



# the courier

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY — AFRICA-CARIBBEAN-PACIFIC

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ACP FISHERIES



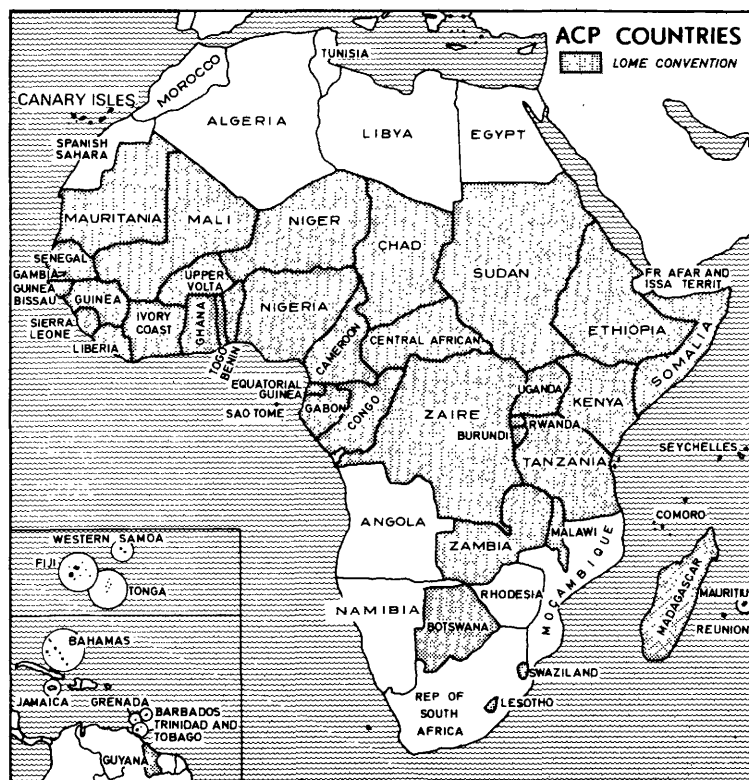
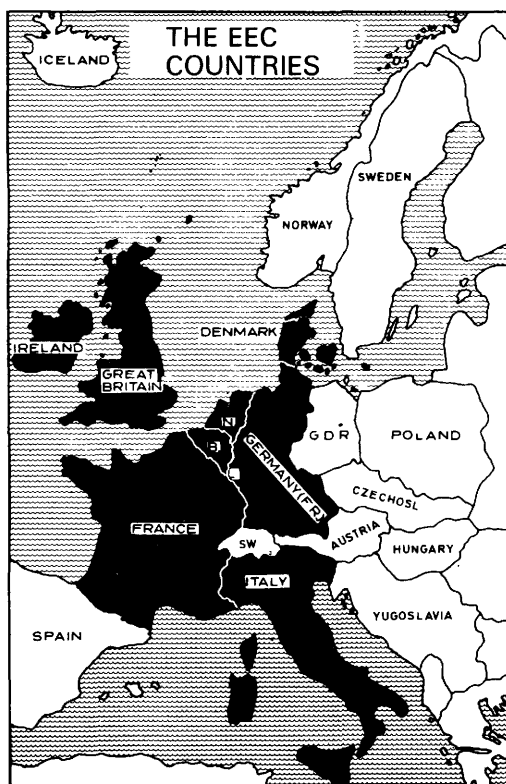
## THE ACP STATES

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REP.  
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CONGO  
EQUATORIAL GUINEA  
ETHIOPIA  
FIJI  
GABON  
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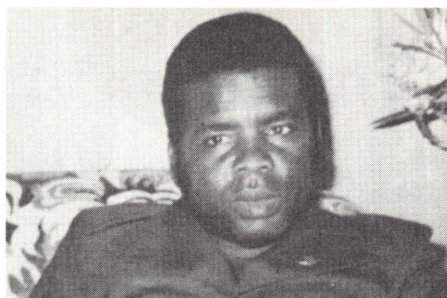
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GUINEA-BISSAU  
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JAMAICA  
KENYA  
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LIBERIA  
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SURINAM  
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TANZANIA  
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ZAIRE  
ZAMBIA



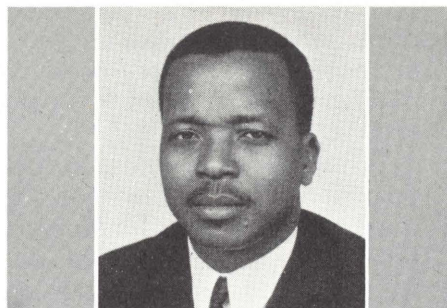


**Congo** — Since 1968 the Congo People's Republic has been undergoing a "democratic, political, social and economic transformation". This difficult task has not been understood, according to Congolese leaders, by international opinion. President Nguabi explains the Congo's political and economic system to the "Courier" and Prime Minister Ngoma assesses the current state of the economy. **Pages 6 and 13**



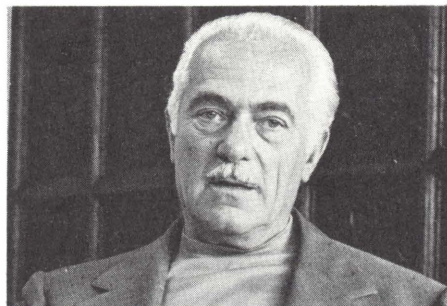
**Central African Republic** — The new "Central African Empire" was proclaimed in December 1976, with Marshal Jean-Bedel Bokassa, its Life-President, due to become Emperor. The "Courier" was in Bangui at the time and President Bokassa outlined the main economic problems facing his new empire in an exclusive interview. **Page 17**

**Cameroon** — The United Republic of the Cameroon, where the first cooperation agreement was signed with the EEC in 1963, is one of the Community's oldest but not among its best known partners. In interviews with the "Courier" Prime Minister Paul Biya discusses the Cameroon's policy of international cooperation while Youssoufa Daouda, Minister of Economics and the National Plan, describes the economic situation. **Pages 25 and 29**



**Dossier** — The recent quarrels over international fishing zones have spotlighted the importance of one of the world's big industries. In the ACP countries, the fisherman is closer to the traditional poverty of his craft. Yet fish is often a vital source of protein and fisheries offer high development potential. The dossier looks at the possibilities. **Page 46**

**Developing country topics** — The work of the Club of Rome has a world-wide reputation. With the publication of its third report, prepared by a group of economists, scientists and other specialists, the "Courier" asked Dr Peccei, co-founder of the Club of Rome to outline the activities of the Club in Third World Development. Professor Jan Tinbergen who acted as coordinator for the RIO project (Reshaping the International Order) discusses its results. **Pages 87 and 90**



# THE COURIER

## EUROPEAN COMMUNITY — AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

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NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)



# To our readers

*The New Year is traditionally the time for making personal resolutions, in countries all over the world. Resolutions of a different sort are made the year round, at the international conferences which seem to come faster and faster on each other's heels. They all express good intentions. The difference is in the word "personal". President Senghor's plea for the right to be different is ours too. May international politics not lead us to a world of uniformity, and may you, our readers, begin a new year which fulfils above all your own personal hopes, plans and dreams.*

*The "Courier" needs no new resolution to continue its coverage of cooperation between us in the European Community and you in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific. This began 15 years ago and was reaffirmed at Lomé in 1975, in a renewed attempt to work together on improving the standard of living in the ACP countries. Your letters are the best evidence of your interest in the task that has been jointly undertaken.*

*Good resolutions are only a starting point and the problems of international affairs continue from day to day. But it is more than a season's greeting to say that reason, common sense and conviction are bound to bring about a fairer world.*

*A happy New Year to all our readers.*

**The Courier**

## EDITORIAL

# The right to be different

**T**he new world economic order" is a fine phrase. It suggests that a clear idea of the future has emerged from the tangle of international politics but allows everyone to define the idea differently.

While the reality of the new order is being slowly hammered out at international conferences, it is truly encouraging to hear a reaffirmation of its principles from a head of state who is also a statesman. President Senghor inspired everyone who heard his outline of the new world economic order when he spoke recently at the Belgian Royal Academy of Overseas Sciences in Brussels.

"The new order must be revolutionary. That means it must bring about a fundamental change in our idea of the future by comprehensively altering the existing structures to rule out brutality, terror and anarchy... the future of mankind is at stake... other people must be allowed to be different. The right to be different is the right to think, act and live on one's own account. There must be a dialogue of cultures", President Senghor said.

"Other people must be allowed to be different." What a breath of fresh air after the stale atmosphere of the negotiations to make the new order a reality! It was a timely reminder that the economic order is really about people and the way they live.

Nonetheless, it's the hard bargaining that counts. The Senegalese leader said the

growth of trade "from a position of equality" is, in the long run, a more effective basis than the present unequal trade relations "for the development of both sides", since the industrial countries depend on the development of the Third World for their own economic recovery.

The Third World provides about "90% of the industrial market economy countries' supplies of non-ferrous metals, 80% of the oil and natural rubber they need, 50% of their raw cotton, vegetable oils and sugar...", President Senghor pointed out. Of course both sides need each other. But it needs repeating.

**T**he Lomé Convention is a step in the right direction, President Senghor said, but the reduction in real terms of international aid and the rapidly worsening terms of trade are endangering development programmes in the Third World. Progress is not being made towards social justice. Our assumptions about the present economic order must be revised. "A real organization of the markets", a "new industrial geography" and a "real code of conduct for the activities of multinational firms" are needed, he said.

It was a sharp lesson, simply and elegantly expressed, for those who still cling to a short-sighted view of the new world economic order. President Senghor's clarity and vigour of thought have been distilled from long experience.



## Italy will increase its official aid to developing countries

### Italian Under-Secretary of State Luciano Radi describes his country's development aid policy

► *What lessons does the Italian government feel can be drawn from the last UNCTAD meeting in Nairobi?*

— May I say first of all that UNCTAD IV marked a significant stage in the relations between industrialized and developing countries; it pinpointed the need to move from a system of what could almost be called charitable relations — that is to say, based on the pure and simple transfer of various kinds of aid — to a system in which the cooperation aspect takes priority.

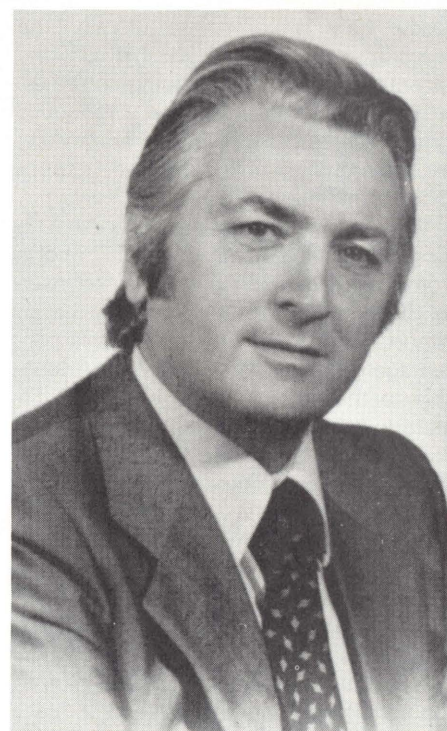
As a matter of fact we have all seen, especially since the oil crisis, to what extent the various economic systems are interdependent. At the same time we have become even more aware of the threat to world peace which the continued existence of large areas of underdevelopment represents.

Now, the existing imbalances cannot

be overcome unless a genuine spirit of cooperation emerges between the advanced-economy countries and the less-favoured countries; countries marked by different levels of development but linked by close ties of interdependence and united in the search for a better world balance.

That is why we welcome the Third World's thesis that a new international economic order is needed, based on the recognition, on the one hand, of the contribution which the developing countries make to the expansion of the world economy by their raw materials production, on the other hand, of the benefits brought by providing the right technology and technical and financial assistance and other forms of cooperation, such cooperation will enable the Third World countries to diversify their economic structures on the basis of autonomous development models, by which I mean models in line with their own structure and social and cultural traditions — with a view to achieving the most rational form of international division of labour and of production.

In Nairobi Italy supported the Group of 77's call for the creation of new international instruments to stabilize raw material prices and to enable backward societies to start on a process of development. Italy intends to continue, together with the other member states of



Luciano Radi

the European Community and its other western partners, to seek the appropriate solutions.

► *Within the EEC, Italy has helped formulate a trade policy which enables the developing countries to increase their export earnings. What is the present share of the developing countries in Italy's foreign trade?*

— One of the objectives to which the European Community attached special importance when formulating its cooperation policy *vis-à-vis* the ACP countries was the stability of the developing countries' export earnings. For example in the Lomé Convention, a financial system was introduced — a unique and, I would add, revolutionary step in relations between industrialized and developing countries — to stabilize export earnings from commodities.

The figures for Italy's foreign trade with the developing countries will also be interpreted as part of this major objective of forging lasting and stable links of economic interdependence within a wide cooperation policy.

I do not wish to quote a meaningless list of figures but will confine myself to

(\*) Mr Radi, 54, has been in the Italian government several times and is currently responsible for development cooperation as Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs under the third Andreotti government.

A native of Foligno (Perugia), he has been Deputy for the Perugia district since 1958. An economist and statistician, author of "The crisis of rigid centralized planning" and assistant university lecturer, he came up through the Catholic Action organisation and is a member of the national council of the Christian Democrats. In the party's central office he is responsible for depressed areas.



a few comments which seem to me to be indicative of the trend of Italy's trade policy. Italy is careful to identify the needs and to fulfil, as far as it can, the expectations of the developing countries, in particular those whose productive structures are not diversified and which are, therefore, vulnerable to abrupt changes in international price levels.

May I point out, in particular, that in recent years the volume of our imports from the developing countries has risen to 30% of the total volume of Italian imports. It is true that recently this percentage suffered a slight drop, attributable to the difficult world economic climate; but it must be added at once that this drop mainly related to imports from the oil-producing countries as a result of our attempts to save energy.

The volume of imports from structurally weaker countries is increasing slightly, in particular as regards imports from the 45 countries classified by the United Nations as the most seriously affected.

This upward trend in our trade with the developing countries will consolidate itself and become more marked, for three reasons. Above all, the recovery of productive activity in an economy like ours, which is essentially a processing economy, will lead to an increase in imports of raw materials and semi-manufactures.

