced to an absurdly low level. In general we had hoped to have reasonably good crops this year, but the last of the rains fell



Restoring soil lost by erosion, Ouahigouya, Upper Volta



Building an agricultural dam (EDF finance)

short, and there was unfortunately also a plague of locusts and rodents. The rat is in fact something rather new in this region, occurring mostly in the north-east part of the Sahel. The crop forecasts are not yet ready, but there are anxieties about the yield in the Tougan and Louna areas, and in the area north of the Ouerdé of the Black Volta. I am very much afraid that in these regions we may be losing as much as 55 or 60% of our crops. I believe, all the same, with the hopeful indications still prevailing in the south, we shall be able to offset the shortfall in those areas, where it will almost certainly be serious.

► *Will this deficit affect the food production or other crops?*

— It will affect food production mainly, but other crops will also suffer. The peasantry, as you will understand, were encouraged to plant more subsistence crops, so as to deal with their own food difficulties, before they embarked seriously on growing cash crops. I think it will be possible to deal with the situation arising, but we certainly still need aid because, even though the surpluses and deficits may offset one another, this does not mean that the peasants with surpluses will have to give them up for nothing. We shall therefore need help for buying out the surplus in the high-production areas, and making our contribution to the help needed by other countries, especially Niger and probably Chad where the deficit is likely to be considerable.

► *What are the present prospects for cotton production?*

— We've had rather a disappointment about this, but it is easily explained. The peasants followed the lead of the local supervisors and in the early stages they were extremely receptive. In the four years 1966-70 the output rose from 7 200 tons to nearly 36 500 tons. After this there was a sudden fall. This in fact was the outcome of the drought, and it is perfectly normal for the peasantry to give their first thought to their food problems before they start thinking about cotton.

The factors affecting the cotton crop have thus been the climate, which is, for the moment, totally beyond our control; →

and the price factor, which has played some part, though not such a decisive one. For some time cotton prices were quite well maintained, but for some months past there has, I believe, been a renewed fall. Upper Volta's geographical position makes things rather difficult for her. High costs are involved in bringing in what is needed for production, as in the offtake and transport to a port of shipment, and because of this we were not able to buy cotton from the producers at prices really worth their while. Our prices to the producers were nevertheless increased as from 1968-69; but it was not possible for this policy to be taken too far, because of certain causes for concern which have unfortunately proved only too justified. I must confess this has not done much to encourage the cotton-growers to continue with this crop. Added to these factors was the drought, through which a number of growers lost interest, though this may be only a transient factor. Such reactions as we have obtained from working farmers suggest that, when things have returned to normal—by which I mean the subsistence crops—they will again take up cotton-growing seriously.

► *If farming conditions are to be improved, you emphasised just now, the farming population must feel concerned. What results does the government hope to secure through rural education? This is an important programme, jointly financed by the EDF and the World Bank, I believe.*

— The experiment we have been operating over the past 10 years seems to me unique. The aim was, and is, to train peasants so that they can make a satisfactory job of running their small-holdings. The latter will themselves have been investigated and standard yields laid down on lines acceptable in all parts of the country. It is not a question of a single model farm, but a pattern adapted to each region. Moreover we had, and still have, a number of young people in the villages who were certainly full of good will, but had not been lucky enough to go to school. They were usually quite receptive, but they didn't have the necessary foundation for taking an effective part in rural development. Our aim was to reach as many of these young people as we could and give them a basic training which will help

them to play their proper part in development operations. Once they have had the necessary training, they will help in the extension work. Our belief is that they will act as a practical example. Once they are set up in the village, given a suitable area and begin getting good results from it, the other local peasants will follow suit.

Here again we may have been unduly optimistic. Rather a serious mistake was made in the early stages, when we thought too much about teaching them to read and write and lost sight of the real target which was to give them practical knowledge. Some of the youngsters recruited at the outset were only 10 or 12 years old, sometimes even younger, and village organisation is not really a task for children of 13 just out of school. So we made a survey of the operation and deduced a number of lessons from it. We have now gone back to square one, starting on a new basis, and think ourselves lucky the Common Market and the World Bank have agreed to help us in this.

At the present stage the operation is limited to a few of the regional development organisations, but if all goes well I have every hope it can be extended over the whole country. In practice we always lag behind the will, the wishes and aspirations of the peasantry. When we hold meetings in the regional development organisations, we are very often asked why some of the regions have been privileged by an early start in educational reforms, whether we are giving priority to regions nearest to Ougadougou, and when we are going to get busy

with the others. I reply that the whole business is still rather experimental. I point out that we have carried out one experiment which was not wholly a failure, done our homework and set about correcting our mistakes, so that we are now coming into a new phase and having found sources of finance willing to help us, we will see what happens and assess it together. Then, if the results are good, we can extend the plan over the whole country.

► *A final question: the Lomé Convention is currently being ratified, the process has already gone a long way in the ACP countries and in the Community countries it should, in principle, have been completed by the end of 1975. In Upper Volta, which parts of the new convention are regarded as being specially interesting?*

— There are three items I regard as of central interest. To begin with, there is the decision to pay more attention to the fate of those countries handicapped by nature. This is very important and requires no commentary. They are countries which have suffered from their geographical situation, through their distance from the sea; and there are others which have suffered from causes stretching back into history for a host of reasons entirely outside their control. It is only fair that such initial handicaps should be taken into consideration.

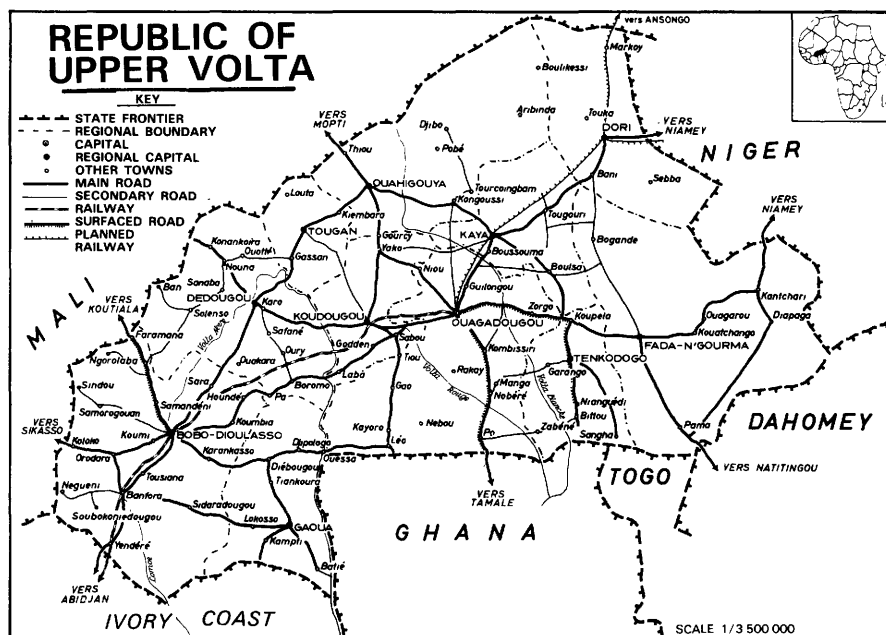
The second aspect of particular importance to me is that everybody agrees in promoting projects of sub-regional interest. This is specially important for a country like Upper Volta, which is a



A dam makes a small garden possible

UPPER VOLTA

The fight against drought in a land-locked country



● Upper Volta faces natural economic difficulties because of its geographical situation. Covering 274 000 sq.km of West Africa between the parallels 9° 20 and 15° 5 of northern latitude and the meridiens 2° 20 east and 5° 30 west, this country has a tropical climate of the Sudanese type, with a long dry season and a short rainy season with inadequate and sporadic rainfall. It has no direct access to the sea, which is 500 km away at the nearest point.

Independent since August 5, 1960, Upper Volta's present frontiers date to 1947 and are bounded by Mali in the west and the north, Niger in the east, and Dahomey, Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast in the south. This land-locked situation is a serious handicap, but a more urgent priority for the government at present is the fight against drought.

The population of 5.6 million (1972) is mainly rural and concentrated in the middle of the country around Ouagadougou, the capital (pop. 150 000). The average density of population being high compared with the availability of work and fer-

tile ground, there have been considerable shifts of population, both within the country, towards the towns and the south-west, and abroad, to the Ivory Coast and Ghana.

The primary sector still dominates the economy and occupies 90-95 % of the population, producing 45 % of the GDP (1972). Production for local consumption (millet, sorghum, maize) covers 54 % of total agricultural activity, with commercial production depending on cotton (main export crop), oils seeds—groundnuts, karity, sesame—and rice. Stockraising, providing about 11 % of GDP in 1972, makes up more than half of total exports, but has suffered very considerable losses through the drought because of its wide-spread, traditional character. Both agriculture and stock-raising have been hit by the geographical disadvantages of the country: feeble and irregular rainfall, limited natural reserves of water, barren ground.

A good seam of manganese at Tambao is of particular importance to the development of Upper Volta. Get-

ting the ore from Tambao to Ouagadougou will require the construction of a railway line to link up with the Ouagadougou-Abidjan railway. Apart from this and some limestone quarries at Tin Hrassan, there is not much in sight in the mineral sector. But the three-sided cooperation scheme begun in 1970 between Upper Volta, Niger and Mali to develop the Liptako-Gourma region covering their joint frontier should be mentioned in this context, as it includes mineral prospecting and exploitation as well as hydroelectricity and the construction of a communications network.

The secondary sector is largely undeveloped in Upper Volta. Such industry as there is has been aimed at processing local products such as cotton, rice, tobacco, oil seeds and hides. Modern industry—apart from building and public works—only contributed 5 % of GDP in 1972.

The trade balance is very much in the red, with main exports being livestock products, cotton and oil seeds.

The national currency is the CFA franc. ■

meeting place for surrounding countries and must necessarily go for sub-regional cooperation. The destiny of Upper Volta is closely linked with those of Niger and countries further south, whether their language be English or French, and it is linked with the countries further west and those in the north. So it is extremely important for Upper Volta if sub-regional or regional projects are given greater prominence. For example, the cattle of Mali and Niger pass through Upper Volta, so that there is a problem of communication and modes of transport which has got to be solved. These are problems which must not be examined solely from the Upper Volta standpoint, for every country in the region has its own interests. In my view it is so obvious that we must look to sub-regional projects, I do not need to spend more time in developing the argument.

A third interest is the financing of micro-projects. This is another approach we consider vital, because every such project has its social aspects. It often happens that local social problems give rise to small projects which might be useful enough as solutions, but do not call for investment on a scale to justify compiling a file of proposals and particulars and going right through the prescribed procedures. Yet, if these little projects were not carried out, the result might be the frustration of some much bigger operation which everybody considers important. As we see it, great importance attaches to the provision of finance for projects in this class and to making it available without the top-heavy formalities of the normal procedure.

An example arose in our women's extension programme in Ouardé-Kaja. In the village of Mané our plans ran into difficulties because of the unduly long time the women spent in coping with problems we could easily have solved had we had the means beforehand. They have to get up very early and go 10, 12 or even 15 km on foot to fetch water. By the time they get back it's already late and they are in a hurry to cook the dinner and take it out to their husbands and the other workers in the fields. They were so well disciplined that when they got back they still came to our meetings, but they were much too tired to take any effective part. Now that a well has been sunk in this village,

one of the most important of their problems is solved. We soon found we were dealing with women who were much more receptive and able and willing to take part. This is only one example, and I could mention many.

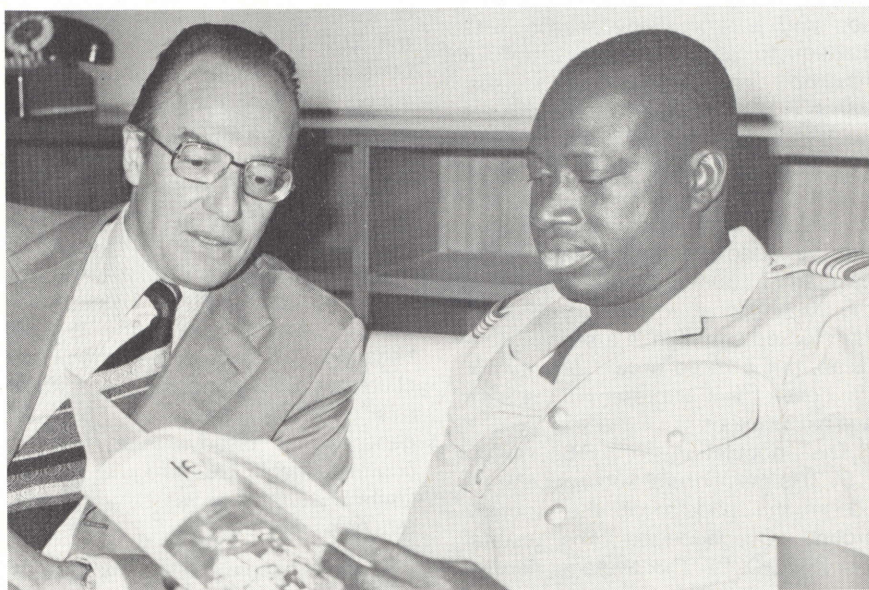
These points are what I regard as the three principal centres of interest. I hope the EDF will continue on similar lines to the past, paying special attention to the quality of the aid, which is what we consider most important. Almost everywhere people are now talking about the change in the philosophy of aid, and even at our own level there is a good deal of work to be done to make better use of the aid given. At the level of the sources of finance the amount still to be done is certainly much greater. The EDF already has some experience in this field, because it has agreed to join us in playing the game as we understand it, giving priority to the requirements of which we on the spot are conscious and agreeing to share some of the responsibilities. Some element of confidence seems to be entering into the picture.

So the EDF can help us a good deal. This will not only be by continuing to act as at present and increasing the quantity of aid given to Upper Volta and other handicapped countries. It can help us also through the fact that it is bound by fewer political constraints than is some

of the direct bilateral aid. It can help to spread the idea that aid cannot and will never be effective without the essential element of confidence between those who give it and those who receive it. The two parties must understand each other. When we say, for example, that what we need is a dam at some specific place, even if it means giving up some other project, the giver of aid must trust our judgement, for we are familiar with the ground and know what we are talking about. Moreover, the development campaign can never succeed unless its promoters carry the peasantry with them.

If all these considerations are accepted, if the aid is really and truly rooted in the ground which receives it, we shall have found the true solution to the problems of developing countries. I am thinking of the campaign which will have to be put in hand to bring this home to those who do not yet recognise that the alternative is continued waste. I feel sure the EDF can help towards a solution of many problems facing the developing countries, for it has by now accumulated enough on-the-spot experience to enable it to play an effective part in making people aware of this, and so improving what we call the philosophy of aid. ■

A. L.



Lieutenant-Colonel Saye Zerbo, Upper Volta Foreign Minister, with "Courier" editor Alain Lacroix during his visit to Upper Volta

**Abdou Diouf,
Prime Minister of Senegal**

**The Lomé Convention
gives us
"a sense of
common destiny"**



At Dakar Alain Lacroix met Abdou Diouf (see photo), Prime Minister of Senegal. He is one of the Senegalese figures best known in foreign countries, as an intellectual with a reputation for cheerfulness and dynamism, but most of all for his wide knowledge of economic and political affairs, national and international. In this interview he gives his views on Senegal's economy and on the prospects of the Lomé Convention leading to closer relations between the ACP and the EEC countries.

► *Prime Minister, the fourth Senegalese Economic and Social Development Plan covering the period 1973-77 has been to some extent readjusted. Is the accent still on productive investment, and is expanding agricultural production in your eyes still the main priority?*

— Yes. Our decision to readjust was made mainly on questions of principle. We consider that in making plans there must always be an idea of continuity and progress and that adjustments

should be carried out from time to time. We decided, in principle, that adjustment should be undertaken when the plan is halfway through. Economic conditions pointed in the same direction, for the inflation which is affecting every country has considerably increased the cost of individual projects, and this gave us another objective for the readjustment.

We had yet another motive, and this allows me to give a precise answer to your question. We wanted to map out our top priorities in the development programme and adjust it accordingly. A preliminary step was to enact a law containing an "agricultural programme" in which the government states its desire to secure self-sufficiency in food in the earliest possible future. The readjustment therefore confirms the over-riding priority of agriculture. In addition the readjustment was the occasion for underlining yet another top priority. This is education, which, of course, is on the human rather than exclusively the economic side. This made it possible for the adjustment to include the planned decentralisation of higher education by setting up a new university at St Louis.

► *In the first version of the plan, 15% of the productive investment was to go into the big projects—Dakar-Marine, the refinery and petrochemicals plant at Cayer, the industrial freeport, the development of iron ore in eastern Senegal, and other projects on a similar scale. Is this plan in any way changed by the adjustment?*

— It is strengthened. When the original plan was being worked out, our ideas about these projects were still rather vague and we were much clearer about them when it came to the readjustment. So they have been confirmed in the readjustment, as has our intention to give Senegalese industry its second wind.

For Dakar-Marine we have now reached the point immediately before the call for tenders. Our problem is whether to put forward this project in its initial form or to do it in stages. There are points for and against both procedures. At the present we are in touch with the firms which are taking part and with the different sources of finance, which will give us a full knowledge of

the facts on the different solutions which may be adopted. The project has been hanging fire for some time and the principle of early completion is now clearly stated. The government has given new emphasis to this by announcing its willingness to contribute from its own resources a total of F-CFA 10 000 m over a five-year period to the Dakar-Marine project.

For the industrial freeport area we have, as you know, reached the stage of getting things done. A number of projects have already been approved and others are under consideration. The promotion campaign is already in hand in a number of European countries, and we are reasonably sanguine about the results.

The Cayar refinery project, which includes a petrochemical plant, is a matter of laying out a big port and building a new town. It is a big project and should very quickly reach the execution stage. We believe HM the Empress of Iran will come to join President Senghor in laying the foundation stone, and this will probably be towards the end of February 1976.

The iron ore project is also making progress. We have completed the preparatory surveys and it is now a question of carrying out the more definitive ones. These should be finished by the beginning of 1977. By November 1976 we should be in possession of data which will enable us to lay down the execution programme. The project is an important one, since it is not merely a matter of extracting and processing the ore, but also of transporting it, which means that we shall have to build a railway from the minehead to the coast. We are currently looking for partners who would like to take a hand in mining and marketing this production, and quite recently a Senegalese mission left for Qatar. The President's next visit to the Middle East will be an opportunity for discussing this project and making further progress towards the objectives we have laid down.

► *I should like to ask about another branch of the economy. The European press says Senegal hopes to have produced a million tons of groundnuts in 1975. I understand this figure has been reached only three times in the history of Senegal. What is the position on this?*

— I certainly can't contradict this figure. I think it is very probable we shall reach the million tons mark, or at least get pretty near it. The preparations for the crop were very well made, the Senegalese supervisory framework is very good, the farmers are very receptive and are now better educated and better trained and, as everybody knows, the rainfall has been satisfactory. All this makes me think the million tons may be a reality, but I am not going to put forward a precise figure. A performance like this would of course give us great pleasure; but if and when we have produced it, we shall have to market it and do so at a good price. For this reason I am specially glad the Lomé Convention includes the STABEX plan, and Senegal will thus, I hope, make a good profit on this important product. If future prices should fall too low, we know STABEX will make it possible for us to give our farmers the very remunerative price we are giving them at present. You may have heard that just before you came here the farmers were afraid there might be a reduction in the price and the government stated its political intention to maintain their purchasing power. The government's present policy is to raise the living standards of the smallest rather than of the biggest; and this is essentially a policy of raising the peasants' purchas-

ing power, or at any rate of maintaining it when times are bad. I should like to repeat my statement of the hopes I base on the STABEX scheme and my corresponding hope that all the countries will push forward with the ratification of the Lomé Convention. Senegal completed its ratification as long ago as last July.

► *Many experts believe agricultural development depends on more extensive irrigation, and more especially on giving populations increased security against climatic disasters and so enabling them to increase their output. How do the prospects stand of future cooperation and development of the regional organisation, the OMVS (1)?*

— The prospects are good. I can tell you at once that the minor clouds of a few months ago have now disappeared. The joint purpose of the three countries concerned is now stronger than ever, and so is the understanding, the confidence, the friendship and the constructive spirit. In short, everybody is hurrying to carry out the ambitious but realistic programme we have laid down for ourselves. Heads of State are to meet at Nouakchott in December; the present chairman of the OMVS is President Senghor. At the December meeting,

(1) Senegal River Development Organisation.

Abdou Diouf with Alain Lacroix



heads of State and their competent ministers expect to specify their execution problems and to set up a more operational management machinery which will give the OMVS structures a more dynamic character. Machinery which was viable enough when it was a matter of surveys and analyses of a general kind is not what is needed for execution surveys and carrying out the projects. We think the execution studies for the major works could start early in 1976. This should be followed very quickly by the actual execution, especially since the various sources of finance—both bilateral and institutional—are all in favour of the plan. For example, we think that with the execution studies for the Djama dam beginning in January 1976, and allowing for the time taken in the call for tenders, it should be possible for the actual work to begin as early as 1977. It had been scheduled for the financing bodies to meet at Dakar in October 1975, but this has now been postponed till early in 1976 (after the Nouakchott OMVS summit) so that the particulars submitted can be more exact, more definite and better presented.

My belief is that we have now really got out of the tunnel and are definitely on our way to getting things done. Moreover, dams will not be our only instrument in dealing with the water problems, for we have big projects for irrigation by drilling, since there are no rivers in a number of areas in these countries. If we want to protect our peasantry from the uncertainty of rainfall, we must certainly, especially in Senegal, have the benefit of hydraulic works which will facilitate irrigated cultivation, even though the profitability of it will depend on whether this irrigation is the product of big dams or small boreholes. In any case it will provide a higher degree of security than the present rain-based farming, and in the long run it will be more profitable. Our head of State often says that even if we go no further than building our dams on the river, the irrigated areas we shall obtain will give us a more profitable agriculture than is provided by the river-based system as it now exists.

► As regards subsistence crops, Senegal has been obliged to import—depending on the crop year—between a quarter and a third of her cereal consumption, more espe-



Building the national school for rural staff at Bombay, Senegal

cially in wheat and rice. What has been done to mitigate this reliance on imports?

— At present we are working on two fronts. The first is the attempt to reconcile the Senegalese with the country's traditional subsistence crops. For this purpose we are energetically encouraging consumption of millet, which will have to take the place of a large part of the rice, and also some of the wheat. At the same time we are increasing the rice-growing areas, and we are experimenting with growing wheat in Senegal. We are thus engaged in a two-fold attack which in fact is one of the objectives of the agricultural programme law of which I spoke, and is additional to the projects in the original plan. On these lines we have been experimenting in our Food Technology Institute with bread using wheat flour containing, I believe, 30% millet. If we should bring this type of bread to market on a large scale in the near future, our wheat consumption would of course go down by 30%. Moreover, bread containing millet is more nourishing than that which contains rice; and if the Senegalese, especially in the town, can be persuaded to

take kindly to this traditional fare, it is certain we should make a good reduction in our rice imports.

With the help of our finance sources, especially the EDF, we have for some years been diversifying our agriculture and increasing our rice-growing. The departments concerned believe that our rice-growing campaign should make us 97% self-sufficient by 1980. I find this figure unduly optimistic, for we all know what technicians are. Nevertheless, I think that if all these projects come into effect and with the prospect of the Diama dam we should be able to supply somewhere about 80% of our requirements.

► Like all the countries in the Sahel zone, Senegal has in recent years suffered the disastrous effects of the drought. What is the position now as regards livestock?

— The flocks and herds of Senegal certainly suffered from the drought, especially in 1972. On the other hand we seem to have suffered less than the other Sahel countries. It is calculated that Senegal lost 20% of its beef cattle and about 10% of its sheep, and this is a

long way from the 80% estimates put forward for other countries. Nevertheless, a loss there certainly was, and it affected the quality of the herds as well as the quantity. The animals which did not die emerged thin and weak and our present task is the restoration of quality as well as the numbers of the herds.

In 1974 and at the beginning of 1975, this state of things affected the beef supplies. We had a certain amount of difficulty because the neighbours from whom we usually buy were in no state to help us. They themselves were reconstituting their herds, probably with greater vigour than we, because their losses had been greater.

► *Phosphates are an important mineral resource in Senegal. The economic papers in Europe recently mentioned the possibility of opening up a further mine. How does this project stand?*

— The prospects are quite encouraging. It is true that we intend to open a further mine at Tobem, a few kilometers from Taïba. When normal production rates are reached, the Tobem output should be on the same scale as the present output of Taïba. This is very important, especially since there will be no difficulty about the offtake, owing to the new port we are building at Kajar. The prospects are therefore quite good. We were told of a difficulty in obtaining material needed for opening up the new mine; but proposals recently made to us will enable production to start in 30 months time, which we should find extremely satisfactory. Meantime we are still prospecting elsewhere. We have found indications of phosphates near Kolda and in the Lake Guiers region, and prospecting also continues in Casamance and northern Senegal. We have set up prospecting syndicates, which have got down to work, and we expect quick results. In any case the government is pressing ahead to the limit of its capacity in the hope of disclosing more mineral wealth which will enable us to attain our development targets.

Phosphates of course are not the only mining prospects which interest us. We were talking about iron just now, and we have not lost hope of finding copper and oil, for both of which the research and prospecting work continues, both on-shore and off-shore. We have in fact

discovered some oil, but we are finding it difficult to exploit at the moment. I think we shall succeed in the end, but I don't want to go into details—it's an off-shore occurrence of extremely heavy oil, and we are told the production costs at the present time would be prohibitive. We are not satisfied with the arguments before us, and we are still looking for companies willing to take a hand in exploiting this oil. I can certainly say that Senegal is an oil country, because we have indeed found it, and we shall continue looking. We are also looking for uranium in eastern Senegal, and we feel sure all this research must ultimately lead us somewhere.

► *Senegal has a good climate, it is geographically accessible and it is rich in natural, historical and human interest. These are first class attractions for the tourist. What do you expect of the tourist trade in your country's development?*

— The tourist trade is one of our first priorities and development in this sector has run ahead of expectations, and of the plan itself. Our estimates were made on cautious lines and the results were considerably better than the estimates. When the development plan was amended and adjusted we tried to allow for this, but it already seems the forecasts made in the adjustment period are likely to be exceeded because there were quite a number of projects which were not then on the drawing-board, but now seem certain to come forward. The good thing about these projects is that they will have a decentralising effect so that the whole impact will not be concentrated on Dakar. From our standpoint the important thing is that this decentralisation was possible, and it seems that quite a good deal can be carried out in the tourist business on lines which are outside the scope of manufacturing industry. We had practically despaired of the hotel project in St Louis, but now the prospects seem much more encouraging. We have every hope that the actual tourist figures will once more go ahead of the forecasts, despite the economic slump.

► *How big and how important for Senegal have been the EDF investments during the past 15 years?*

— I don't carry the figures in my head and you probably know them better than I do (1). One thing for sure is that these EDF investments are very closely linked with the country's campaign for its own development. They are investments which were made where they were needed, and they conformed to the priorities of our planning. They were designed really to help us much more than to produce something spectacular. The EDF was keener on coping with the removal of the bottlenecks which held up progress than in undertaking works which would add to its own prestige. I should like to put it this way. In Senegal you cannot talk about improved agricultural productivity, about agricultural diversification, about making the different regions accessible to one another and to the outside world, especially the regions on the periphery, without at once thinking of the EDF and the help it has given.

What is more important is the feeling of continuity. I mentioned accessibility and remedies for isolation. This is an aspect which was particularly important for the Casamance area and something had to be done. The remedy was a bridge, which will set up an immediate link between Casamance and the rest of Senegal. The EDF has now agreed to finance the bridge. It was a hard struggle, but ultimately the EDF took the decision which we are sure was the right one. There is now something else which is lacking. This is the bridge across the Gambia to form a complete link between the Casamance and the rest of Senegal. Such a project would be important not only to Senegal, but also to the Gambia, and we have good reasons for thinking that it will be one of the first regional projects to be brought before EDF IV. To us the importance of the EDF investments has not only been very great, but for our bigger projects it has been decisive. Once more I would emphasise the importance of striking when the iron is hot and at the right place.

► *You have already given part of the answer to my next question, about the prospects for the Lomé Convention. Which parts of this convention are regarded as specially interesting and important in Senegal?*

(1) Investments by EDF I : 11 909 m F-CFA
EDF II : 16 618 m F-CFA
EDF III : 17 563 m F-CFA



Bridge over the Casamance (EDF finance)

— As you say, I began to give an answer. We are extremely interested in STABEX, the plan for stabilising export receipts. For a country such as Senegal the reasons for this are obvious, because the export with which most producers are concerned is the groundnut, which is very vulnerable pricewise. For us STABEX is an essential, and no praise we can give would be too much for the imagination which conceived it or the political will that led to its adoption in the Lomé Convention.

We are also very interested in the regional fund and the regional projects for which, I understand, 10% of the EDF is to be reserved. Senegal has good relations with its neighbours and acts with them in many economic projects, espe-

cially in agriculture, river improvements and road-building. It is certain that Senegal will be one of the countries most interested in this regional fund. We have already begun making notes of projects which could justifiably be put before the EDF committee at the earliest possible moment, so that we may have the benefit of the regional facilities.

We are also very interested in the industrialisation clauses. We are very keen on the ideas behind this EDF industrial policy. It is now we ourselves who will have to show our capacity for imagination, organisation and method in our efforts to get the best results from the various parts of the convention which provide for industrial promotion. Within a few months, I believe, we shall be in

a position to make definite proposals on this, especially since the projects we are dealing with at the present time cannot come to fruition without quite a considerable amount of European aid. I need only mention the Dakar freeport project to remind you of the prospects laid open to us by the new convention, and they are prospects which we must use to the full.

In fact, we are interested in the whole of the convention. I cannot neglect to mention the most outward and visible token of our interest, the European Development Fund. To us this is essential, it is practical, it is effective and we cannot but be delighted that it is maintained and given a wider assignment under the

new Lomé Convention. This was one point I was anxious to make, but in practice there are no provisions of the convention which do not interest us. I have simply been calling attention to the aspects which we regard as new and original, and of which we hope to make the best use we can. I almost forgot to say that the provisions for trade promotion are of very great interest to us, especially now that we have set up the International Fair of Dakar and are anxious to construct a Senegalese Foreign Trade Centre. We are an open country, and our economic development will increasingly depend on our trade with other nations.

► I should like to end this interview by asking you something a little more personal. Rather more than three years ago, you first gave us an interview in which you talked about relations between Europe and Africa. In this you said: "These relationships do not consist solely of trade, or solely of technical assistance... they should be regarded as a civilisation project, as a desire to join forces in setting up a group for which its differences are one of its sources of wealth, where the complementary is a source of strength and balance in the hard egotistical world in which we live today". Do you still stand by this?

— I think it is truer than ever. The negotiations for the Lomé Convention are, to my mind, a proof of it. The convention was the test of political will. While it was being negotiated, and especially in the moments of difficulty, you could not help feeling that there was something more in it than the immediate interests, that there was a political purpose based on the feeling of a common destiny. I think this is the strongest point and it is currently being verified whenever there are international conferences to discuss the great problems of our time. Perhaps I am being a little ambitious in what I say, but I feel that the more constructive character of the last UN conference on raw materials and development was very largely due to the part played by Europe. This is because the Europe of the Nine is a group of people who know the Africans and understand them better than do the other countries. It seems to me, too, that we are moving towards a north-south dialogue, that the prepara-



Construction and improvement of railways in Senegal (EDF project)

tory conference in Paris produced good results, and that the United States is beginning to be a little more understanding about our problems; and I am sure that this is due to the part played by the Europe of the Nine, a part in which she ranks more or less as the senior partner of Africa, in some degree as the spokesman for this Africa which she knows so much better than do the others.