Secondly, in broader terms, our industrial reconversion programmes will also lead to more specialized production and exports, and consequently leave more room for the developing countries to concentrate on production based on the processing of raw materials.

Lastly, there is the stabilization system provided for in the Lomé Convention for exports of commodities. There is no doubt that this system will encourage the production of commodities and help correct the structural imbalances which are inconsistent with the new international economic order of which the developing countries are an essential component.

► *To what extent do Italian firms participate in European Development Fund contracts and to what extent are they interested in the Lomé Convention?*

— The participation of Italian firms in European Development Fund projects which were carried out between the en-

try into force of the First Yaoundé Convention and that of the Lomé Convention has certainly been considerable in terms of both quantity and quality. In fact, we have produced more than 10% of supplies under contract, while 16.78% of technical cooperation contracts have been awarded to Italian firms.

I also believe that Italian firms and Italian labour will have their due share in the fourth EDF which began operating recently. This is not just an assumption, but a sure fact based on experience and past results.

As regards supplies, we have been doing well in various sectors, including that of motor vehicles, tractors and agricultural machinery in general, generators and electronic apparatus, earth-moving machinery and heavy machinery, scientific and medical equipment for hospitals and school equipment. Furthermore, in the chemical sector, we have supplied fertilizers for agriculture and other pesticides and products to combat diseases.

As regards works contracts, Italian firms have obtained contracts for the construction of ports, bridges, roads and other infrastructure involving a total

amount of tens of millions of units of account.

In particular we have been responsible for the design and construction of part of the communications network of the ACP countries, the construction of schools and the marketing of commodities, the latter being a sector of vital importance to those countries whose production is not very diversified. The experience and interest of our firms in agriculture have enabled vast uncultivated areas to be farmed and made profitable.

Nor must one forget the work done by our experts in the area of technical cooperation and their planning and research work in various countries, such as Somalia, the Central African Republic, Ivory Coast, Senegal, Zaire, Cameroon, Upper Volta, Madagascar, Mali, Benin and Chad.

Having said this, it is well-known that the fourth European Development Fund will be particularly eager to solve problems in the various agricultural sectors. In this context I believe that our firms will participate in the relevant invitations to tender for the execution of the projects and programmes financed by the Fund with interest and in a competitive



*Luciano Radi (centre) at a meeting of EEC development cooperation ministers*



spirit and that they will succeed in demonstrating their high qualifications in many sectors.

► *Law No 1222 was regarded as a law that was 'competitive in terms of quality' and better than that in force in the other countries. However, that does not preclude improvements of both quality and quantity. Can you assess this law after five years of operation?*

— In the past weeks the Italian parliament has discussed a draft law providing for the updating of Law No 1222.

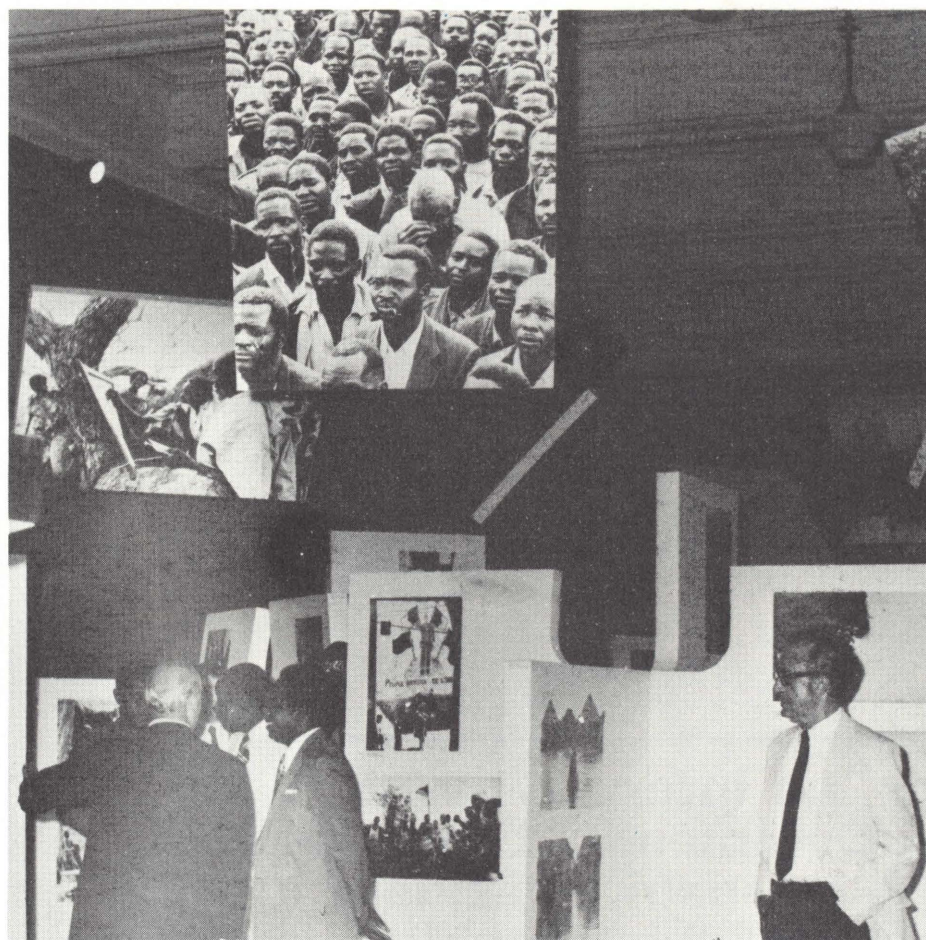
The Government proposes to update the cooperation instruments in a new financing programme which should in a space of four years bring an increase in the volume of official aid and improve its quality too. This is the result of the positive experience gained in the programme already carried out under Law No 1222.

The Lit 62 000 million spent on technical cooperation between 1972 and 1976 has no doubt contributed to fulfilling, in part at least, the expectations of the countries concerned which now have prospects of gradually overcoming the structural differences separating the industrialized countries from the Third World.

► *What are the amounts provided for under the new Five-Year Technical Cooperation Plan (1976-1980) and what are the main guidelines for the implementation of that Plan?*

— I think there is one essential premise here. Italy is well aware of the importance of technical cooperation. In the context of an effective development aid policy, this cooperation has what I would not hesitate to call a strategic value in that, if correctly focussed and formulated, it attacks the root causes of underdevelopment, making it possible both to speed up pilot projects in infrastructure and to train staff.

On this basis the Italian Government has decided to propose allocating an amount of Lit 120 000 million for the new Five-Year Plan, which ends in 1980 so that the national objectives coincide



*The "zoom on Africa" photographic exhibition organised by the Istituto Italo-Africano in 1976*

with the objectives of the United Nations Second Development Decade.

Certainly this is no small amount, especially if it is compared to the Lit 62 000 million expenditure under the 1972-1976 Five-Year Plan and if one takes account of the difficulties of economic recovery which our country is now facing.

I would like to point out that this increase in funds can be attributed only in part to the general rise in costs and prices; rather it is a specific point of policy aimed at improving our technical cooperation contribution *vis-à-vis* the developing countries.

As for planning guidelines, this new Plan must emerge above all as an instrument better adapted than previous ones to ensure that transfer of capacity, techniques and experience which constitutes the essence of this form of cooperation.

This assumes that the weaknesses and deficiencies encountered in the

course of past experience must be overcome; but above all it means that the concept of 'charity' must be overcome and that the necessary efforts must be made to generate effective cooperation which takes account of the well-known differences in the situations of the countries in question.

A final consideration must be mentioned in this context. Italy has recently passed through stages of development similar to those now occurring in so many parts of the world. Our contribution, therefore, to the solution of development problems is based on direct and recently undergone experience — which is a fact of some importance. The new four-year Italian programme will draw on this experience and impart it to the countries with which we have or will have close technical cooperation links. □

Interview by  
ROGER DE BACKER



## **THE CONGO**

### **The political and economic system**

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#### **an interview with Commandant Marien Ngouabi, President of the Republic**

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Congolese presidential photographic service



**Marien Ngouabi**

Brazzaville. — The early years of independence from 1960 to 1968 were difficult ones politically for the Congo, as for other states that became independent in the 60s. National policy changed in 1968. The People's Republic was set up to hand power over to the people and it was decided to base economic development on socialist principles. Nine years later, the Congo has a new appearance. The political climate is relaxed and there is a good deal of freedom of expression and opinion.

However, there is one cloud on an otherwise clear horizon—economic progress has had considerable setbacks, in spite of the valuable Congo oil wells (see interview with the Prime Minister on page 13). There are three kinds of reasons for this. First those related to an inherited economy largely dominated by the tertiary import sector. Second, the problems of restructuring and creating a fundamentally national economy, controlling key sectors

and shaping an emergent industry. And thirdly, the serious lack of management staff, problems of communication and weak agriculture—in short, the difficulties of any developing country.

The Brazzaville government is well aware of the state of the economy and took radical measures on 12 December 1975 to rectify the situation.

President Ngouabi told the "Courier" about the Congo's current economic policy and development problems and said how much the country appreciated the cooperation between the People's Republic and the European Community.

An interview with Commandant Louis-Sylvain Ngoma, the Prime Minister (responsible for planning) deals with the statistical assessment of the economic situation (page 13).



## The political options and their economic and international implications

► *Mr President, information is not always readily available on what is really happening in the Congo today. What policies has your country opted for and what the implications are as far as the economy is concerned?*

— First of all, I should like to thank you very warmly. There are, of course, a number of well-intentioned people who know nothing about the Congo and its possibilities. Just as there are a number of ill-intentioned people. It isn't the first time that journalists have come to the top level for information about the fundamental options of our people, but it is the first time that anyone from the Common Market has expressed the desire to know more about what is really happening in our country and I shall explain as concisely as I can what our basic principles are.

The Congo, along with all the other newly independent ex-colonies of Africa, is of course a developing country. We have chosen to run our development along non-capitalist lines. This means that the economic aims of our people are to seek a type of development that is not based on the traditional laws of capitalism. We feel that a developing country like ours, which, although it has neo-capitalist structures, is practically devoid of large capitalist enterprises, should be able to bypass capitalism and work towards socialism. It is no easy matter, but we feel we should try to tread what appears to be the path to the future, which means that we want the main sectors, the keys to the economy in the development process, to be in the hands of the state.

This will mean that the fruits of economic progress will be more fairly distributed. Everyone will benefit and minorities will no longer be able to profit from the whole country's contribution to national development. We want to set up

democratic processes of change in the state by introducing thoroughly national economic structures into the key sectors. These are the economic consequences of the political commitment to socialism that we have freely entered into.

In international politics, it is worth remembering that our country defends just causes. We defend all true freedom and independence movements in those countries of Africa still under colonial or racist domination. The most recent example is Angola. Our country, with its modest means, is behind Angola's struggle for freedom and genuine independence. These are the implications of our political options. They are not without negative aspects and there are, of course, implications for our economic and international political life.

First, we don't have the capital to see this policy through. I said at the beginning that, like other countries that have opted for socialism we have no industrial structures and no major capitalist industrial realizations and thus we have no or almost no proletariat either. This means that, as well as fighting for economic independence with a view to socialism, we have to create and develop our own basic industries. These are vital if we are going to build a socialist society, because our country is essentially an agricultural one. There are enormous economic and social problems, unemployment and so on, and we have to cope with the usual problems of developing countries as well. We have opted for socialism but, like other African countries, we haven't got the possibilities, the major economic assets that certain European countries already had when they went over to socialism. Socialism was easier for them and will go on being easier to achieve in Europe. But our case is different. The conditions are different. We don't have any big farmers, for example, or any big land-owners. We have nothing like that. We have to start from scratch—and its by no means easy—although, of course, we have chosen socialism and the choice is a fundamental one. We believe in it, even if we are aware of the enormous obstacles to be surmounted and the difficulties to overcome.

## Selective nationalization

► *You have gone in for nationalization, but haven't you been fairly selective about it? Not every sector of the economy is nationalized...*

— The government's programme is quite clear about this. We shall get on to the question of private enterprise in the Congo later. Our programme specifies that the state-owned sector should be the main sector—that is to say that the state should gradually monopolize all the key sectors. But we do allow for a mixed sector where the state combines with private enterprise to set up and manage firms. And we also have room for completely private firms in the Congo, although we do think that in an independent state—as any really free state must be—certain key sectors of the economy that have a major bearing on the life of the people in society, should be run by the state. But it is clear that we do have room for private enterprise in our country.

## Bad economic management: causes and corrective measures

► *You have had problems with running your state firms and you yourself have criticized mis-managed firms which employ vast numbers of staff and most of which are in catastrophic financial and economic straits. Radical measures were taken in December 1975 aimed at righting the situation. How far were they successful and what did the Congolese people as a whole think about them?*

— First of all, I must congratulate you on your understanding of what we mean by radical measures—particularly when there are people within the Congo even who persist in caricaturing and distorting the basic message. There are people who think radicalization is switching people from one job to another. But it isn't. As you said, the essential point about the radical measures we decided on 12 December 1975 is the way the economic sector is run. Of course, we

need men to do it—men and power, that is clear. We started from a simple observation based on a courageous analysis of the real economic situation in the state-owned sector that we ourselves had created. And we faced the fact that we hadn't done that good a job. I wouldn't go so far as to say things were catastrophic. The firms originally set up to provide the state with capital that could be used in other sectors, and to meet the needs and fulfill the hopes of the people, had pretty poor results. Why? The Declaration of 12 December 1975 explains why. Of course there was the problem of over-staffing—every firm had more labour than it needed. This was wasteful. It meant that output per capita was far too low compared to costs per capita. And, as I said at the beginning, we also had all the social problems of going over to socialism. Politics can be affected by economic and social issues and some of the economic structures we set up and some of the firms we opened were slow in having the encouraging effect we had hoped for. The increase in staff wasn't compatible with proper management, whether socialist or capitalist. The workers—and this is most important—were undisciplined. There was a high rate of absenteeism and they had no pride in their work. All these things bring down the production capacity of any firm.

But really it was the lack of management staff and organizers and planners that was the main problem. Cadres have always been one of Africa's biggest problems, and the situation is particularly difficult in places like the Congo where industry is just beginning.

Now, how did the people react to these measures? Are the workers showing a bit more pride in their work? It's difficult to weigh up the results of such important measures after only a year, but the workers are showing more interest. They have realized that exaggerated, anarchic demands for higher wages both stifle and upset proper management. They understand our motives when we looked at the possibility of a collective agreement whereby wages and other benefits—like family allowances—would be tied to output. Workers often used to ask for higher wages when firms were

Congolese presidential photographic service



*Marien Nguabi during an interview with the "Courier"*

**"The workers are showing more interest"**

doing badly, but I think we have made some progress here.

The workers have realized that we can only count on ourselves and that there are some advantages we have to do without at the beginning if we want to improve our economic situation.

### **Private investments in the Congo**

► *European industrialists feel that the lack of precision and definition in economic policies and priorities is one of the reasons for not investing in Africa. This is true of all African and ACP states in general—particularly the socialist countries like the Congo. What is the Congo's policy as regards private enterprise? That is to say, how do you view national or foreign private interests and what part do you feel they should be playing*

*in Congo's economic development? Do you intend getting private enterprise to help you develop your country?*

— I should like to start by giving my own point of view on European investors. Socialist countries like the Congo obviously have great economic and sometimes social problems. But if certain countries which have chosen to follow other roads to development find it easier to cope with problems of programming and their development aims, it is usually because they already had established private sectors with enough properly trained managers and organizers. Private enterprise in non-socialist countries of this kind is doing well because management and all it involves, particularly planning, is much less of a problem when you already have trained minds—even if there aren't enough of them. This is true. The Congo is banking on its own efforts and has to sort out the problem of cadres before it can do anything else. We have very few high-grade technical staff, particularly in planning, and this makes for big development problems. So, in comparison, it is obvious that capitalist firms have certain advantages because of their managers and planners. This is most important. And, of course, they are paid enough for the job, which is not the case in our country, although we have to try and attract cadres from abroad. But is this a good enough reason for suggesting that private enterprise is the best way of developing our country? That is quite another issue, and one which you didn't mention. My answer to your question is that the Congo does have room for private enterprise. We do have capitalist firms—although they often prefer not to cooperate in achieving the aims of our national development policy. Take our request for these firms to gradually Africanize their management staff. Although the country has qualified people, some of the capitalist firms persist in recruiting even lower-grade cadres abroad. So we think that private enterprise in the Congo should at least agree to what is a fair process, if only to preserve the interests of both the host country and the private sector. A firm that is concerned with profit and nothing





*President Ngouabi and Mme Francine Henrich, the European Commission's delegate in Brazzaville inaugurating the repair work on the Congo-Ocean railway*

but profit cannot contribute to our development. So, ultimately, we want the private firms in our country now and any more that may come in the future to develop along the general lines of the country's policy.

### **We want confidence and respect in our cooperation with the EEC**

► *The Congolese leaders are anxious for autonomous development, but they don't seem to mind international cooperation. The one does not necessarily rule out the other. How do you feel about EEC-Congo relations under the Lomé Convention?*

— I don't think I should try and sum up cooperation with such an important organization in an answer to that question.

But I do think the Community contribution has had a real effect on the development of our country. Take just one example—we have just officially started the realignment of the Congo Ocean railway, the CFCO. This is an extremely important project for us, as we have so many transport problems. But the railway isn't the only thing. We also have waterways, rivers, the port of Brazzaville and so on, although our greatest efforts have been in the ATC (Agence Transcongolaise de communications—Trans-Congo Communications Agency). However, it should be made clear that we think that cooperation between the EEC and the Congo is a positive departure and one which is beneficial for our people and for Europeans. In 1968/69, I publicly condemned cooperation with the EEC, because at one stage we were, I suppose, sulking about it. We had the

impression that nobody understood what we were trying to do or what was going on in the Congo. And perhaps there was a certain amount of apprehension about the economic situation, probably due to the obvious economic problems we were having at the time, problems with the targets and the priorities of our economy that we mentioned just now. The EEC was not very understanding about all this and cooperation with the Congo more or less stagnated.

But the Lomé Convention, when you compare it to what we had before, is an enormous step forward—although we don't actually think it is progressist. It is a positive development and an attempt at mutual understanding on the part of the associated states and the EEC countries. I think the Congo is right to say that a great deal has been accomplished—and a great deal remains to be done—on both sides. But we have no grounds, as things stand, for criticizing this cooperation as we did in the past. Cooperation has had a very real effect on our economy and the people of the Congo are very much aware of it.

► *You say you thought the Community did not really understand your options in 1968. Would you have wanted the Community to make a greater effort to understand by having more confidence in you?*

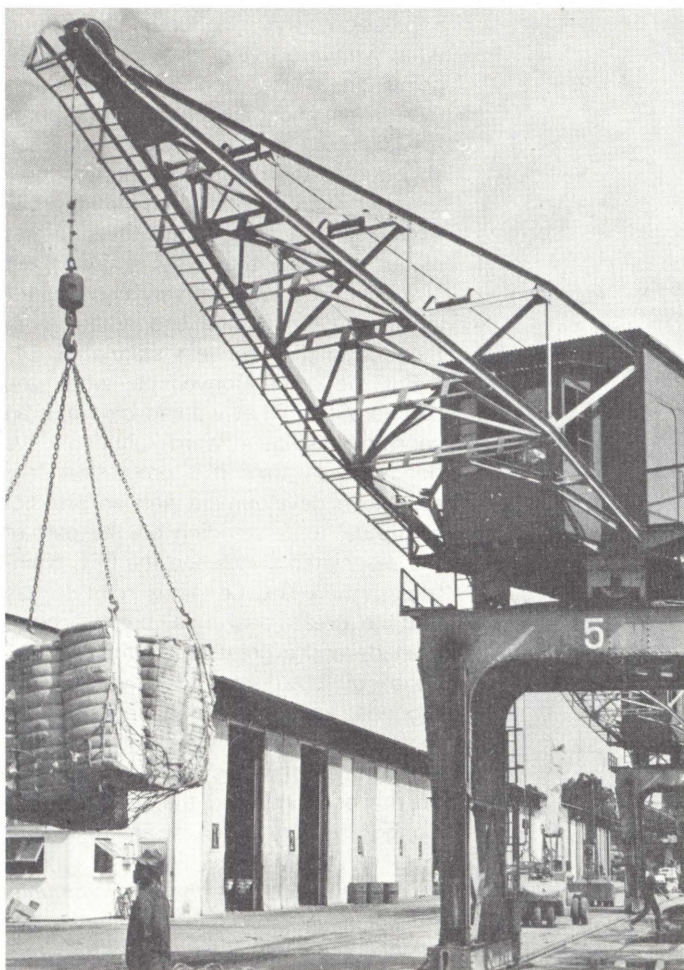
— Exactly. Because there have been times as I have said in public, when our projects have been more or less systematically put off until the following EDF, the third or the fourth for example. All this has changed and now when we present a project properly, it is examined properly and they don't give an impression of reticence because we are a socialist country.

### **Regional cooperation in UDEAC**

► *What about regional cooperation? How do things stand in UDEAC (Central African Economic and Customs Union) at the moment?*

— Things are going well, very well, and the organization seems to me to be a





*Exporting timber, one of the Congo's main resources*

good thing. It provides some sort of complementarity at regional level in our attempt to make the most of our various resources. We think UDEAC is in line with the aims of regional cooperation, which is certainly necessary, and its overall results in this respect are positive. There are one or two problems, but that is normal. A short while ago, we tried to bring an important neighbour—Chad, a landlocked country—into the organization. But technical problems have so far prevented us from integrating this new member. Other newly-independent countries of Central Africa may well come into UDEAC, but we feel that we should be thinking about possible new structures which will meet the desires of our people. UDEAC is certainly off to a good start and we hope to be able to benefit from EDF financing for regional cooperation to help us carry out certain of our joint projects.

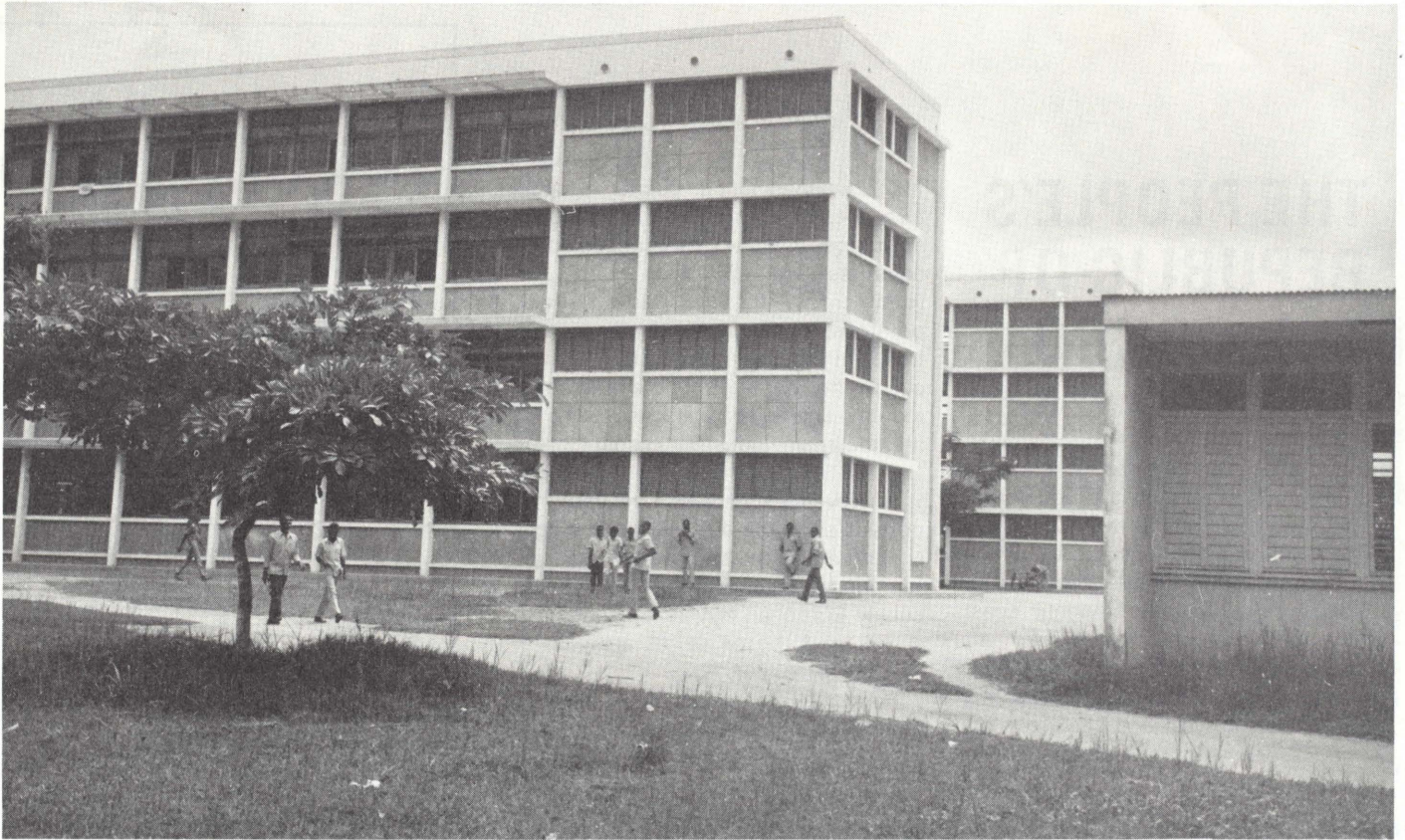
### **An appeal to the EEC**

► *To sum up, then, Europe wants to provide the Congo with effective help with its development. But how do you personally see cooperation between the Congo and the EEC? Do you think the present cooperation with the Community and the EDF is satisfactory? How and where could it be improved?*

— I've already partly answered your question. There is a proverb which says that it's better to teach someone to fish than to give him some fish. Cooperation with the EDF and the Common Market is important to us. We need help. We need aid from Europe to develop our economy. The aid may be in the form of technicians, or it may be in the form of

long-term loans, with or without interest. Any country at whatever stage of development and of whatever political colour may need financial or other kinds of aid at some time or another. So, it would be wrong to say that because we are socialists we will be self-sufficient. I have always said that, regardless of our aim of achieving thoroughly comprehensive independence, we should cooperate with the European Community, as well as with other capitalist and socialist societies. Consequently, if our partners, whoever they may be, respect our independence, sovereignty and the choices we have made, we really don't see why we should refuse to cooperate with them. And as far as the Congo is concerned cooperation with the EEC and the EDF is a good thing, although we should make sure it stays that way. We must learn how to submit projects properly; this is in our own interest, since





*The "High-School of the Revolution" in Brazzaville: education is one of the main concerns of the government*

the Convention provides us with the opportunity to decide for ourselves what development projects we want, knowing that external aid is only a supplement.

Even so, we do not feel that financial cooperation is the most important thing. We would like the European Community to go on providing loans and financing and to make a greater contribution to forming the cadres we need for our development in both public and private sectors. I think this is one of the less obvious forms of cooperation, but one which is vital for us in the long run. Training cadres is the kingpin of development. We have enormous problems in this sector and help with training doctors, timber and oil engineers and technicians, for example, is a form of cooperation which is very much appreciated. I ask the European Community for help in this, and I hope the Community will lend an attentive ear. □

Interview by  
LUCIEN PAGNI



EDF

*Mother and child centre: health clinics like this have been established across the country*



# THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

The People's Republic of the Congo is on the Equator, on the right bank of the river Congo and the Oubangui that runs into it, forming a regular 300 km-wide band in the east. It has 170 km of Atlantic coastline. Cabinda separates it from the mouth of the Zaire, which forms the eastern frontier. It has frontiers with Gabon to the west and Cameroon and the Central African Republic to the north.

The country covers 342 000 km<sup>2</sup>, of which 65 % is forest and 35 % savannah. Natural features include the Mayombé chain in the south-west with the coast on one side and the Niari valley on the other and beyond this the plateaux, a continuation of Gabon's mountains. The Congo basin covers most of the north of the country.

There are two main river basins, the Congo-Oubangui and the Kouilou-Niari. The climate is tropical, hot and humid, and rainfall varies from 1300 mm p.a. in the south to 1700 mm in the north.

Estimated population in 1974 was 1 300 000. The people are unevenly spread over the territory, the north being underpopulated and 38 % living in the major towns (Brazzaville, the capital, with some 300 000; Pointe Noire; Nkayi - ex-Jacob; and Lou-bom - ex-Dolisie).