This is why I think we must make full use both of the letter and of the spirit of all the provisions of the Lomé Convention. It is not enough to say that we are the biggest free trade area which has ever been set up in the world, an area comprising 55 countries and some 500 million people, and soon to include a good many more. There is much else; there are the institutions, there is the

Parliamentary Conference, there are the young people in all our countries whom we shall have to accustom to understanding one another, and put them in communication with one another; there are the trade unions, there are so many things dependant on a community of feelings and ideas and, I would repeat, of sense of common destiny.

What I hope, as I follow in the path of President Senghor, is that tomorrow we shall be going further, fulfilling ourselves the better through the fact that this common destiny will embrace not only Africa and Europe, but Africa and the Middle East with its Arabs, its Israelis, its Iranians; and when this happens we shall know still better the links by which our common destiny binds us. ■

A.L.

The BOAD

The West African Development Bank

by Pierre Claver DAMIBA^(*)

The West African Development Bank (BOAD) was formed in virtue of an agreement signed on November 14, 1973 between six West African countries using the same currency (the CFA franc) and having a joint bank of issue (the BCEAO, or Central Bank of the West African States), and which had signed a further treaty on the same day, setting up the West African Monetary Union (UMOA).

— The founder members of BOAD are:
● the six member States of the West African Monetary Union:

	Population (thousand)	Income per head (US dollars)
Ivory Coast	5 400	340
Dahomey	2 860	110
Upper Volta	5 613	70
Niger	4 250	90
Senegal	3 990	260
Togo	2 052	160

● and their Central Bank (BCEAO).

— The registered office of the Bank is at Lomé (Togo): BP (post box) 1172, Telex No. 5216.

Capital

● Amount: F-CFA 2 400 million, all of which is issued and 50% paid up by the six States and 50% by the Central Bank (BCEAO). In addition to this capital there is an initial fund of F-CFA 2 280 million (principally to defray expenditure by way of guarantees, rebates and for surveys).

● The articles of association of BOAD provide that States which are not members of UMOA, but which desire to support its development, may acquire holdings in the capital of the Bank to the extent of one third of the capital and share *pro tanto* in its administration.

Administration

The top body of the bank is the Council of Ministers of the Monetary Union.

^(*) Chairman of the BOAD.

Subject to this, the administration and management is by:

- a chairman;
- a management committee.

● The chairman of BOAD is M. Pierre Claver DAMIBA, economist and former Upper Volta Minister of Planning and Public Works. The chairman is assisted by a Vice-chairman. This is M. Harouna Bembello, veterinary surgeon and former Niger Minister of Development.

● The Management Committee (which is in effect the bank's board of directors) is made up of:

- the Chairman (who is ex officio chairman);
- one representative member and one deputy member from each of the six member States;
- the Governor of the Central Bank, or his representative;
- representatives of States which are not members of the union, in numbers proportionate to the amount of the capital subscribed by them, provided that the number of these representatives shall not be more than three, each of them being assisted by a deputy member appointed by himself.

The committee meets at least four times a year, and as directed by the Council of Ministers of the Union. It:

- makes the necessary decision for any increase or decrease of the capital;
- approves the acquisition of shareholdings;
- determines the general rule governing the loans and guarantees granted or given by the bank;
- makes decisions on financial support in various forms which the bank may decide to grant;
- makes the relevant decisions for borrowings by the bank;
- lays down the general rules governing the employment of the bank's available funds;
- approves conventions into which the bank may enter (acceptance of non-repayable support; setting up of special funds);
- and compiles the annual accounts and the report of the bank.

What it does

The object of BOAD is to promote the balanced development of the member States and promote the economic integration of West Africa. For this purpose it may finance:

- construction and improvement of infrastructure needed for development, with special reference to communications (e.g. telephone, transport facilities...), hydraulic equipment and electricity;
- improvement of the conditions and instruments of production in the rural and industrial sectors;
- the setting up of new activities;
- the transfer of the ownership of the instruments of production and distribution of goods and services to public or private bodies corporate, registered in the West African Monetary Union or one of its members, or to individuals who are nationals of one of the union members;
- compilation and technical and financial assessment of projects.

The criteria of intervention laid down by BOAD assign priority to:

- projects which will further the economic integration of the individual States;
- projects facilitating the economic development of those member States at the greater disadvantage because of natural conditions.

The BOAD is thus intended as a bank for integration and regional solidarity.

How it works

The BOAD intervenes either directly or through subsidiaries or special funds set up by itself, or by national finance institutions.

These interventions may take one or more of the following forms:

- shareholding;
- granting of medium or long-term loans;
- guarantees;
- rebates of interest.

In order to make the bank's intervention more effective and give it a free hand in the adjustment and adaptation of its action, there have been set up within the bank a number of special funds fed by non-repayable grants. These are:

- rebate fund;
- repurchase guarantee fund;
- guarantee fund;
- survey fund.

The beneficiaries

Projects may be submitted to the BOAD by:

- member States;



- public bodies;
- public undertakings;
- development banks;
- firms and organisations;
- private individuals.

In general, the persons and organisations eligible for BOAD credits are those contributing to the development of the economy of the member States.

The resources

The resources of the BOAD are of two kinds:

- those constituted by funds available inside the West African Monetary Union;
- those accruing through external aid—borrowings and non-repayable grants.

BOAD also needs resources of a more normal character to finance potentially profitable projects (e.g. in industry). For this purpose it will have to be in a position to place borrowings in finance markets and with banks and other credit institutions.

Cooperation with African finance institutions

The relations of BOAD with national or inter-African finance and development institutions are determined by the desire for cooperation.

With national development finance institutions

Close cooperation is provided:

- in the identification, preparation and evaluation of projects;
- in the financing, execution and continuation of projects.

The extent to which this cooperation is complete naturally depends on the powers of each individual institution.

In practice these institutions act as national correspondents for the BOAD.

With inter-African finance institutions

There is also close cooperation between the BOAD and inter-African bodies, such as the African Development Bank (BAD) the West African Economic Community (CEAO) and the Mutual Support and Loan Guarantee Fund of the Conseil de l'Entente (FEGEC).

This cooperation avoids useless competition and overlapping. It should prevent the number of aid cases becoming excessive, and ensure that the various interventions are complementary to one another and help towards the coordination and adaptation of the many specific projects for economic integration in West Africa. ■

P.C. DAMIBA

The Caribbean

Small-scale problems on a large scale

Dr. Boerma (see Dossier p. 28) insists on the need to bring the small farmer out of subsistence agriculture into the market economy. It is in some ways easier to try to do this in the poorest countries than in more developed areas where changes involve a complex economic and social context. "The Courier" discussed a few aspects of development in the Caribbean with Maurice Asseo of the FAO Investment Centre; C.F. Granger, senior economist with the Caribbean Common Market (Caricom) secretariat; and FAO programme officer Gonzales Perez del Castillo.

What sort of schooling for these youngsters from Guyana?



Perez — The United Nations Development Programme covers some 85 % of FAO field activities in the Caribbean, which are mainly in three areas: resource surveys, feasibility studies and institutions and training. There is a general trend to move away from resource surveys, which only account for about 4 % of our technical assistance activities, to building institutions and providing training. People want more immediate results and less surveys. Of course, the Caribbean contains many different countries with different problems. FAO activities there cover agriculture in the very broad sense, including the social side of rural development.

Asseo — Naturally surveys are necessary before you can pinpoint specific investment operations. These are studied in a number of phases and the first phase could start before a financial source is identified. The role of the FAO Investment Centre is one of liaison with a number of financial institutions, including the World Bank, and in the Caribbean the Inter-American Development Bank. The Caribbean Development Bank is envisaging some kind of cooperation with the FAO too.

► *Do you find that your activities in the Caribbean are different in kind from those in Africa?*

Asseo — Yes, essentially there are two differences. First, the economic and so —



Jamaican woman fetching drinking water from a spring

cial context is much more complex and therefore requires a much more sophisticated approach. In a lot of countries you can really start from scratch with simple models, but in the Caribbean there is a lot of development to be taken into consideration already. It requires adaptation. Then, the systems are not the same in different Caribbean countries. I don't think there are any areas in the Caribbean where people are still at subsistence level...

Perez — I would say there are...

Asseo — Outside the Commonwealth Caribbean, yes.

Perez — In some of the remoter areas of the smaller islands such as Santa Lucia some people are mainly subsistence farmers. Even in Jamaica there are rural sectors where the farmers are closer to the subsistence level than the market

economy. Of course, it's very difficult to define what is «rural», and one definition is how far people are from central decision-making; in the Caribbean this distance is very short.

► *Are there people who do not touch money at all?*

Perez — In Haiti, for instance, certainly. But I would still call a subsistence farmer one who relies on producing his family's basic diet himself, rather than producing food for sale. In the Caribbean this is still very common.

Granger — I would not support this. If subsistence farming is defined as a certain level of real income, there may still be some in the Caribbean. But everywhere in the Commonwealth Caribbean farmers have access to normal market channels and sell their produce to buy other goods. There are some very small

farmers, but people have other employment which means they are in the money economy.

Perez — As labour, yes.

Granger — Even as farmers. Generally you find someone selling something, even if it's only yams or sweet potatoes from a third of an acre. The vast bulk of their land—if you can talk of the vast bulk of a third of an acre—would enter into the usual market channels. You must remember that because of the regulations regarding schooling, for instance, which is obligatory, people have to buy clothes, shoes and books. This is paid for with money they get mostly outside their farming activities. The farm is regarded as a source of supplementary food and income. I still would not think of the Commonwealth Caribbean in terms of a pure barter economy.

► *What are the main lines of FAO activity in the Caribbean at the lowest income level?*

Perez — This is a difficult question to answer. In the Commonwealth Caribbean we have been trying to develop some kind of support to integrate the farmers more fully into the economy. There is one basic problem, which is that they need a lot of help in the form of credit, marketing facilities, extension services and agro-technical as well as socio-economic support, and the amount of money available for technical assistance in many of these countries is very small. It doesn't permit a very full service. Apart from this, the agricultural sector depends on two very distinct patterns: the plantations, with fairly high productivity despite a lot of wastage of land, and the small farmers. For the latter we found an approach when we started the FAO regional project for all the small Caribbean islands last year. It was supposed to provide services and training for the least-developed countries, the LDCs. It was a sociological approach intended not only to take into consideration technical support but to try to understand the constraints as the people themselves saw them. Unfortunately it didn't meet with the approval of the local authorities. The World Bank is now trying an integrated rural development approach in Jamaica, but we are finding difficulties in integrating small

farmers into technical assistance projects in the Caribbean and we admit we have not yet found a solution.

Asseo — This project is the first intervention of the FAO Investment Centre in the Caribbean area for a UNDP project. It was the first time we tried to move on to the phase of feasibility studies without having already identified the financial institutions which would be interested, so in a sense it is a pilot operation.

► *To what extent is profit a criterion of the choice of projects financed through the Investment Centre?*

Asseo — None at all. The centre's *raison d'être* is to try to make capital available where it is needed and where there is a fair chance that the lending body will recuperate its funds. Profit is not at all the aim, but we do try to find projects that make commercial sense.

► *I'd like to move from rural poverty to urban poverty. Job creation projects seem particularly important to the Caribbean. Mr. Granger, do you think people at the top end of the economy, including foreign companies, are prepared to accept the consequences of a thorough-going job creation policy, such as increased taxation and government control?*

Granger — A large part of the unemployment in the Caribbean may be directly attributable to the education system. It is a system that trains far more clerks than the economy can absorb. This appears to be a very significant factor contributing to unemployment, so I am not sure to what extent the unemployment in urban areas is equivalent to a reserve pool of labour, in the Marxist sense, for the foreign interests.

To improve the situation you can do something along the lines of what Gha-

na, for example, is doing to slow down the drift to the towns, by finding jobs outside the urban areas for people who would normally seek work in the towns. The approach could be tried in other countries, in Jamaica for instance.

► *Is the Caribbean Community as such involved in this kind of approach?*

Granger — The Community as a unit is very much aware of the very high levels of unemployment, since this is a major concern of the member governments. Considerable attention is being paid to this.

► *Mr. Asseo, is the FAO Investment Centre concerned in creating rural jobs to check the drift to the towns?*

Asseo — This is one of our main objectives. There is a growing consciousness, not only in the Caribbean but everywhere, that agriculture might not be the poor relation of the economy. One of the objectives might be to try to create sufficiently well-paid employment opportunities in agriculture.

Granger — Of course, at the same time governments are taking steps to change the nature and scope of the training the young get in school.

Asseo — They are also trying to change certain price structures so as to make agriculture an attractive proposal. In the Caribbean you are immediately faced with the problem of scale, which is further complicated by distance. Leaving aside some larger-scale interests, which tend to involve relatively small populations and small markets, there are a number of very small islands each capable of providing some of the higher-priced agricultural produce, such as vegetables and fruit, for their particular area, but which are unable to market it because of the distance between them. I understand one of the main concerns of Caricom now is to develop a transport system capable of solving this problem.

Granger — Giving priority to the needs of the LDCs is one of Caricom's commitments and a number of mechanisms have been set up. For instance, there is the Caribbean Development Bank, which has a "soft window" that has so far

Jamaican government experimental farm





Prospecting survey for forest resources in Jamaica

been limited to the LDCs; the Caribbean Investment Corporation, to which governments and the private sector subscribe from the entire Caribbean, whose activities are again limited to the LDCs. The Common Customs Tariff provides certain benefits for the LDCs, and they can discriminate against more developed countries in Caricom. This is a very real commitment.

Asseo — There is also a good deal of scope for action in the import substitution area. What must be established

with more attention is whether the production basis exists for import-substitution produce. It is less a market problem than a question of the capacity for production which is limited by size, climate and so on. So an immediate concern in the Caribbean is developing the market infrastructure, while in the larger territories like Guyana and Belize there is scope for beef production, for instance, and cattle-breeding, which could even be done in the smaller territories. Another possibility is replacing imported wheat by composite flours, using locally-pro-

duced cassava. Replacing only 10% of the total wheat imported would already make for a large investment project. Other projects are often limited by the basic production capacity: for fruit and vegetable processing, for instance, the small islands don't have the necessary scope for what would be competitive in an open market situation. The question of scale is one of the major problems in the Caribbean. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

The chances of success in the "north-south dialogue"

The conference on international economic cooperation, better known as the "north-south dialogue" (industrial countries—developing countries) opened on schedule in Paris in mid-December 1975, following a preparatory conference in October, which laid down the conference procedures. It is expected to go on for some months and will be attended by 27 countries (eight industrial and 19 developing countries), split up into four committees—energy, raw materials, development and finance matters. But why have the industrial countries not felt the need for entering upon this "dialogue" with the Third World until now? There are two good reasons at least. One is the 1973 oil crisis, which brought to a head the serious problem of the terms of trade between producers and consumers of raw materials. Secondly, inflation and recession, after the more generally critical conditions of recent years, have shown how limited in scope is an industrial growth such as that of the West, which relied largely on securing its basic products too cheaply. There is another factor it has demonstrated—the interdependence which has now become the fundamental characteristic of the world's economy.

The terms of trade

There has been a continuous deterioration in the terms of trade between the countries which produce and those which import raw materials. Twenty years ago a coffee producer in Africa or South America could buy a jeep from the United States for about 120 bags of coffee. Today he has to spend three times as much. Admittedly it is not quite the same jeep, but it is equally true that for coffee or other raw materials, there have been changes in production conditions, costs and the varieties of the product.

In the same way, a ton of cocoa from Cameroon would buy 2 400 metres of unbleached cotton 15 years ago. Within the past six years the price of the same ton of cocoa has fallen by nearly 30% and its "shopping" value is now no more than 800 metres of the same cotton greys. There are many similar examples. It was only in 1970 that the price index for raw materials recovered to the 1950 level, while in the same period the prices of manufactured goods had risen by 35%, of which 25% was the increase in the first 10 years and 10% in the 10 years which followed. Developing countries which counted on their raw material exports were growing steadily poorer, partly because they were getting less and less for their produce and partly because they were paying more and



By LUCIEN PAGNI

more for the industrial goods they needed for their equipment. For a quarter of a century this has been, and still is, the stark reality of international economic and commercial relations. The decline of the Third World's purchasing power will thus be a central feature of the Paris conference.

The limits of industrial growth and economic interdependence

The industrial countries themselves are big producers and exporters of raw materials. For a long time the most severe price falls were those of cereals other than rice, of which they are the biggest suppliers. Today the problem of the terms of trade is hitting these industrial countries themselves. With inflation the prices of manufactured goods are still climbing; but the jump in raw material prices in 1973 and 1974 brought zinc and phosphate prices to four times their former level and oil five times. According to a UN document on trade at the end of 1973 and the beginning of 1974, "developing countries which were easily able to find other incomes to cover a trade deficit of \$8 000 m are now confronted with a trade gap of \$80 000 m, representing 18% of their total imports, compared with only 3.6% formerly."

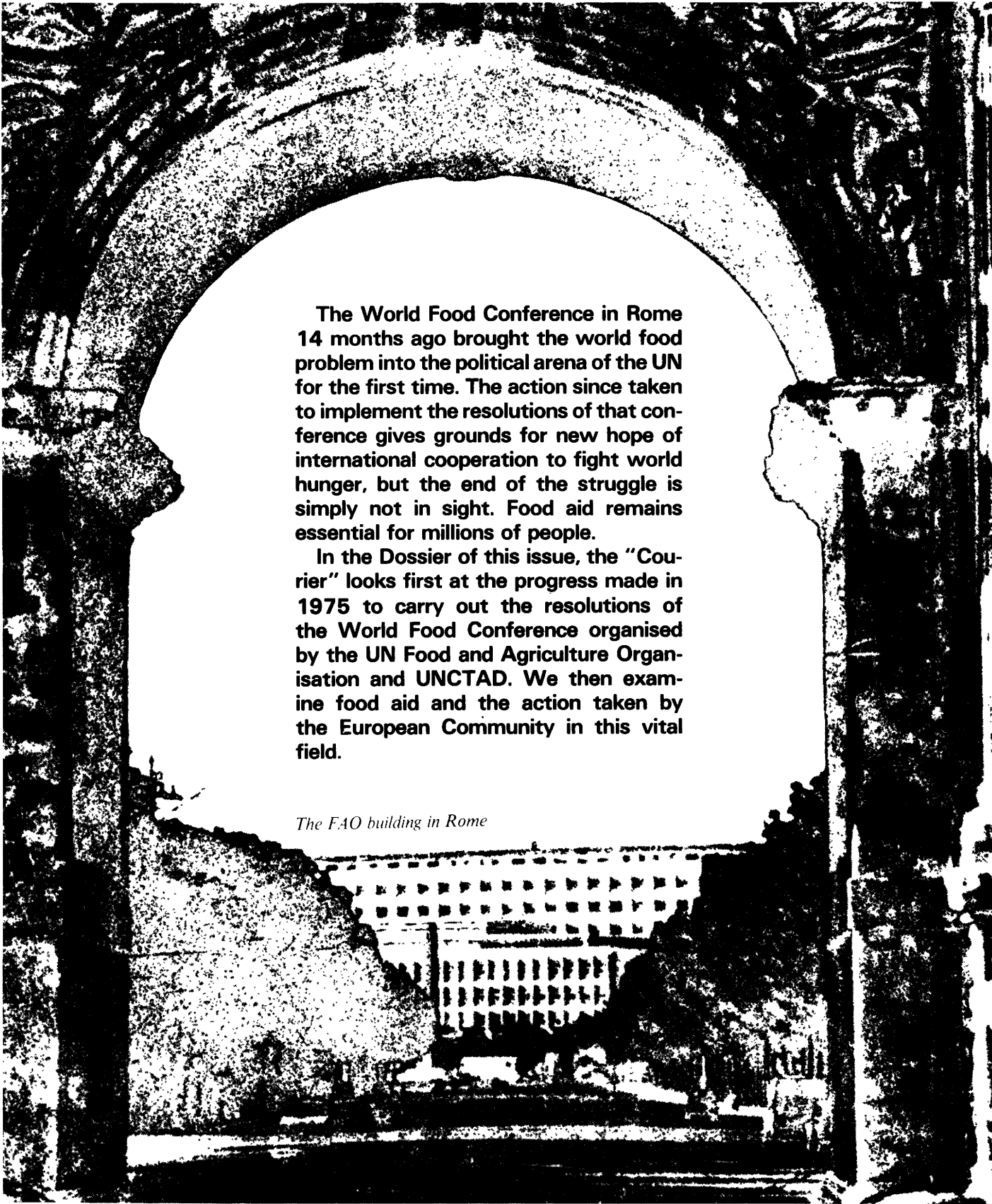
Pierre Uri (1), quoting these figures, points out that for the developed countries of the world, the surplus on sales of manufactured goods was up by 55%, but the deficit of the trade in basic products had grown to 3 1/2 times its former amount. "Taking these countries individually", he adds, "we find trade gaps ranging between \$5 000 and \$15 000 m, whereas previously the all-time record was in the enormous volume of United States trade and amounted only to \$7 000 m". Both in

(1) Quoted by Pierre Uri in "Développement sans dépendance", Paris 1974.

Europe and in the United States this situation revealed the limitations inherent in an industrial growth so largely dependent on sources of energy from the Third World and spotlight the interdependence of the national economies. In 1974, and still more in 1975, the industrial countries have been reacting to the harsh new facts of international trade by stating their intention of seeking "renewed growth" which would no longer be hallmarked by waste, one source of energy and undue dependence on the big producer countries: from the economy of plenty to the economy of want. And the countries of the Third World are standing up for a "new world economic order" which should be "more just and more equitable", founded upon a new international division of labour, by which they would become economic partners with the industrial world and not merely the suppliers of raw materials. These will be the real stakes of the Paris encounter, which French President Giscard d'Estaing hopes will "avoid sterile discussion on the new economic order, or the maintenance of the old". The stakes on the table are now acknowledged by all, including the United States, which the Third World was glad to see showing the first signs of a changing attitude when the UN held its seventh special session at New York in September, 1975.

Among the developing countries are wealthy oil producers, countries with other raw materials for export and a Fourth World of more pronounced poverty, and among them there are corresponding divergencies of interest. This variety may not be a major handicap, for they probably have some strong cards in their hand. The important thing is the approach to the alternatives of higher and index-linked raw material prices, called for by the producer countries and by UNCTAD, or the simple "stabilisation" of export receipts proposed by the industrial countries. "The real problem is the redistribution of wealth", wrote Franz Fanon some years ago. "Humanity has got to deal with this question if it is to avoid its own dislocation". In meetings between industrial countries and those which produce raw materials, the Lomé Convention is often quoted both for its content and for its original features. For developing countries it is a model of "the real value of unity of objective and force of negotiation". The same is true of the industrial countries. Perhaps in this very unity lies one of the strong points of the Third World and one of the best chances of success for this first international conference on economic cooperation. ■

L.P.



The World Food Conference in Rome 14 months ago brought the world food problem into the political arena of the UN for the first time. The action since taken to implement the resolutions of that conference gives grounds for new hope of international cooperation to fight world hunger, but the end of the struggle is simply not in sight. Food aid remains essential for millions of people.

In the Dossier of this issue, the "Courier" looks first at the progress made in 1975 to carry out the resolutions of the World Food Conference organised by the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation and UNCTAD. We then examine food aid and the action taken by the European Community in this vital field.

The FAO building in Rome

The world food problem

The last World Food Conference was a deliberate attempt to bring home the political urgency of the food problem to the governments represented at the United Nations. The Sahel drought gave it added force. Since then there has been rapid progress; although most of it is in the institutional area, there are real grounds for optimism.

The 22 resolutions of the food conference organised by the FAO can be broadly classified under two headings: measures to increase food production and moves towards a world-wide food security system. Under the first heading, the most important initiative, backed notably by the oil-producing countries, was the proposal to create an international agricultural development fund. Food production in the developing countries has increased by only 1.7% a year in the 1970s, compared with 2.7% annually in the 1960s. An increase of 3.6% annually is needed simply to keep up with their effective demand for food, and the conference aimed at an increase of 4.0% by the 1980s. This depends on an increased flow of resources for food production. The International Fund for Agricultural Development seemed to be taking shape in May, with 66 countries endorsing a proposal that the initial target for the fund should be 1 000 million SDRs (\$1 200 million). In principle this will be split 50/50 between traditional and new donor countries. The US has already pledged \$200 million. In September the UN special session resolved, perhaps optimistically, to get the fund off the ground by the end of 1975 and the EEC was among the powers represented in Rome in October at a conference to get the fund into operation. The prospects of seeing it launched early this year are encouraging.

As regards food security, despite relatively good Third World harvests in 1975, world food stocks are still extremely low. A year ago they were at their lowest level for 20 years. The main World Food Conference resolution here was to set up an international food stock, and by the end of summer 1975 an International Undertaking on World Food Security had been signed by 56 governments accounting for over 85% of world food exports. But the problem is to know how to establish and control the stock. The UN special session called for intensive work on the scheme. Meanwhile, the USSR and China, two of the biggest grain-growers, have kept out of the international undertaking.

Food aid in cereals increased to 8.6 million tons in 1974/75 from the dangerously low level of 5.4 million tons to which it had fallen in 1973/74. Commitments for nine million tons are expected for 1975/76, but this is still short of the 10 million tons target set by the food conference and far below the 12.7 million ton level of 1971/72. A Committee on Food Aid Policies and Programmes, a new line-up of the World Food Programme Intergovernmental Committee, is now taking shape and should provide new impetus.

Fertilizers: prices are lower and supplies more plentiful than a year ago, but the worst-hit countries will face a shortfall of 0.8 million tons over 1974/75 unless aid is increased. The FAO Commission on Fertilizers outlined a world fertilizer policy in June, 1975, which includes increasing bilateral fertilizer aid, improving the efficiency of fertilizer plants in developing countries and other measures.

The World Food Conference also recommended plans to improve nutrition. UN agencies responded with a number of actions in 1975, but these can only amount to a small start on the problem when some 500 million people in the world are underfed. In June the FAO launched a new Nutrition Planning Scheme and a liaison committee between relevant agencies has been set up to expand feeding programmes. Though funds are short, an overall plan of action on nutrition is under discussion. It should cover special feeding programmes for vulnerable groups such as children, a world-wide control programme to reduce malnutrition, a nutrition surveillance system, programmes for assisting governments in food and nutrition plans, and an internationally coordinated programme of applied nutrition research.

These and other follow-up actions are being given drive by a specially formed body, the World Food Council. Meeting at ministerial and plenipotentiary level, the WFC is the world's highest-level political body dealing exclusively with food. Its creation is evidence of the new urgency with which the world food situation is being faced.

So has the world really stopped talking about starvation and started doing something about it? "The Courier" asked Dr Addeke Boerma, retiring Director General of the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation, and Dr Sartaj Aziz, Deputy Director of the new World Food Council. ■

Dr Addeke BOERMA retiring Director General of the FAO

"Hunger and malnutrition are not just a question of producing more food"



FAO

Dr. Boerma ended an eight-year term as Director General of the FAO at the close of 1975. The "Courier" asked him what satisfaction and what regret he felt and how he saw the world food problem.

— To begin with the regrets, I regret that it has taken nearly all this time for the world to realise that such a large share of its population is constantly in a state of hunger and malnutrition. We estimate that the number of these people has risen by now to about 500 million. The situation has been the same for these people since anyone began studying the problem, and the world has only been previously interested in it when there were occasional famines. Some interest is taken in these famines, the situation improves and then the world relaxes and nobody cares very much. That has been my main regret, because we have been trying to tell the world that the situation is very dangerous and has been so for a long time.

However, it is of some satisfaction to me that it is now pretty clear that the world is beginning to realise that the

world food problem is a major political problem, which, if it is not solved, may have political consequences which nobody would like to guess at. The world is now beginning to realise this, and both in the World Food Conference held in 1974 and in the UN special session in September, food has been placed together with some of the other main political problems of an economic and social nature; and I think that's where it belongs. So I now believe that there is gradually coming about a political will to do something concrete about this problem instead of just talking about it.

► *The World Food Conference in Rome put forward a number of proposals, for instance, for the creation of a World Food Council, a famine alarm system, an agricultural development fund and so forth. Where have we got to with these various initiatives?*

— The conference did make some concrete recommendations—first of all to increase production in future at a much faster rate than in the past, at 3.6% a year at least compared with 2.6% over the last 15-20 years; and in order to make that possible it was recommended that developing countries should invest more in food and agriculture and make more of an effort themselves, while foreign aid should go up and there should be a special fund for agricultural development. I believe

I can say that the developing countries realise much more than in the past the basic importance of agriculture. That is a result not only of the food conference but of the realisation that food is so important for them and that they cannot depend on the developed world too much for imports of food.

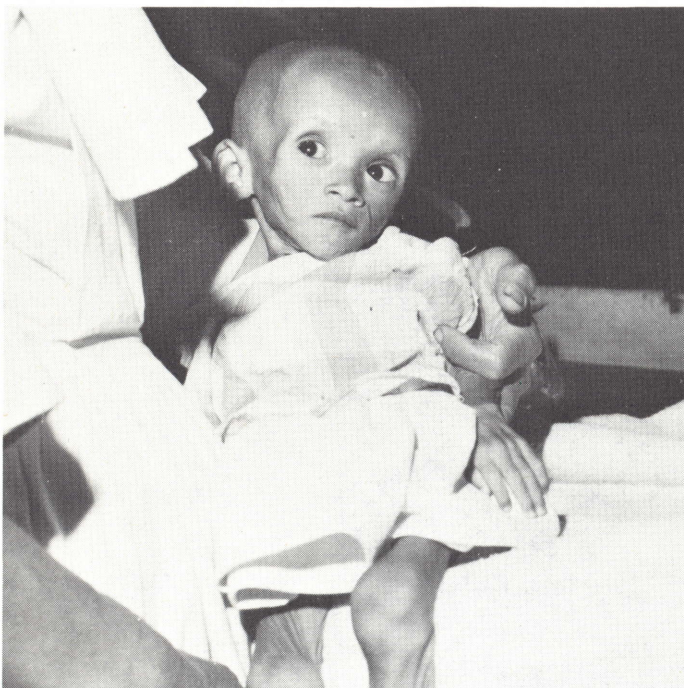
On food security, the FAO proposal to build up internationally-coordinated food stocks alike in developed and developing countries has been followed up. An "international undertaking" has been agreed upon and endorsed by most of the UN countries; unfortunately, two of the largest, the USSR and China, have not accepted this undertaking, which also means that they are not participating in another part of this food security system, the information service, which we have set up to provide an early warning system on world food.

On food aid, there was a decision that at least 10 million tons of grain annually should be made available by the main food-growing countries. A proposal to this effect has recently been put forward by the United States in the International Wheat Council, based largely on suggestions the FAO made, and I hope something of this comes about. It would be part of an international grain agreement. I personally am in favour of such an agreement, but my only fear is that if they wait until this agreement is negotiated before doing something concrete, it may take a long time, and I would like to have these food stocks established as soon as possible.

► *Is there much point in an international grain agreement if it does not include the USSR (1) and China?*

— Well, I hope the USSR would become a member of such an agreement—they were a member of the International Wheat Agreement, which is one of the reasons why this proposal is being discussed in the International Wheat Council,

The hunger that kills *a child in Laos*



Balanant

where they are present. As far as China is concerned, they do not belong to the wheat council, and neither have they agreed to sign the international undertaking on food security. But their main argument is that they are hardly influencing the world grain market, since they are by and large as much exporters, of rice, as they are importers, of wheat and other hard grains, and they have sufficient reserves not to need to make large purchases.

► *Has the world food situation improved fundamentally since the World Food Conference in Rome?*

— No, all you can say is that the intentions are there to improve the situation, but in fact I cannot at present see a fundamental change. Fundamentally the situation is still the same as it was many years ago, namely that a large part of the world's population is hungry and badly-fed, the reasons being that they are poor and that production in the developing countries is not sufficient to feed their populations adequately. The fundamental changes will take time; they could not be expected in one year's time. I'm not saying that nothing happened at the food conference—I think that as a result of it the situation may be improved—but I could not say that any fundamental change has taken place as yet.

► *What currently are the worst affected areas and what are their prospects?*

— This year we are fortunate. The most populous areas, like India, and some of the very poor countries in Africa, have had a pretty good crop. In some countries it is even possible to make some reserves, which they were unable to do last year. So at the moment the difficulties are limited to a few isolated cases—Honduras, which has had a bad drought; a few countries in Africa, like the Sudan and Ethiopia—by and large the situation this year in the developing countries happens to be pretty good.

► *The United Nations plan to beat world hunger in 10 years still stands, but you yourself have said you do not believe it is possible. Is there a conflict of views here?*

— Yes, indeed. Let me first of all say this was a statement made by Mr Kissinger in the World Food Conference, that the world should strive to reach a situation in 10 years time in which nobody would be suffering from hunger or malnutrition. That statement was almost literally taken over in one of the resolutions of the conference. However, I feel this is not real—

(1) Editor's note — The French newspaper "Le Monde" (Dec. 5, 1975) reports: "from indications given during the USSR Supreme Soviet session in December 1975, this year's harvest will only reach some 135 million tonnes. The National Plan aimed at 215 million tonnes in 1975. Clearly 60 million tonnes will have to be found on foreign markets to make up the Soviet Union's annual minimum requirement of 195 million tonnes".

"Le Monde" considers the first consequence of the shortfall will be "new and serious tension in the world cereal market, which was relatively calm up to now because of the strong rise in US production (up 22%) and good Third World harvests".

It cannot be forgotten, the newspaper adds, "that when Moscow bought 19 million tonnes of grain in 1972—and that after an 'honourable' harvest of 168 million tonnes—world prices quadrupled in a few months".

The quantity and the price of cereals will be the two main problems resulting from this situation.

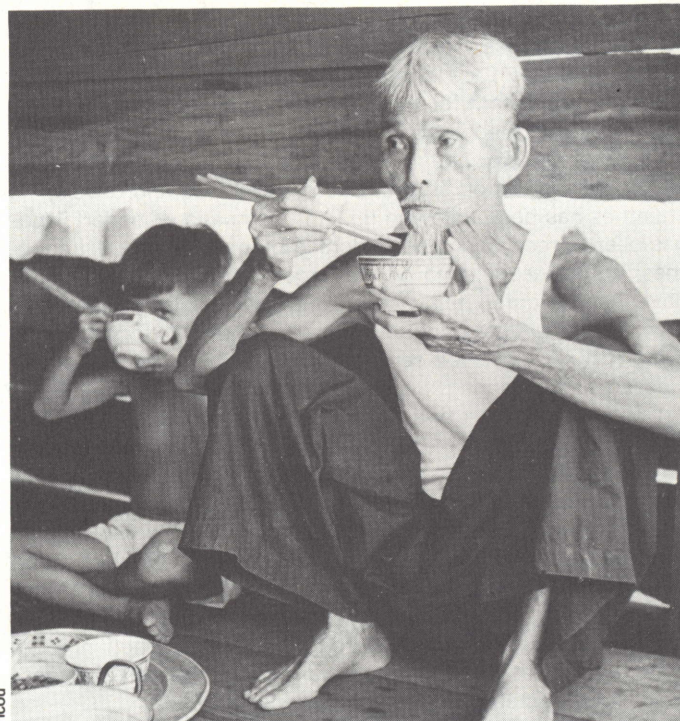
istic, because hunger and malnutrition are not just a question of producing more food but also of people being able to buy the food they need, and the greatest problem, I think, is that too many people are too poor to buy the kind of food they need. That is why we keep on saying 500 million people are hungry or badly-fed. And even should the target of 3.6% increase in food production a year be reached, we will still have 500 million people hungry or badly-fed.

Why? Because these are the people who cannot be reached, and will not be reached until they have some purchasing power. This is the main problem. It leads to another: that it is not just enough to increase agricultural production but it is necessary to turn our attention to economic development in general, and to draw more and more people into the production process.

► *Yet the world can feed itself. First, why doesn't it? Second, do you think the answer lies more in small-scale development than in international measures?*

— Technically I believe that we can produce more and that it is realistic to think the increased production necessary to feed a growing population can be brought about. However, if these people are too poor to buy the food, they will still go hungry. In order to avoid that, these people must be brought more into the production process and have full employment—in industry, in tourism, in all kinds of other branches of the economy, as well as in agriculture. Above all we must turn to the small farmers, the subsistence farmers. They should be given a lot of attention and brought into the production process too. Small-scale development is of course extremely important.

► *You say 500 million people may still be hungry in 10 years even if the target proposed by the World Food Conference is reached, because they are not accessible. How in practice can they be reached?*



Picou

The rice ration

— They have no access to food because they have no money to buy it. So they depend on the little they produce themselves, and that may not be enough and it may be partly the wrong kind of food. Only economic and agricultural development can raise the standard of living of these people; with that, almost automatically, they will be able to buy food. Of course, it then has to be produced, and I think that can be achieved. But the main problem in this whole food situation is —

Peru: everywhere in the world, some people are hungry



Benoit

how to combat poverty. Unless that can be done successfully, the world will stay hungry.

► *Do you not think food aid will remain very important for a long time to come?*

— Food aid is still a very important factor, especially in emergencies. But we must be very careful. It is not a remedy for the situation and it must be used carefully: one cannot just push food aid into developing countries because, first, it may get into the wrong hands and the poor people may not get it; and it may be a disincentive to production. It must be used after a very thorough scrutiny of what these countries can absorb and where it goes. In the FAO we have basic principles for food aid, established in 1964, which have to be observed. I should also say that the World Food Programme has learnt to use food aid in a very constructive way, by giving it as project aid and specially as an encouragement to carry out work, like building up streets and houses and irrigation, which creates jobs for the future. That kind of food aid should be encouraged. That is why I am very much in favour of strengthening the World Food Programme as a multilateral vehicle for food aid.

► *How far do you think food is a political factor in international relations?*

— I think one has to be realistic. Grains in particular are a very important commodity and those who have food can, if they wish, exercise political influence with it. From the humanitarian point of view you could say everyone has to eat, so don't make food an object of political action, but one has to realise that food is a political factor and has to be treated as such.

► *Famine and over-population often go hand in hand. Do you accept the argument that in the end the only effective form of population control is a high standard of living?*

— I think there is a lot of truth in that—it was the viewpoint of the majority of developing countries at the population conference in Bucharest—and it is true that part of the population problem is that the poorer people consider their children as a sort of life insurance for themselves; since the death-rate is so high, there is an inclination to produce more children. So there is some justification in this point of view and I do believe that should the situation of the poor improve, not only the food problem but also the population problem would be tackled effectively.

On the other hand, I would not rule out immediate measures for population control, which I think should be welcomed.

► *Is there not a vicious circle by which if you provide a little more food, a lot more children survive, so that in the short term the standard of living is not improved?*

— Yes, that may be. But on moral grounds I would never use that as a reason not to provide more food. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH



EDWARD SAOUMA New head of FAO

Edward Saouma (Lebanon) took over from Dr. Boerma as Director General of the FAO on January 1st this year.

Mr. Saouma, 49, previously head of the land and water development division and chairman of the FAO interdepartmental group on environmental resources, was elected almost unanimously on November 10, 1974 from five candidates by the 131 delegates to the FAO conference, in a second-round vote.

Mr. Saouma was seen as a Third World representative, and a good deal of change should be due in the corridors of the FAO building. He intends to push through with the "reforms everyone has been waiting for", although these will take place "progressively".

During a determined election campaign, Mr. Saouma emphasised his belief in a self-help policy for developing countries rather than their continued dependence on western aid programmes.

Trained as an agronomic engineer in the Lebanon and in France, Mr. Saouma rose from being head of the Tel-Amara school of agriculture to directing the Lebanese National Institute of Agronomic Research (1955-62), was chairman of the reorganisation committee for the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests and became Minister in the same ministry in 1970.

During his time at the National Institute of Agronomic Research he was the Lebanese delegate to the FAO and later joined the FAO Secretariat. From 1962-65 he was director of the organisation's regional bureau for West Asia, in New Delhi. Back in Rome, he and his department have enabled nearly a million hectares to be developed in some 60 countries over the last nine years.

Mr. Saouma has the reputation of a forceful personality and a talent for conciliation. A Christian Maronite, he speaks French and his wife is Colombian.

● The FAO conference last November also admitted four new members to the organisation: the Bahamas, Grenada, Papua New Guinea and Cape Verde. The PLO was admitted to the conference as an observer. ■

THE WORLD FOOD COUNCIL



FAO

Dr Sartaj AZIZ

"A global system of food security"

► *Dr. Aziz, you are Deputy Executive Director of the World Food Council. What is the World Food Council and what is it doing?*

— The World Food Council was the most important institution set up, on the recommendations of the World Food Conference held in Rome in 1974, to follow up the recommendations of the conference. The recommendations of other food conferences in the past have not been adequately followed up. The World Food Conference suggested the creation of a new, high-level body to coordinate and supervise the implementa-

tion of its recommendations. The World Food Council consists of 36 members who meet at ministerial and plenipotentiary level and report to the UN General Assembly. The main justification for creating this new body was two-fold: first, that food as a problem goes beyond agriculture and involves many important political decisions; second, food is being handled by a large number of UN agencies, with the FAO at the centre, so that there was a need for a body to look at the food problem in all its aspects and coordinate the activities of all the UN agencies in the field.

The food council is supposed to be assisted by two subsidiary bodies, a committee on food security and a committee on food aid policies and programmes, which will deal with these subjects in depth before they are taken up at the policy and political level by the World Food Council.

► *One of the most important initiatives taken by the World Food Conference was the creation of the agricultural development fund. Where have we got to with this?*

— This was the next most important outcome of the conference, apart from setting up the World Food Council. Without a larger flow of investment, not all the resolutions can be implemented; the nature of this fund and its relationship with the WFC and the UN system as a whole is still under discussion, but it has been recommended that the fund should be a specialised body of the UN system, which means that it will have sufficient autonomy while retaining links with the UN and the WFC.

► *Do you think the fund will really be set up at the beginning of this year, as was decided at the recent UN special session?*

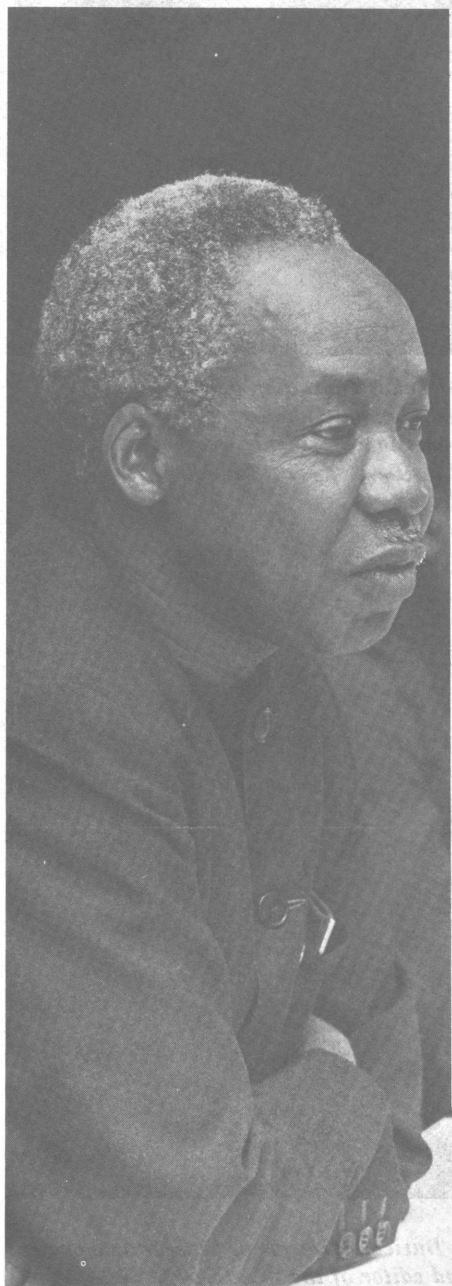
— I think the prospects are quite encouraging. If the next meeting of interested countries, at which they will be expected to indicate the level of contribution they would be prepared to make to the fund, is successful, we expect the matter will be taken up by the General Assembly. A meeting of plenipotentiaries will possibly be held in February to create the fund in a formal way. Substantial action to launch the fund was taken by the end of 1975 and if it comes into operation early in 1976 it will be a remarkable achievement, because in the past institutions like this have taken two to three years to set up.

► *The target for the fund was \$1.2 billion. Where is this going to come from?*

— Last May, Saudi Arabia suggested a target of one billion Special Drawing Rights and supported the proposal in the

Dr. Julius Nyerere Official visit to Brussels by Tanzanian President

An original kind of rural development



J.L. Debaize - CCE

• During a four-day visit to Belgium in November Dr. Julius Nyerere, President of the United Republic of Tanzania, met with EEC Commission President François-Xavier Ortoli and a number of leading EEC figures including Development Commissioner Claude Cheysson and Hans-Broder Krohn, Commission Director-General for Development. It was the first visit to the Commission by the head of State of an ACP country since the signature of the Lomé Convention.

Mr Ortoli recalled the long negotiations of 1973-74 which culminated in the signature of the Lomé Convention on February 28, 1975, between 46 ACP countries and the nine members of the EEC. "In the negotiations", he said, "46 countries of Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific became a single group, with a single spokesman, and maintained a spirit of unity which was a very considerable advantage in the discussion of these complicated issues". It might have been thought that the great cohesion of the 46 ACP countries, which was maintained in spite of their diversity, would have set up a spirit of protectionism against the other countries of the Third World. This had not been the case, Mr Ortoli explained; "the negotiations, and the convention shortly to be brought into force, disclosed new ideas and brought up new measures which, we hope, will give a new and wider dimension to relations between the rich countries and the poor". The Lomé Convention does not pretend to provide an answer to all the problems of developing countries, Mr Ortoli continued. "but it is a step towards a new mode of international relationships, such as you yourselves envisage them".

Mr Ortoli ran through the other provisions of the Lomé Convention, with special reference to industrial cooperation, trade promotion and financial cooperation. The latter, he said, was "necessary and fundamental for most of the poorer countries", but it could no longer be the sole instrument of aid in the development of the poorest of the poor countries. This, the President of the Commission said, was why the convention pro-

vides for free access for ACP products to Community markets without any reciprocal advantages, and sets up machinery for stabilising the export receipts of the ACP countries in the event of their suffering a serious setback.

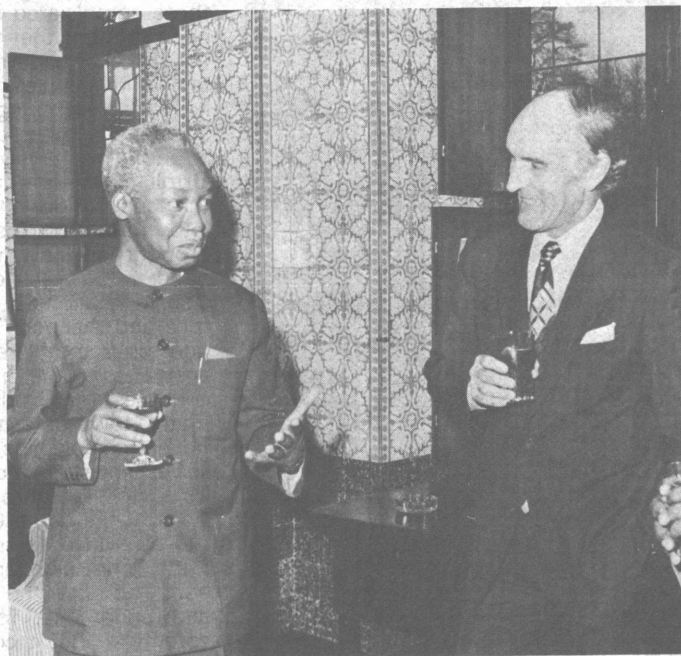
All these provisions of the Lomé Convention are evidence of the European Community's desire "to set up long-term links with developing countries based on economic interdependence, which is surely the best path to progress and complementary economic systems". This broad cooperation must not be regarded as a substitute for the individual effort and determination of each country to form its own economy, and its own social system, in accordance with its own aspirations, Mr Ortoli added.

In an answering speech, President Nyerere said that, though there is in fact the Arusha agreement between the Community and three East African countries (including Tanzania), they are still "getting to know one another". There are, he said "big differences of administrative practice between the EEC countries and Tanzania. While we must seek to secure as much advantage as possible from the Lomé Convention, we must learn to fall in with one another's methods of working". The Tanzanian government, he said, is working hard to set up genuine cooperation with the EEC within the Lomé framework. "We think this is very important", he said. "Now that this convention, after difficult but nevertheless friendly negotiations, has finally been signed, it must be operated in a spirit of mutual cooperation. ...In this spirit, its various provisions must be intended to resolve the existing inequalities between the EEC countries and those of the ACP".

The great merit of the Lomé Convention, President Nyerere emphasised, lies in its recognition of the inequalities inherent in the present international economic system and the legitimacy of the desire of developing countries to obtain compensation, insofar as it is they who alone carry the weight of the injustices. He made the point, however, that even though the Lomé Convention, "if it is



President Nyerere (behind left) at the EEC Commission. On his left is Mr. M'Loka, Tanzanian ambassador to Bonn and to the EEC. Back right from left to right are Mssrs. E. Noël, Commission Secretary-General; C. Cheysson, Commissioner from Development; F.X. Ortoli, Commission President; George Thomson, Commissioner for Regional Policy; H.B. Krohn, Director-General for Development; M. Foley, Deputy Director-General and E. Wirsing, Director of Projects.



Dr. Nyerere with Jean Durieux (director of general development policy and editor of the "Courier").
Meeting over cocktails (l to r): Ortoli, Nyerere, Cheysson.

properly applied", may be very useful to its signatories, nothing should stand in the way of the ACP countries "by their own organisation and their own work, improving the conditions of life for their respective peoples."

After his talks with members of the EEC Commission President Nyerere held a well attended press conference at the International Press Centre, at which he answered a number of questions.

He said his talks with the Belgian authorities had taken place in an atmosphere of mutual understanding. He regarded them, both those with the Belgian government and those with the EEC Commission, as having had "satisfactory results" and he hoped his European counterparts would have the same feeling.

His discussions with the Belgian government were concerned with the big current international problems, but more particularly with economic cooperation between Tanzania and Belgium and between Tanzania and the European Communities. Dr. Nyerere said he had explained the economic and political conditions of cooperation with his country.

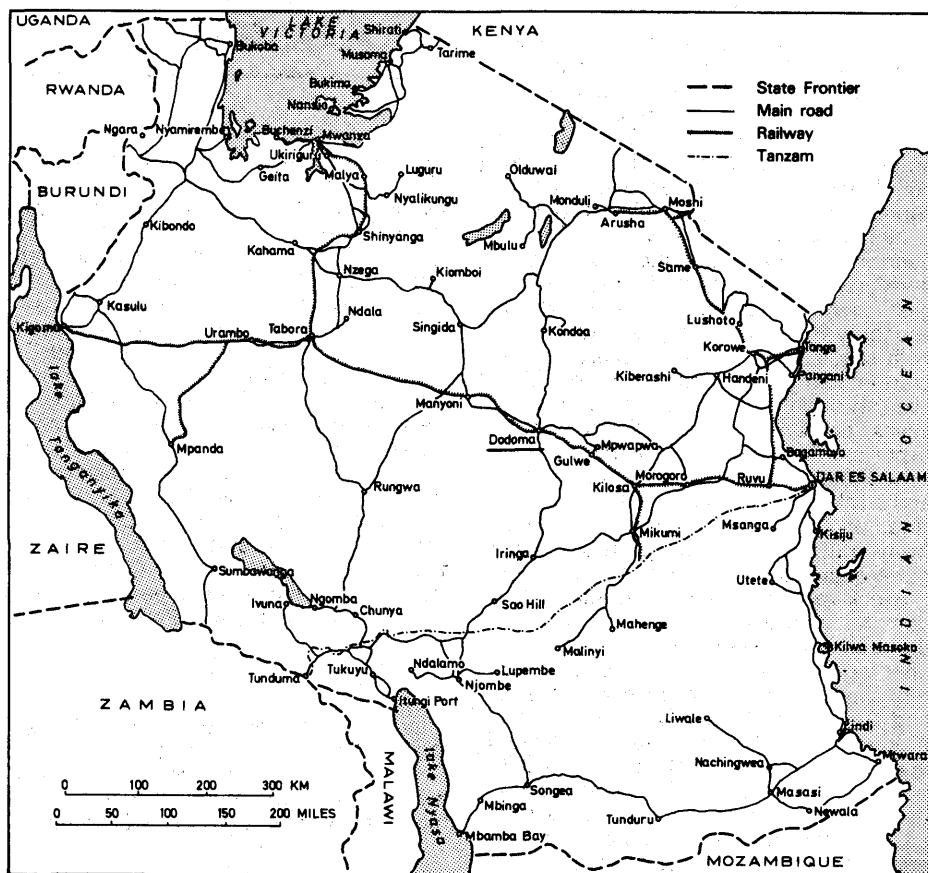
Tanzania, he said, is a socialist country and its development is planned, but the planning works by instigation rather than by compulsion. It is not rigid, and it has to allow for the many external factors determined by the interdependence between the non-industrial economies of developing countries and the industrial economies of Europe and America. The government had nationalised various sectors which were regarded as key ones for the Tanzanian economy. Nationalisation was selective and left plenty of room for private enterprise. In fact, Dr. Nyerere added, there are many private firms operating there, including the Philips Company, to give only one example. Industrialists would do well to invest in Tanzania, he said. It is a rural country and a producer of raw materials, including sisal and cotton, which are exported but 85% of which leave the country in the raw state. He would much prefer, he said, to export yarn or cloth than raw cotton.

Questions were put about guarantees offered to investors by Tanzania as a socialist country. The President replied that all international guarantees are available to them in Tanzania. The best guarantee, however, is the close partnership between the government and the investors.

Replying to criticism on Tanzania's famine in 1975, Dr. Nyerere said the famine was not due to the failure of the "Ujamaa" (rural farm cooperatives) as critics in Europe had made out, but to a drought which had resulted in much reduced crops. ■

LUCIEN PAGNI

TANZANIA



An original kind of rural development

● The United Republic of Tanzania is an East African State with the Indian Ocean as its eastern frontier, and is bounded in the west by Zaire, Burundi and Rwanda, in the north by Uganda and Kenya and in the south by Mozambique and Malawi. Part of its frontiers are on Lake Tanganyika, Lake Victoria and Lake Malawi, and the 937 000 sq.km of Tanzanian territory includes 53 000 sq.km of water surfaces. Only 5% of the land area is cultivable. The continental part of the country, known as Tanganyika, became independent in 1961 after having been mandated by the United Nations to British ad-

ministration since 1949. Tanzania also includes two islands, Pemba and Zanzibar, the latter of which became an independent Republic in 1963 and joined up with Tanganyika to form Tanzania in 1964.

The greater part of the country lies at altitudes between 1 000 and 1 400 m, consisting of the central African plateau, fringed by a narrow coastal plain which broadens around Dar-es-Salaam (the capital). The coastline is indented and bordered with coral reefs. On the landward side, Mount Kilimanjaro rises from the plateau in the north-east; and in the

south-west the plateau slopes down rather abruptly to Lake Tanganyika. The high altitude of most of the country has a moderating effect on the tropical climate and the rainfall is irregular.

The population of Tanzania is growing at nearly 3% p.a. The 1972 estimate was 13.6 m, representing quite a low density of about 15 inhabitants per sq. km. The central part of the country is practically uninhabited. About 7% of the population in the continental part of the country live in towns, but the proportion is higher on the islands, where about a quarter of the population are town dwellers. Dar-es-Salaam is still the biggest town in Tanzania. The Tanzanian economy is based mainly on agriculture, with subsistence crops (especially maize) predominating. The export crops, supplied through the big producers' cooperatives, account for about 85% of total exports. In order of importance the chief agricultural exports are coffee, cotton and sisal. It should be added that the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba live mainly from nutmeg, supplying more than three-quarters of the world's production.

Stock-raising is important, although it does not produce enough meat to cover the country's needs. The fisheries are only moderately developed, but their potentialities are great because of the lakes and the Indian Ocean. The chief mineral product is the diamond, but the sub-soil appears to offer enough other possibilities for diversification. Industrialisation has not got far; its main target is substitution for imports in the hope of covering part of the big deficit in the trade balance.

There is a good deal to attract the tourist, with line beaches, national parks and game reserves, and climbing on Kilimanjaro. The tourist industry is a growing source of income.

The country is a transit area for a number of other African countries. The infrastructure, and more especially the Tazara and the Tanzam Railways and the ports, has in recent years been a centre of attention both for the government and for external aid sources.

The development pattern chosen by the Tanzanian government is socialist and a number of measures have been enacted to provide new ways of life and work, especially for the rural populations. In order to promote village communities for an unevenly distributed rural population, President Nyerere laid down principle in 1967 for the Ujamaa villages, in which life is organised on a community basis and the work is cooperative.

Tanzania ranks among the poorest countries in the world. Its development policy is an original one and should help the country to play its part not only on the national but also on the regional and international levels. ■

ACP - EEC CONSULTATIVE ASSEMBLY

● The preparatory meeting of the ACP-EEC Consultative Assembly, was held in Luxembourg from November 24-28, 1975, under the chairmanship of M. Spenale, President of the European Parliament, and M. Yacé, President of the National Assembly of the Ivory Coast. Among those present were observers from the States of Cape Verde and St. Tomé and Príncipe.

At the opening session, in addition to the two chairmen, speeches were made by: M. Gaston Thorn, Prime Minister of Luxembourg; M. R.J.A. Felli, President of the ACP Council of Ministers; M. R. Van den Bulcke, President of the Chamber of Deputies of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg; Madame C. Flesch, Chairman of the Development and Cooperation Committee of the European Parliament.

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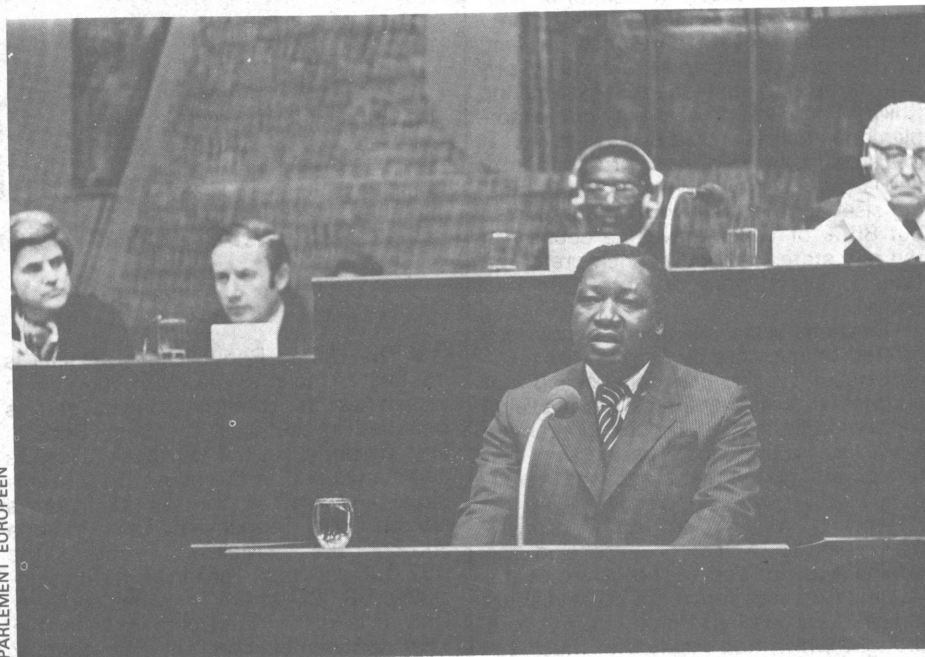
In the course of the meeting M. Bataglia, Chairman in Office of the EEC Council, and M. Cheysson, Member of the Commission, made statements on the objectives of the Lomé Convention.

M. Cheysson was enthusiastically applauded. He called attention to the various particularly significant aspects of the Lomé Convention, especially the new and almost revolutionary elements such as STABEX (which is now a model on the world scale), the machinery for sugar (which includes reciprocal undertakings to buy and sell) and the selective approach for the benefit of the poorest countries. Including other areas of Community association policy, such as the overall approach to the Mediterranean, a group of some 600 million people is being formed. The 46 ACP countries (which will ultimately be 50 or more) and the Mediterranean countries associated or to be associated with the Community, are half the total number of Third World countries in the UN, M. Cheysson said. If their action is coordinated, their potential influence in world affairs is obvious.

He also emphasised the fact that five of the Lomé signatories—Jamaica, Kenya, Nigeria, Zaïre and Zambia—have been invited to take part among the developing countries in the north-south conference in Paris.

M. Cheysson also brought out the fact that two-thirds of the exports from the ACP countries which are members of the Lomé Convention are consigned to the countries of the Common Market which, in turn, supplies them with 63% of the public aid they receive.

* *



M. Felli, President of the ACP Council of Ministers, in the course of his speech. Behind him (l to r) are Mssrs. Spenale, Philippe Yacé, Gaston Thorn and Mme. Flesch.

PARLEMENT EUROPÉEN

The Assembly of the ACP countries and the European Parliament worked on the implementation of Article 80 of the Lomé Convention, which is mainly concerned with procedure. It considered a preliminary draft of standing orders prepared principally by the chairmen, M. Spenale and M. Yacé, and appointed a drafting committee to report on it. This committee made some minor amendments and re-submitted it to the Assembly which approved it without opposition.

These standing orders include the following provisions:

- the **Consultative Assembly** of the ACP-EEC Lomé convention consists of two representatives from each of the ACP States and an equal number of representatives of the European Parliament;
- the Assembly shall be called by its presidents to one meeting a year. It may also be called to an extraordinary meeting.
- a Joint Committee is hereby set up, consisting of one representative from each ACP country and an equal number of representatives of the European Parliament;
- the committee may, in the course of its work, set up ad hoc consultative committees on a joint basis to undertake specific tasks;
- any member of the Assembly may put written or oral questions to the EEC-ACP Council of Ministers and shall be entitled to a reply. The chairmen were instructed to make contact with the Council of Ministers to work out a suitable procedure.

After completing its formal work the preparatory meeting of the Consultative Assembly unanimously adopted a final declaration, insisting on the need for speeding up the ratification procedures in the EEC countries, so that the convention may come into force as soon as possible. It decided to hold the constitutive meeting of the Assembly as soon as possible after the entry into force of the convention and invited the two chairmen of the preparatory meeting to call it.

* *

This first meeting of the Consultative Assembly took place in a relaxed and friendly atmosphere. The general recognition that the Lomé Convention is now taken as a model on the world scale helped towards a good understanding. It was noticed at the preparatory meetings, especially those of the drafting committee, that the new ACP members made a full contribution to the success of the work and seemed well integrated into the partnership. ■

ACP - EEC INTERIM COMMITTEE

Final meeting for 1975

● The ACP-EEC Interim Committee set up under the exchange of letters of 28 February 1975 on the occasion of the signing of the Lomé Convention, held its 4th meeting in Brussels on 17 November 1975 under the joint chairmanship of Mr Bombassei (Ambassador of Italy), Chairman of the Permanent Representatives Committee of the Council of the European Communities, and Mr Giama (Ambassador of Somalia), Chairman of the Committee of Ambassadors of the ACP States.