The IBRD estimated GNP at market prices at US \$ 340 million in

1972, i.e. \$ 300 per capita. Agriculture does not dominate the economy as it does in most other developing countries. The climate is good, and food crops—manioc, yams, sweet potatoes, bananas and citrus fruits—are grown. Groundnuts and cocoa are marketed in the traditional manner and sugar cane and palm oil are the main industrial crops.

However, exports of two very important products are in danger. Sugar is threatened by the national and international economic situation (particularly European buyers of Congolese sugar), and the oil palms are old.

Forestry production (mainly okoumé and limba) is one of the main economic activities; animal husbandry and fisheries are under-developed. Mining is important, mainly because of the Holle potash mine.

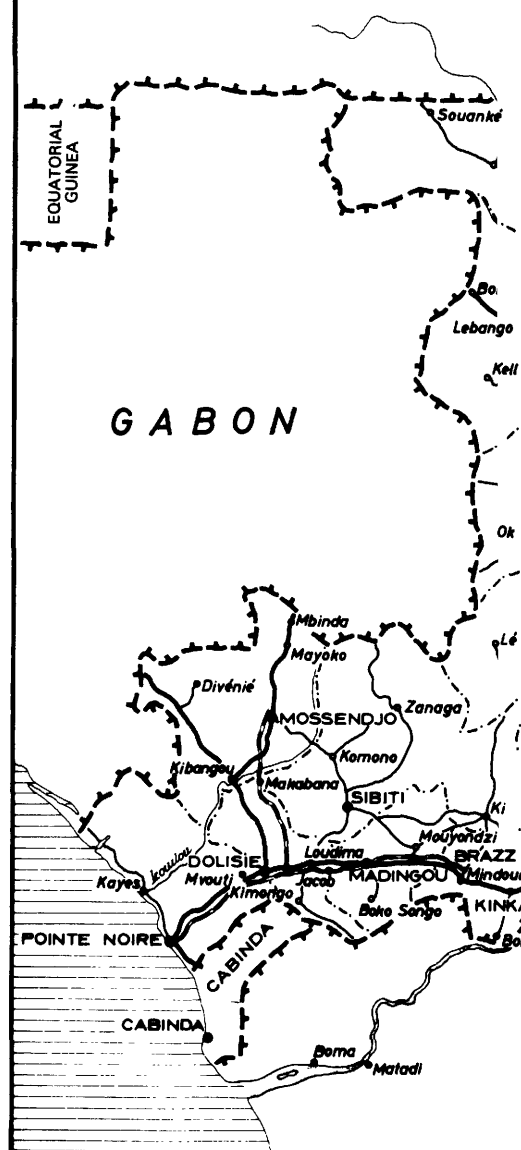
Industry is relatively important and mainly geared to processing local raw materials—sugar and timber—for export. There is considerable hydro-electric potential. It is also worth noting that a million-tonne oil refinery has been built at Pointe Noire and that off-shore oilfields are also being exploited.

The tertiary sector—sea-port, railways and waterways—is highly developed, largely because, due to its geographical position, the Congo is on many countries' routes to the sea.

Increased oil production made oil the most important export in 1974, replacing timber, which, along with potassium, is the other export mainstay, agricultural exports being negligible. Oil exports meant that there was a positive balance (CFAF) in 1974 for the first time. But this sector too is in decline (see page 14), although there are good hopes of recovery.

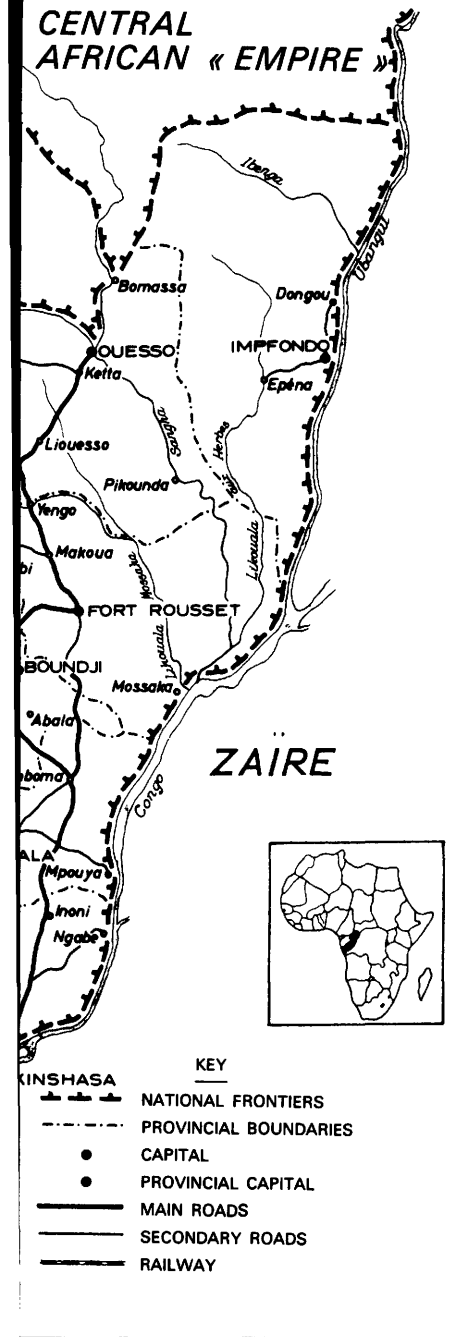
## CONGO PEOP

CAMEROON





## S REPUBLIC

CENTRAL  
AFRICAN « EMPIRE »

## First we must reorganize and improve the economy

**Louis-Sylvain Ngoma,  
Prime Minister of  
the Congo**

President Nguabi outlined the Congo's economic policy in the light of the country's political options. The Prime Minister, who is also responsible for planning, discusses how the economy stands at the moment, especially as the Congo's performance in the oil, industrial, agricultural and forestry sectors has declined since 1975.

Soaring oil production in 1974 was a great boost to the Congo's economy, but a drop in 1975 meant that the effects of the world crisis, already apparent in the forestry sector, became acute. Faced with this difficult situation, the Central Committee of the Congolese Labour Party assigned a number of specific tasks, aimed at righting the economic and financial position, to the new government that took office on 18 December 1975.

Before taking any general measures that would affect the economy as a whole or embarking on such moves as drawing up the next development plan, the government decided to reorganize the sector under its immediate control. A concerted effort was therefore made to economize on national finance by improving the tax yield and cutting expenditure down to the strict minimum. The resulting savings would go to finance state aid for the economy or for development.

The aim in the public sector was to make profitable those firms that normally ran at a loss. There was a government attack on the endemic diseases afflicting production — over-staffing, antiquated plant, debts and so on. Results so far suggest that this sector will ultimately

be able to help get the country's economy off the ground.

The national authorities were unanimous in agreeing that agriculture was the top priority and it was the government's job to put this theory into practice. It concentrated on forestry, which is an expanding sector and one which is likely to encourage other activities in rural areas. Forests are the principal source of foreign currency and the only source, for the moment, of paid employment in the rural sector. It is worth noting that expansion here depends on the opening of new roads and upkeep of the existing network — extremely important in a country where the transport problem is so very acute. Current policy reflects the changing economic structure of the forestry sector. The accent is no longer on exporting rough timber, but on processing it on the spot by setting up saw mills etc. These activities can raise the value of forestry and bring an improvement in the standard of living in the rural areas.

The government has lost no time in ensuring that the plan is properly implemented and studies are already being carried out to decide how to finance the sector.

In the long term, this should lead to changes in the three year plan currently



being drawn up and to the preparation of the subsequent plan.

## Why the drop in oil production?

*Oil production plummeted from an anticipated 2 400 000 t to 1 800 000 t in 1975, and 1976 is likely to be little better. The Prime Minister explained why this had happened and what the implications were for the 1975/77 three-year plan.*

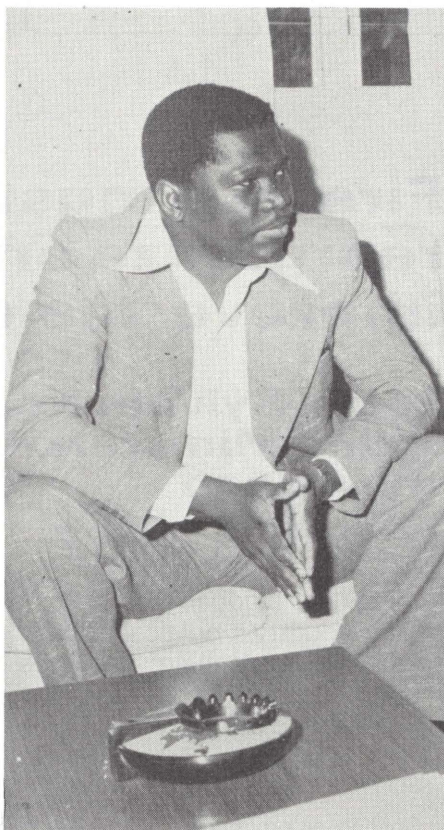
Two foreign companies have been operating in the Congo since 1968. They are AGIP-Recherches Congo, a subsidiary of the Italian ENI, and ELF-Congo, a subsidiary of the French Erap. The State holds 20% of capital in each company, but is neither responsible for nor able to control production. The companies suggest that the drop in production since 1975 is due to problems of exploiting the Emerald field and to an accumulation of delays in developing the Loango field. Although the government does not control oil production, it is certainly very much affected by the drop. The three year plan forecast overall production in the period 1975/77 of 14 250 000 t, of which 12 100 000 t was for export. This took into account the national oil refinery due to become operational during that period. But actual production amounted to less than half the anticipated figure — a clear illustration of the problems involved in implementing the three year plan, which depended almost entirely on oil for its financing. The following results speak for themselves:

— CFAF 15 000 million in 1975 as against the 27 297 million forecast, i.e. 55 %.

— 3 000 million forecast for 1976 as against the anticipated 23 000 million.

## 4th EDF indicative programme and industrial cooperation

*An indicative programme for priority developments under the Lomé Convention was adopted last October. Mr Ngoma explained how the priority projects were decided and summarised the aims of industrial cooperation with the EEC in general and the EIB in particular.*



Louis-Sylvain Ngoma

***"Although the government does not control oil production, it is certainly very much affected by the drop"***

He stressed that the Congo is not a rich country. It has enormous potential, but is not yet wealthy. "You don't grow rich on 1 800 000 t of oil." Like all other developing countries, the Congo has been hit by world inflation, particularly as far as imported equipment and manufactures are concerned. For the present the country has to exploit its vast potential to make its wealth as substantial as it is mistakenly thought to be. This is why, Mr Ngoma said, the Congo resented the reduced amount allotted to it from the 4th EDF. It had expected at least CFA 8 000 million (29 000 million u.a.) to be carried over from the 3rd EDF. Compared to certain more developed countries, he had the impression that the country was being "penalized".

As regards the indicative programme proper, all the projects assessed by the EDF have been decided on (national transport system, port of Brazzaville, Brazzaville sewage network etc). The choice of

new projects respects the priority given to agriculture. All the aid from the 4th EDF (new projects) has therefore gone to palm projects or improvements in collective facilities in rural areas (Nkayi and Impfondo water supplies, the Nkayi hospital etc).

The government is already running comprehensive schemes to improve production in the state-owned sector. And it is precisely here that it needs external aid with financing and know-how to make up for inadequate local resources. Can industrial cooperation as specified in the Lomé Convention meet these needs?

The Congo would like the EDF to select projects according to objective criteria so that schemes are chosen in the interests of the country and not in the interests of the people putting up the funds. Lomé goes some way towards this in Mr Ngoma's view, but the Congo hopes, he added, that the transfer of technology will turn out to be more than the pious hope it was under the Yaoundé Conventions. The Congo intends to learn from its experience of industrialization and hopes to benefit from Community aid while keeping its choice of both technology and partners.

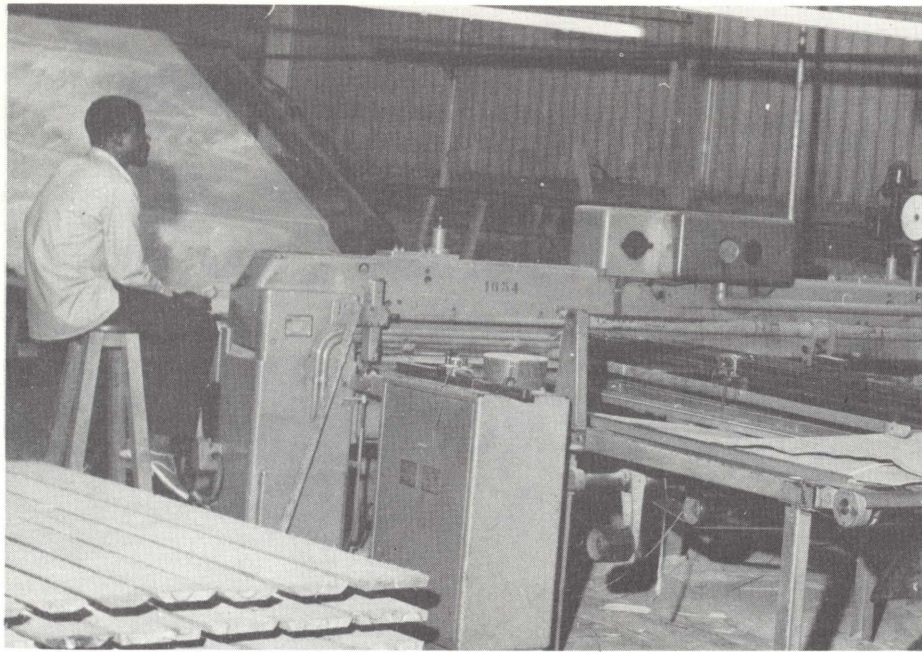
In the past, the EIB has helped finance a number of industrial and mining projects in the country. Although this aid is restricted to certain sectors, the Congo intends making optimum use of EIB possibilities to finance priority projects in the hotel trade, mining, energy and forestry.