This meeting, like the previous meetings of the Interim Committee, had the dual task of preparing for the entry into force of the Lomé Convention and at the same time of ensuring that the interim arrangements were operating completely satisfactorily. This meeting was also particularly important owing to the imminence of the Ministerial Conference of the Group of ACP States, held on 11 and 12 December 1975 in Blantyre (Malawi).

The examination of the various items on the agenda enabled a detailed and positive exchange of views to be held on a number of matters, chiefly concerning trade relations between the European Communities and the ACP States.

In this context the Committee examined the import arrangements introduced by the ACP States; the provisions relating to imports into the Community of beef and veal and cut flowers, and a request from the ACP States relating to the arrangements applicable to the importation of a quantity of rum from the Bahamas. The Committee agreed that these specific questions, as well as the presentation of the Lomé Convention to GATT, will be discussed further at the next meeting of the ACP-EEC Sub-Committee on Trade Cooperation scheduled for December.

In the framework of the formal consultations provided for in the Lomé Convention, the Community spokesman made a detailed statement on the generalized preferences scheme for 1976. This statement was followed by a thorough discussion of approaches which could be followed in the future to improve consultations between the Community and the ACP States, particularly as regards such difficulties as might arise in the ACP States as a result of the

application of the generalized preferences scheme.

After hearing reports on the first meetings of the Sub-Committee on Financial and Technical Cooperation and the Group on Bananas set up under Protocol No. 6 to the Lomé Convention, the Committee welcomed the fact that these meetings had led to useful contact and had enabled the Group on Bananas to adopt its operating procedures and to contemplate possible ways of rendering the Protocol in question more operational.

* *

Outside the sphere of trade, the Committee heard Community communications on:

- the setting up of the bodies provided for under the Title of the Lomé Convention relating to industrial cooperation;
- the action which the Community intends for the time being to take on the application from the Republic of Cape Verde for accession to the Lomé Convention.

In conclusion, the Committee adopted its rules of procedure and agreed to postpone until a future meeting its examination of the draft rules of procedure of the Council of ACP-EEC Ministers and the Committee of ACP-EEC Ambassadors, which are due to take up their functions as soon as the Lomé Convention enters into force.

The Committee agreed that the date for its next meeting will be set after the meeting of the Council of Ministers of the ACP States (11 and 12 December 1975 in Malawi) and in the light of the results of that meeting. ■

LOMÉ CONVENTION

Ratifications

● As of mid-December 1975 the state of ratification of the Lomé Convention was as follows: in the EEC — Denmark and Luxembourg have already ratified. In six other countries—West Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Belgium, the Netherlands and Ireland—the procedures were due to be completed by the end of December. In Italy they will probably be completed by the end of January 1976. All nine members of the EEC are required to have ratified the convention before it can come into force.

Among the ACP countries the number of completed ratifications exceeds two-thirds of the total. This means that, on the ACP side, the condition for entry into force of the convention is now fulfilled. The parliaments of the Nine are now the only stumbling block.

Papua aims to join the Lomé Convention

Brussels, December 1975 — As announced in the "Courier" no. 34, the Foreign Minister of Papua has informed the European Commission of his country's intention to ask for accession to the Lomé Convention. The same intention was subsequently notified to the EEC Council.

EEC/St. Tome and Principe exploratory talks

Brussels, December 1975 — The European Commission has opened exploratory talks with a delegation from St. Tome and Principe led by Mr L.M. D'Alva, Minister for Economic Coordination and Mr N.X. Daniel Dias, Minister for Social Equipment, on the accession of this country to the Lomé Convention. It has been agreed the procedures shall be speeded up so far as possible. This accession would require the total acceptance by St. Tome and Principe of the provisions of the convention and a decision by the EEC to increase the funds at the disposal of EDF IV to cover certain financing for the new applicant without affecting the existing rights of the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries already associated. The European Commission is to propose the opening of formal negotiations in the early future.

The St. Tome and Principe delegation as made contact with the chairman of the Committee of ACP Ambassadors, Mr O. Giama. ■

SURINAM : Independence

After more than three centuries of Dutch colonial rule, Surinam became an independent sovereign on November 25, 1975. The independence procedure was jointly approved by three governments, not only those of Paramaribo (the Surinam capital) and the Hague, but also that of Willemstad, the capital of the Netherlands Antilles, which are to become independent during the '80s but are still under the same regime which applied in Surinam before its own independence. The Surinam members of the

Dutch Estates General (Parliamentary Assembly) accepted the new constitution and the independence festivities took place beneath the new Surinam banner—five horizontal strips, green-white-red-white-green with a yellow star in the centre—and under the device "One people, one nation, one destiny".

Natural variety country

Surinam has about 400 km of coastline on the north-eastern shoulder of the South American continent and a southern frontier with Brazil. Formerly known as Dutch Guyana, it lies between French Guyana and the former British Guyana and covers an area of 163 000 sq. km, consisting of a marshy coastal strip (16% of the total area), a savannah area (some 30-50 km in depth) and a mountain and forest region in which eight rivers rise. The climate is moist and tropical, kept fresh by the trade winds from the north-east. It is a country which will grow almost anything you care to plant.

An eventful history

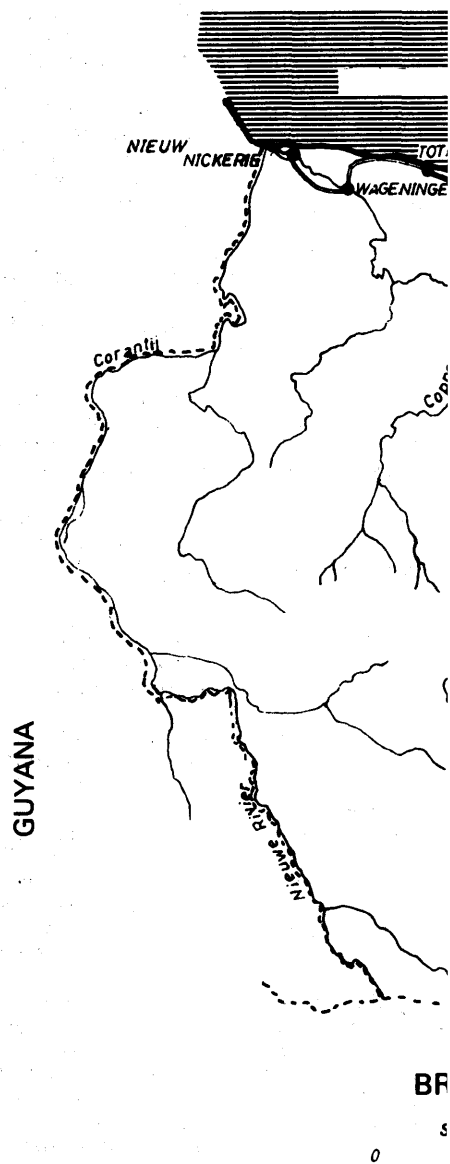
In 1667 Surinam became a colony of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. This followed a second Anglo-Dutch war, when the Netherlands accepted Surinam in exchange for New York. Relations with neighbouring countries and the composition of the population were greatly influenced by the former metropolitan country, and the choice of the rivers Corantijn and Marowijne as the frontiers with British and French Guyana respectively was a compromise. The population was last estimated (1972) at 426 000, and another 130 000 live in the Netherlands and had chosen Dutch nationality before independence. This population suffered from the plantation system which, after as well as before the abolition of slavery in 1863, necessitated the "importation" of labour. The Royal Statute of 1954 gave Surinam autonomy in domestic matters except for defence and foreign affairs. The political parties, mainly constituted in the first instance according to the origins of their members, eventually agreed to work together for their common future under the same constitution.

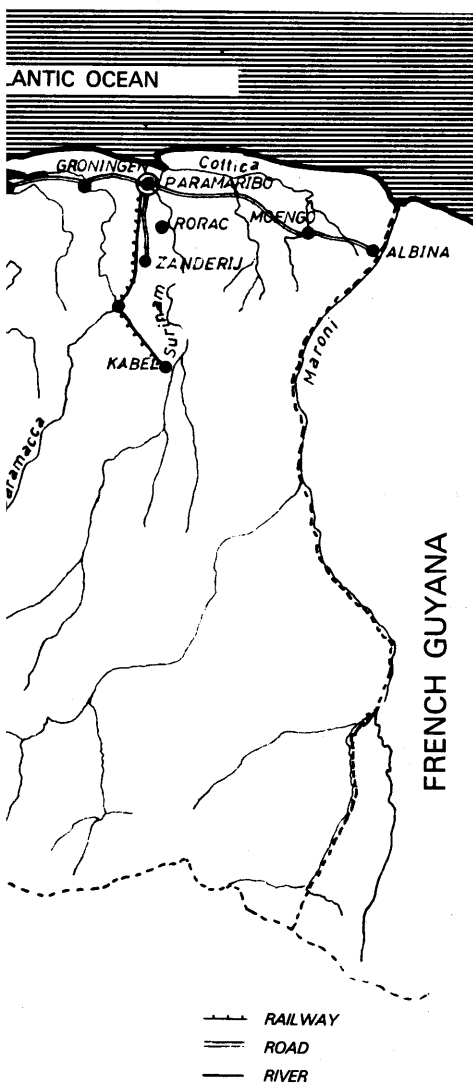
From paddy fields to bauxite mines

The Surinam agriculture has great potentialities but, even though the population is on the small side, more than half the food requirements have to be imported. A far-reaching modernisation of farming techniques (especially for sugar cane) might raise the general agricultural

level to a par with the rice-growing, which occupies three-quarters of the cultivated area. The coastal marshes are not unlike the Dutch polders and the rice produced there annually is around 150 000 tonnes (1974), more than half of which goes for export.

Surinam is the world's third largest producer of bauxite which, with alumina and aluminium, account for 80% of the total exports. It is a member of the International Association of Bauxite Producers and consigns a quarter of its supplies to the United States through Suralco, a Dutch-American aluminium company and a subsidiary of the American company Alcoa. The full exploitation of Surinam's mineral and forest wealth now requires investment and external aid on a big scale.





External relations

Surinam's position on the Latin-American coast gives it the reasonable expectation not only of close relations with the other Latin-American countries but also with the countries belonging to Caricom, which it may itself join in 1976. Its economic links with the United States are close and the Netherlands have promised financial aid of 3.5 m Dutch florins (or 2 380 m Surinam florins) spread over the next few years. The relationship with the EEC is that of a dependent overseas territory which has recently become independent and its intentions have yet to be made clear. Its partnership in the Lomé Convention is provided for in Annexe Six of the Final Act, in which the EEC and the ACP

States record their willingness "to allow the countries and territories referred to in part IV of the Treaty (of Rome) which have become independent to accede to the Convention if they wish to continue their relations with the Community in this form". Since no definite reply can be given to a request which cannot be made before the Lomé Convention has been ratified and brought into force, the EEC Council has at this stage declared itself in favour of admitting Surinam as an observer to the EEC-ACP institutions and of the appointment of a Surinam representative to the Community. The Community has put its cards on the table and it is Surinam's turn to state its intentions on a matter of major significance for the future of a young State. ■

R.D.B.

ACP PLACE IN WORLD TRADE

Between 1964 and 1973 the exports of the African, Caribbean and Pacific States (generally known as the ACP States), which signed the Lomé Convention of 28 February 1975, increased from 4.7 to 13.4 thousand million dollars. The increase was particularly appreciable between 1972 and 1973 (+35%) as a result of the high rise in the price of raw materials, particularly oil, recorded during this period.

Analysis of the destination of exported goods reveals the efforts which the ACP States have been making since 1964 to find new markets; trade with other developing countries more than quadrupled (from 0.4 to 1.7 thousand million dollars) and that with the developed countries, not counting the Community countries, more than quintupled (from 0.9 to 4.9 thousand million dollars); exports to the Community only increased by 87% in nine years (from 3.3 to 6.2 thousand million dollars). However, it must be pointed out that the European Economic Community is still the most important outlet for these countries' exports, although its share fell from 70% in 1964 to 48% in 1973. In-depth examination of trade with Europe reveals moreover that, for almost all the ACP States, trade with the former parent state (France, United Kingdom or Belgium) expanded more slowly (approximately 40% on average) than trade with the other Member States of the Community. However, although the former parent state is still the main trading partner of each ACP

State, the second country in order of trade volume is usually another EEC Country (Germany or Italy) followed by a non-Community country (United States of America).

* *

The source of this information is the *ACP: Yearbook of Foreign Trade Statistics*, which the Statistical Office of the European Communities has just published. This yearbook constitutes a working aid and contains an abundance of detailed statistical information; for example, a summary of trade with the major economic regions of the world, which accentuates the degree of geographical concentration of trade and the fact that the exports of the ACP States are confined to a few raw materials and basic products which make up the natural wealth of these countries.

As far as imports are concerned, this publication permits study of the development of the main categories of products purchased by these countries (capital goods, consumer goods, etc.) and of the origin of these imports.

A large number of tables provide detailed data, by product, of trade with the Community. ■

EDF

The Commission of the European Communities and the European Investment Bank have concluded a contract with the Netherlands Antilles for the granting of a loan on special conditions equivalent to 4 380 000 units of account (approx. 9 460 000 Netherlands Antilles Florins) which will be used for extension of the airport at Curaçao. The EIB, entrusted with management of the loan, is acting as agent of the European Economic Community.

The works to be carried out at the airport will enable it to accommodate with maximum safety large capacity aircraft, such as the Boeing 747 "Jumbo". The project forms part of a development programme which also makes provision for enlarging the airport terminal and for the installation of an instrument landing system.

The loan is drawn from the resources of the 2nd and 3rd European Development Funds (EDF) and the terms are 30 years (including a 10-year grace period) with an interest rate of 3%.

A grant of 1 020 000 u. a. (2 200 000 NAFI) has been made for the same project from the 3rd European Development Fund. ■

FOOD PROBLEMS

• OECD — world prospects

The OECD Agriculture Committee thinks world markets for cereals are likely to remain tight. There is no chance of a fresh build-up of world stocks, and the higher prices of the last few months could have serious consequences for developing countries.

In coming months, according to the OECD, the world position will depend essentially on the volume of Russian purchases intended to bridge the production deficit resulting from a crop lower by 25% than last year.

Wheat production in the United States has set up a new record at 58 million tons, and Canada is understood to have produced 16 million tons. A higher production is also expected from Argentina and Australia. EEC production, on the other hand, was down by between 5 and 7 m tons with a harvest expected to have been between 38 and 40 m tons or even lower, according to estimates by the Statistical Office. In the developing countries production is up by 15%, which is in itself encouraging. According to the OECD, total world production seems to have increased by 3% on 1974-75, but will still be somewhat below the 1973-74 crops, against an apparent consumption growth of 3.5 m tons.

The import requirements into developing countries (between 34 and 36.5 m tons) and into the State-economy countries (20-23 m tons) will, for practical purposes, be just as high. Taking this into account there is little chance of the build-up of stocks, expected a few months ago, above their present level of between 24 and 28 m tons. According to the OECD, the tightness of the market this season and the movement in stocks and prices call for a really adequate volume of production next year.

World production of secondary cereals should amount to about 600 m tons, a rise of 5%. It is expected there will be a considerable increase in the American output of maize, reaching a record level of 144 m tons. The OECD also expects the US production of soya will be not far short of the record 1973 crop, so that the American surplus will be higher than ever.

• European Parliament on food aid

The Parliament has again defined its attitude, in a resolution on the Glinne report, on an increase in food aid "to what the Commission proposals take as the

minimum". It emphasises the need for the Community to improve its planning for Community food aid, as for its participation in the World Food Council, in which the Parliament desires the Community to play an active part.

The Parliament also considers the Community and its member countries should give active support to setting up a world cereals agreement and contribute as early as possible to the International Agricultural Development Fund.

• Commission — aid to repatriates from Angola and Palestinian refugees

The Commission has proposed emergency aid to Angola refugees in the form of 400 tons of butteroil and 550 tons of powdered milk, valued at UA 910 000. Credit of UA 150 000 has also been opened for the purchase of medical supplies, clothing and prefabricated houses.

The position in the Middle East, coupled with the financial difficulties of UNRWA (UN Relief and Works Agency) have also led the Commission to propose special aid of 5 000 tons of cereals valued at \$750 000 on top of a grant of 20 000 tons of normal aid.

• EEC agreement with Egypt

EEC Commissioner Pierre Lardinois announced in Brussels on November 6 a forthcoming long-term agreement between the EEC and Egypt for the delivery of food supplies to Egypt, including a million tons of wheat. After the Commission had negotiated the basic terms of the agreement, the green light was

CORRECTION

News Round-up in our last issue (no. 34 p. VI) stated that the EEC had provided the only food aid received by the Cape Verde islands up to November 1975. This was incorrect. Mr. J.S. Annan, Director of the External Relations and General Services Division of the World Food Programme, has kindly asked us to point out that:

"The United Nations/FAO World Food Programme had already done a good deal in this field for the Cape Verde islands. On January 23, 1975, the Executive Director of the WFP agreed to grant \$US 1 337 550 worth of aid to this country. WFP commitments have now reached \$9 192 000, representing 26 054 tons of food of which about half has already been delivered to Cape Verde. Some of this food aid was contributed to the WFP by the EEC." ■

given by EEC Ministers on November 5. Mr Lardinois was thus in a position on November 6 to ask the Egyptian Minister of Supply to finalise the draft agreement. The deliveries scheduled are the following:

- a million tonnes of cereals at a price between \$120 and \$175 per ton f.o.b.,
- 75 000 tonnes of sugar at the European market price (currently between UA 320 and 336 per tonne, the unit of account being valued at about \$1.20).
- 11 000 tonnes of beef and veal (including 1 000 tonnes in preserved form) slaughtered in accordance with Moslem requirements;
- 10 000 tonnes of powdered milk as part of long-term agreements.

The agreement will be for one year, except for the sugar deliveries which will be spread over three years. ■

BADEA

Brussels. — The Board of Directors of BADEA (Arab Bank for African Economic Development) met on November 26-28 and decided to provide finance for 12 projects. The amounts involved are: \$10 m each for the "CIMA" cement project, in which Ghana, the Ivory Coast and Togo are concerned; the CFCO railway project in Congo; the Douala project in Cameroon; the water supply project in Zaïre; the Ouagadougou-Tambao railway project in Upper Volta; —\$8 m for a cement works in Bénin (Gulf of Guinea); \$7 m for a road project in Niger; \$5 m each for a road project in Niger, a cocoa project in Ghana and a maize project in Tanzania; \$3 m for a stock-raising project in Senegal; \$2.5 m for a road project in Lesotho. The total commitment amounts to \$85.5 m. ■

RAW MATERIALS

Iron ore exporters combine

London. — Ministers from nine countries—Algeria, Australia, Chile, India, Mauritania, Venezuela, Peru, Sierra Leone and Tunisia—meeting in London, have decided to set up a new organisation to be called "the Association of Iron Ore-Exporting Countries (AIOEC)", which is to press for fair prices for the ore. The participants agreed to meet every two years. The board of directors of the association is to meet twice a year.

Sweden had promised to sign the AIOEC Charter in December and Brazil will do so "in the near future". The number of member countries will then be 11. ■

New International Coffee agreement

● London. — The 63 members of the International Coffee Organisation have laid down the main lines of a third international agreement.

The new agreement is to come into force in October 1976 after negotiations which began three years ago. The final negotiation session, which began on November 3 in the office of the ICO, was marked by a last-minute compromise between Brazil (the biggest producer) and the United States (the biggest consumer) which had been taking contrary attitudes and had raised fears of a complete breakdown in the talks.

The essential points of the new agreement are:

1. A new quota system in which the exporting members will be given a fixed quota and a variable quota. The fixed quota makes up 70 % of the total and the variable is the remaining 30 %.
2. Allowance to be made for the frosts in Brazil in July, which make it improbable the quotas will apply during the initial years.
3. Restoration or suspension of the quotas to be automatic, depending on price movements.
4. Duration of the agreement to be six years instead of five.

PROGRAMMING MISSIONS

Maurice Foley at Yaoundé: "The Lomé Convention contains positive elements for a new world economic order"

by Eugène LETENOU (*)

A joint programming mission from the EDF spent a week in the United Republic of Cameroon in November 1975. It was led by Maurice Foley, Deputy Director-General in the EEC Commission, and

(*) Correspondent of the "Cameroon Tribune", Yaoundé.



In Malawi Mr Foley met President Hastings Banda.

included M. Cohen, Director of Programmes for the ACP, senior officers of the European Community and M. Silvain, Deputy Director (Loans) of the European Investment Bank.

The visit to Cameroon ran from November 20 to 27. The intention was to have an initial exchange of views between EEC and Cameroon representatives before compiling a programme of the next EDF interventions in the country. It is important to note that this programme will not in any sense amount to a commitment by the EEC.

In accordance with the Lomé Convention clauses on financial aid, the Cameroon authorities began by informing the EEC delegation of the development targets in their fourth plan for which they desired to secure help from EDF IV and other instruments of the Lomé Convention.

The Commission representatives were favourably impressed by the preparatory work carried out by the authorities in Cameroon. They had in particular avoided putting forward "unduly ambitious" requests which would be out of proportion to the aid they are entitled to expect from the EEC. The list of projects submitted was judged "reasonable and realistic" by a senior EEC official. It is fair to suppose therefore that the requests lodged by Cameroon will have a good chance of acceptance by the Community without major amendment.



Maurice Foley faces the press after talks with Cameroon's President Ahmadou Ahidjo.

The EEC mission was informed of the project lists of the different Cameroonian government departments, each of which tabled a series of projects in which it was hoped the Community might intervene.

The next step is to lay down the programme guidelines showing the extent to which the EEC may be willing to contribute in the different development sectors. This implies making a first selection of projects.

This was done in an analysis made by the Cameroon Economic and Planning Ministry. The EDF programming mission left Yaoundé with a protocol agreement specifying, inter alia:

- The distribution of the effort between the main development sectors;
- Within each sector, identifying a number of projects suitable for Community intervention, subject to particulars to be filed later. This mission is naturally to be followed by others of a more specialised character.

The sectors listed and the comparative importance attached to each of them correspond with the statements consistently made by President Ahidjo regarding the development of the country.

Mr. Foley talked with President Ahidjo on November 26. At the end of his visit he said the project programming carried out in Cameroon was to be continued in December in Tanzania and Sierra Leone.

In his discussion with President Ahidjo, Mr. Foley reviewed the provisions of the Lomé Convention and their implications for the Cameroon economy. This problem was considered from the standpoint of regional and bilateral cooperation in matters of trade and industrial development.

As he left the President, Mr. Foley was questioned by journalists as to just what contribution the Lomé Convention could make towards promoting a new world economic order. He replied that the convention contains positive elements which indicate what can be done on the world scale to secure a fairer economic order.

As examples, he mentioned the stabilisation of export receipts and the setting up of genuine industrial cooperation and the technological transfers it implies.

In Mr. Foley's view the convention is the beginning of a new departure characterised by the goodwill towards the ACP shown by the nine industrial countries that have signed it. ■

E.L.

* *

Before the visit to Cameroon Mr. Foley led two other missions, to Malawi and to Zambia, during the first fortnight of November.

In addition similar programming missions went to Rwanda and Burundi under the leadership of Herr Wirsing, Director of Projects in the EEC Commission. I'K

ACP TRADE PROMOTION

YAOUNDÉ - Seminar on more effective marketing of ACP products in the EEC

by Eugène LETENOU

A seminar on sales promotion for ACP goods in the EEC countries was held in Yaoundé, Cameroon, from November 25-29.

The first seminar of its kind it was organised by the Community and was attended by European industrialists and businessmen and industrial and agricultural producers in all the central African countries except Rwanda. On the European side there were representatives of France, West Germany, Italy, Britain, Belgium and the Netherlands.

The work was coordinated by M. David, head of the sales promotion division of the EEC operations directorate, with the help of technical experts from the European Development Fund. The EDF provided nearly F-CFA 6.5 m to cover the travel costs and the expenses of the participants.

The aim of the organisers was to bring together producers in the ACP countries who are exporters or intending to be exporters to the Community, and make a study of their sales promotion methods with a view to giving them advice and enabling them to tackle the European market on the best possible terms.

The European delegation to Yaoundé gave an outline of western promotion techniques and told the ACP delegates of the financial and technical aid they could obtain for their exports from the member countries and from public and private organisations.

M. Robert Naah, Cameroon's Deputy Minister for Economic Affairs and Planning, spoke of the seminar as the beginning of a new era which was to see the

flourishing of the export trade of ACP countries. Their success in the European market depends primarily on their address in making use of the facilities put at their disposal.

To judge by the final recommendation drafted by the Cameroonian delegation, the Yaoundé seminar seems to have produced encouraging results, especially from the standpoint of national economic development based on an export drive.

The delegates, however, recommended their national governments:

- to continue their attempts to secure as early as possible a strengthening of their national and inter-State communications systems and the improvement of their port facilities;
- to make a thorough examination, with the help of experts if necessary, of the possibility of:

- making it easier for the African countries to trade with one another with special reference to countries using different currencies;
- simplifying administrative formalities on exporting;
- securing facilities for export pre-financing, if necessary by setting up banks for the purpose and organising arrangements for discounting credits on foreign countries;
- negotiating special promotional freight rates for exported goods with shipping companies and maritime conferences;
- considering whether it would be necessary and desirable to form an inter-African sea-freighting company.

— to create in each country an export drive organisation adapted to the real needs of the economy. Its task would be to:

- persuade the trading community to take part in promotion operations, such as trade missions, fairs and specialist exhibitions, trade fortnights and similar events, and not to leave it to their government and its agencies to act as their showmen;
 - act as a contact organisation for export promotion purposes between government authorities, consular chambers and trade organisations on the one hand, and on the other as correspondent with similar organisations in other countries and with external aid agencies.
- as regards the EEC, the recommendation emphasises the need for:
- continuing and stepping up its trade promotion work, so as to enable producers in associated countries to gain a better foothold in Community markets and in the world market in general;
 - improving the information available to associated countries, and more especially to chambers of commerce and trade organisations, about the

kind of sales drive which can be undertaken with Community assistance;

- provide support for associated countries in setting up and operating export drive groups for their potential exports;

- continuing the Community programme by which associated countries take part in international trade fairs and considering the possibility of introducing a system of meeting the travel costs of one or two members of the trade, provided they make an effective show of their products on their national stand;

- not limiting the trade promotion campaigns envisaged in the Lomé Convention solely to events occurring in the markets of industrial countries, and to consider sympathetically requests which may be put forward by some of the ACP countries aimed at improving product quality, conditioning, packaging, labelling and handling the export procedure;

- to continue organising seminars, discussion groups and promotion meetings, especially during trade fairs.

For the attention of directors of fairs and special trade exhibitions:

- to make a preliminary survey of potential national and foreign customers who may negotiate contracts with those exhibiting at trade fairs;

- to give sympathetic consideration to all other forms of assistance which may make it more profitable for African businessmen to take part in their fair or exhibition and also the seminars, discussion and promotion meetings. ■

E.L.

CORRECTION

The Senegalese Embassy in Bonn has called our attention to a mistake in the caption under the photo on page IX of News Round-up in the "Courier" no. 34:

The caption: "Sampling coffee at the Cameroon stand in the Cologne food Fair, (ANUGA '75) is not correct. The stand is that of Senegal and the produce being sampled consists of mangoes and honey. Those present are: Dr. U.W. Kollatz, Secretary of State in the Ministry for Economic Cooperation; M. Diouf who was in charge of the stand; M. Abidou N'Dao, Director of SERAS and Mlle. Kanouté, student-interpreter".

We apologise for the mistake and are grateful to the embassy for the information.

Floating seminar on the Rhine

Visiting Brussels recently was the good ship "Deutschland", the biggest vessel now plying on the Rhine. It may be asked what this has got to do with Europe; the answer is that the "Deutschland" was chartered by the EEC Commission for a fortnight for a floating seminar. It was attended by 46 exporters and specialists in marketing from 15 South American countries. "Operation seminar" was part of the campaign to promote trade with the Third World and was intended to provide information for the Commission's guests on the terms of access to the Common Market. Contacts are also to

be made with chamber of commerce representatives in the cities where the "Deutschland" will be calling during its long waterway trip from Brussels to Frankfurt by way of Antwerp, Amsterdam, Düsseldorf and Cologne.

Those taking part in the excursion made good use of the special facility for putting up exhibition stands in the ship for the benefit of their own exporting industries. This will enable European importers to gain direct knowledge about South American products. There was, however, one export trade which could not be exhibited on board, though it is far from negligible in the economic structure of South American countries: tourism. ■

UIJPLF CONGRESS

International francophone pressmen meet in Africa

Abidjan, capital of the Ivory Coast, was the scene of a new move towards cooperation among the world's French-speaking countries in November.

More than 160 journalists from 22

countries met for the 13th Congress of the UIJPLF, the international union of the francophone press, held from November 22-30 on the theme "Press, Information and Development".

It was the first UIJPLF congress in black Africa and the result was a new objective for the union: to use the French language as an instrument of development via the mass media.

The congress proposed the creation of an inter-African press agency to supply the industrial countries with fuller information on African affairs, and emphasised the need for a better understanding of the background to development. This could be done through the use of a lan-



UIJPLF Congress (l to r): Laurent-Dona-Fologo, Ivory Coast Minister of information and new UIJPLF President, President Houphouët-Boigny and Charles Rebuffat.

guage shared by some 20 developing countries and France, Belgium, Switzerland and Canada.

The week was a crowded one for the journalists, but the mixture of work and tourism left time for reflection on four themes apart from the central subject of the congress. Debates were held, in the context of development, on audiovisual journalism; the material difficulties facing the press; training; and the use of French in international communication. Many ideas were resumed in a series of resolutions which boiled down to the conclusion that while the role of the press is different in developed and in developing countries, its means are the same and should be strengthened in the service of development, through the use of a common language.

This conclusion found its reflection in the nomination of Laurent Dona-Fologo, Ivory Coast Minister of Information, as president of the UIJPLF in succession to Charles Rebuffat, editor of "Le Soir" (Brussels). M. Dona-Fologo is the first African president of the union and his election marks the entry in force of African journalism into the international francophone press.

The journalists saw a good deal of the Ivory Coast with the help of their hosts, the Ivory Coast National Association of Journalists, and the local authorities of Yamoussoukro, Bouaké and San Pedro. President Félix Houphouët-Boigny attended the opening ceremony and the group met the president again in a less official capacity after visiting his plantations in the heart of the country at his birthplace, Yamoussoukro. He is the first head of State to have received the UIJPLF.

In Abidjan the group visited the national paper "Fratinité Matin", which claims the biggest circulation in black Africa with 45 000 copies a day, and radio and television studios.

In the Bouaflé region they saw the Kossou dam and were entertained traditionally at one of the new communities built to replace some 200 villages displaced by the dam.

At San Pedro, in the south-west, they saw the massive development project that has been taking shape to counter-balance the Abidjan region. The diversification of agriculture that has given the Ivory Coast its solid economy was in evidence as well as the industrialisation that has turned a jungle into a modern port.

It was a kaleidoscopic tour which ended in Abidjan in the presence of Mr. Pierre Abelin, French Minister of Cooperation. If, as one European journalist said in the forest, the group had an impression of being "at the origins of the past", they were certainly present at the origins of the future of one of Africa's most enterprising countries.

The next congress of the international francophone journalists will probably be held in Morocco in 1977. ■

B.T.

FRANCE

Towards a new cooperation policy

After 15 years of cooperation with the French-speaking countries of black Africa and the Indian Ocean, France has found it time to do some stock-taking.

The world is no longer what it was. Relationships based on constraint have been transformed. Yet the gap between the Third World and the West has widened.

Nevertheless the oil crisis has shown us nations formerly resigned to poverty taking their destiny in hand and nows there is a general movement to seek a new international economic order.

In this spirit French Minister for Cooperation Pierre Abelin set up study groups and sent out missions to ascertain the desires of the partner countries. The resulting report stems from a closely concerted approach by France and the 19 countries concerned and gives new a definition of the principles of cooperation and the arrangements for it. It was examined by the French Cabinet on June 26, 1975 and has been approved by President Giscard d'Estaing. The report was issued to the press on October 28 and published in the official documentation; a 20-page summary brochure can be obtained from the press department of the Ministry of Cooperation, Paris.

The dominant ideas contained in the report are the following:

1. Additional funds will be progressively put at the disposal of cooperation, so that French public aid will rise from 0.59% of the GNP (1974) to 0.70%.

2. Cooperation must be founded on continuous concertation, enabling the requirements of each country to be better known and adjusted to the French aid potential. This will be the task of the Grand Commissions, which will review the current programmes annually and make interim appraisals.

In addition, programming missions organised every three or five years, at the time when the development plans of the African countries are drawn up, will make it possible to determine jointly with partner countries what interventions France expects to undertake and make them part of a longer-term plan.

3. In matters of financing the new cooperation will embody a number of specific reforms:

— procedure will be made less cumbersome by decentralisation into the hands of cooperation missions;

— the structures will be more coherent.

The Aid and Cooperation Fund has been reformed and its relations with the Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique have been readjusted. The fund will provide finance in the form of non-repayable grants, or loans on very favourable terms; and the Caisse will make loans on other terms, providing finance on a less highly privileged basis suitable for big projects;

— a solidarity fund will be set up, as discussed at the Bangui Conference (March 1975). This will be another source of credit to deal with emergency conditions and development projects in the least advanced countries;

— the cooperation will be made progressively open to joint programmes, whether in cooperation with other industrial countries or with oil-producing countries, or coordinated with aid given by multilateral bodies (such as the World Bank, the UN Development Programme or the EDF) in regard to which the Lomé agreements of February 1975 remain an example to be followed.

4. Training of personnel. The new cooperation will call for careful selection of cooperators, and better preparation for their mission. Cooperators will be a given a special status.

University cooperation will be reorganised, largely by means of contracts between French and Africa universities supported by the Ministry of Cooperation.

An increasingly essential part is played by cooperation in scientific matters. This is to be given a new angle, partly by inter-disciplinary programmes and partly by increased coordination between different research organisations.

5. **Private contribution to Africa's industrialisation.** For France's partners, industrialisation is one of the main objectives of their policy for economic and social progress and raising their standards of living. It calls for new forms of private investment fully respecting political and economic sovereignties. The basis for this cooperation will be the contract entered into between African governments and French firms with a full understanding of its implications. To this end a mixed Committee for Industrial Cooperation will be set up under the auspices of the Minister for Cooperation.

6. **France to be more cooperation conscious.** There will be coordination of the work of associations concerned with these questions and a centre for research and new approaches to development matters will be set up in the early future. ■

secretariat working paper that half this contribution should come from the OPEC countries and half from the traditional donors. The manner in which each group of countries will share the 500 million SDRs is yet to be discussed among them, but even if they do not achieve this target 100%, it would be good enough—we could conceivably start with 8-900 million SDRs. I think this would be the largest amount any UN body has so far started with. The remarkable thing about this fund is that it is the first time that the new donors, the OPEC donors, and the traditional donor countries are trying to work out an international framework in which they will work together to solve a major world problem. The significance of this goes far beyond the amount of money involved, although one billion SDRs in effect doubles the rate of agricultural lending on an annual basis.

► *What exactly will be done with this money?*

— The important assumption of the World Food Conference was that the only long-term solution to the food problem is increased production in the developing countries. The implicit target for this purpose is that the average annual growth of agriculture in the developing countries, which in the last 10 years has been about 2.5%, must be increased by at least 50% if they are to take care of their own demand, and by even more if they are to take care of the malnutrition problem. This task requires tremendous attention, a larger flow of resources and an assured supply of inputs, plus a whole range of other activities.

The starting point of course will be the priority the developing countries themselves attach to agriculture. But the flow of external resources has been a major shortcoming in the past—in fact, only 5% of total development assistance in the last 10-15 years has gone to agriculture, despite all the talk about the importance of agriculture. Therefore, the tasks are very widespread in different regions, from land and water development, fertiliser plants, marketing and credit, animal husbandry and fisheries, to agriculture itself. It has been recommended that the fund attach priority to the poorest food-deficit countries, which are really at the root of the food problem, and then take up those developing countries which have the potential for increasing food production—Sudan is an example.

While providing larger investments and larger inputs it is also expected that the fund will pay a great deal of attention to the small farmers, to the landless labour and to the social criteria involved, because if you produce the food without really involving the small farmer and the landless in the task of production, they will remain underfed.

► *Apart from the agricultural development fund, two other major proposals made at the food conference were to establish a famine alarm system and a world food stock. Do these come under the responsibility of the World Food Council?*

— It think it would be useful to classify the initiatives taken at the food conference in two categories: measures to increase food production and the development for the first time of a viable and dependable global system of food security. The object of the food security system is very simple: it is to ensure the availability of adequate food at all times at reasonable prices. But to attain it is not that simple.

The system proposed has four main elements: a food information service to act as an early-warning system; a food reserve policy which, by coordinating national stock policies, ensures that taken together there are enough food supplies; a more dependable food aid policy; and improved arrangements for food trade.

On food aid, one of the reasons why there was so much suffering and half a million deaths by starvation in 1973/74 was the sharp reduction in food aid compared with 1972, because of the increase in grain prices. It dropped from 12 million to five million tons.

The food conference recommended that the level of food aid should be at least 10 million tons a year and that it should be linked not to surplus disposal but to nutrition, rural development and overall labour-intensive programmes.

On food trade, unless the developing countries with the capacity to produce surpluses occasionally can participate in the market, either through triangular food aid deals or through some other mechanism, they will put a lid on self-sufficiency and not be able to go beyond that.

These four elements taken together constitute, for the first time in 30 years, a concept of global food security which I think is absolutely critical if the world has to survive a more serious food crisis in the next few years. The creation and operation of this system are a major responsibility of the World Food Council. Our responsibility is to evaluate all the different actions being taken on this in international bodies, to judge their adequacy and to see whether anything more needs to be done, and where necessary to provide political impetus.

► *Two at least of these four elements have already run into difficulties. An effective food information service requires information which some countries, notably the USSR and China, consider secret; and the problem of a world food stock is to know how it will be controlled. Would it not be more realistic to remain within the framework of international grain agreements, which involve most big producers already, than to set up a separate stock?*

— The question of food stocks is a complicated one. Let's see what consensus there is so far. Everyone agrees there should be enough stocks; the problem is, who should maintain these stocks, who should control them, how should they be regulated? The American proposal for a grain reserve implies that since in the past the US and Canada have carried the main burden of stocks, other countries should participate, including particularly the EEC and Japan. Therefore they have suggested a stock target and said we will maintain "X" amount if the others will maintain the rest. The EEC view, at least, as far as I have been able to gather it, is that the objective of rebuilding stocks is fine, but you cannot talk of stock levels or stock policies without talking of price policies, because once you maintain stocks they have implications for prices (1). So there has

(1) It should be noted that the developing countries would be the first to benefit from the stabilisation and expansion of the markets. Past experience shows that the consequences of free trade in markets under these sort of pressures are even more serious for countries in the grip of economic development problems. By protecting outlets and supplies, the international agreement on cereals proposed by the Community would therefore be particularly beneficial to the developing countries. Exporting countries would have a guarantee, the stabilising mechanism, against a fall in export earnings. For developing countries that import grain, the Community thinks this agreement should include provisions on food aid in line with the resolutions adopted by the World Food Conference. — Editor

to be an understanding both on the price levels within which stocks should be regulated and on other mechanisms, like food aid mechanisms, which will provide a safety valve to take away surpluses when necessary.

All these three elements can easily be wrapped up in a grain agreement which would then provide stock-holding provisions and price provisions. Now, in effect the EEC position amounts to this: that in return for responsibility to maintain certain stocks, the EEC will have an assurance that the prices of grain will operate in a manner that will be in line with its Common Agricultural Policy. This looks very logical, but in practice, to agree on a price mechanism that will be consistent with the CAP and provide assurance of grain supplies to the EEC on that basis, and yet be bearable for the fiscal mechanisms of the EEC in terms of supporting that minimal price level, is not going to be easy. As a result the US has come up with other trigger mechanisms, not related to prices but linked to changes in production and stock, to regulate the stock system, and this is now being discussed. Both the points of view have a certain validity and it is a question of balancing the negotiating position of the various groups before we have a system. Our concern in the food council secretariat is that the objective of food security should not get bogged down in trade negotiations or in these more chronic problems, between the EEC and the US primarily, because the international objectives of food security are paramount. We hope that the negotiations will lead to a fruitful conclusion very soon and we will have a dependable system of stocks before long.

► *And the famine alarm system?*

Famine in Chad



Naud

— The system has got into operation. The FAO has set up a system already and has started producing a food outlook quarterly with monthly supplements which provide the basis of the information; it has started expanding its network of information flow, and its first reports have been very well received. I think that as the system develops and its capacity to judge the relationships between climatic factors and production, it will make it possible to forecast likely changes in crops fairly early. This is being done in conjunction with the World Meteorological Organisation.

Of course, the non-participation of the USSR and China is a major gap at the moment, because these are very large food-producing regions and any instability there, as we have seen in the last four years, can create major problems for the world grain trade. But there is a possibility of making forecasts which can fill up this gap. One can understand why these countries are reluctant to join the system at the moment—they have potentially large importers and exporters and therefore any advance information about their intentions to buy or sell could disadvantage them in the market. But if the general picture is fairly well forecast and the stocks are adequate to take care of any possible fluctuations, even from these countries, their absence will not be all that serious; and once the system has established a reputation of confidentiality, they may be encouraged to join.

► *When the World Food Council began it ran into a lot of trouble. There was nearly a vote of no confidence in the chairman, John Hannah. Were the reports exaggerated?*

— The first meeting of the council was unfortunately less than constructive and the reasons were partly logistical and partly more fundamental. I think, on the whole, the developing countries were a little frustrated by the pace of implementation of the World Food Conference recommendations. The sense of urgency, the common concern that was so visible at the conference, had somehow evaporated by the time the first meeting of the World Food Council was held in June this year, and they felt that all the important resolutions of the conference—the food aid target, the rebuilding of stocks, even the contributions to the agricultural fund at that stage—did not seem to be making progress. So there was concern that the developed countries, which only a few months before had made these commitments and voted these resolutions, were not really implementing them as adequately as expected.

There was also a certain amount of concern with the political overtones of the food issue, particularly with how the stock question and the food aid question were being handled, and even with the manning of the secretariat. But I hope both the developed and the developing countries realise that the council session was held earlier than scheduled and there was not enough time to carry out the kind of consultation with governments necessary to prepare it so as to bring together the expectations and the possibilities. I hope that at the next session this concern will have disappeared and that the council will get down to business in earnest. Things are looking up, and I think the success of the seventh special session of the UN General Assembly has cleared the atmosphere a good deal. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

EEC food aid policy and food policy

by Patrick HOGUET

In many parts of the world the food situation has been getting worse in recent years. This is one of the most important and the most disturbing trends in current international affairs.

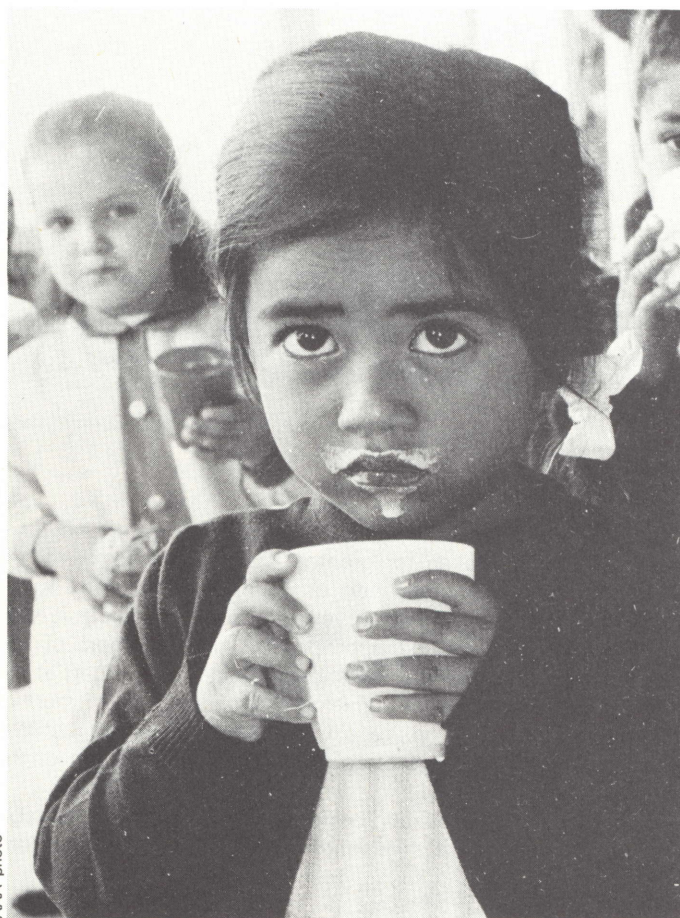
World economic conditions are especially difficult just now, most of all for developing countries without natural resources. In most cases a fall in local food production has not been offset by extra supplies from outside, because these countries lack the means of payment to cover external purchases.

At times the consequences have been dramatic and they have inevitably led to reliance on food aid. More than at any time in the past, this has been seen as a primary necessity of cooperation and international solidarity.

This does not mean that there are no longer criticisms of this type of aid. There is still a fear that doling out food supplies to countries which lack them may discourage the efforts they ought to be making to get gradually into a position to cover their food supplies for themselves. There is the countervailing fear that donor countries may exhaust their goodwill and their capacity to contribute, reacting against the worst aspects of the current food position instead of making a determined attack on the underlying causes.

These anxieties might be largely justified if the donor countries thought of food aid as an end in itself and if the aided countries regarded it as a permanent security against their own shortage of supplies. As things stand, the countries which provide the aid have got to recognise the heavy responsibilities they will be carrying if they think this is all that is required, quite apart from the fact they could not in any circumstances provide enough. By the same token, the aided countries have got to understand that the volume of food aid cannot in any circumstances be increased in future years at the same rate of growth as their requirements, and they must take active steps to increase their own production.

In short, a food aid policy cannot really make sense unless it is undertaken as an integral part of a general food policy which must include measures for expanding agriculture and food production in these countries and giving them better access to supplies available in international markets.



AAA photo

Milk distribution to schoolchildren in New Caledonia

For some years this is what the European Community has been trying to do, and it is gratifying to find that the World Food Conference put considerable emphasis on these necessities.

It is worth remembering that during the past 15 years the European Development Fund has devoted nearly 30% of its aid to increasing agricultural production, whereas even last year the rest of the international community was only devoting



This EDF project is aimed at improving the Niger valley for intensive rice cultivation

10% of its aid funds to this purpose. Under the Lomé Convention it can be taken for granted that the present tendency will be at least continued and on this assumption the funds provided for agricultural improvement should, over a five-year period, show an average appropriation not far short of UA 150 million. If the Community should decide to take part in the International Agricultural Development Fund, the order of magnitude would be materially greater. What has actually been done in this field is therefore a clear confirmation of the intentions expressed.

The question of providing better access to supplies available in international markets depends essentially on two factors. These are:

- organising these markets better and securing conditions which will ensure food supplies for developing countries;
- seeing that these countries have the means of payment to cover a bigger proportion of their supplies.

Under the first of these headings the Community has taken various steps, notably to promote world agreements providing an adequate storage policy intended to lead to a proper stabilisation of the markets. This is essential for developing countries, which as recent years have shown more clearly, are the first victims, and the chief victims, of market disturbances.

The second point does not need explanation here, as readers of the "Courier" are well aware of the new arrangements the

Community has agreed with its ACP partners to ensure stability in their export receipts and enable them to be better able to face their external purchasing requirements.

* * *

These are the two main lines of attack in the Community food policy. But it is clear that the campaigns for expanding production and improving food security can only achieve useful results over a relatively long period. In the meantime there must be complementary measures:

- to alleviate the effects of hunger and malnutrition;
- to enable countries with small foreign currency resources to use them for the purchases necessary to their development and not simply for buying food;
- to avoid populations weakened by serious food shortages being prevented from contributing to the production effort of their countries, for which their labour is so often the main source of wealth;
- to do everything possible to secure a better distribution of world food supplies according to need.

These objectives constitute the immediate requirements and at the moment only food aid holds out any possibility of satisfying them. ■

Patrick HOGUET

The aims, instruments and beneficiaries of Community food aid

by Enzo PIRONIO

Famine, food shortage and undernourishment have had massive publicity in the last few years. Photos of starving or underfed children and of skeletal cattle dying of hunger have made the round of the world's newspapers. The conscience of mankind could not remain unmoved, especially before the vast inequalities in the distribution of the world's food resources.

Millions of people still do not have enough to eat, while a handful of the wealthier countries are faced with problems of over-production. Food shortages have become a sort of nightmare, alike for those who must endure them and those who could and should do something to end them, or at least to bring them within more acceptable limits. National and international bodies have taken a great number of measures, at government and private level, and among these is the food aid scheme of the EEC. Its purpose is to provide food for communities suffering from serious food shortages, whether for economic reasons or through some unforeseeable, or unforeseen, catastrophe.

The instruments

The Treaty of Rome makes no specific provision for Community food aid but during the Kennedy Round negotiations (1964-67) the EEC agreed to take part in an international arrangement on cereals, consisting partly of the Wheat Convention and partly of a food aid agreement. The latter was

negotiated in Rome in July-August, 1967. It was to last three years and specified minimum quantities of cereals which each contracting party was to grant freely to the developing countries each year. This convention was replaced in 1971 by another of similar content committing the EEC to provide aid to developing countries satisfying certain criteria, in the form of wheat or secondary cereals or their products processed for human consumption. In exceptional circumstances and at the request of an aided country, a limited quantity of the aid might consist of rice.

In 1971 there were only nine signatories, the EEC signing as a single party representing its member countries collectively, but legal problems arose, and it was agreed the member countries should sign together with the Community. It was again a three-year convention and on its expiration in 1974 it was renewed for one and later for a second year. It is probable this procedure will continue until it is replaced by another convention or some alternative instrument.

In its present form it lays down the minimum annual contribution from each party, the original EEC share being 1 035 000 metric tons (tonnes) of cereals, or 23 % of the total. With the enlargement of the EEC to nine members as from January 1, 1973, the contribution was raised to 1 287 000 metric tons of cereals.

Within the EEC the food aid is set up under both Community and national schemes. The Community share is financed from the EEC budget and is implemented directly by the Community itself. The national aid is financed by the individual countries and handled as bilateral operations between them and each of the aided countries.

In practice the aid is divided between the Community and the individual Member States. Each year the EEC Council of Ministers lays down the proportions of direct Community aid



EEC food aid (cereals)

Total commitment	Community National		Community National	
	(thousand tonnes)		percent	
1968/69	1 035	301 734	30	70
1969/70	1 035	335.5 699.5	32.5	67.5
1970/71	1 035	353.14 681.86	35	65
1971/72	1 035	414 621	40	60
1972/73	1 161	464.4 696.6	40	60
1973/74	1 287	580 707	45	55
1974/75	1 287	643.5 643.5	50	50
1975/76	1 287	707.85 579.15	55	45
Total (8 years)	9 162	3 799.39 5 362.61	41.5	51.5

EEC aid programme, non-cereals (tonnes)

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976
Quality (T)							
Powdered milk	127 000	—	60 000	13 000	55 000	55 000	55 000
Butteroil	37 000	—	15 000	—	45 000	45 000	45 000
Powdered eggs	—	—	500	—	—	—	—
Sugar	—	—	6 150	6 062	6 094	—	6 100

and the national action. It lays down an execution programme, specifying how much of the national action shall be covered by each member country and the share of the total aid (Community plus national) to be allotted to each beneficiary country or aid organisation. The proportion of the total represented by Community aid has been consistently rising, amounting to 55 % in 1975-76.

For the Community aid the programme also lays down the terms of delivery (e.g. f.o.b., or c.i.f.) determining just how far down the chain of distribution the aid is to go. In practice the cereals can either be delivered free of charge to necessitous communities, or sold in the local market and the counterpart funds used for development projects. The limit of the obligation under the convention is to make the cereals available f.o.b. port of shipment; but sometimes the beneficiary countries cannot afford to cover the transport cost. In such cases it may be decided to go beyond the minimum commitment, paying also the cost of transporting the aid to the port or frontier of the aided country, or even the cost of carrying it to its ultimate destination or taking charge of its distribution.

The cost to the Community budget of supplying the 643 500 tonnes of Community aid in cereals in 1975 was around UA 91 m, approximately equivalent to \$109 m. The Community commitment of 707 850 tonnes of cereals scheduled for 1976 will by themselves represent an expenditure (including transport costs) of about UA 98 m, or approximately \$117 m.

Products other than cereals

The aid actually given by the EEC does not stop short at its commitments under the convention. Food aid is primarily a matter of nutrition, and the important thing is to give people what they need. At the request of Third World countries, the Community over the years has extended its aid to include other products, mainly dairy products and, to a lesser extent, sugar, which were chosen because of their food value and energy potential. In special cases the aid has included powdered eggs and other specialities such as soups and porridge.

The dairy products included are mainly butteroil and powdered skim milk. Unlike the aid in cereals, this aid is given solely by the Community itself. The quantity to be supplied is determined by the Community, the cost charged to its budget and the goods sent either directly to the beneficiaries or through specialist international bodies such as the World Food Programme, UNICEF or the Red Cross.

The objectives

There is a Chinese proverb to the effect that, if you give a hungry man a fish, you feed him for a day, but if you teach him to fish you feed him for a lifetime. In practice, the two alternatives are not mutually exclusive. There is the immediate task of surviving for a day and the longer-term task of continued survival by your own ability. The target of Community aid follows the principle of the Chinese proverb. A distinction is drawn between normal aid and emergency; and the normal aid itself draws a distinction between development targets and specifically nutritional ones.

The normal aid programmes aimed at development, which are the more usual, support the balance of payments of the aided countries, either because they have not the foreign currency to buy the food products they need or because they need to buy capital goods and engage in other development expenditure and have therefore to husband their foreign currency expenditure on food. In such cases the food supplied by way of aid is sold locally by the government of the beneficiary country and the counterpart funds applied to definite prearranged development projects chosen by the beneficiary country, with special reference to agricultural improvement. Other normal aid with specifically nutritional intent comes into play when particular groups of people in developing countries, such as children, the sick, the aged or refugees, are affected by serious food deficiencies. The aid provided is distributed free of charge either by the government of the aided country or through specialist international bodies. An example is the UNICEF aid, primarily intended to meet the needs of children and pregnant women, and the aid for Palestinian refugees through the UN Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA).

Emergency aid is given to deal with famine conditions resulting from natural catastrophes, such as earthquakes, floods or drought, or resulting from armed conflict. As regards the latter, it should be emphasised, to avoid all misunderstand-

ing, that the emergency aid is given solely on humanitarian grounds and for this reason is usually channelled through the International Committee of the Red Cross, or other suitable international bodies. This was the case, for example, with Biafra, the Palestinian refugees, Cyprus and Bangladesh.

Much quicker procedures have been laid down for emergency aid cases than those used for ordinary food aid decisions. For example, the products needed under an emergency aid programme are usually bought normally instead of having to go through the tender procedure used for ordinary aid. Special reserves are earmarked in the annual Community programmes to enable it to deal with serious conditions. They are designed to enable specific quantities of produce to be immediately supplied in emergency cases. At present the maximum quantities under this procedure for any emergency scheme are fixed at 5 000 tonnes of cereals per country, 500 tonnes of powdered skim milk and 500 tonnes of butteroil. These quantities, however, are not limitative. If the quantities specified are not available in the reserve as it stands, or if the situation requires additional quantities, further supplies can be made available.

In emergency cases the food aid (especially dairy produce) may be dispatched by the fastest mode of transport available, including aircraft.

The aided countries

Food aid from the Community is, under the EEC principles, given to those who desire it, fully respecting the sovereign rights of receiving countries and with no political strings attached, for the sole purpose of dealing with nutritional requirements, promoting the development of the aided countries and avoiding any discouragement to local production. The aid is thus kept strictly for the countries which ask for it, but since the number of countries making such requests has been continually increasing, especially during the recent years of world crisis, definite selection criteria have had to be laid down. It was considered necessary to concentrate food aid on the countries most seriously in need of it, thus giving top priority to those most affected and to places where human life is most at risk, recognising in every case that even with this concentration of the aid, it does not cover the full extent of the requirements. The following are the selection criteria applicable principally to requests for normal food aid:

- a) The food deficit must be reflected in a need for imported supplies which cannot be dealt with through commercial channels because of economic and financial difficulties.
- b) The applicant country's income per head must be less than \$300 p.a.
- c) There must be a deficit in the balance of payments.

For emergency aid, the only criterion considered is the risk of famine arising from a natural calamity or armed conflict.

In these ways the food aid given by the Community, adding together its international commitments and the aid given on its own initiative, amounts to quite a considerable volume. The need for it, unfortunately, is constantly growing greater, and even bigger Community efforts are to be expected in the years ahead. ■

E.P.

Community food aid in action

يعود الفضل في الإبقاء على برنامج الوكالة
للتغذية الإضافية الذي يشمل الوجبات الساخنة
ومخصصات الحليب ومواد غذائية إضافية أخرى
إلى تبرعات من الأسرة الاقتصادية الأوروبية التي
تتألف من البلدان التالية:

بلجيكا والدنمرك وفرنسا وإيرلندا
وإيطاليا واللوكسمبورغ وجمهورية
ألمانيا الاتحادية وهولندا والمملكة المتحدة.

LE PROGRAMME D'ALIMENTATION D'APPOINT DE L'UNRWA DANS LE CADRE
DUQUEL SONT FOURNIS DES REPAS CHAUDS, DU LAIT ET DIVERSES DENRÉES
ALIMENTAIRES EST ASSURÉ ACTUELLEMENT GRÂCE À DES CONTRIBUTIONS
FOURNIES PAR LA COMMUNAUTÉ ÉCONOMIQUE EUROPÉENNE (CEE) QUI
COMPREND LE PAYS SUIVANTS:

LA BELGIQUE, L'IRLANDE, L'ITALIE, LA ROYALME UNI,
LE LUXEMBOURG, LA FRANCE, L'ALLEMAGNE FÉDÉRALE

In considering Community aid it must be remembered that we are dealing with the aid covered by the official Community budget, which represents only part of the aid given by Europe not including the national aid, which comes ultimately from the European taxpayer, or the spontaneous charity of the man in the street. The figures are not the full measure of Europe's understanding and generosity, but only cover such aid as administrative and political constraints allowed from the budget of the Community. The whole picture is too complex to evaluate with certainty.

Aid in Africa and Europe

Cereals

During the first four years of the first and second food aid conventions, the African continent, including Egypt, received 427 600 tonnes of cereals, granted directly by the Community, and around 1 300 000 tonnes under national aid. In 1972-73 and the two following years, the volume of Community aid in cereals for Africa was of the order of 538 000 tonnes, an increase of about 71% over the previous years.

Aid other than cereals (mainly dairy products)

From 1972 onwards the African continent (1) has been receiving aid in dairy products. For two countries in Europe (Rumania and Turkey) this kind of aid was made available as from 1970; it was provided for Malta in 1974 and for Cyprus in 1974 and 1975.

Over the period 1972-75 the total food aid in dairy products for Africa was 48 210 tonnes of milk and 12 650 tonnes of butteroil. This was the main part of the Community aid in dairy products. (In 1973 practically the whole of this aid went to African countries, especially those in the Sahel.) →

(1) Including Egypt.

Refugee camp at Baqa'a in Jordan

Special aid and emergency aid

There have been many aid operations of a special or emergency kind, calling for exceptional effort at every level. It is not possible to give details of all of them, but a short survey of the more important instances will be found below.

In 1968-69 some 25 000 tonnes of cereals (wheat, pearl barley and wheat equivalent) were provided as emergency aid to help meet the food requirements of populations affected by the conflict in Nigeria (which was not at that time an Associate of the European Community) and a further 30 000 tonnes to Mali.

In 1970-71 natural disasters occurring in Turkey and Rumania led the Community to grant Turkey 70 000 tonnes of cereals, 1 000 tonnes of butter, 1 000 tonnes of butteroil and 2 000 tonnes of powdered skim milk. Rumania, at her own request, was supplied with 1 000 tonnes of powdered skim milk.

The most important Community operation in the 70's was the emergency aid provided for the Sahel countries. Enormous damage and distress have been caused by drought in these countries since 1971. The Community rapidly appreciated the scope of the tragedy and at once concentrated its effort on providing substantial aid to the stricken populations.

At the end of 1973 the emergency aid programme sponsored by the Community had amounted to UA 60 m, or about F-CFA 17 000 m. Deliveries to the Sahel in 1973 consisted of 68 400 tonnes of cereals and 13 000 tonnes of powdered milk. In December of the same year a further programme for these countries covered the supply of 110 000 tonnes of cereals, 11 500 tonnes of powdered skim milk and 3 200 tonnes of butteroil. This is additional to 274 500 tonnes of cereals sent on a bilateral basis by the member governments of the Community in 1972 and 1973.

The position was urgent and the Community decided to meet the cost of transporting the aid products all the way to the place of distribution. In 1974 alone the Community appropriated UA 15 m to the cereal supplies and asked the governments of member countries to second considerable airborne forces to provide an airlift. In 1974-75 the quantities of food products granted to the Sahel countries were: 73 000 tonnes of cereals, 10 650 tonnes of milk powder and 2 550 tons of butteroil.

Cases of special aid worthy of mention include the actions taken to help Cyprus and Angolan refugees in Portugal. In 1974 the displaced population in Cyprus were aided through the UN High Commissioner for Refugees, the amount provided being 3 000 tonnes of cereals, 200 tonnes of butteroil and 200 tonnes of powdered skim milk. This was additional to the decision of August 1974 to provide 50 tonnes of powdered skim milk consigned through the International Committee of the Red Cross. In 1975 the Cypriot refugees received a further 5 000 tonnes of cereals and 300 tonnes of butteroil.

In 1975 a further 650 tonnes of powdered milk and 400 tonnes of butteroil were provided for afflicted families in Angola and Angolan refugees in Portugal. This was distributed through the World Food Programme and the International Committee of the Red Cross.



On the spot in Niger

Distribution: a major task





EEC food aid to the Far East

Unloading in the Sahel



Aid to developing countries elsewhere

A considerable part of the aid given by the European Community has been provided for poor countries with which it has not at any time had any special connection. The Community has proved as anxious to help necessitous countries in other continents as it has helped the African countries.

Aid in cereals

In 1968 and every subsequent year a very considerable part of the aid in cereals has been given to countries in the Near East and Far East and, in various circumstances, to countries in America. The aided countries include six in the Near East, nine in the Far East and five in Latin America. Mention should also be made of the specialised international bodies which have acted as intermediaries and to whom substantial quantities of cereals have been sent for distribution in a number of countries. The bodies in question are the World Food Programme, UNRWA, ICRC and UNICEF.