## Socialism does not rule out private enterprise

*The Congo needs all kinds of external aid with its development, but many European industries think that the lack of any real guarantee is a barrier to investments in Africa and they feel that there must be reciprocal advantages if industrial cooperation is to work properly. The Prime Minister outlined the situation in the Congo as he sees it.*

The Congo belongs to UDEAC, a regional economic organization which combines states of varying political colours. It therefore has to respect certain commitments like the investment code





*Veneer factory at Pointe-Noire, the main port and industrial centre in the Congo*

*Improved sanitation was carried out in Brazzaville with EDF finance*



which its four countries share and which defines the obligations of both investor and host country and sets out the framework in which the relevant firms have to operate.

In spite of this Mr Ngoma believes there are ill-intentioned people who create scares about nationalization, as if the Congo's brand of socialism precluded any form of private enterprise. There are no hard and fast rules on the scope of private capital, but the Central Committee of the Congolese Labour Party is not hostile to private investment. It tends to prefer a mixed economy, particularly in cases of large-scale production units and strategic sectors like the mines. And, while the State has to have at least a 20% holding, no minimum or maximum amount is specified. It all depends on the interest shown by the firm in question, on how serious a proposition it makes and on the know-how of the investor who is trying to win the confidence of Congolese leaders.





*The Brazzaville-Kinkala road built with EDF finance*

The government is aware, says Mr Ngoma, of the constraints involved in carrying out large-scale industrial, agro-industrial, mining and forestry projects and this is why it is in favour of a mixed economy. It does not feel it is in its interests to neutralize its own efforts by indiscriminate nationalization. The Congolese Labour Party recognizes that there are three sectors to the economy — public, private and mixed — and it is anxious to generate a climate of confidence and understanding. It is counting on the good faith of its partners to fulfill its aims.

### **Forestry production: the role of small and medium-sized firms**

*In spite of a noticeable drop in forestry production, wood is still the main export product. How can part of the first Stabex payments be put to good use in wood production and the restructuring of the forests? What aid has been planned for small and medium-sized firms and is this an attempt at stimulating interest in the private sector?*

The government's priority aim is to develop agriculture, particularly the for-

estry sector, and Stabex payments will go, as a matter of priority, to financing the whole range of forestry activities. Steps have already been taken to channel a substantial part of the Stabex payments into the development bank, which can now aid any economic operators in the field.

The Congo realizes the importance of small and medium-sized firms, since they are a way of introducing Congolese nationals to business management and they can help relaunch the economy. They are a vital link in the industrial and commercial network. These measures complement activity in the rural sector. This is why the government was anxious for 4th EDF programming to involve the maximum amount permitted by the Lomé Convention.

### **Training managers and finding financial backers**

Better educational coverage (100 % of children in towns and nearly 90 % in the country attend school) and a tendency towards general studies are an inheritance from the colonial period. The Congo devotes an enormous amount of money — far beyond the possibilities of a developing country — to education. It is

now moving over to the sort of training that will produce cadres more quickly and it is anxious to make a better job of tailoring syllabuses to the realities of the economy. These two aims constitute a project which is called the School of the People.

In view of all the problems facing the Congo, it hopes that the EEC and the EDF will faithfully represent its interests to investors and funding organizations.

### **Few illusions about the North-South dialogue**

Mr Ngoma believes the North-South venture is a sound and praiseworthy one and its instigator should be congratulated because, hitherto, developed and under-developed countries had been at loggerheads and refused to agree to discuss the future of mankind as a whole. But the most recent UNCTAD meeting, and the UN's development decade when the rich were asked to contribute 1 % of GNP to development, have taught the developing world a lesson and the Congo has no illusions as to the fate of the Conference's recommendations. The main thing is to keep the dialogue going towards the original aims. □ L.P.



# CENTRAL AFRICA

## The economic situation

### Interview with Marshal J.-B. Bokassa, now Emperor Bokassa I

In December 1976, on the occasion of the colourful national festival held in the presence of President Mobutu, Marshal Jean-Bedel Bokassa, Life-President of the Central African Republic, described to the editor of the "Courier" the achievements of his 10 years in power. President Bokassa placed particular emphasis on the fact that his country is landlocked. He stressed the recent efforts to reorganize the State and spoke of the country's various economic activities and the importance of the Lomé Convention and the EDF for his country's development.

A special congress of the country's remodelled political party, MESAN (Mouvement pour l'évolution sociale de l'Afrique Noire — Movement for the social evolution of Black Africa), was held at the beginning of December to proclaim the Central African Empire and adopt a new constitution. Marshal Bokassa was to be made Emperor.

### Ten years in power

► *Mr President, under your guidance, the Central African Republic has launched a vast development campaign and the country is now holding a national festival to celebrate your 10 years in power. Would you outline "operation Bokassa" and tell us what its main features and achievements are?*



Emperor Bokassa I

— My action over the last 10 years has been based on a constant quest for genuine national independence—genuine national independence in cooperation with all peace and justice-loving countries—which must be rooted in the social and economic development of the country. The facts of my country's situation have led me to concentrate, in the successive plans drawn up since I came to power, on the following key policy areas:

Firstly, the development of human resources through education, training and better health. These were given priority in the 1967/70 four year plan, for I am convinced that man is the driving force

behind all development. We still have a tremendous amount to do, of course, but our results so far are very encouraging.

Secondly, the general increase in production was the top priority of the 1971/75 five-year plan and involved agricultural production, animal and fish products, forestry, energy, mining and so on.

I should mention here that our efforts have come up against many problems due to the abnormal climatic conditions that have affected the tropics in recent years, and we have also suffered from the problematical world economic situation brought about, primarily, by the monetary crisis.

Thirdly, the development of all types of infrastructure to open up the country. This is the priority aim of the 1976/1980 plan which has just been adopted.

If this infrastructure is to be built, we must have, as you know, an enormous amount of capital that developing countries like mine are not in a position to provide alone. External aid is therefore vital, but, unfortunately, the terms are often such that many of our priority projects suffer from a lack of financing. This is why I would like to take this opportunity of drawing the attention of international financial circles, such as those of the EEC, to this situation in the hope that they will understand our problems.

In any case, I think, after 10 years in power, that our achievements are positive and that this is because of "operation Bokassa", the overall development strategy I introduced directly I took over the reins of government.

### The role of MESAN

► *On 24 July last, you decided to re-model MESAN and, on 5 September, the government was dissolved and the Central African Revolutionary Council, of which you*



are chairman, was set up. What are the aims of this reform and how do you expect it to help your country's development effort?

— MESAN was founded in 1949 by that great patriot, President Barthélémy Boganda, to promote the full-scale development of African society in a way physically and spiritually suited to black Africa. It must be acknowledged that it had achieved these aims with the independence of Oubangui-Chari, since the essential, over-riding aim was to free the country from the colonial yoke. Since then—and particularly over the last few years—MESAN had become, I think one might say, somewhat lethargic as a result of premature senility. As I said in my speech of 24 July last, "the Central African Republic should not drag its heels and be content with stunted growth". MESAN had ceased to fulfil its purpose and to meet the deepest aspirations of the people.

So I decided to reform and rebuild this party, which is so close to the hearts of all our people, to breathe new life into it, to set it on a fresh path and to give it the sort of structure that would make it more dynamic. The philosophy behind this reform is firstly to make people aware of the character of the Central African Republic and to get the population to participate to the full in the life of the country. Secondly, it is to assert the existence of the Central African Republic as a nation in its own right with its own political and democratic instruments, which are fully able to guide state action along paths that will lead to general social well-being.

The Council of the Revolution, set up on 4 September last, is one of the main instruments of this reform.

### A policy of peace

► *Something unheard of in Africa happened on 17 September 1976 when you appointed David Dacko personal counsellor to the President of the Republic. David Dacko is an ex-President and the cousin of Barthélémy Boganda. Should we see in this appointment a gesture of national reconciliation and a desire to use the ability of relatively young men?*



*"The search for ways and means of opening up the Central African Republic has been a constant feature of my policy"*

— The quest for peace is one of the guiding principles behind my policy. I am a man of peace. If we do not have peace, all our attempts at working towards a better lot for mankind will be fruitless. We must have peace at home and we must have peace abroad. This is why, when the hand of providence led me to take supreme command of the Central African State on that historic New Year's night of 1965, I strove to avoid bloodshed and disorder.

To get back to your question, I would simply like to say that the appointment of David Dacko was inspired by a simple desire to make use of all the ability in our country. Although, at one stage in our history, some of our country's sons made mistakes—and sometimes serious mistakes—this does not mean to say that they are not useful, nor that they are completely and finally excluded from making any contribution to the national effort.

This is by no means the case. On the contrary. I think that, given time, such men can make their contribution to the shaping of the nation.

Furthermore, President Dacko is not the only one. Those who used to be his closest collaborators have been appointed to key positions in the President's Office and they are working by my side.

### A landlocked country

► *The Central African Republic has vast and as yet unexploited natural wealth, but being a landlocked country is a particularly serious handicap. What national, regional or even international means could be used to overcome this geographical problem?*

— As you say, the fact that the Central African Republic is landlocked is a considerable handicap to its development. Yet, as you say, the country has enormous and remarkably varied resources. I am thinking here of the Bangui fault revealed by American and Soviet satellites.

To get the country out of this state, we have had recourse to important national, regional and even international means—and we will continue to do so.

At national level, we are exploiting our human potential. The education and training campaign we have been running over the last 10 years is going smoothly and the results are positive.

Alongside this, we are channelling a large proportion of export earnings from agriculture, forestry and mining, primarily, into infrastructure and communications. Unfortunately, our efforts are being almost completely defeated by inflation and falling prices for some of our products.



At regional level, we are maintaining good relations with our immediate neighbours and other countries within the framework of African unity. The Central African Republic is an integral part of regional economic groups like UDEAC, etc. Cooperation between the countries of Africa is an undeniably useful means of opening up our country to the outside world.

Finally, at the international level—over and above what I have just mentioned at regional level—we attach great importance to international cooperation. This should enable the Central African Republic, within the framework of, for example, the relevant resolutions taken by various UN bodies, to receive the aid it needs to build a gateway to the sea by laying a modern railway, which will doubtless speed up the expansion of our economy.

► *Can you outline the new five-year plan (1976/80) devised this year?*

— The 1976-1980 five-year plan was adopted in August 1976 by our country's supreme planning body, the National Planning Board, of which I am chairman and which is composed of representatives of all the country's socio-professional strata. The priorities are:

1. Opening up the country.
2. Developing our human resources by: training; developing our basic health and welfare services; and improving the labour force and increasing employment.
3. Developing natural resources—agricultural and animal production, forestry and fisheries.
4. Industrial, trade and tourist promotion.

## Agriculture

► *Timber is one of your country's traditional assets. Part of your wood production is exported down the Oubangui river and part of it is processed on the spot. How does the economic situation of the Central African Republic's timber sector stand at the moment?*

— Our forests represent a potential of 80 million cubic metres. The exceptional

density and wealth of top-quality species are one of our priority sources of exports. Alas, we cannot make full use of this capital. The problems of getting the timber out, particularly of using different means of transport on the same trip, allow only two or three marketable types—the main one being sapele wood—to be exploited.

The annual figure for trees felled reached 700 000 m<sup>3</sup> in 1974 and this dropped, because of the crisis, to around 400 000 m<sup>3</sup>, which only represents 300 000 m<sup>3</sup> of logs.

The aim in the forestry sector is to process at least 80 % of the logs on the spot, and this is why we demanded that the 14 forestry companies set up processing factories.

► *Diamonds are another traditional asset. What are development prospects here?*

— Diamonds are the only mineral we are exploiting at the moment and they provide the state with a considerable amount of revenue.

But there are many vested interests in this field and they are difficult to control. My government has always tried to organize the diamond trade rationally, to make for better control, but fraud does persist.

This is why the only approach here is to find the right means of enabling the State to benefit from a large part of the revenue which diamonds provide the specialized firms. This is the only condition, as we see it, for authorizing the large-scale exploitation of this raw material in the medium term.

► *Cotton and coffee are two other major export products. What is the situation as regards these?*

— Cotton and coffee are the two main agricultural products that provide the peasant with substantial income. However, the prevailing international situation and, above all, the bad climatic conditions we have had in the Central African Republic over the last five years have meant that agricultural production has dropped off somewhat.

Coffee represents something like 30 % of the value of our agricultural exports

and our country is the fourth country of the African and Malagasy Coffee Organization, with a production of 12 000 t in 1973/74. However, the 1975 target, as compared to the reference year (1970) was not reached, largely because the industrial plantations were abandoned by the old colonials before independence. We therefore had to envisage a rapid re-launching of coffee growing in the south-west and the west by taking over the abandoned plantations. This project should, in a few years' time, enable us to push up production to at least 20 000 t—particularly since we have embarked upon research into soil and climate and begun a study of how to link up the exploitation of our forestry resources with the coffee trade.

Cotton is a strategic product and one which supplies the national economy with the major part of its foreign exchange. Production was only 33 000 t in 1975, a considerable drop, and the first since 1967.

The climate was poor and this was the main reason for the fall in production. There was more rainfall than usual and this involved a corresponding reduction in the time at the farmer's disposal and meant that sowing was late and flowering poor.

The conditions were not conducive to good plant health. Frequent rains during spraying washed away the insecticide, parasites increased, there was a considerable amount of rot and "blue disease" developed.

I should like to add that tobacco growing is constantly on the increase and tobacco is on the way to becoming one of our main export products. Production is increasing steadily. I should like to point out that we produce two types of tobacco and both of them are of a quality which is very much appreciated on the world market.

## The textile industry

► *You are particularly concerned to get the best value out of local production. Can you tell us how far you have got with developing your textile industry?*

— My government and I are indeed particularly concerned with optimizing local production. We are constantly mon-



itoring the situation and we will not allow any undercutting or underhand deals in this sector. This gives me the opportunity to mention the sorry history of the textile industry in our country.

We set up a mixed company, called ICCA (Industrie cotonnière Centrafricaine — Central African cotton industry) with Willot Frères, with a share capital of CFAF 566 050 000. However, our partners felt they had done well enough and lost interest, leaving the firm in an extremely poor condition. The State thus took over the factory and gave it a fresh start and I can assure you that, now it has been trading for a few months, it is back on its feet. The cloth it produces is popular and sells well at home and abroad.

The firm is now called ICAT (Industrie Centrafricaine des Textiles — Central African textile industry) and I am proud to say that, under Central African management, it is expanding and the future looks most promising.

## Tourism

► *Your country has national parks and an astounding wealth of animal and plant life and many people come here on safari to hunt and take pictures. How do you see the development of tourism in your country?*

— The Central African Republic has 13 national parks and reserves, which draw a considerable number of tourists, some of whom, as you know, are famous.