The statistics show that during the early years of the Food Aid Convention, most of the supplies of cereals were provided by national aid programmes and the growth in the Community contribution became a regular feature as the years went by. During the first four years of the convention the amount of cereals provided for countries in the Near East was around 114 500 tonnes, on top of some 170 000 tonnes under national aid schemes. For the Far East the amount was 554 400 tonnes compared with 770 000 tonnes under national aid. The percentage division between Community aid and national aid was quite different from the figures concerning Africa.

Community aid to these countries was on a comparatively moderate scale, although their requests to the Commission were from the outset considerable. A certain amount of the cereal aid given by the Community to the developing countries of other continents was put at the disposal of the countries concerned through the International Committee of the Red Cross and other international bodies. In 1972, for example, the 28 000 tons of wheat provided for Bangladesh was distributed by the ICRC.

The greater volume of cereals provided for some of the Far Eastern countries has been due to the special food position which has been developing there for some years. In India, the Community aid in 1974 amounted to 163 000 tonnes of cereals to cover the more urgent requirements and national aid 134 000 tonnes. Bangladesh was in much the same position and was given 150 000 tonnes of cereals, with national action supplying approximately another 90 000 tonnes. The total aid given to Far Eastern countries in 1974-75 comprised 652 700 tonnes of cereals, or 50 % of the food programme.

The Community concern regarding food for the Asian countries is shown in the proportion of Community commitments in the food aid provided for the countries concerned in the 1968-73 period. This is shown in the following table: ➔

	1968-69 %	1969-70 %	1970-71 %	1971-72 %	1972-73 %
Near East		8.6	18.4	13	6.5
Far East	61.8	45.7	31.5	40.6	45.7

Products other than cereals

Aid in the form of dairy produce and other non-cereals to Asian and American countries has mainly been provided through the World Food Programme.

In 1970-74 the total volume of dairy products supplied by the Community was 255 000 tonnes of milk and 97 000 tonnes of butteroil.

Special and emergency operations

The many disasters occurring in recent years in Asia and on the American continent have called for special efforts by all the wealthier countries of the world, and in this the Community has played a large part. Instances include the severe floods in the Gulf of Bengal, the earthquake in Peru, famine in India, cyclones in Honduras—just a few of the cases in which aid to the victims was an absolute requirement.

In 1975, for example, the emergency operations by themselves took 64 576 tonnes of cereals, 5 250 tonnes of powdered milk and 3 691 tonnes of butteroil.

In the action taken for victims of the events in Palestine, it must be emphasised that this aid was solely designed to relieve the sufferings of Palestinian communities displaced and threatened with famine.

Mention should also be made of Community aid granted to South Vietnam in 1975: 23 076 tonnes of cereals, 590 tonnes of skim milk powder and 1 000 tonnes of butteroil, which were distributed through UNICEF, the UNHCR and the ICRC. ■

E.P.

Aid to Palestinian refugees

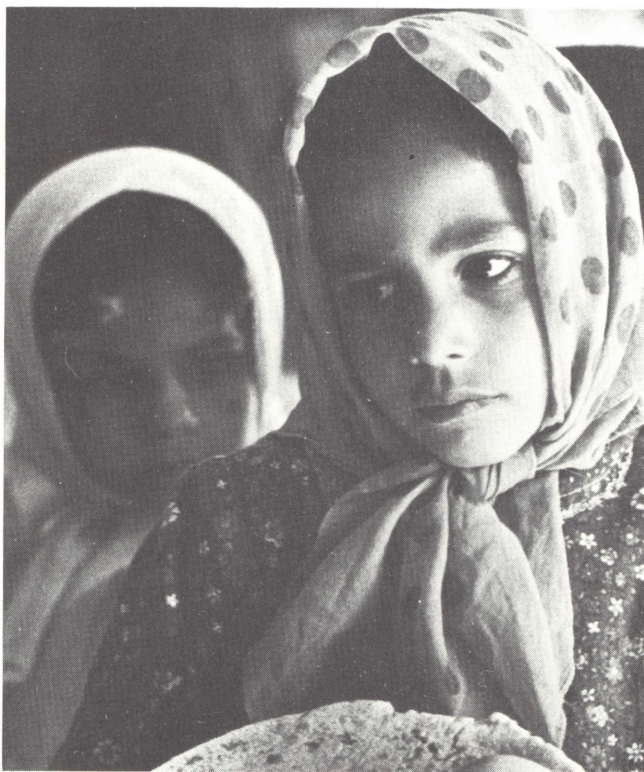
As from 1970 a first allocation of emergency help was earmarked by the Community for Jordan, on account of what was happening there, and this aid has been continued regularly since then. Special aid was provided on a continuing basis for near eastern refugees. In December 1962 the EEC entered into a Convention with UNRWA, by which it undertook to support a three-year programme in virtue of which it would supply:

a) contributions in kind, the first year's instalment of which would be:

- 6 150 tonnes of sugar
- 3 070 tonnes of wheat flour
- 240 tonnes of husked rice
- 1 100 tonnes of powdered skim milk.

b) a cash contribution amounting in the initial year to UA 1 610 000, equivalent to about \$US 2 million. This is to cover expenditure such as the operation of the UNRWA supplementary programme for the more vulnerable categories of refugees.

The cash contribution was raised, to UA 2 172 000, or about \$2 700 000, to cover the purchase of various food products and certain distribution costs. In 1975 a further three-year convention with UNRWA was concluded.



UNRWA photo by Jack Maduo

Food aid in the future

The Community food aid programmes have been continuously increasing year by year. They have done important work, especially in emergencies; but the rapid growth in population, and the so far rather limited results of the "green revolution" in most of the developing countries, suggest that considerable deficits in food supplies are to be expected in the next five or 10 years.

Faced with the growing imbalance between production and consumption in developing countries, the Community should be able to sponsor a food aid policy better adapted to what these countries require and to its own international responsibilities and production potential. The Commission is permanently confronted with the problems of malnutrition in developing countries and has issued two documents—the memorandum on the new food policy and the memorandum on development aid on the world scale—embodying its reflexions and proposing methods for implementing Community policy in the years ahead.

All the wealthier countries in the world, including oil countries producing more than they need, will have to compare notes as to how they can make a considerable increase in their food aid contributions. Because of the population explosion, it is expected that the demand for cereals in Asia will increase during the '80s from 300 to 400 million tonnes, with the Indian subcontinent accounting for 40% of the growth.

Food aid is one of the essential forms of financial cooperation because, except in cases of aid necessitated by some unforeseeable disaster, it conforms to the immediate needs of the worst-provided of the poor countries. It is agreed, nevertheless, that food aid is not a permanent solution and does not deal satisfactorily with the food problems arising in developing countries, so that there remains an over-riding need for these countries to increase their agricultural production.

Medium-term target programme needed

Food aid should be subject to a medium-term target programme drawn up with reference to foreseeable requirements in the countries most open to imbalance between the rate of



UNRWA photo by Myrtle Chaumery

The building of the food distribution centre at Jaramana (Syria) was financed by the EEC



*Young Palestinian refugee finishing a midday meal
at the Jaramana Centre*

Sudan: milk distribution (a gift from the EEC)



population growth and the increase in subsistence production. Some of the uses of food aid contribute so clearly to the economic development of these countries that they are not in dispute. There is general approval for aid in cases of famine and permanent help for the hungry, and for setting up national stockpiles to smooth out fluctuations in the food supplies of developing countries. Food aid may be the only short-term or medium-term way to raise food supplies to an acceptable calory value and to solve the problems of countries where rapid population growth is associated with serious dietary shortage. In the opinion of the Commission, a substantial, integrated Community is to keep pace with its responsibilities. The first objective should be to provide a wide range of food products where and when they are most needed, and to make the aid copious enough to influence development planning and to ensure that in times of shortage, such as the present, the poorer countries of the world are not condemned to famine.

Community programmes in the next few years

The Community programme for the next few years should set three-year targets, which will make it possible to draw up rational plans for continuous deliveries and provide indications of future supplies for developing countries and for the various organisations giving food aid.

Developing countries have in fact asked the Commission to schedule its operations for several years ahead, because this would be a material factor in their development planning. Such a programme would be a wide framework in which the Community's annual food aid contribution could be determined.

The range of produce covered by food aid should include:

1. A limited number of products chosen in the light of food requirements in developing countries and the quantities usually available within the Community.
2. Another group of products which have, on earlier occasions, been found useful in various food aid operations, especially in emergency cases when there is a need for processed cereals, powdered eggs and other processed products. These would be added so as to produce a better dietary balance, but would not be subject to the medium-term quantitative programme.

The scale of the Community's own food aid operations (i.e. excluding national aid) would thus be linked with the quantitative and qualitative needs of developing countries, the Community's own production capacity and the scale of the food aid programmes of other donors.

The main part of the Community's food aid will be given directly to the developing countries themselves. This is largely because the EEC is not a simple inter-government organisation but has an identity of its own in the eyes of the world. At the Summit Conference in Paris, these growing international responsibilities, especially those to developing countries, were brought very clearly to the surface. Food aid is one of the essential instruments available for taking part in the development of non-associated countries.

The Community is receiving more and more requests for direct food aid from these non-associated countries and there are probably many more to come. It is only fair that it should give them priority. →

This, however, will not prevent it giving large quantities of aid supplies—if possible on an increasing scale—through multilateral organisations, more especially the World Food Programme.

EEC three-year target programme (Maximum and minimum annual commitments) Community action

Product	Minimum commitment	Maximum commitment	Programme schedule 1975-76
Cereals	1 000 000 (1) 1 700 000 (2)	1 800 000 (1) 2 500 000 (2)	707 850 1 287 000
Powdered skim milk	80 000	120 000	55 000
Butter oil	45 000	65 000	45 000
Sugar	10 000	40 000	6 100
Others	20 000	30 000	—

(1) Taking national aid into consideration (700 000 tonnes).

(2) Without national aid.

The World Food Conference

Among the resolutions adopted at the World Food Conference in Rome in November, 1974, was one calling for an improved food aid policy. The resolution, and another on the formation of an international agricultural development fund, had many echoes at the first session of the World Food Council in Rome (June 1975) and at the seventh special session of the UN General Assembly (Sept. 1975).

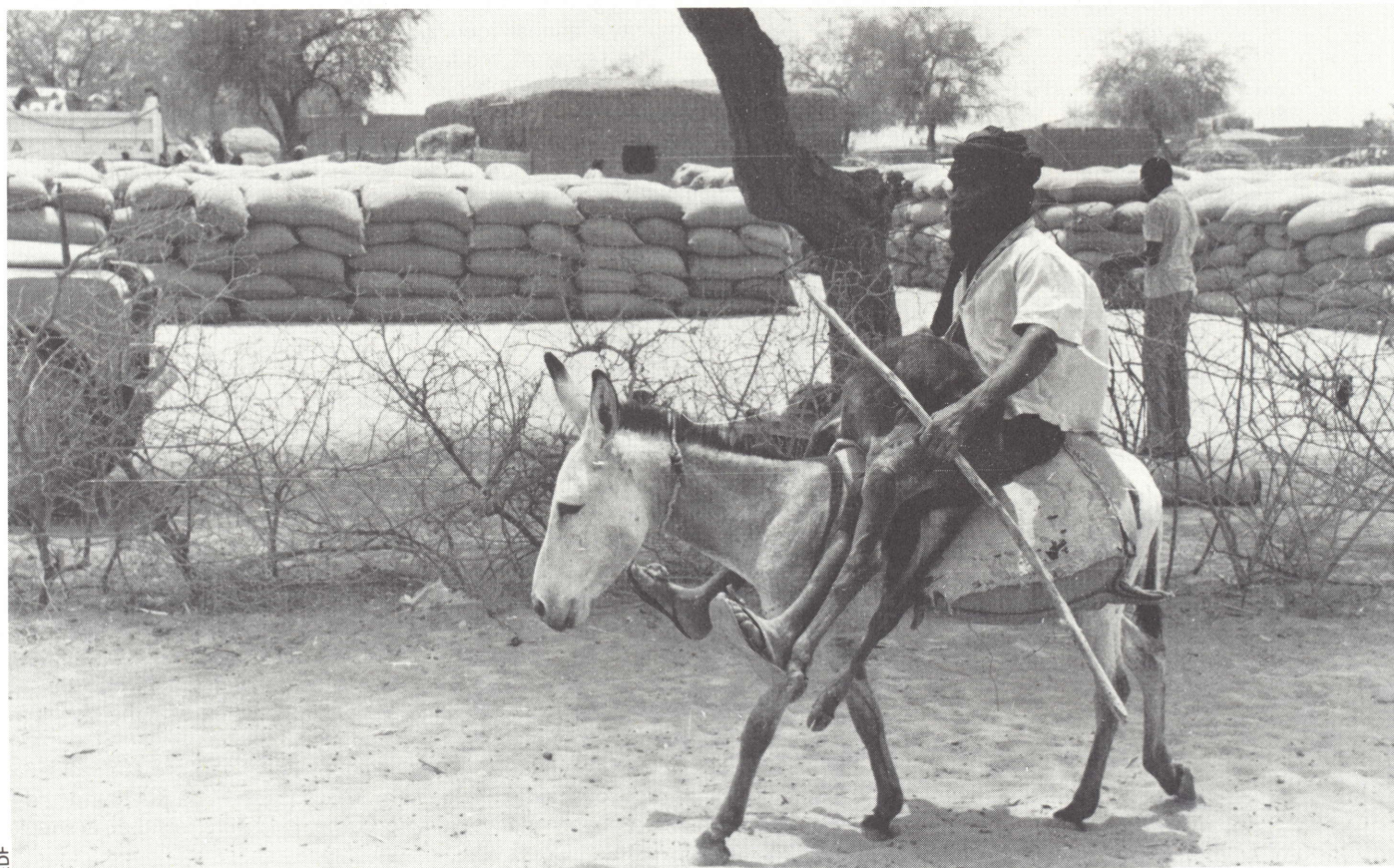
The main recommendations of the conference resolution were first, that the donor countries should accept and apply the principal that their food aid should be planned ahead; that they should do their utmost to provide the supplies and/or such financial assistance as will ensure the provision of at least 10 million tonnes of cereal aid annually as from 1975; and that they should also supply adequate quantities of other food products. It recommended national governments to build up reserve stockpiles or credit to deal with urgent international requirements.

The Community expects in future years to bring its food aid to a maximum level on the lines of the above table. A commitment on this scale, with prices at their present level, would cost \$US 700 m a year.

To give an example, aid supplies of 2.5 m tonnes of cereals would feed 50 million people for 100 days. ■

E. PIRONIO

Food storage in Niger before distribution



EDF

The International Committee of the Red Cross and the Community

by Hubert de SENARCLENS (*)

The International Red Cross consists of a number of constituent bodies. The oldest is the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) which was formed in 1863 on the initiative of Henry Dunant of Geneva. The second consists of the National Red Cross Societies, with their Moslem equivalent the Red Crescent, and the Iranian Red Lion and Sun. There are at present 122 of these societies. The third constituent is the League of Red Cross Societies, a federation formed in 1919, grouping all the recognised national societies. The league is also Geneva based, but its task is different from that of the ICRC, which is concerned with looking after the victims of armed conflicts, whereas the league is primarily concerned with bringing aid to victims of natural disasters.

The International Committee of the Red Cross is a private and independent institution, to which public functions have been assigned. Though its action is international, this does not

apply to its 25 members, all recruited by cooption and exclusively Swiss. It determines its own organisation and methods and is bound by, and watchdog of, the principles of the Red Cross.

The activities of the ICRC can come from any of three sources. The first is the four Geneva Conventions of 1949, which have now been ratified by 139 countries. Their objects are to improve, (I) the lot of the sick and wounded in armed forces on land; (II) that of the sick, wounded and shipwrecked in the armed forces at sea; (III) the treatment of prisoners of war, and (IV) the protection of civilian populations in time of war. The second source consists of such specific assignments as may be given to the ICRC by agreement among the parties concerned during or after an armed conflict. The third consists of the independent initiative of the ICRC in favour of victims not protected under the Geneva Conventions. The work of the ICRC for political prisoners all over the world comes under this third heading.

(*) ICRC Press Officer (Geneva).

Delegates from the ICRC supervise the distribution of milk given by the EEC at Santiago (Chile)



A long experience

In the most recent chapter of ICRC history, it has been almost continuously present since the end of the Second World War in parts of the world where armed trouble has arisen. In the Near East it intervened as long ago as 1948 during the first Palestine conflict. When the Israel-Arab hostilities were renewed in the Six Days War of 1967, delegates from the ICRC were working without intermission to help victims of the fighting, more especially prisoners of war and the Arab populations of occupied territory.

Throughout the war in Indo-China, the ICRC was visiting prisoner-of-war camps and providing material and medical assistance to civilian populations in North and South Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos.

During the most recent conflict between India and Pakistan, the ICRC went into all the prisoner-of-war camps and brought help to the Bengali and Bihari minorities, both in Pakistan and in Bangladesh, taking part in the transfer or repatriation of several hundred thousand people.

Other major operations carried out in recent years by the ICRC have included the Yemen (1952), the independence troubles in Zaïre, the Nigeria-Biafra conflict (1967-70), more recently Cyprus (1974) and Chile, and still more recently Angola. Besides these big operations there have been others on a much smaller scale and attracting less public attention. A recent case in 1974 was the committee's intervention in 70 countries to provide protection and assistance for victims of international conflict, civil war or internal trouble and tension.

The action the ICRC can take depends very largely on how it is regarded by the governments with which it has to deal, whose consent is needed before its delegates can operate on their territory. The work of the delegates themselves calls for protracted patience, obstinacy and a persistent approach; for some of the countries are apt to regard the ICRC delegate as being there to protect the enemy.

It must, nevertheless, be admitted that the ICRC intervention is seldom opposed on grounds of principle, even if the countries concerned are not always in a hurry to facilitate its work. The part it plays as a neutral intermediary is widely recognised and respected. This reflects the confidence felt in all countries in dealing with an institution which has no other aim except to help those whom warfare has exposed to suffering and privation.

Mention of the Red Cross at once brings to mind the part played by the Central Research Agency (CRA).

This body is housed in an annexe of the ICRC Head Office, and is now the biggest source of information in the world about prisoners of war, civilian internees, missing persons, refugees and stateless persons.

It has no less than 50 million case cards and its files date back to the Prusso-Danish war of 1864. It is the last hope of information for many thousands of people who make contact with it each year.

Close relations with the EEC

Armed conflict usually gives rise to serious material privations and especially food shortages for civilian populations. It is the ICRC's job to deal with such cases and its approach is through the help it receives from the national Red Cross societies, governments and bodies such as the EEC.

The first contacts between the International Committee and the European Community were made in 1968. As a result of negotiations put in hand at that time, the first EEC-ICRC agreement was made in 1969. It covered the supply of 600 tonnes of gruel and 3 000 tonnes of soup for victims of the conflict in Nigeria.

In November 1970 the disaster in east Pakistan (now Bangladesh) led the ICRC to ask the EEC to divert part of the oatmeal gruel and soup consignment to Nigeria, for the operation run by the League of Red Cross Societies. The European Community accepted this proposal and opened a credit of \$850 000 for the ICRC to provide air transport for 200 tonnes of gruel and 1 000 tonnes of soup bound for Dacca.

Another important event in EEC-ICRC relations in 1970 was the signature of the first general agreement on the supply of food aid in the form of powdered skim milk and cereals. After this the two organisations were to make a food aid agreement each year to enable the ICRC, as part of its normal activities, to provide further assistance to civilian victims of internal conflicts and disturbances. Up to the present the following agreements have been signed:

March 25, 1970:	3 000 tonnes of powdered milk
	4 500 tonnes of raw cereals
January 20, 1971:	12 671 tonnes of raw cereals
July 8, 1971:	7 000 tonnes of raw cereals
October 22, 1973:	6 000 tonnes of powdered skim milk
	7 500 tonnes of raw cereals
February 3, 1975:	1 000 tonnes of butter oil
	3 000 tonnes of powdered skim milk
	15 000 tonnes of raw cereals

Since 1970 many countries have had the benefit of EEC food aid through the intermediary of the Red Cross. The list would be long, for the ICRC is active throughout the world wherever conflicts and disturbances put the population in need of help.

In addition to these framework agreements, the ICRC and the EEC have entered into two important food aid agreements for the benefit of victims of conflict in the Indian sub-continent. The first, in 1971, covered the supply of 50 000 tonnes of raw cereals for Bengali refugees in India; and the second, in 1972, was for 28 000 tonnes of raw cereals for the population of Bangladesh.

As will be seen, the humanitarian tasks of ICRC are many and varied. In lots of cases the work is for victims who often have no other recourse, to mitigate their sufferings. For this reason ICRC is under an obligation to maintain both its organisation and the choice of its personnel at a very high level. The fate of many thousands of people depends on it. ■

H. de SENARCLENS

EDF aid for food production

The problem of world hunger has lately been made still worse through the recent fall in food production in developing countries, and in some of the developed countries too. In the search for solutions, experts have held international meetings, new funds and new organisations have been set up and it emerges that agricultural production is becoming increasingly important in the opinion of bilateral or multilateral aid donors.

The European Development Fund has taken a constant and growing interest in agriculture from the start. A summary up to the end of 1974 shows agricultural production as having absorbed a quarter of all the finance then provided by the EDF, including nearly 35% of EDF 3, making it second in importance only to transport and communications projects.

So the fund was hard at work in this field some time before the present alarm was raised. Questions have, however, been asked about the orientation of Community aid between export crops and subsistence crops. The distinction to observers on the spot is less definite because of the possibility of combining the two.

At the request of the AASM

It is partly true that, at any rate during the first 10 years, the EDF interventions in rural development were mainly aimed at the introduction of new industrial crops, such as palm, tea, cotton, coffee and pyrethrum.

This was in line with wishes expressed both by the Council of Association and by associated countries anxious to promote a greater diversification of their economies.

It should also be noted that though the Commission can record its views on the trend of development policy, the right of choice and initiative in submitting projects for Community finance belongs exclusively to the aided countries.

These industrial crop promotion schemes gave momentum to the development process and had many beneficial effects through the introduction of cultivation techniques and in operational supervision and company management. They taught a good deal about processing the products and the work of conditioning and marketing them. New resources were made available to producers, so that farms were modernised and living conditions improved. The projects in this category usually made a season of subsistence crops part of the regular rotation. The subsistence aspect of the operations, however, was regarded as only secondary.

Promotion of subsistence crops

After the period of the second EDF the Community aid went increasingly into projects mainly aimed at promoting subsistence crops.

A number of projects were financed for the purpose of making production conditions more rational. The aim here was →

Agricultural projects financed by EDF to 31.12.74 (thousand u. a.)

	1st EDF		2nd EDF		3rd EDF		Total	
	U.A.	%	U.A.	%	U.A.	%	U.A.	%
Cash crop development	18 797	21.9	110 481	64.8	149 526	59.4	278 804	54.9
Regional development	9 646	11.2	11 463	6.6	19 037	7.5	40 146	7.8
Hydraulic (soil conservation)	37 999	44.3	31 746	18.7	47 946	19.1	117 691	23.2
Stock-raising	8 118	9.5	10 838	6.3	16 334	6.5	35 290	6.9
Production aid	11 260	13.1	6 270	3.6	—	—	17 530	3.5
Emergency aid to Sahel	—	—	—	—	19 010	7.5	19 010	3.7
TOTAL	85 820	100.0	170 798	100.0	251 853	100.0	508 471	100.0
Total amount committed	556 239		718 027		723 615		1 997 881	
% for agriculture	15.4 %		23.8 %		317		25.5 %	

to improve rural standards of living by increasing the degree of agricultural self-sufficiency in food crops of primary necessity, such as rice and cereals. The type of intervention depended on the nature of the scheme, its local importance and the regional production patterns. It might include supervision and extension schemes, or regional development, including the supply of technical assistance, working equipment and other factors of production; or focus on one point in the production cycle, such as the production of selected seed, or seed protection and crop storage.

Lately the accent has been mainly on the development of rice-growing in low-lying swamps or specially irrigated areas. More than UA 30 m has been spent on schemes of this type, largely in West Africa and Madagascar.

In other projects the aim has been to promote the growing of maize, millet, sorghum and various vegetables and market gardening produce as part of regional development schemes. In Upper Volta and Mali, national campaigns are in progress to increase productivity in millet and sorghum and secure better preservation of cereal crops by systematic seed and crop treatment.

(Further details on this can be found in the "Courier" (then "Association News"), No. 27, September-October 1974, in the article "EDF Contribution to Subsistence Crops".)

Stockraising and fisheries

In many of the associated countries stockbreeding has provided an important resource for a long time. It is only comparatively recently that the aid plans have extended to animal health, water points and setting up the basic infrastructure.

The policy followed has not taken adequate account of the vulnerability of the pasture and the narrow limits of the food potential, especially in the Sudan and Sahel areas. This neglect, coupled with some misguided action and unreliable rainfall, upset the ecological balance in these regions.

The operations now envisaged are aimed at putting a stop to the processes responsible for the imbalance and at improving the ecology by moving human and cattle populations into better areas, encouraging them to settle there, adjusting the ratio of human to cattle population and preventing a return to areas which have been cleared. Moreover urgent measures are now necessary to cover the considerable deficit in beef and veal production forecast for Africa in the next few years.

Apart from various projects for improving fishing ports, there has so far been no more than token aid for the fishing industry itself. This consisted of encouragements for fish production in the central delta of the Niger.

After Lomé

With the Lomé Convention in operation, the development objectives will be the sole prerogative of the ACP countries, even more than has hitherto been the case. It will be for the Council of Ministers to survey the results obtained, lay down the cooperation policy and the general rules for its conduct,



Weeding rice near Banfora (Upper Volta)

and pass resolution on the steps to be taken to secure the objectives which have been fixed.

This means that a reorientation of Community aid in regard to export crops will only be undertaken *if the countries concerned so desire*.

In general terms an analysis of the world food situation shows a deficit localised in developing countries. The first task, therefore, is to improve the dietary position in these countries themselves, by increasing the crops which are locally necessary for their own consumption in order to reduce their food deficit and their reliance on imports.

Experience shows that the promotion of subsistence crops may lead successfully to a material growth in the yield, provided the subsistence cultivation allows room for cash crops as well as industrial cultivation.

For this purpose there are three basic requirements governing development strategy in food production. These are:

- higher yields by using adequate cultivation techniques and simultaneously taking steps to lower production costs;
- up-valuing the production and giving producers more remunerative prices;
- improving general conditions in specific rural intervention areas chosen on grounds of ecological, economic and social unity.

Many experts think these operations can only succeed through an integrated approach taking all three of these approaches into account. ■

Cocoa: a new international agreement

by Michel COQUIN (*)

Though cocoa is not one of the more important raw materials, it is the sixth biggest among the exports of developing countries, which supplied the market in 1973 with \$960 m worth of cocoa beans and \$376 m in derived products. The world figures for 1974 and 1975 are not yet available; but with the higher prices they will clearly be on a bigger scale.

Among the buyers the EEC is by far the biggest, taking 40% of average world imports in 1972-74. It is followed by the United States (23%) and USSR (9%). Among the agricultural produce imported into the EEC from the ACP countries, cocoa is the second largest item, and these imports cover 80% of the Community supplies. It is therefore a product with some value as a gauge of relations between the EEC and the ACP.

It is also of some international importance, because there are as yet only two agreements—tin and cocoa—containing economic clauses to control market fluctuations. The other agreements—wheat, sugar, coffee and olive oil—are only frameworks, lacking the market support machinery, temporary or permanent, which is the essential instrument.

A number of other features of cocoa are less well known. Among these are: — its market is very unstable. The "Gini index" for 1963-74 was 36. This is the mean of the annual percentage variations in price; only among the non-ferrous metals can comparable figures be found; — it is much traded in the futures market, and the price is apt to be specula-

Cocoa is still the main export from Ghana and in 1974 it was for the first time the biggest from the Ivory Coast, with a total of F CFA 74 000 m. It is the chief agricultural export for Nigeria and Togo and the second largest for Cameroon. It is an important constituent of the import trade for a number of ACP countries, which are themselves primary suppliers to the world market.

The volume of transactions in cocoa beans in the produce markets in 1974 was 13 times the volume of the international trade in them; — it ranks as a "difficult" product, which can be inferred from the two points above. It took 15 years of consultations, study and negotiation to win through to the first International Cocoa Agreement in 1972.

In contrast it took only four weeks to negotiate the second agreement. The conference was held under the brilliant chairmanship of Ambassador Peter Lai, recently appointed Permanent Representative of Malaysia to the European Communities. The organisation of the market, however, is a different and very thorny problem.

* * *

The 1972 Cocoa Agreement is at present the only agreement actually in force which contains machinery to control international trade. Such provisions are not required in the International Tin Agreement, which is based on the operation of a buffer stock. In practice the state of the world cocoa market and the high prices ruling have so far made it unnecessary to implement the important provisions for fixing export quotas and operating a buffer stock; but the ar-

range for the stock to be financed by a levy on the international trade in the product will have led to the accumulation in three years of some \$80 m, which will be available to regularise the market. The system presupposes controls and formalities on both exports and imports. From the standpoint of the Community, commercial policy measures of this kind could not have been made applicable had not all the member countries participated.

The 1972 Cocoa Agreement has now been renewed, after a brief negotiatory conference (Geneva, September 22-October 20, 1975) which had been carefully prepared at Community level. Since this was a "mixed" agreement as regards the prerogatives of the Community and its Member States, the Commission had sought and obtained Council authority to take part in the conference, and not merely to attend as an observer, and for the Community and its Member States to be represented by 10 delegations, of which the spokesman would normally be the Commission representative for all questions relating to the joint commercial policy (Article 113) under Article 116 of the Treaty of Rome.

The Community was thus able to play an important part at the conference. It was the first case of a "mixed" agreement, at which all the negotiation was carried out at Community level, even on the most difficult questions, such as those concerned with prices and the intervention mechanism triggered by price movements.

* * *

This second International Cocoa Agreement comes into force on October 1, 1976. It is based, as was its predecessor in 1972, on a two-fold price equalisation mechanism within the limits of a price range fixed in the agreement; and on export quotas and the purchases and sales of a buffer stock consisting of 250 000 tonnes of cocoa beans. The collection of a levy on the trade in cocoa, to provide the finance for the buffer stock, is still one of the provisions, as

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(*) Michel Coquin is a principal administrator in the Commission Development Directorate. He was Commission representative at the UN Conference on Cocoa in 1975, acting as Community spokesman and negotiator.

also is the responsibility of member governments for collection of the levy, both on import and export. Also contained in the agreement are the provisions for regulating imports from non-member countries and the suspension of quotas by reference to the level of prices.

There have been a number of modifications to simplify the machinery for quota adjustment, and to make operations more flexible and better adapted to market conditions, to give greater importance to the buffer stock and provide for significantly higher prices and improvements in supply conditions for consumer countries. The agreement is for three years, but can be extended for a further two years without renegotiation. There was no corresponding provision in the 1972 agreement. The most important changes are those relating to the price level and the machinery for market equalisation. The minimum price under the 1972 agreement was fixed at 23 cents US per pound weight. This was amended in 1974 to 29.5 cents and it has now been raised to 39 cents. The maximum price was 32 cents in 1972, raised to 38.5 cents and now fixed at 55 cents. It will be noted that the gap between the maximum and minimum has been widened from 9 cents to 16 cents.

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* *

The entry into force and subsequent application of the agreement will depend on the attitude of the United States and the Ivory Coast. The US is second only to the EEC as an importer and was not a member of the 1972 agreement; and the Ivory Coast is the world's third biggest exporter.

The US will certainly refuse to sign the second agreement, just as they did not sign the first. They stated that they were politically willing to work out an agreement based on their own proposals, made after the second week of the conference, based essentially on the market intervention of a buffer stock.

Both the producing and the consuming countries had to take seriously into account the risk of negotiating on the basis of the new American proposals without being at all sure agreement could be reached on this basis, and the fear that the price question might be another reason for the United States to

stay outside the agreement, as was the case in 1972.

For the Ivory Coast there are other reasons why the agreement should not be signed. Its policy is to pay high prices to the producers, and the price has in fact more than doubled during the past three years. This system, combined with export taxation, has produced c.i.f. prices not far short of the maximum levels laid down in the new agreement.

The Ivory Coast is taking the view that neither the prices fixed nor the machinery for defending them is satisfactory. The other countries are prepared to accept them (*).

Thus, despite the improvement in prices and the support machinery, it is by no means certain this agreement will indeed come into force on October 1, 1976, especially if the Ivory Coast maintains its attitude. This might well lead other countries, especially the consumers' group, to reconsider attitudes hitherto conditioned by what has been accepted by all the big producing countries.

(*) Of the world's nine principal producers, five are ACP countries. Of these, Ghana, Nigeria and the Ivory Coast are the three biggest producers. The others are Cameroon and Togo. Between them these countries account for 65 % of world production.

Should the agreement remain in force, it is not easy to forecast whether the support machinery will function properly at the new prices.

Since there is no cocoa in the buffer stock to defend a maximum price of 55 cents, the first intervention will have to be the fixing of export quotas as soon as the world price falls to 47 cents, or lower. In 1975 the price range was between 35 and 68 cents, and next year everything will depend on the statistical position of the market. An unexpectedly abundant crop in 1975-76 might very well cause a price setback, though there does not seem likely to be a substantial fall during 1976. It will be easier to judge whether the new prices will make the agreement operational after we have seen how prices actually move next year when it has come into operation. At the present stage all that can safely be said is that the new negotiated prices are considered too low by some and too high by others, but are in any case more realistic than their predecessors and look to be a remarkably good compromise between producing and consuming interests. The agreement is a new milestone on the road towards international economic cooperation, though it is still fragile and perhaps of only modest scope. ■

M. COQUIN

Opening cocoa pods



NIGER

Progress in solar energy

Interview with Professor
Abdou Moumouni, Director of
the Niger Solar Energy Office.

► *Professor Moumouni, how important might solar energy be for developing countries?*

— Most developing countries, whether in Africa or in Latin America, lie in the tropics and are favoured by the quantity and intensity of their sunshine. In general, their annual sunshine record varies between 2 500 and 3 400 hours. This represents an enormous quantity of energy, for the average square metre of surface receives approximately one kilowatt. Here we have a source of energy which could and should be used.

For developing countries, therefore, solar energy is an extremely important potential source of energy. With the increase in world energy consumption, it will one day play an important part in the economies of developing countries.

► *The oil crisis has put new drive into research on alternative energy sources. What is the present state of technology regarding solar energy?*

— It is difficult to define the present state of the technology. This is easily understood. A number of the developed countries have long been doing research on solar energy. Well before the oil crisis this research had been carried on as part of space research, and it is of course closely linked with strategic defence research programmes. This explains why the results of the research are not more widely known. To judge, however, from

such information as is not classified, it can be said that solar energy research was going on almost 20 years ago in countries other than the USA and the USSR and including the countries in the Sahel area.

All we can say at the moment is that there is no longer any technological problem for simpler uses of solar energy. I am thinking in particular of thermal power, as in domestic central heating, water heating, water distillation. The problems here are not technological. They are development problems concerned with lowering the manufacturing costs of the apparatus. The fundamental technology is, for the most part, already there.

The problems become just a little more complicated when it comes to using solar energy for conversion into mechanical or electrical energy. It is about 15 years since the appearance of the first motor converting solar energy into mechanical energy; and because satellites have always been fed with electricity from solar batteries, space research has produced a good deal of spin-off opening the way to sound possibilities this technology. If and insofar as developed countries are interested in the economic potential of solar energy, the space research spin-off will, in my view, influence the future of developing countries.

For the conversion of solar energy into mechanical energy there exist a number of thermal machines, either motors or turbines. Nevertheless they are still at their beginnings. This is no more than a drop in the ocean when you compare it with the enormous sums which have been swallowed up in space and nuclear research. Nevertheless, the technique for conversion into mechanical and thermal energy is much less com-

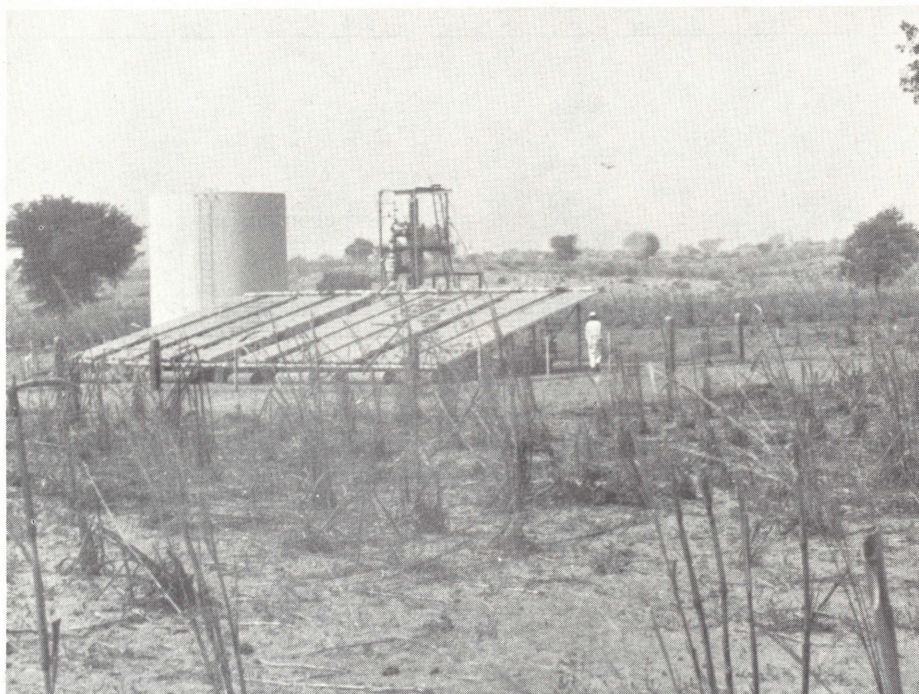
plex, and economically it is very competitive.

► *The question of production costs is crucial. Do you think the technology is now far enough advanced to make solar energy competitive with other power sources?*

— There is a lot of talk about this, and much of it in very abstract terms. Obviously any mention of profitability for solar energy puts it into the context of developed countries. In developing countries the position is wholly different, partly because they get anything up to 3 000 hours sunshine annually, and partly because until the oil crisis we were living in the age of cheap energy. I would emphasise that developed countries are only beginning to realise that they have been wasting energy for half a century. The all-electric kitchen is an obvious example. Oil is burnt in a power station with an energy efficiency of between 20 and 30 %. The electricity obtained is fed into a distribution grid and here again a good deal of it is lost. It is only after this that it goes to the housewife and is reconverted into heat. If we had taken a more straightforward course and cooked with the fuel used in the first instance, we should have used only a fifth to a third of the quantity. The extravagance was forced upon the developing countries by the wealthy countries. The oil crisis is beginning to change things a little.

It follows that when we talk about competitiveness, we must consider specific cases. For the Sahel countries the transport costs of any goods is an enormous percentage of the delivered cost. The question of saving energy is therefore posed in quite a different fashion. In Niger the kilowatt costs much more in the interior of the country than it does in the capital. The use of solar energy would make it possible to produce energy in the way best adapted to local requirements. I would push this argument a little further and say that in some cases profitability means nothing. For example, the losses undergone by the

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The Onersol pump:

Catchment area: 60 sq.m.; pump throughput: 6 to 7 cu.m. per hour; manometric height: 12 m; running time: 4-6 hours; date started: 1969; installed at: village of Bossey-Bangou (Niger)

countries affected by the Sahel drought do not correlate with the investment cost which would have been needed for the research, development and production of solar energy equipment, by which these countries could have been enabled to live from their own reserves of water. This could have been done with investments much smaller than the cost of the emergency aid actually given to the Sahel countries during the drought.

The characteristic of solar energy is a big capital investment at the outset, and subsequently an absence of recurrent operating costs. In the present state of technology prices are still high; but, if you calculate on a long-term basis and can develop equipment with a useful life of 10 years, you will find solar energy can indeed be competitive.

► *What might be the applications of this new source of energy for the Sahel countries in the early future?*

This is a point we have had a chance to discuss and we have identified the most important factors. The uses fall into three categories. The first is domes-

tic in the wider sense, including collective and community uses and the heating and distillation of water, refrigeration, air-conditioning, cooking and such-like, for families and hospitals and school canteens. Secondly, there will be mechanical uses, such as water-pumping. Thirdly come uses of a less high priority, such as electricity supplies in rural areas. Obviously electrical supplies, even if they came only for three hours every night, would have a tremendous effect on maternity hospitals, dispensaries and similar institutions. My impression is the social and cultural advantages which could flow from the use of solar energy would be a really important factor.

► *What was the aim of your recent mission to the EEC?*

— Following M. Cheysson's visit to Niger a few months ago, and his interest in the work of the Solar Energy Office, I came to see the EEC Commission, partly to contact the relevant departments and to tell them about our projects, and partly to see what are the possibilities of

aid and cooperation. It is no more than a preliminary contact.

► *Would you tell us something about the activities of the Solar Energy Office?*

— We have only moderate resources at our disposal, so we cannot claim to be doing very much. The office was set up in 1966 and since then it has proved possible for us to achieve various things, though of course only on a small scale. For example, we have a prototype cooking stove, a solar water heater and a solar distilling unit. The office has in fact carried out some degree of popularisation, and anybody who takes a walk in Niamey today will see our solar water heater in quite a number of places. Over the whole territory a hot water capacity of between 12 and 15 000 litres has been installed. With this experience the government has decided to set up an industrial establishment to produce water heaters and distillation units and this is currently under construction in Niamey.

We are also trying, in our own small way, to tackle the conversion of solar energy into mechanical and electrical energy, in both cases for a limited range of applications. For the mechanical energy conversion the main purpose would be to pump water with a power rating equivalent to between 1 and 5 kW. The electrical conversion would be mainly to provide power for village radio posts and telephone relays between the big towns. For the moment these are the lines on which we are working, and I should also mention a project to construct kilns for building materials to save wasting timber in the building industry. Our resources, however, are very limited, not only in money but also in personnel. There are only four of us doing full-time research and three technicians. The limitations are such as one might expect in a country such as Niger; and despite them we have already committed our resources to expenditure of nearly F CFA 200 m. We are certainly ready to accept aid from anybody who is willing to give it, provided it comes in a spirit of real cooperation, by which I mean making common cause with the work and not simply with a view to placing products on our market. ■

Interview by
BARNEY TRENCH

Pumping water by solar energy

by J.P. GIRARDIER^(*) and J. GRETZ^(**)

The average European today consumes continuous energy of 5 200 Watts for his well-being, covering the needs of living and working, motoring and industry. In some of the African countries the corresponding figure is only 12 Watts and for the average African it is 150 Watts. By way of comparison, an average electric light bulb consumes 60 Watts; and the consumption of energy in normal human metabolism (energy contained in the food necessary for maintaining the vital processes of the human body) about 100 Watts. From these figures we can deduce a "civilisation factor" of 52 for the European and less than one for those who live in most of the African countries.

Energy in such small quantities is not a luxury but a necessity. Like water, which is a primary necessity for survival, it occupies a key position in the countries of Africa. In Mauritania, for example, a solar pump of 1.5 kW able to raise 9 cu.m of water per hour from a depth of 20 m would suffice for the needs of 2 000 people. The catchment screen, constructed as part of a building and providing a shady area also, could provide refrigerated roofs for a hospital and a school.

The cost of this solar pump is 16 m Italian lire, equivalent to about F-CFA 5 280 000. In terms of cost per kW installed, this sounds on the high side, but it is very low indeed when we think of the cost price of the energy per head which is 3 500 lire per annum. The corresponding cost for a European is 540 000 lire per annum.

On a per capita basis, therefore, solar energy is very cheap. Since the apparatus is expensive, European industry might well take it up as a production line.

This article is concerned with solar pumps of about 1 kW rating developed by the SOFRETES Company, Montargis, France.

It is almost 15 years since the work of Professor Masson of Dakar University led to the emphasis in research work being put on the possibilities of solar energy as a solution for energy production problems in isolated tropical areas.

The Société Française d'Etudes Thermiques et d'Energie Solaire works in close cooperation with a number of African research organisations, including the University of Dakar, the Inter-State School at Ouagadougou and the University of Chad.

In view of recent progress with this technology, both the French Atomic Energy Commissariat and the Renault Company have taken up a stake in the research and its results.

Solar energy—background note

The amount of solar energy is considerable: at ground level it may be as much as 1 kW per sq.m.

It is available everywhere. It does not have to be transported.

There are however, a number of inconveniences. As a result its conversion into usable energy has not developed so far as might be expected.

— The occurrence of the energy is cyclic, whereas almost all sources of energy are required to function 24 hours a day.

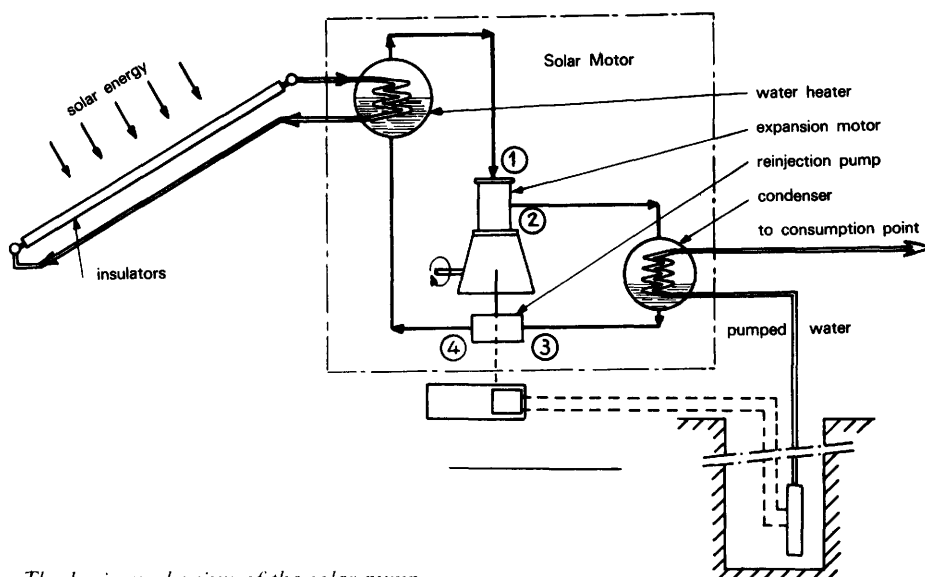
— The energy supply drops considerably in cloudy weather, since diffused radiation is equivalent to only 30 or 40 % of direct solar energy.

— It is only regular and abundant in tropical areas, most of which have little industry.

These difficulties were considered and the following guidelines were adopted to make the work more effective.

(*) Chairman and General Manager, Société Française d'Etudes Thermiques et d'Energie Solaire

(**) Solar Energy Programme Coordinator, EURATOM—Ispra Research Centre



The basic mechanism of the solar pump

Basic options

a) Since solar energy is cyclic, a way of using it had to be found which simplified the storage of the energy. This is the case with the pumping of water, and this naturally happens to be much in demand in tropical countries.

b) Simplicity of apparatus. If this energy is to be used in isolated districts, the apparatus must necessarily be very simple and call for no maintenance. For this reason complex gadgetry has been eliminated and the catchment area chosen has been the plane surface, which is the simplest there is.

This of course results in low thermal yields. On the other hand it opens the way for effective machines which can be operated by unskilled personnel.

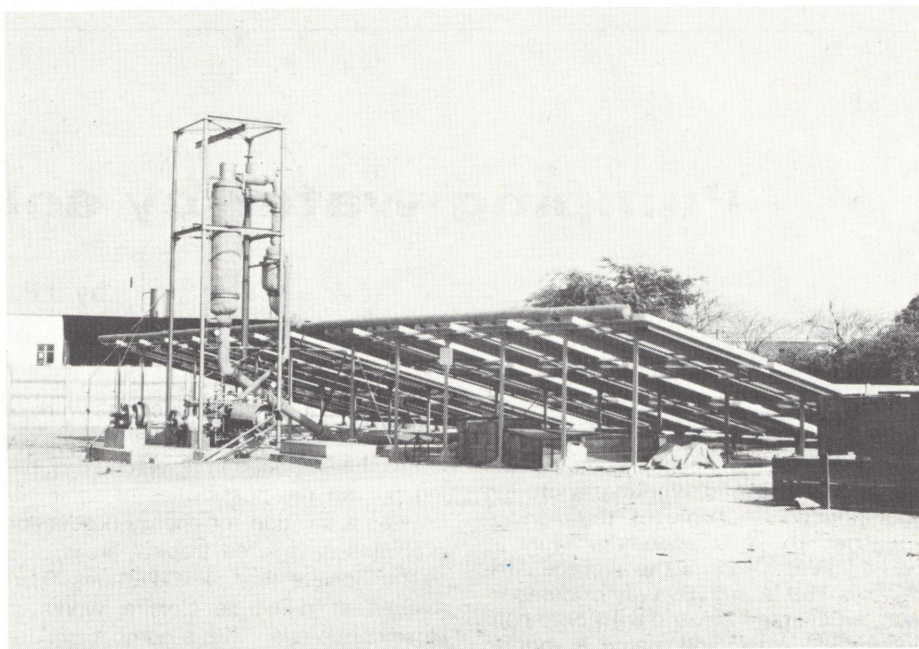
Principles of solar pumps with plane catchment

Using solar energy to operate a water pump, a low-temperature thermic cycle was accordingly chosen, set up between a hot source consisting of hot water circulating by thermo-syphon in the solar catchments and a cold source consisting of water from a well or borehole.

The solar energy heats the plates of a plane catchment with water passing below it. This water circulates in a thermo syphon, passing calories to a heat exchanger and returning to the bottom of the catchment. In the heat exchanger an intermediate fluid vaporises on contact with the hot water. It comes out at high pressure and goes into the motor where it expands. The expanding vapour condenses at low pressure in the condenser, which is kept cool by the pumped water. All that is now needed is to reinject the low pressure liquid in the condenser into the exchanger, for which purpose there is a reinjection pump coupled to the motor. The intermediate fluid cycle is thus a closed one. The motor works a pump in the well, or borehole, which brings the water (the cold source) to cool the condenser before it is used.

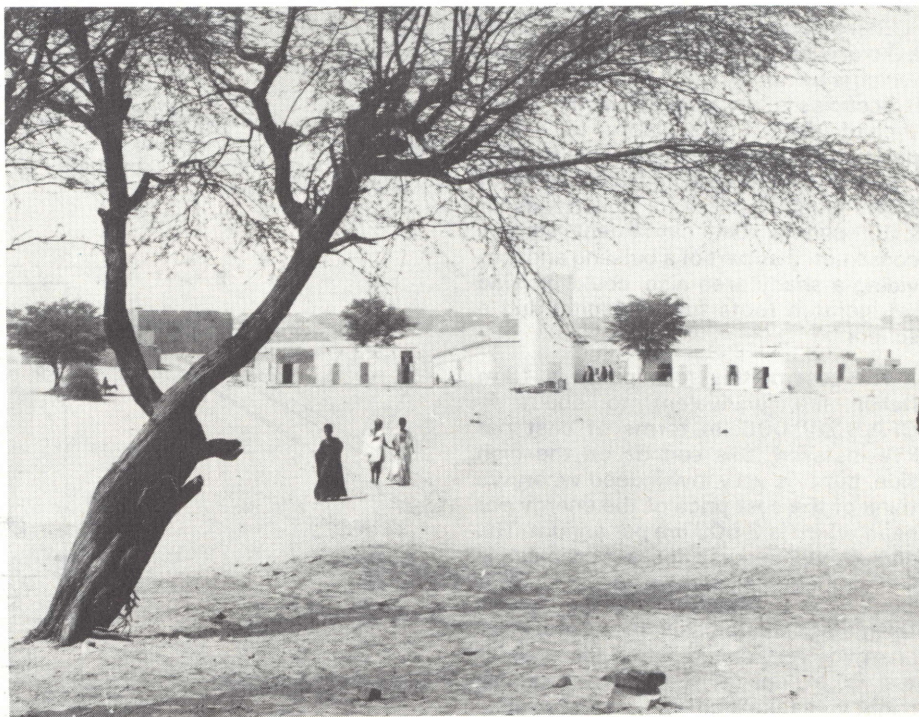
First achievements

Apart from various prototypes for laboratory experimental work at Dakar and other universities, various pumps are now at work. Their main characteristics are as follows (see photos):



The Segal pump

Catchment area: 88 sq.m.; pump throughput: 6 cu.m. per hour; manometric height: 25 m; running time: 5-6 hours; date started: 1968; installed at: Dakar Institute of Meteorological Physics.



The Chinguetti pump

Catchment area: 72 sq.m.; pump throughput: 8-10 cu.m. per hour; manometric height: 23 m.; running time: 5-7 hours; installed at: Chinguetti (Mauritania). The catchment area is part of a building used for housing and as a school.

Lines of current development

These techniques are being developed in three different directions.

Village water supplies

Where this form of energy is competitive, the problem is actually bringing the water into small communities of up to 2 000 people. In each case attempts are made to associate the solar pumping techniques with housing, using the pump also for a school (Chinguetti, Ceballos and elsewhere), a dispensary (Dioila) or some administrative building.

In this way the supply of water is also used to add to the local structure of development.

Water for livestock

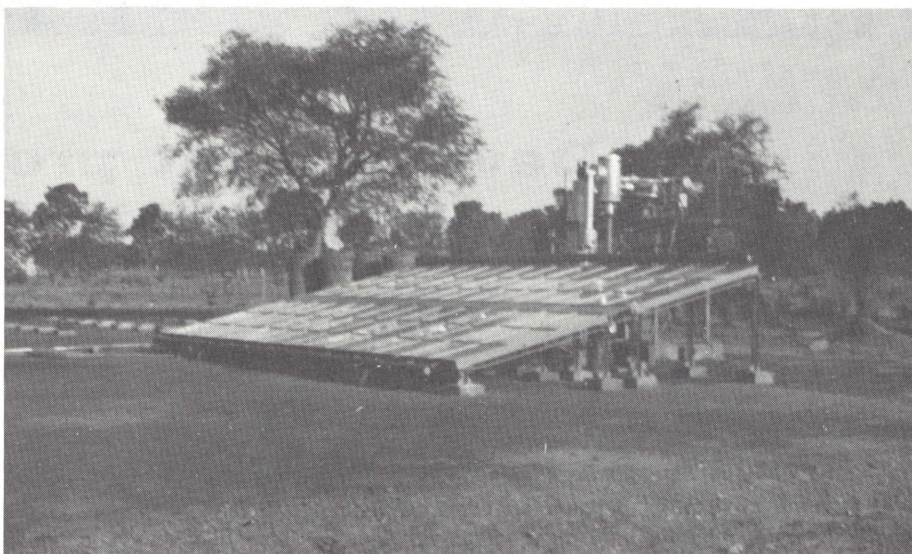
In these tropical regions, more especially in the Sahel, there are considerable possibilities for stockraising, but they need a number of water points, each providing for about 1 000 head of cattle. Solar pumps may be one of the solutions. It is important to avoid making the cattle stations too big, since this can lead to overgrazing. Small stations would be extremely useful to the herdsmen, if they were set up all along the cattle routes and provided about 50 cu.m. of water a day.

Irrigation

Irrigation calls for power on a bigger scale, running from 25 or 50 kW to 100 kW. The Mexican government is trying out the first installations of this type. Construction began in August, 1975.

This is a new field of application, and the strength and reliability of the equipment is a matter of first importance. This can be guaranteed for 10 years or more by the use of gas turbines. The investment cost is on the high side, but allowing for a 20-year write-off, the production cost per cubic metre is understood to be around 0.10, or 0.15.

This technique of course calls for rather large catchment screens. For this reason we contemplate the simultaneous building of the village to house those working in the irrigated areas.



The Ouaga pump

Catchment area: 30 sq.m.; pump throughput: 2 cu.m. per hour; manometric height: 20 m; running time: 4-6 hours; date started: 1971; installed at: Inter-State School at Ouagadougou.

In these ambitious programmes it has been arranged that aid should be given by the Atomic Energy Commissariat (CEA) through the Prometheus group, which is specially concerned with this type of problem.

Future programme

The above considerations make it clear that we shall have to keep very close to the practical realities in these developing countries.

Many countries in all parts of the world are now interested in these techniques and there are now about 30 stations of this type. The countries include: Upper Volta, Chad, Senegal, Brazil, Mauritania, Cameroon and Mexico.

The Mexican government is the first to envisage solar pumps on a substantial scale. The five stations now operating are part of a first programme of 10 stations. A 25 kW station for part of the water supply to Sanluis Potosi is now being built, and the Mexican government intends to place orders for another 1 000 solar pumps and between 25 and 50 turbines of 50 kW.

The effect of this programme will be to lower costs so that solar energy will become directly competitive with other energy sources in all tropical areas.

Future possibilities

Up to the present the only problem tackled has been that of water supplies, which is also the most urgent.

By using similar techniques, however, it will be possible to devise apparatus for refrigeration, for storing medicines in hospitals and also to provide cold-storage facilities, especially for agriculture.

The first apparatus of this type is to be erected this year at the dispensaries at Dioila and Koupela.

The next stage may be a study of air-conditioning possibilities, using the same technique. The target in the long term is to supply electricity 24 hours a day, using small independent generating stations of between 25 and 100 kW capacity. Before this is practicable, the problem of heat storage has to be tackled. Research for this has not yet produced adequate results, but hopes of future success seem good.

In handling the technical side of solar energy applications it is important to take into account the many human aspects, by always trying to make them part of the general development picture, and not to forget the possibility that these technologies may be transferred to all the countries of the Third World that may want them. ■

J.P. GIRARDIER
J. GRETZ

Development projects in Madagascar



The main aims of the projects and programmes thus financed were the development of rice growing; support for export crops and their improvement and diversification; the development of crops for the home market; improved communications and social development.

1. Rice

Rice plays a vital part in the Malagasy economy. Paddy is by far the most important item in the primary sector. It is estimated that it accounted for 46% of the value of agricultural produce to the producer in 1966 and 13% of the gross internal product (including rice which is home-consumed and rice sold through the market).

The importance of rice in the Malagasy diet is also considerable. The estimated consumption is about 150 kg per head per annum.

The local demand is still very keen, and despite a big increase in production the imports have been tending to rise. Since 1969 the rice imports have consistently been several tens of thousand tons—42 000 t in 1969, 20 000 t and 61 000 t in the two following years and 26 000 t in 1972. The island's rice supplies are apt to be precarious because of climatic factors, especially cyclones. For this reason steps in favour of rice cultivation have been and remain priority items in the government's development policy. Since 1966 the European Com-

The material used under this heading is taken principally from the reports of Commission delegates in the A.A.S.M.

munity has contributed on a large scale to financing a big programme for the development of rice-growing, aimed at increasing production by introducing new methods of cultivation, the use of fertilizers and carrying out hydraulic programmes. The operation was concerned with the country around Fianarantsoa, Ambositra, Antsirabé and Ambilobé and, on a somewhat smaller scale, certain areas of the east and west coasts (1).

This operation extended over nearly 40 000 hectares of ricefields and affected a farm population of 120 000. A supervisory and information staff of over 900 was used extending the techniques which, for the most part, were concerned with using the best possible planting timetable, improved seed beds, planting out in line, hoeing and using selected seed. To this was added the encouragement of mineral fertilizers for the ricefields and proper water control, accompanied by the execution of micro-schemes of irrigation. This enormous operation began in 1966 and finished in 1975, costing about 7 800 m Malagasy francs. Of this expenditure FMg 2 800 was paid out of the Malagasy budget and the remaining FMg 5 000 m was borne by the 2nd and 3rd EDFs.

This was known as "Operation Rice Productivity". Despite the complexity of the organisation needed and the difficulties due to the many sites affected, it was a success. The irrigation micro-projects, for example, made it possible to farm new ground and to increase the yield from areas already under cultivation. The 765 construction operations under this head provided irrigation for 18 000 ha, affecting a peasant population of 24 600.

A large-scale operation

Hydro-agricultural improvement in Bas-Mangoky

Both for reasons of regional policy and as a factor in the national economy, the economic development of the Mangoky delta is a matter of considerable importance.

The region is adjacent to the "Great South", which is still one of the least



(1) Taken from "EDF/Madagascar 1960-1975" (Directories General for Development and for Information, Commission of the European Communities).

EDF



Draining the Laniera marshes

developed parts of Madagascar. Natural conditions here are exceptionally bad, largely because of the small rainfall; and its development had to rely largely on projects in neighbouring areas which could provide opportunities for people from less favoured districts.

From the national economic standpoint, development of the Bas-Mangoky delta was in line with the government's campaign to increase national rice production and diversify crop production. Growing cotton for ginning at Tuléar, for the spinning and weaving mills at Antsirabé, made it possible to reduce the imports of cotton thread and cloth.

The Bas-Mangoky improvement scheme is a large-scale operation which was put in hand in 1961. In 1961-65 the real scale of the possibilities was tested in a pilot unit financed by bilateral aid from France. The tests were carried out over an area of 1 000 ha, and related to cultivation methods, operational techniques and the possibility of providing adequate supervision.

Particulars of a 10 000 ha improvement scheme were also put before the EDF in 1961 and resulted the following year in finance of FMg 1 200 m, which made it possible to carry out the basic infrastructure work in the 1964-66 period. This included a water offtake from the river Mangoky, a 20 km access canal and 16 km of irrigation canal, with protective walls against flooding from the river, and connected works. This project also included the 1 000 ha of the pilot unit, which was still being operated.

A second finance operation of FMg 2 600 m came from the European Community through the 2nd EDF, making it possible in 1966 to begin the additional infrastructure work, consisting of irrigation and drainage canals, access paths and similar. This phase was originally to have covered 3 700 ha, but it had to be reduced to 1 500 ha (in addition to the 1 000 ha pilot unit) because of the serious cyclone damage in 1969 and 1970 which made it necessary to use part of the funds from the 2nd instalment to meet repair costs.

Funds were provided, however, enabling the work already in hand to be finished from 1973 onwards. This was a third financing operation by the Community, providing FMg 3 100 m from the 3rd EDF. This will increase the farmed areas from 2 500 to 5 500 ha.

On completion of this third phase it is planned that, of the 5 500 ha brought into cultivation, 3 500 will be used for cotton-growing, 1 050 for rice and 950 for rotation fodder crops. The fodder crops are either dug in or used to feed the cattle raised by the surrounding peasantry, and thus help in diversifying the agricultural work. The peasants have also started growing Cape peas on the banks of the Mangoky during the dry season.

Despite the difficulties inherent in local conditions, this project attained its main targets.

The difficulty came partly from the climate and more especially from the torrential character of the Mangoky, which necessitated costly flood protection works. In addition, many of the farmers working in the new cotton and ricefields had previously been engaged in the traditional stockraising activities, and their adaptation took some time. The general aim of the Malagasy authorities was to make Bas-Mangoky a regional development centre on the border of the Great South, one which would provide better employment conditions for the people of the south and raise their incomes and standards of living. To a large extent this objective was met.