The wealth of these parks and reserves is one of our trump cards and we intend making maximum use of it to bring in revenue, in the same way as we sell other export products.

This is why, for the last two years, my government has been building the sort of infrastructure which will enable us to attract sight-seers and create mass tourism alongside the elite who come on hunting tours.

As you realize, our country is one of the countries of Africa which still has species that are dying out elsewhere. We have rhinoceroses—and some people claim to have seen white rhinoceroses. We also have giraffes, Kudu, and, in the north-east and east, we have large elephants.

The potential of our forests was for some time ignored, but it is as big a

tourist draw as the savannah and this is why we are building, right from scratch, a new tourist town at Mongoumba, on the banks of the Oubangui, 80 km from Bangui.

Our other tourist attractions are the many waterfalls on our rivers, our many lakes and canyons and our hot springs, all of which will be involved in a development programme in the fairly near future.

## Training

► *You set up the Jean-Bedel Bokassa University, which shows the importance you attach to education. How is the university developing and what other plans are there for promoting training programmes for Central African management staff?*

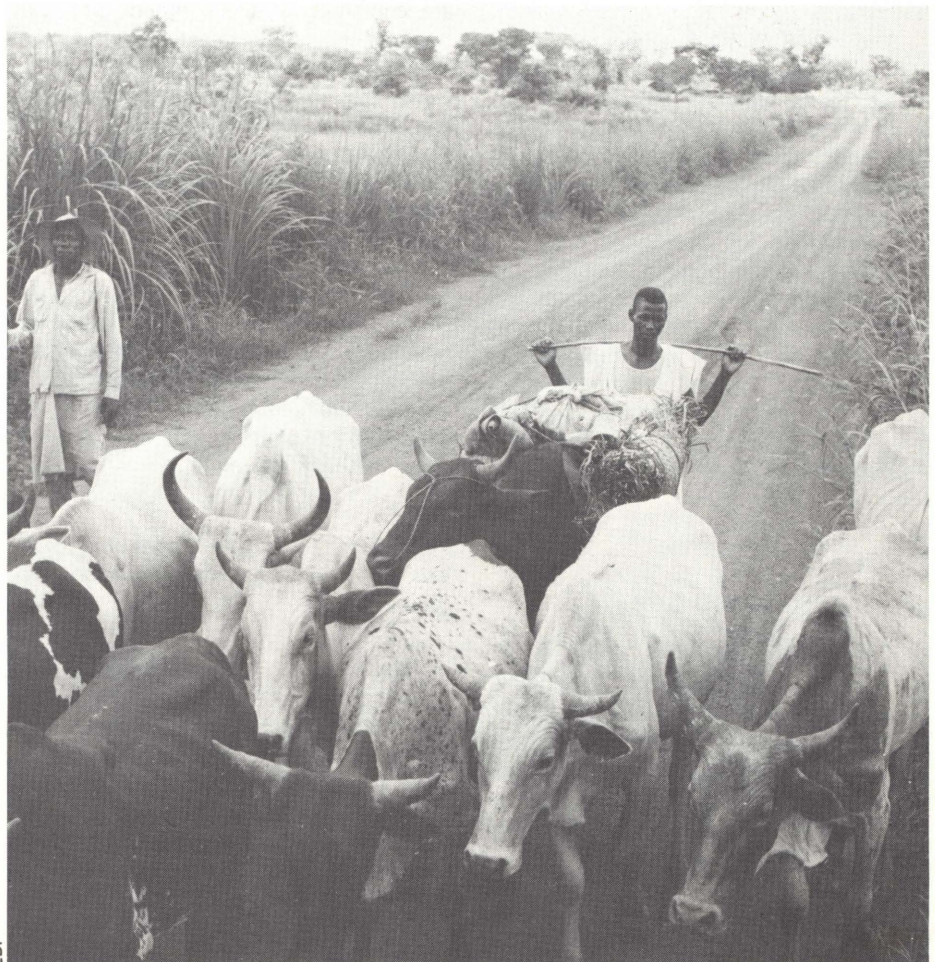
— Education, as I stressed at the beginning, is one of our major tasks, since it

enables us to train the managers the country so badly needs. As you know, the Central African Republic still has considerable recourse to technical assistance from abroad.

This is why, when there was a general climate of pessimism in 1969, I decided to create the university which bears my name. Here again, I am pleased to record that, only a few years later, it has all the traditional faculties and institutes of technology normally found in a university. Jean-Bedel Bokassa University includes faculties of law and economics; arts and humanities; science; a university institute of mining technology in Bangui and a university institute of agricultural technology in M'Baiki. In early 1970, there were about 70 students at the university, but, at the beginning of the 1976/77 academic year there were more than 500.

The teaching standards are high, since 80% of our students succeed in law

## *Cattle are also an important national resource*





and science both at Abidjan and in universities in France. In addition, we are already issuing diplomas in engineering, agriculture and mining and the fortunate holders are working to the entire satisfaction of us all. In June 1977, we shall be awarding our own law degrees.

We are planning to open an Institute of Business Management and push up the entrance requirements to the ENA (Ecole Nationale d'Administration — National School of Administration) by requiring two certificates in law or economics. We are also planning to set up an Institute of Electricity and to open the first two years of medicine—the Faculty of Medicine having already been created and currently training ancillary medical management staff.

There are many reasons for all this and two seem to me to be of basic importance. We have to train, in this country, all levels of management staff with a proper grounding in the realities of the Central African Republic. And this enables us to cut down on the brain drain which is such a problem for so many African countries.

## Regional cooperation

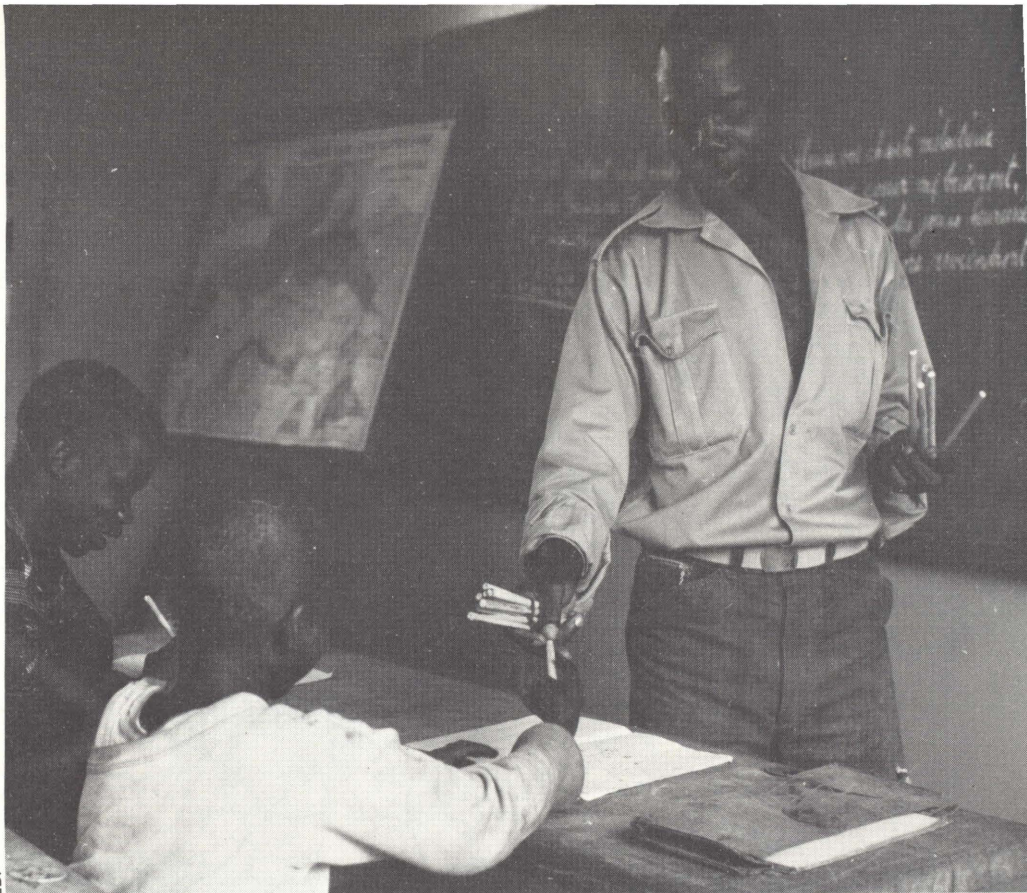
► *The Central African Republic is particularly aware of the special importance of regional cooperation and you belong to UDEAC. How useful a body is UDEAC and has it achieved what it set out to do?*

— As you know, UDEAC's name amply describes its function. It groups together a number of countries in Central Africa and its headquarters are in the Central African Republic.

The governments of the member countries are all anxious to maintain mutually good relations; in any case, this is the constant aim of my own government. And we have good grounds for believing in it, since UDEAC has now been in existence for 12 years.

In December 1974, UDEAC stated that its aim was gradually to promote a common market by removing barriers to trade between the member countries. We also adopted a procedure whereby industrial projects could be shared out fairly in the light of the interests of all members and of each individual member, and devised measures to compensate for the special situation of the

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*In a Central African school*

members with the poorest levels of economic development. We also agreed to coordinate development programmes.

It appears that, although UDEAC has not fully achieved its aims, it has accomplished a great deal, which is good reason for satisfaction and for staying in the organization.

In fact, UDEAC has just turned our railway project into a regional project. Finally, the recently created BADEAC (Banque de Développement des Etats d'Afrique Centrale — Development bank of the states of Central Africa) amply demonstrates the maturity of the union and of the members' political desire for the harmonious integration of the economy of the region.

## ... and the Lomé Convention

► *The Lomé Convention also puts the accent on regional cooperation and provides special measures for landlocked countries. How do you expect this to help the Central African Republic?*

— Since I came to power, the search for ways and means of opening up the Central African Republic has been a constant feature of my policy.

I have taken every opportunity of

making people aware of the problem and of drawing international attention to the landlocked state of my country, since this is clearly a serious handicap to its economic development.

My appeal was, of course, heard by the Lomé Convention negotiators, who concentrated on special measures for landlocked countries and stressed regional and inter-regional cooperation.

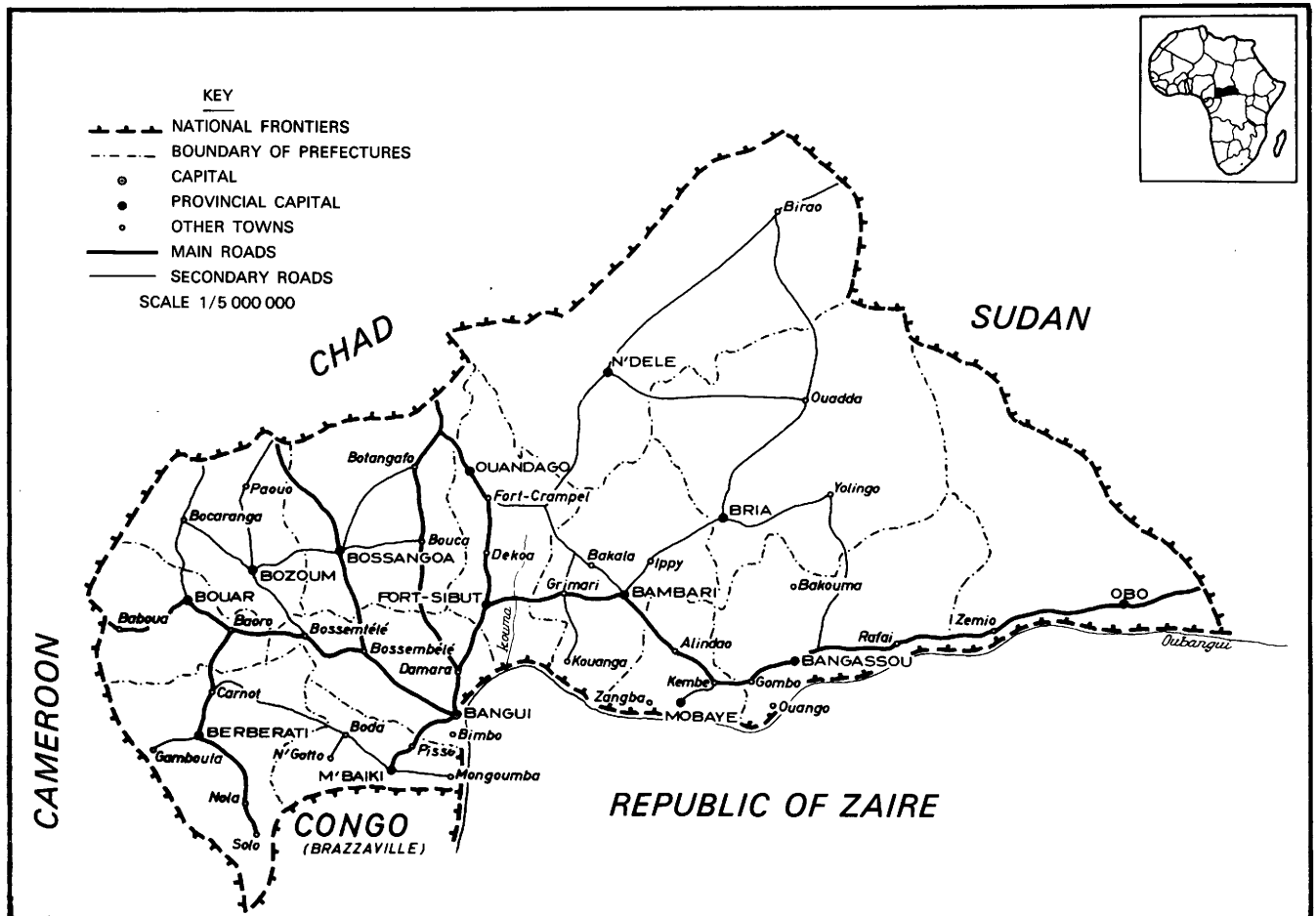
The Lomé Convention's special provisions for landlocked countries simply rectified an unjust situation in the light of the specific realities which condition the development of each ACP country. You will agree that the terms on which my country imports and exports goods should not be the same as the terms prevailing for maritime countries. This is why we in the Central African Republic feel that these special measures really should help us to solve some of the problems arising from being landlocked.

Concerning regional cooperation—already mentioned under Yaoundé—I should like to praise the initiative of the ACP states in enlarging the field of action.

Regional cooperation is vital at the moment for three reasons:

1. We must speed up economic cooperation within and between the various ACP regions.





## The Central African Empire

The Empire, the former Central African Republic, was proclaimed in December and lies in the heart of Africa. It forms a trapezium and covers 623 000 km<sup>2</sup> between 14° and 28° longitude E and 3° and 11° latitude N. The country has more than 4 000 km of frontiers, with Chad in the north, Sudan in the east, Zaire in the south, Congo in the south-west and Cameroon in the west. A vast plateau rises to the Bongo massif in the east and the Yadé massif in the west. There is a dense river network, the main rivers being the Ubangui and the Chari. There are three main climatic zones—tropical in the south, savannah, covering 4/5 of the national territory in the centre, and Sudano-Sahelian in the north.

Bangui, the capital of this land-

locked country, is 1 200 km from the port of Douala (Cameroon) and some 1 700 km from the port of Pointe Noire in the Congo. The geographical situation is one of the biggest obstacles to the proper exploitation of the country's resources (food crops and stock-raising, coffee and cotton, forestry, diamonds and uranium).

Various estimates in 1975 put the total population at somewhere between two and three million inhabitants. The population of Bangui, the capital, is an estimated 300 000 people. The population is concentrated in the centre and in the west of the country, the north-east being more or less uninhabited.

The main products are cotton, coffee, timber and diamonds, which together represent more than 90 % of

exports. In 1973, diamonds accounted for some 35 % of total export earnings and cotton, coffee and timber each accounted for 20 %.

The mining sector is currently falling off a little due to reorganization and probably also because the richer deposits are running out. The exploitation of limestone and uranium, in particular, is being studied.

The main aim of the current five-year plan (1976/1980) is to solve the transport problems due to the country being landlocked, by improving the communications network. Certain sectors—timber, for example—are held back by the difficulty of taking out production within normal time limits and the same is true of the country's supplies in general.



2. We must boost collective economic independence vis-à-vis the outside world.

3. We must create sufficiently large markets.

Although, in the past, the cost of regional projects was set off against aid provided to recipient states for national projects—which gave rise to a certain reticence on the part of these states—the Lomé Convention, on the other hand, is very encouraging on this score because it reserves 10% of the global financing for regional projects alone.

With this in mind, the last summit of the heads of state and government of UDEAC, meeting in Bangui in December 1975, reserved a certain number of projects, recognised as of common interest, to be submitted for EDF financing out of the special credits reserved for regional cooperation.

Among these projects some are of great interest to my country for reasons which I have already mentioned. For example the Bangui-Atlantic railway, the link-roads to the trans-African highway, and improvements to the Ubangui river.

► *Generally speaking, Lomé provides a wide variety of means of action: financial and technical cooperation via the EDF, the stabilization of export earnings via the Stabex, industrial cooperation, trade promotion and so on. Do you think that any of these possibilities are particularly important for the development of your country?*

— We have no preference for any particular facility provided by the Lomé Convention, since they all, of course, contribute towards our development.

However, it has to be realized that, generally speaking, the possibilities the Convention provides are far from meeting the actual needs of the ACP. And I should like to mention here the amounts earmarked for technical and financial cooperation, industrial cooperation, trade promotion and so on.

As for the Stabex, we were obviously very much in favour, as it is a unique innovation in international economic relations, but we should, in all honesty, recognize that its mechanism and the possibilities it provides are far from living up to our hopes. It must be improved—particularly for land-locked countries like ours.



*A dispensary in Central Africa*

## INAUGURATION OF THE BANGUI SLAUGHTERHOUSE

The Bangui slaughterhouse was inaugurated on 3 December 1976 in the presence of the Prime Minister, Ange Patasse. The slaughterhouse is a major EDF investment intended both to improve the country's meat supplies and encourage optimization of the considerable livestock potential and to push up exports of central African meat to neighbouring countries.

On this occasion, Mr Jaeger, representing the EEC Commission Delegate, made a speech outlining the economic and social importance of this EDF investment.

In particular, he outlined the economic and social benefits modern, refrigerated slaughterhouses will bring, since such improvements are very much in line with the country's development policy. It will have a direct effect on health, about which the government is most concerned, and in respect of hygiene, during slaughter, storage and marketing. At the economic level it can mean the recupe-

rating of poor quality meat by means of refrigerating, getting the best value out of by-products and modernizing the retail trade. It could also fit into surrounding countries' regional programmes.

Mr Jaeger thanked everyone who, with EDF help, had contributed towards the joint achievement, and successfully completed an investment of CFAF 1 500 million plus in a reasonable time and without too many hitches, as it had been by no means an easy matter.

The Bangui refrigerated slaughterhouses will come into full operation in a few months' time, once the test period is over. During this time, and while Central African staff are being trained, the EEC, under the Lomé Convention, is providing and will continue to provide, at the government's request, help with the management, training and complementary investments needed if best use is to be made of this major investment, Mr Jaeger said at the opening.



► *How do relations with the nine countries of the European Community fit in with the Central African Republic's foreign policy?*

— The Central African Republic is associated to the EEC and, as such, has relations with it.

However, as a sovereign state, it has built up and developed privileged relations with a certain number of countries who are members of the Community.

► *Bangui is the seat of various regional solidarity organizations and has become the headquarters of OCAM. What can you tell us about the role of OCAM?*

— At the 8th summit in Bangui, after the rapid growth of OCAM, an exhaustive balance sheet of our organization's activities was drawn up. And, contrary to the opinions of our detractors, the balance sheet was entirely positive.

No-one can say that, on a strictly economic level, OCAM's efforts have been in vain. OCAM has been behind a number of socio-economic institutions—Air Afrique, UAMPI and the African institute of information are the best known—which function perfectly well,

even if the expectations of the member countries are not fully met.

### **A new international economic order**

► *What do you think of the efforts being made in various quarters to define a new world economic order which is fairer for the developing countries?*

— For my part, I shall not go over what we have done in the past. I prefer to speak about what we intend to do in the future. The new world economic order does not just concern the developing countries. It concerns us all, developing and developed countries alike, since the international situation is such that no country can live by itself and for itself. All countries must complement each other in their political, economic and cultural relations. Cooperating to establish a new and fairer economic order is, thus, in our eyes, a necessity.

But unhappily we notice that an attempt is being made to turn the new world economic order into a Third World affair and to treat it as a hand-out for the Third World.

Certain rich countries can see no further than their superannuated conception of the world economy and are

jealously and egoistically guarding their privileges, to the detriment of the poor countries.

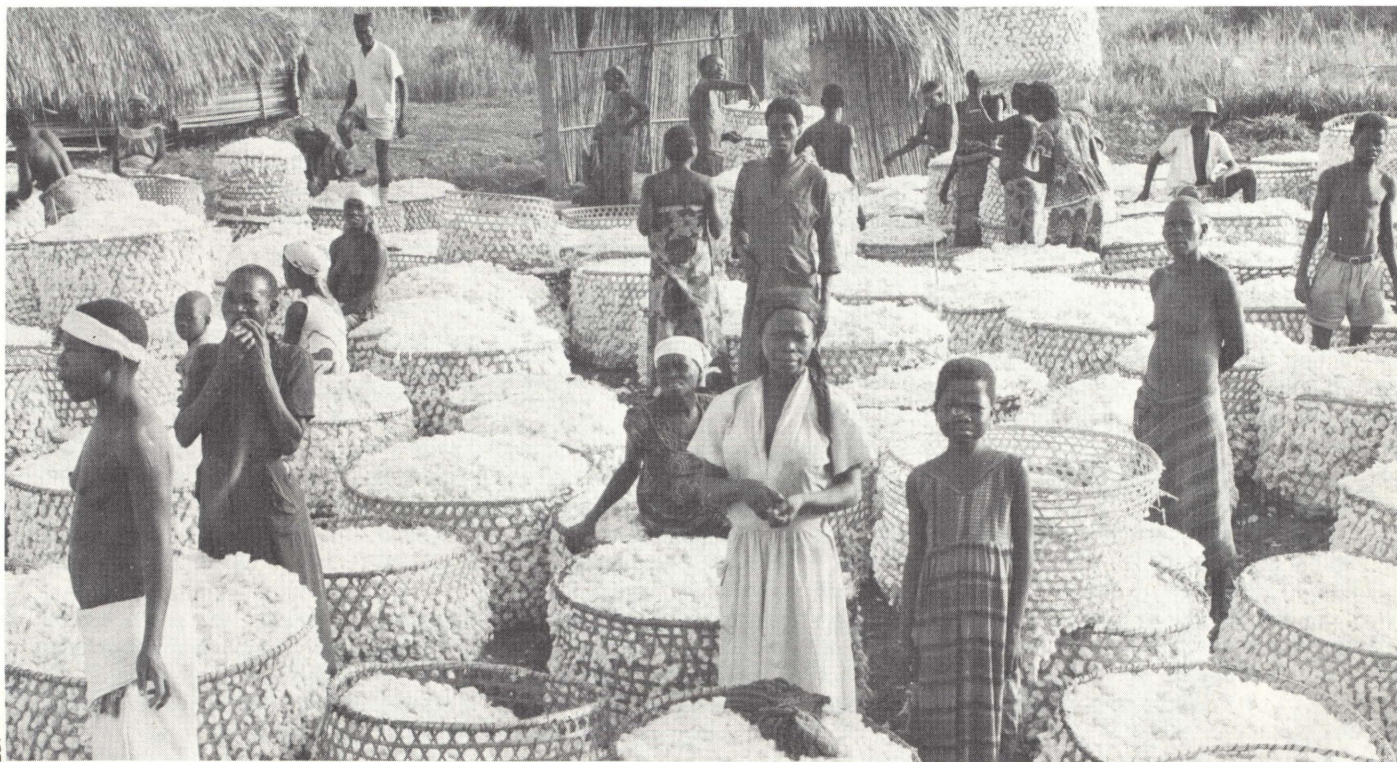
The international meetings of the various UN specialized bodies give us daily proof that this is so. The outcome of the 6th and 7th special sessions of the UN General Assembly, the various UNC-TADS—particularly UNCTAD IV in Nairobi, which left a very bad impression on the Group of 77—have all served to increase our pessimism.

And the North-South dialogue will not achieve concrete, speedy or satisfactory results either. It is marking time and we are moving towards yet another impasse. As far as I am concerned, it is the lack of political will on the part of the rich and their egoism which are the basis of this lack of understanding.

It is obvious that, even if this concertation we so much want did result in a satisfactory solution being found, the countries of the Third World, most of them producers of raw materials, would have to organize themselves and try to reduce the effects of the deterioration in the terms of trade of which they are the victims. And this requires a new economic order. □

Interview by  
ALAIN LACROIX

### *The cotton harvest*



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# CAMEROON

## **Paul Biya, Prime Minister of Cameroon, outlines his country's cooperation policy**

Paul Biya, Cameroon's Prime Minister, told the "Courier" about his government's views on international cooperation and relations with the EEC. He considers that "international cooperation appears imperative to Cameroon" in leading the way to better relations between the peoples of the world.

Yousoufa Daouda, Minister for the Economy and Planning, talks about Cameroon's economy in an interview on page 29.

► *Prime Minister, Cameroon attaches a great deal of importance to international cooperation. Would you summarise the basic principles of your policy in this field?*

— A country's international cooperation policy is defined by the fundamental options of its foreign policy.

Cameroon is at the crossroads of a number of natural regions and migratory paths and it is obvious that, as far as foreign policy is concerned, we are going to be open to the outside world.

Since independence, we have chosen to remain apart from the major power blocs. Our country has always been in favour of non-alignment, which we see as the peaceful co-existence of different states with different social systems, and, as far as we are concerned, the first priority is to recognize that all peoples have the right to solve their own problems



Paul Biya

unhindered. This supposes absolute respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of all countries. Adherence to these principles should lead the various states of the world to develop economic and cultural cooperation for the greater good of mankind. This is why Cameroon's foreign policy is founded on non-alignment and international cooperation.

International cooperation starts in the Third World. The developing countries must combine forces and increase solidarity among their peoples, since solidarity among the peoples will encourage

solidarity among the countries in their attempt to change what have so far been increasingly unequal international economic relations.

Developed countries are then brought in and both bilateral and multilateral schemes evolved—witness our association with the EEC.

Generally speaking, Cameroon believes in solidarity and the interdependence of nations and so international cooperation is vital if we are to create a world where people are equal and where greater equality is the keyword to international economic relations.

To sum up, we consider that international cooperation is of mutual interest and provides reciprocal advantages for all the partners concerned.

► *Relations between Cameroon and the EEC (first the Six and now the Nine) have always been good, although when Yaoundé II was signed, President Ahidjo felt that the Convention was an inadequate response to the wishes of the 19 signatories. The Lomé Convention, negotiated and signed on different bases, now involves some 50 ACP countries. What is your assessment of cooperation between the EEC and the ACP countries?*

— Relations between Cameroon and the EEC have always been excellent and association under Yaoundé I and II brought us considerable advantages. However, in spite of the positive and progressive side of all this, the mechanisms introduced within the framework of the earlier association were an inadequate answer to the question of ensuring guaranteed prices for our commodities and organizing the transfer of technology.

The countries associated to the EEC therefore incurred considerable losses because of fluctuating commodity prices, which upset any medium and long range economic forecasts. Furthermore, there were certain products, mainly agricultural ones, which we were not in a position to process ourselves and this deprived us of a large amount of ex-





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*Improvements in the port at Douala financed by the EDF are being carried out to meet the growing freight traffic, especially in wood and bananas*

port earnings and the spin-off from industrialization.

Lomé is better than Yaoundé in that it provides an export earnings stabilization system and the sort of industrial cooperation arrangements that will both encourage industries to set up in the ACP countries, to process local raw materials, and promote small and medium-sized firms.

Cameroon is proud to have been one of the first countries to benefit from the Stabex and to have been host to one of the first missions from the Group of Seven.

Institutionally speaking, the Lomé Convention has the particular advantage of giving the individual states a large amount of latitude in their choice of projects and the programming of aid.

However, it should be made quite clear that not all our wishes have been met—particularly those relating to the amount of financial aid and the maintenance of a reasonable level of preferences for the ACP countries.