Above and beyond this the 2 000 ha of cotton are showing yields of 3 tons of cotton grains per ha and the 800 ha of rice have produced 3.5 tons per ha. The yield of cotton puts Bas-Mangoky among the best cotton areas in the world.

When the Bas-Mangoky scheme is rounded off, 80 % of the area of 4 000 ha will be given over to cotton-growing. On the basis of current yields, this should produce 1 200 tons of cotton, which will be a valuable contribution to restoring the Malagasy trade balance.

2. Crops for the home market

Imported products which could be manufactured locally, with Malagasy produce as their raw material, are a heavy charge on Madagascar's trade balance.

Included under this heading are things such as miscellaneous oils, soaps and fats which could easily be produced in Madagascar from the oil and coconut

palm, and clothing materials, which can also be manufactured in the country from cotton grown, spun and woven locally.

The European Community has made its contribution to the work of substituting national products for imported intermediates or finished goods. It included the considerable finance provided for hydro-agricultural improvements in Bas-Mangoky and for laying out a 3 600 ha coconut plantation in the Sambava area in north-eastern Madagascar.

Up to the present, 2 700 ha of the Sambava coconut have already been planted, and 500 ha will be coming into production in 1977. The remainder of the 3 600 ha will be brought into production gradually between now and 1984. The original evaluation of this project was made in 1967 and there have since been very big cost increases especially for fertilizers which have trebled in price. The work scheduled for finance under the 2nd EDF in 1968 was to include, in succession to the preparation of the land, laying out nurseries, a six-year programme for planting out the coconut palm, the maintenance of the plantations and the marketing of their produce. The project involves 800 families and will help to reduce Madagascar's deficit in oil-bearing materials.

3. Crop support, improvement and diversification

In most developing countries, practically the whole of the income from external trade consists of export receipts in respect of a very small number of agricultural products. In Madagascar this does not apply, for the three principal export products amounted in 1970-72 to only 47 % of total exports. To make up 90 % of the exports takes a list of no less than 35 products.

Among these is coffee, which accounts for about 30 % of Malagasy exports, but its importance is not to be found solely in the foreign trade statistics. Coffee produces the main cash income for about 20 % of the Malagasy population and provides half the fiscal receipts from the export trade. Most of it comes from a strip 100 km wide running 1 200 km along the east coast between Sambava and Farafangana,



Conversion of marshland to new ricefields at Laniera

where 185 000 ha are used for coffee-growing.

Following the drop in production in the '60s it was found that the coffee crop, which is vital for the country, had fallen away dangerously. In 1966 the government accordingly decided to review the coffee policy, reducing the cultivated area, but replacing the old or poor quality bushes. This was "Operation Coffee", which began in 1967 and consisted of laying out between 30 and 40 000 ha of high-quality coffee plantations also involving pepper-growing. Other measures taken at the same time included establishing a price support system and building "coffee roads" to get the product on the move. The first part of Operation Coffee was achieved in 1967-71, involving a total investment of FMg 1 700 m. Of this, 35% was covered by Malagasy sources, 48% by the 2nd EDF and 17% by French bilateral aid. There could be no doubting the technical success of the operation and its suitability for the local farming background. This led to the government renewing it in 1972-73. The investment in this second phase amounted to FMg 1 350 m, of which 54% came from Malagasy sources, 33% from the 3rd EDF and 13% from French bilateral aid.

Pepper was to be an associated crop and its development became part of Operation Coffee. Part of the work of agricultural supervision consisted of extending improved methods of pepper growing and distributing selected plants.

The diversification measures included the re-introduction into Madagascar of tea-growing. This was first introduced towards the end of the 19th century, but there was no regular production for the market. Now, with the increasing population in the rice-growing areas and the difficulty of continually making over more land to the rice-growers, the need was felt for new lines of cultivation which would prevent the migration of an under-employed agricultural population and provide adequate cash incomes.

Under the "aid to diversification programme" of the 2nd EDF, a tea-growing research station was set up in 1967 in the Fianarantsoa region. At the same time, an investigation was started on the possibility of setting up some hundreds of hectares of tea plantations.

The results were conclusively good, both on the technical and on the economic side. Through the research station it was possible to obtain tea bushes in adequate numbers, and by November 1973 it had become possible to think in

terms of EEC intervention in this field.

The resources of the 3rd EDF were brought in and non-repayable aid of FMg 1 200 m was granted from the 3rd for laying out 500 ha of tea plantations, of which 150 ha would be a pilot strip while the other 350 ha would be available to the farmers. The finance provided will be used in the main to cover plantation expenditure, the purchase of vehicles, materials, farm machinery and fertilizers, and to cover some of the service infrastructure, draining, housing and a small tea-processing plant capable of dealing with the first year's output. Some of the personnel and maintenance expenditure is also taken over, together with the cost of technical assistance.

In a normal year the plantation will employ nearly 8 000 people, some 1 165 families, who should enjoy a considerably increased income.

Developing good farmland

The Vohemar-Sambava-Andapa region

The region in north-eastern Madagascar, bounded on the north by Vohemar, on the south by Antalaha and on the west by Andapa, is essentially agricultural. It grows subsistence crops, including

rice, and export crops, such as coffee and vanilla. In recent years the agriculture has been developed and brought up-to-date, the coffee plantations modernised and industrial crops introduced at Sambava. Communications difficulties have of course been an obstacle to progress. The country is mountainous and the lack of sufficient roads makes it necessary to spend time on travel by sea or money on travel by air. This explains the importance the Malagasy authorities attach to road-building, and the number of finance operations in which the EDF has been involved for the purpose.

As long ago as 1961 it was decided to improve the road between Volémar and Sambava, and by 1971 the whole 145 km of this road had been surfaced. The work included the construction of a number of bridges, replacing the old ferry-boats which had set limits on the use of heavy vehicles and involved serious increases in transport costs and freight rates. Until 1962 the fertile plain of Andapa was accessible only by air, or by tracks which could not carry vehicles. This stood seriously in the way of agricultural development and the offtake of the crops; three successive EDF financing operations made it possible to build an entirely new road of 104 km, linking Andapa with the east coast near Sambava. The work ran into difficulties through the bad climate and the bad weather, especially the 1968 cyclone, but its completion made it possible to start agricultural improvement work in the Andapa depression in 1970. In the first phase, 2 000 ha are being developed by water schemes and other infrastructure work and will soon be coming into use for rice-growing and for export crops such as coffee and vanilla. The rice produced at Andapa will supply the east coast, which now has a deficit and has to import seaborne supplies from the west coast. The supervisory staff and extension schemes will also help in bringing the coffee plantations up-to-date and improving the vanilla-growing. Surveys carried out since 1969 also suggest diversification by the introduction of cocoa, the development of market gardening, rice and an extension of stockraising.

Lastly, the finance provided in 1968 for the coconut plantations in the Sambava region made it possible to lay out 3 600 ha.

In the 14 years from 1961-74, the subsidies for road work and subsistence or industrial crops provided for the Vo-hémar-Sambava-Andapa area from the 1st, 2nd and 3rd EDFs exceeded FMg 10 000 m. The area also enjoyed some of the benefit of "Operation Coffee East Coast" (1967-74), which used funds not only from Madagascar and France but also a further aid of FMg 1 300 m from the EDF. This operation covered the coastal strip from Sambava to Vangaindrano.

4. Improving the road network

Madagascar is thinly populated, with eight million people for an area of 590 000 sq. km, and long roads need to

be built and maintained, often for very light traffic, to link agricultural regions both to each other and to industrial centres and ports.

The natural conditions make it a difficult task. The landscape is wild and the various regions are hemmed in by natural barriers. The laterite soils are not generally suitable for compacted earth roads capable of resisting heavy vehicles and water erosion, while cyclones frequently cause considerable damage, particularly to unsurfaced roads.

The inadequacy of the road system is one of the most serious obstacles to Madagascar's economic development, which the highly-developed internal airline network can only partially offset. This development needs a dependable road system, to open up agricultural ar-



Road improvements west of Lake Alaotra. This is associated with agricultural improvements in the Anony delta

eas with high production potential and in general to reduce the costs of transport made inevitable by the inadequacy of the existing roads. The road system has been given priority in the transport infrastructure under Madagascar's national development plans.

The European Community took this priority into account in providing FMg (Malagasy francs) 64 500 000 worth of aid for road projects up to the end of 1974. The figure accounts for more than 90% of financings from the 1st, 2nd and 3rd EDFs and about one third of the total EEC aid for Madagascar over 15 years.

The Tananarive-Majunga highway

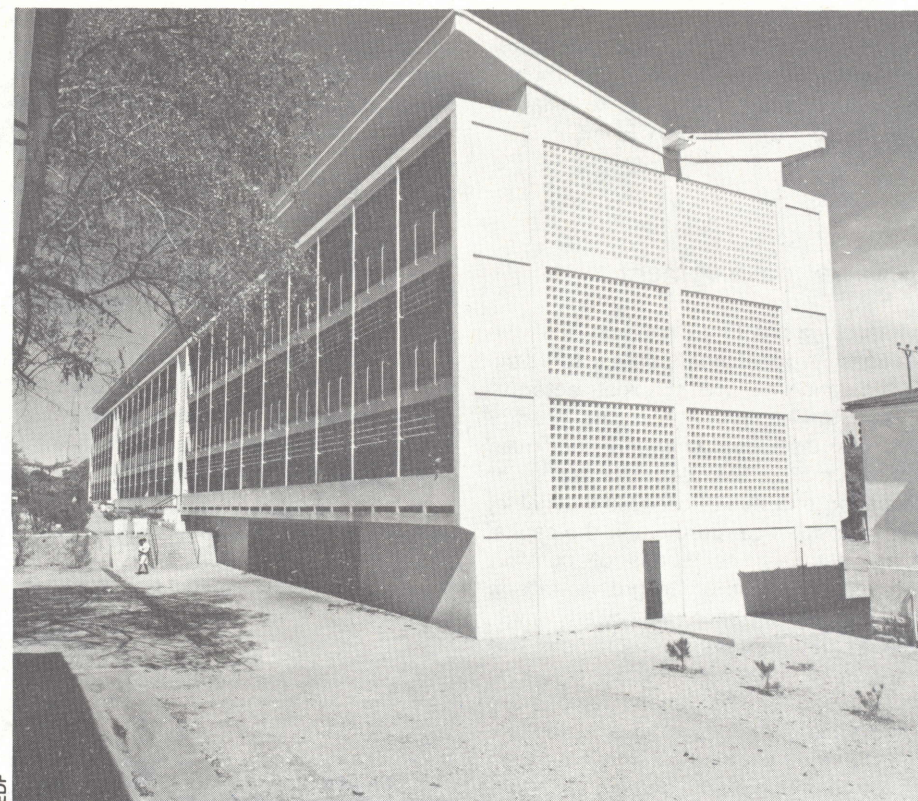
Main roads came well up the list of priorities under the national development plans covering the road system. It was decided to build or improve highways linking major areas, giving them an all-weather metalled surface which could take 25-ton lorries. The Tananarive-Majunga highway, Route 4, came in for four allocations between 1958 and 1962. They financed the improvement and surfacing of the Amboanio road, serving the island's only cemetery and an important rice plantation; the improvement and surfacing of 60 km between Betsitoka and Kamoro; work on 17 km between Majunga and Kamoro; and of particular importance, the reinforcement or complete reconstruction of 30 bridges.

This has given Route 4 year-round carrying capacity for 25-tonners and made it the principal axis in north-west Madagascar. It links Tananarive with the island's second biggest port (after Tamatave) serving international traffic.

The West Coast road

One of the long-term objectives of road-building in Madagascar is to link Fort-Dauphin to Vohéma via a coast road, which would give useful access to one of the island's main agricultural areas, producing coffee, pepper, bananas, coconuts, oil palm and sugar cane besides subsistence crops.

A coastal link is equally vital to the port development policy, which aims to give priority to developing the best-si-



Majunga hospital: wing financed by the EDF

tuated ports in the interests of rationalisation and reducing transport costs.

Because of the distances and costs involved, this objective can only be met in stages. There is heavy rainfall on the west coast (2-300 centimetres p.a.) and proper surfacing is essential if the road is not to deteriorate rapidly. Moreover, there are a number of rivers which are still crossed by ferry, which costs a good deal and slows freight transport considerably.

The Community has contributed to the construction of various sections of the West Coast road, particularly between Vohéma and Antalaha, and between Mananjary and Vangaindrano. In the north-east, the Vohéma-Sambava road has been improved and surfaced under finance from the 1st and 3rd EDFs, and the 3rd EDF financed a 293 metres-wide bridge in December 1974, which should soon replace the ferry across the Vinany near Antalaha.

In the south-east, as from 1959 the Community provided finance from the 1st and 2nd EDFs for the Manakara-

Vangaindrano road, which has been in use since 1966.

More recently, the Community agreed to replace the Tsararala and Vohipeno ferries in December 1974. These carry an annual traffic of 31 000 and 36 000 vehicles respectively, causing frequent interruptions and slowing trade.

The Lake Alaotra West road

Some 150 000 people live in the Lake Alaotra area, which, thanks to its very favourable natural conditions, is considered the island's "rice store".

The Malagasy government has undertaken the agricultural development of this area from the national budget and with foreign aid including the World Bank, French bilateral aid and the EDF.

From the 1st and 2nd EDFs, FMg 670 m were allocated to the hydro-agricultural development of the Anony Delta, a project which covers 9 600 hectares of rice-fields.

In this case the improvement of com-

munications was particularly important and closely linked to the area's agricultural development. It led the Community to finance the 104 km Lake Alaotra West road from the 2nd EDF.

5. Social development

Improving the living conditions of the Malagasy population calls for the consideration of two principal factors.

First, the huge extent of the country and the distances between the main centres makes the decentralisation of education and health services inevitable; it is impossible to run them in the capital in the requisite conditions of comfort and economy. The urban growth rate in Tananarive has been particularly high, with all the negative consequences this involves for health and employment in particular, while the various regions are waiting for the progressive establishment of their own health and education infrastructures.

Second, the high birth-rate in Madagascar creates an increasing need for schools and hospitals. In the early 1960s considerable disparities between the different regions were noticed: for example, in 1964 the schooling figures were 46% for the country overall but only 35% in Majunga province.

It has therefore been the government's objective to close the gaps between the regions while facing up to the needs of a fast-growing population.

In the field of education, the European Community has been helping the government to achieve this objective since 1959. The 1st EDF financed 120 bush schools in six provinces. The Community has contributed to the construction of a good many secondary schools, in accordance with the Malagasy government's aim of closing the gap between the rate of schooling at primary and secondary level. Schools and colleges were also built or enlarged under finance from the first three EDFs at Diego-Suarez, Majunga, Tuléar, Antsirabé, Nossi-Bé, Arivonimamo and Tananarive to improve the regional balance in education.

The Community has further contributed to educational development by a special training programme and a general scholarship programme.

In the health services, the Community contribution has also gone towards the geographical balance of the hospitals. Majunga hospital was enlarged and two new hospitals were built at Manakara and Fort-Dauphin. Ampefiloha general hospital in Tananarive was built for the health requirements of the fast-growing urban population and to offer university-level medical training. Its 740 beds provide care for serious cases from all over the country.

The EDF has supported a number of initiatives aimed at raising the standard of living of the Tananarive population.

Better development conditions have been obtained for the capital by the con-

struction of a 16 km dyke to hold back floodwater from the Ikopa river and its tributaries.

A sewerage system has improved health conditions for some 22 000 inhabitants and completed the city's drainage.

The rapid population growth of Tananarive has also led the Malagasy authorities to develop city-planning projects covering 700 hectares in the west of the city. In 1965 the Community financed work over 67 hectares of this area, which has made it possible to house 12 000 people in cheap, modern accommodation. ■

The water problem in the far south

Improving living conditions in the far south of Madagascar is primarily a matter of supplying adequate drinking water. Agricultural development and stockraising, which is the area's main resource, add to the water requirements.

In 1973 rainfall was particularly sparse and the water shortage became dramatic. The European Community, under Article 20 of the Yaoundé Convention, stepped in with FMg 73.6 m of emergency aid for the drought-stricken population. This included providing ten water-tankers with pumps, in order to cover immediate requirements, and paying mobile teams (petrol, wages, expenses) for six months.

This emergency action began in April 1973, and as

from May that year the 3rd EDF granted FMg 436 m to lay 140 hydrants in the five subprefectures (districts) hit by the drought: Ampanihy, Ambovombe, Tsihombe, Beloha and Bekily. The lorries provided as emergency aid were used for this work and further special material was supplied.

It should be mentioned that much of this work was carried out under the administration of the Rural Works and Mines Office, i.e. under the direct responsibility of the Malagasy authorities, which made it possible to increase the experience of the maintenance teams and train new managers.

The 2nd EDF has further financed a general study of the problem of supplying water in the south. ■



The African cinema: its market and its future

by Lucien PAGNI



Mahama Johnson Traoré (Mali),
film director

The last issue of the "Courier" contained an opening article on the African cinema and its history. It is a recent cinema and yet an old one. The first full-length film ("Le Mandat") by an African with an all-African cast dates from 1968, yet a cinema of African inspiration, with films made by non-African directors, goes back to about 1905 and flourished in the period between the two world wars. It was at first exotic and subsequently ethnographic.

In this attempt to analyse the African cinema I tried to assess its social and economic impact. Because of the wrong approach to the problems and the dichotomy of their presentation, this impact is not strong.

The present article is an assessment of the market for the young African cinema and its future.

The characteristics of the African cinema market, as Pierre Pommier (1) very rightly observes, are the non-existence of local film production and distribution and a virtual monopoly of distribution and screening held by two foreign companies, COMACICO (Compagnie africaine cinématographique industrielle et commerciale) and SECMA (Société d'exploitation cinématographique africaine). These firms are subsidiaries of two other companies, IMPORTEX and COGECI, to which in fact the distribution monopoly

Photo Coopération, Paris

(1) Pierre Pommier: Cinema et développement en Afrique Noire francophone. (Cinema and Development in French-speaking Black Africa). Editions A. Pédone - 13, rue Soufflot, Paris (France), 1975.

belongs. They are companies which operate in Africa and sign contracts with producers on the same lines, and subject to the same general conditions of film leasing, which apply in the French market. The contracts are valid for five or more years. Comacico and Secma own half the cinemas and lease almost all the rest, and they control the distribution and screening.

Practically all the films shown in African cinemas are therefore imported. For the most part they come from France, America or Italy, and occasionally from Germany. Practically never do they include local productions. The films shown in Africa are moreover not first-line productions but old or sub-standard films, often of poor quality, no longer acceptable in the producing countries, but highly profitable in Africa. They are often trial films made by little-known and inexperienced directors whose works are financed by European or American institutes or foundations to promote young artists. They are mostly light-weight adventure films or spy stories standing very low in the artistic or cultural scale, which are not saleable in industrial countries, but find their market in Africa—junk market as it always has been—where the market has been softened by bad films and monopoly distribution and the public has not developed taste enough to ask for anything better. In practice the very existence of film production, and any social, economic or cultural impact it may have, depend first and last on the distribution and screening of the films. The African market is underdeveloped and changes scarcely at all; and the public is in perpetual lethargy. Quite recently, in one of the countries of Africa, I noticed that films billed as "exclusive" in a cinema built 25 years ago were no more than old productions which had long gone out of circulation and had now been brought off the back shelf. The cinema-going public is always much the same. There is indeed what is unfairly called "the élite public", consisting of intellectuals, businessmen and politicians. They are people whose minds are trained in European patterns and who are in fact a difficult and critical public, whose opinion could influence the development of the African cinema. They are, however, only a minority and their interest in the cinema is remote. It is unfortunate.



Arlette Din Bell

the lead in the first full-length film from Cameroon, "Muna Moto"

Thus, despite big efforts by everybody who is working so hard and so stubbornly to promote the African cinema, the position in Africa is still deplorable. What can be done about it?

Proposals were already being put forward in 1970-71 in the form of plans for a clean-up of the African film market. Among these was SODECINAF, an offshoot of the International Audiovisual Consortium, formed to consider plans for promoting the cinema in Africa; the project of the Pan-African Federation of Film Producers put forward by Ababacar Samb-Makmaram; and a further project worked out after an enquiry by UNESCO in 1971. If, at the present stage, one looks at the way the African cinema market functions, and the standing it accords to purely African films, the results seem a little inconclusive. All the same these projects are a good start towards a solution, provided the search for it does not end there but goes on to consider other possibilities.

On the distribution and screening side, the Importex-Cogeci-Comacico-Secma monopoly could be broken by progressive, but not unduly sudden, restriction

of the operation of these monopolists, coupled with encouragement to African nationals to become shareholders in distributing and screening companies. Nationalisation must be avoided because the cinema is a special case of a highly intellectual activity, in which the least degree of nationalisation would put it on the road to ruin. This was precisely what happened four or five years ago when Upper Volta nationalised film distribution and screening in its own territory.

The production side calls for vigorous action to put a stop to the massive entry of exclusively foreign films of very low quality. For this purpose steps should be taken for foreign films to be gradually, but reasonably rapidly, replaced by African productions, or others of the same type, presenting the same cultural and economic image of Africa, the social and cultural impact of which would accordingly be the greater and the more wholesome. A limited number of regional film institutes could be set up and they could be given aid (in kind, comprising all production material) by the different countries in the region concerned. The film-makers working in these institutes would be at complete liberty to make their films, for a market in which their place would now be secure, and their only obligation would be to make them. The systematic promotion on the African continent of African films, or others of the same type, would be a contribution to the education of the public which, according to Pierre Pommier "is now fully conditioned".

This same public, Pommier adds, is "a hardened consumer of specific kinds of cinema product and is apt to care little for African films on the rare occasions when it sees them". It is high time this public acquired other standards of appreciation, in better accord with the sensitivity, the culture and the wit of Africa. This, it seems to me, is the proper guideline for the future of the African cinema. Steps should be taken to secure conformity at every level of responsibility in Africa, including the abolition of censorship of national or inter-African work, or other work of the same nature. In the cinema, as in the press, censorship and restriction may curb the creative impulse. Yet in this art, as in others, it is this inventiveness which is the yardstick of progress. ■

L.P.

Portrait of an author and composer from Cameroon

FRANCIS BEBEY by Lucien PAGNI



African music and "hybrid" influences

Anybody who has listened to the OCORA programmes (the former foreign service of the French TV) knows the voice of Francis Bebey. He used to produce works for the radio and one of his big successes was his programme "Guitar improvisations". He is a self-taught musician, who developed very quickly in the exceptional artistic atmosphere of Paris, where so many cultures find their meeting-point. He was a journalist and a painter, and then took a job in UNESCO as an expert, but he "never stopped thinking about music". To put it more precisely, he never stopped "hearing the tuneful inner voice", which con-

duces up to him the family home, as it was in 1934 when he was five years old and where, from his earliest childhood, he always took part in the family music festival. "We are all of us mad about music", and he adds that his greatest pleasure was to hear each evening what his father was playing. The guitar is, in fact, Africa's principal musical instrument—though many ill-informed people think otherwise—and it was certainly the chief instrument in the Bebey family. The taste for it, and for music in general, remained predominant in young Bebey, who became a student of higher mathematics in Paris and later a Counsellor at

UNESCO. "In my heart mathematics and music were equal and opposite", he says with a smile. Music was always irresistible and Francis Bebey made up his mind to quit this UN agency and devote his life to art and literature.

It was this man—author, composer, novelist, essayist, poet—whom I met in Paris, in the flat which is also his studio, to talk about music, about his music and about his books.

We began with his music. It has two fundamental characteristics—it is African and it is "hybrid". Bebey gave me his explanation:

"My music is African, because it reflects my ego, and this ego is profoundly African, and I cannot and do not wish to do work which does not spring from my cultural foundations, my background."

This cultural bedrock is the essential basis for all Francis Bebey's artistic and literary work. But he thinks one must necessarily bear in mind at the same time that the Africans have a second culture, a culture of Europe, which was introduced into Africa and is now welded in with the culture of Africa. This crossing of the two cultures and the maintenance of this cultural alliance are now irreversible. For nearly five centuries—for some people—this has been a fundamental part of African life, and the artist cannot pass it by because, as Bebey says, "we are inevitably marked by it, and this means there are two attitudes open to us. One is to hope for a return to source, for a culture may reject another culture imposed upon it, just as a tree may reject a graft. The second is to consider the alien culture as a contribution to the other, but not setting it above the African culture itself."

This two-fold cultural personality can be very enriching when it is adopted intelligently and without complexes. Francis Bebey is sure of this, and it is an opinion which is perfectly valid. From this emerges the work of this Cameroonian artist which, he insists, is "profoundly African and hybrid". He sums it up by calling it "a marriage between Descartes and the African tradition". Like the American blacks and the Afro-Cubans, whose music retains the whole of its African origin, without side-stepping the external influences due to its changed

background and its encounters with the other cultures of North and South America. An understanding of this two-fold cultural personality provides us with a better defence of African civilisation. This is what Francis Bebey is trying to do, when he "plays Africa and sings Africa to a music of today". Because of this, Léopold Sédar Senghor, poet of the Negro culture and President of the Republic of Senegal, wrote to him as follows:

"You have succeeded in doing what I expect of a Negro African artist of today. As you have well understood, you must keep your roots in the Negro African tradition, if you would bid welcome to such foreign contributions as may be of value. So we leave mere folklore behind, producing fine work which not the less Negro African".

According to Bebey this African music, hybrid and modern at one and the same time, should be an "instrument of development" because by means of music, as of any other artistic expression, you can change people's mentalities for better or for worse, according to what you set out to do. For Africa and the Africans, Bebey believes the aim should be to preserve African culture and art as part of the cultural whole to which Africa has got to bring its contribution; and the African civilisation should not be diluted into the other cultures. Much as we may now regret the imperialistic aspect of other cultures in Africa, the preservation of Africa's own culture is not to be sought by opposition to other civilisations and conflict with them. Africa is the only continent which has the ability and good fortune to merge such different civilisations peacefully. By comparison, the Europe of the past "did not understand the value of coexistence and cultural cooperation", and this lay at the root of the "painful and regrettable" situations in eastern and southern Africa.

The work of Francis Bebey is of course greatly appreciated in Africa, but it is not only because of his music that he has given shows in 20 university towns in America, at which large audiences attended his guitar recitals and heard his evocations of life in Africa and the beauty and diversity of the African landscape. Bebey's last LP bore the title "Savannah Georgia" and the next is to be "Duala O Mulema (Douala of my Heart) as a tribute to his native town;



Francis Bebey

"Modern African art and music are an instrument of development"

but besides this, he recites the works of famous black writers, such as Aimé Césaire, Léopold Sédar Senghor, Birago Diop, Bernard Dadier and others.

Nor is Francis Bebey content with being a mere interpreter of well-known authors. He is himself a writer, as I have already said, producing novels, essays and poems, some of which he sets to music. Most of his books (such as *Le Fils de Atatha Mondio*, *La Poupée Ashanti* and the forthcoming *Le Roi Albert d'Effidi*) and his research on African music (*Musique de l'Afrique*) have been translated into English and American. His literary work has already won him the Grand Prix Littéraire de l'Afrique Noire, which was awarded in 1967 for "*Le Fils d'Agatha Mondio*" and was further evi-

dence of the literary talents of this great musician.

The musical work of Francis Bebey is avowedly hybrid, but it is nevertheless completely African. Like all African music it bears a message rooted in the pursuit of the peaceful traditions of Africa, the co-existence without conflict of people of different cultures in any country or continent. It does not represent the sacrifice or abandonment of any culture or dignity, but an intellectual combat on other lines. This can be seen in the foundations of all Bebey's work.

Francis Bebey has chosen singing and writing as his way of taking part in this combat. As another poet said, "books are bombs." ■

L.P.



Bamiléké ivory flute player, Cameroon

Eberhard STAHN. — **"Das Afrika des Vaterländer" — Der Weg in die Unabhängigkeit** (the Africa of home countries — the road to independence). — Verlag Otto Lembeck, 6 Frankfurt am Main 1, Leerbachstrasse 42, Federal Germany — 176 pp. 1975 DM 20.

It is not easy to tell the story of African politics during the last 15 years. Eberhard Stahn sets out on this wide-ranging difficult task with a good deal of experience behind him, for he worked for 10 years (1960-70) in the Deutsche Stiftung für Entwicklungsländer and now, after spending some time in Mauritania, he is Delegate of the EEC Commission in Burundi.

The decolonisation of Africa seems now to be going through its last phase with the release of Angola and Mozambique. It left behind in the former colonies a situation often hard to handle because it was ill-adapted to the African entity. The result was a vacuum. For many of the young African States, the process of decolonisation was enormously difficult not only because the newly-recruited administrations were not yet experienced enough to cope with the problems arising, but also because of "external forces" generated by the interests of the former metropolitan countries, or perhaps by other world powers. The trend towards African unity was often disturbed by internal troubles and inter-State conflicts, the causes of which are still in many cases rather obscure.

Africa was soon a magnet for interests both good and bad and was itself setting up political forces of increasing strength. It could no longer be regarded as the continent of "sunshine, exotic rhythm and folklore" (Senghor). The re-discovery of its own identity may well be the beginning of an "African cultural renaissance", but this does not mean a reversion to the pre-colonial period. Stahn warns the reader that his arguments and his judgements are open to contradiction. An author who invites criticism is certainly being honest with himself and his readers, and his work deserves to be read.

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René BUREAU and André RAFFORT. — **"Le vade-mecum de l'expatrié"** (The foreigner's guide). — Société internationale d'études et d'intervention, 237 rue Saint-Denis, 75002 Paris, 1974.

The realities of Africa are very different from the "exotic postage stamp picture which serves as background for so many French ideas about black Africa". A foreigner working there accepts this as obvious, but it is too often forgotten and the authors of this book at least make expatriates think of the content of this culture and this African civilisation. René Bureau is a professor at the University of Paris-Nanterre and he writes in cooperation with André Raffort of the S.I.E.I.

When it comes to discussing the climate and the equipment one should take, this book is not concerned with the usual recommendations to be found in so much of the guidance literature about Africa. What really matters is the behaviour and tact of the expatriate himself. He will be in an African society which is developing much faster than that of Europe, and he may well find social integration raises difficulties for him. He needs an element of basic knowledge which will make him "sensitive to the specific problem facing administrative staff in Africa".

There are some people who deliberately avoid the confrontation of different values, for fear they may find themselves wondering whether their own values are really the best. In the same way these experts and administrators from abroad cannot be mere technicians and nothing else.

Nor should they arrive in Africa with work as their only objective, for they must feel capable of passing on their technical knowledge and enabling their African colleagues to benefit from their experience. Technology is in itself universal, and thus generally transmissible,

but it does not exist necessarily and exclusively in a Western form. The expatriate is not being disloyal to his own background in recognising that there is indeed an African way of life, and that the "Africanisation" of local firms can not be limited to the mere substitution of one set of people for another. Foreign staff who go to Africa to cooperate and provide technical assistance must not shy from facing the "questions about the different cultural, social and ethical systems". If they turn their back on such matters their contact with African colleagues will be no more than technical.

In fact the expatriate—technical assistant, expert or whatever his title and description—who arrives for the first time in Africa must see himself not only as a trainer, but also as a pupil or trainee. Future emigrants for work in Africa, and even those who have been there for some time, will find in this book a wealth of information on the cultural particularities of the African continent. For the cooperator or technical assistant, his African opposite number is a man who comes from a very specific background of his own. Above all he is the host; and any visitor with any pretension to good manners is interested to know his host's background and his way of life. In this book the prospective worker in Africa will learn about this cultural background, the changes it is going through and the process towards Africanisation not only of jobs but going right through to the structure. It should help to induce him to use his own creativity for making Africa even more African.

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