Nevertheless, we, the people of Cameroon, hope that the spirit of continuity and innovation that has marked our relations so far will thrive so we can resolutely transform economic relations between developed and developing countries.

► *Are there any particular aspects or areas of cooperation which Cameroon would like to bring to the attention of its European partners?*

— There are other fields, over and above the innovations of the Lomé Convention which we have already mentioned, to which particular attention must be paid if the Convention is to provide maximum benefit.

First of all, we must promote any measures likely to go beyond the bounds of state-controlled relations and lead to a vast movement in trade and industry in which private European enterprise can also participate. This means that ventures like the Centre for Industrial Development and the various trade promotion schemes are of considerable interest. Furthermore, we must go on reinforcing provisions geared to boosting regional and inter-regional cooperation in the ACP countries.

Finally, if we are to involve the people



themselves in the development process and provide a concrete answer to the individual needs of the basic communities in question, then we must step up Community financing of small rural development schemes.

► *Is the EDF formula for development aid generally in line with the Cameroon government's ideas on international cooperation policy?*

— Cameroon appreciates the way in which the EDF provides aid, since it does indeed tally with our own ideas. It preserves the sovereignty of the recipient country as regards channelling the funds provided and it has all the advantages of multilateral aid.

Now that many more African, Carib-

bean and Pacific countries are associated, EDF aid has become a means of strengthening the ties between the various countries of the Third World themselves and between the Third World and the industrialized countries.

Finally, it illustrates the UN's desire to transform economic relations by negotiation rather than confrontation.

► *It is generally considered that aid to Africa and the rest of the ACP will not fulfill the desired development aims unless all the African, Caribbean and Pacific states strive to achieve the progressive integration of their economies. Is this your opinion?*

— The developing countries in general are very much aware of the need to progressively integrate their economies. In Africa, in particular, this need was

confirmed by OAU resolutions during preparations for the recent multilateral negotiations. Our countries are currently working towards this objective, mainly by establishing and strengthening the regional groupings that are the vital stepping stones towards economic integration. And organizations like the Union of Central African States, the West African Economic Community and the East African Economic Community have similar aims.

The same goes for other ACP countries, like the Caribbean islands, which already have their own common market, CARICOM.

But it should be made clear that the time-honoured compartmentalization of the different countries and the vertical trade movements with Europe are no mean handicap and one which must be

*The modern building which houses the Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications in Yaoundé—a sign of the importance attached to communications in the country's development*





done away with. In the last analysis, we do not think that regional groups, of whatever size, are the only way of making aid fully effective. There are many other prior conditions that need creating and developing in both Europe and the ACP countries.

It is worth noting that the amount of aid is now being adjusted to the real needs of the developing countries' economies and that more is being done to correct the deep-seated inequality of trade, primarily by restructuring the economies in question and transforming trade policies. Similarly, each associated country must try to produce a coherent definition of its development aims.

► *Development aid helps to liberate millions of people from poverty. But it does not do enough to bring the people of the ACP countries and the people of Europe closer*

*together and it is misunderstood by public opinion in both. Why does this happen in Africa? And how do you expect Europe to bring about a better understanding of EEC-ACP relations?*

— It is exaggerated to claim that public opinion in Africa does not understand aid. On the contrary, aid is appreciated when it contributes to the development of our countries.

However, trade between Europe and Africa is ill-balanced and it would seem that aid should, to a certain extent, be compensation for the deterioration in the terms of trade which has hit the countries of Africa. The methods of providing aid and the amounts involved do not always seem to take this into account. This is why the ACP countries are anxious for a better understanding of their relations with Europe and have, on var-

ious occasions, expressed a desire for the general public in the EEC to be better informed of the basic reasons for this cooperation. The prime aim of aid, in fact, is to boost economic, social and cultural development in the ACP countries by providing all sectors of the population with the means of improving their standards of living. But alongside this, it should, in the medium and long term, also enable those countries to become partners who can increase their trade with Europe, in a climate of greater and mutually advantageous solidarity.

Much along the same lines, the African countries strongly urge their European partners to resolve to establish a new world economic order, which is geared to more egalitarian trade relations and the transfer of technology, in such a way as to reduce the current emphasis on financial aid. □ L.P.

*The lively market at Dschang is an important meeting place in the social and economic life of the country*





# Cameroon's economy in early 1977

## An interview with Youssoufa Daouda, Minister for the Economy & Planning

Youssoufa Daouda, Cameroon's Minister for Economy and Planning, took time off to give the "Courier" a detailed run-down of the Cameroon economy after launching a pragmatic new national plan in September. (Part two of this interview will appear in the next edition of the "Courier".) Mr Daouda looks at the prospects for the future, particularly as far as hydrocarbons are concerned, and provides a clear economic profile of the country. Cameroon is one of the EEC's oldest partners, and one of the few African states to have the resources and the hard-working population necessary to develop an economy that does not depend on importing essential goods. Cameroon is fast becoming its neighbours' main supplier of food, but information from Yaoundé suggests that it is currently facing the problem of fairly inflated food prices—particularly of beef and veal, plantains and bananas, of which increasing quantities are imported. However, the prosperous agricultural sector in Cameroon will be a first-class contribution to regional cooperation within UDEAC.

### "Self-centred" development

► *In 1975 the Cameroon government defined its new economic policy on self-centred development. Basically what does this involve?*

— The term was first used by the Head of State, El Hadj Ahmadou Ahidjo, at the second CNU party conference in Douala in February 1975. Since then, he—and we, who have the honour of being his principal collaborators—have had many opportunities to explain just what it involves.

Briefly, as President Ahidjo said at the Douala conference, it means "development by the people for the people". And this means that every Cameroonian must be aware of the demands of the situation of a developing nation in the world today and must feel that it is up to him to make an effort to right that situation.

But it involves much more than simply taking stock of the situation. We should not disdain external aid or international cooperation in our fight for progress, although we should mobilize the maximum amount of national energy to help in the complex, but exalting and noble, task of building a united, prosperous homeland for us all.

In other words, this "self-centred" type of development emphasizes the leading role that the people themselves play in the building of a prosperous nation. It is a twin appeal to the Cameroonian's sense of human dignity for him to be the prime architect of his own destiny and an active partner in the history of the construction of a universal civilization.

Development for the people means that our efforts to make the nation progress are primarily geared to the fulfilment of the individual. For, as our Head of State is tireless in pointing out, our development philosophy is an essentially humanist one, in that everything starts and finishes with man.

You mentioned that we had adopted a new policy here. I should like to point out that this isn't exactly what anyone who was familiar with our country's economic policy would think: "Self-centred" development fits in admirably with the policy of planned liberalism which has always been behind the Cameroon leaders' action on the economic front. There are three fundamental aims, which are to:

- promote rapid growth in Cameroon;
- spread progress over the whole of the national territory via a balanced re-



gional policy that will do away with *de facto* inequality;

— ensure the well-being of the individual via a resolute policy of social justice.

Foreign aid is vital if we are to achieve the first of these aims, but it should be no more than an addition to the efforts of the people of Cameroon themselves, a complement to their determination to surmount the many obstacles in the way of building a nation and a complement to their ability to devise, organize and administer the economic, social and cultural development of their country. For, as President Ahidjo points out, the only authentic development is development of which the people are the driving force.

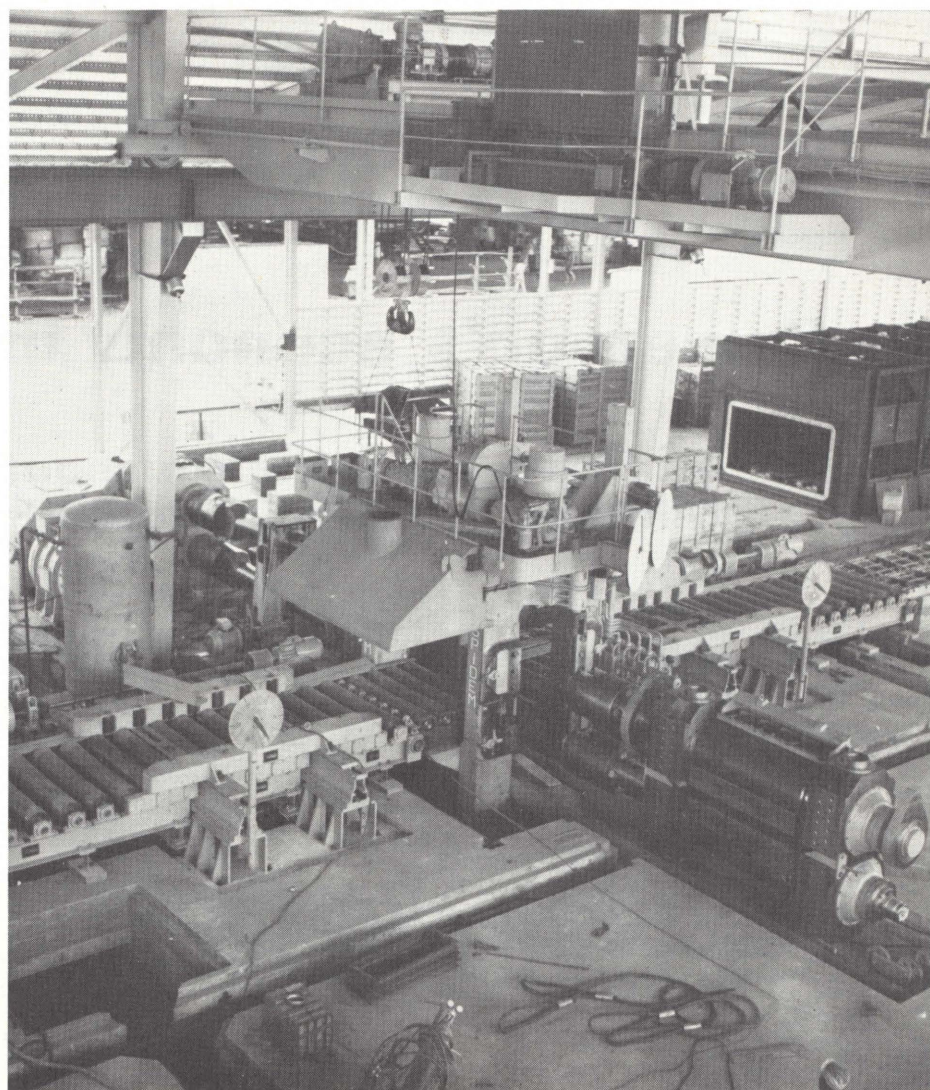
The other two aims are corollaries of the first. There can, of course, be no such thing as national development as long as some parts of the country are way behind the rest. National development will remain a figment of the imagination unless it benefits the people and gives them the material, social and cultural well-being to which they aspire.

### Special encouragement for private foreign investment

► *In this context, how important are foreign investors and what means are provided for Cameroon's industry to enable it to promote autonomous development?*

— I should like to deal with the second part of your question first—about industry's means of promoting autonomous development—and remove, once and for all, any misunderstanding about the real meaning of the concept of "self-centred" development.

As my answer to your last question made clear, "self-centred" development is far from meaning national self-sufficiency and even farther from meaning autonomous development achieved by nationals alone. Such a concept as this would be purely and simply unrealistic when you consider our financial possibilities, our technical capacity and organizational ability in relation to Cameroon's



*Edea aluminium refinery. Cameroon is a major producer*

vast potential and the realities of the world today.

The philosophy underlying our economic doctrine is planned liberalism, which raises the actions and the contributions of private enterprise to the level of the priority aims of the country's economic and social development plan.

There is no question of encouraging one scheme and discouraging another because one is national and one is foreign. Quite the contrary. Not only is all private enterprise welcome if it is in line with government policy, but we offer special encouragement to private investors from abroad if, in a spirit of mutual

confidence, they agree to help us build a prosperous Cameroon.

This is why the government has introduced a whole series of incentives to encourage private investors. For example, we have one of the most favourable investment codes in black Africa. It provides four sets of advantages—systems A, B, C and D.

System A provides beneficiary firms with five years' exemption from import duties and charges on:

— equipment, materials, machines and tools directly needed for production or processing;



— raw materials used in worked or processed products;

— raw materials or products which are not included in manufactures and are not really tools but which are destroyed or lose their specific properties during the manufacturing process;

— raw materials or products used in packing and wrapping.

System B provides similar advantages to system A, but for a 10-year period. It also provides beneficiary firms with:

— tax exemption (35 % on net profits) over the first five years of trading;

— exemption from licence fees and from land, mining and forestry dues.

System C, the so-called agreement on establishment, is available for firms of a given size which are helping with the economic and social development plan, in which case the promoters negotiate an agreement on establishment with the government. This agreement lasts for a maximum of 25 years and specifies:

— general trading conditions, equipment and production programmes and the firm's commitments;

— the various government guarantees;

— methods of prorogation;

— (possibly) all or some of the tax advantages conceded under System B.

System D, the long-term tax arrangement, is for key firms in the country's development. Advantages are provided by an agreement on establishment, which includes all the advantages of System C plus a stabilized tax system over a maximum of 25 years.

The measures we have taken to provide encouragement and incentive for private foreign investors include the creation of various bodies and organizations to participate in private business, encourage the setting up of industrial firms, guarantee investments and loans to investors and assist with the administration and management of the ventures they set up. These bodies are:

1) The National Investment Company. It is worth noting that the aim is not the interventionist one of state control over private firms. The idea is simply to facilitate the creation of industrial firms by giving them the financial help they need and which is often vital to the promoters. Furthermore, the ultimate aim of the NIC is to cede its shares to private businessmen.

2) MAGZI (Mission d'Aménagement des Zones—industrial zone improvement mission).

3) BCD (Banque Camerounaise de Développement—Cameroon Development Bank).

4) CAPME (Centre d'Assistance aux petites et moyennes entreprises—small and medium-sized firms assistance centre).

5) FOGAPE (Fonds d'Aide et de Garanties aux petites et moyennes entreprises—aid and guarantee fund for small and medium-sized firms).

As you can see, the government is doing its utmost to attract foreign investors, to help them set up and to promote the climate of mutual confidence which will guarantee each partner the freedom to carry on his activities and reap the full fruits of his labours in mutual respect of our legitimate interests.

## Industry

► *Where has industrial development in general in Cameroon stand and what are your industrial objectives?*

— Our industrialization policy aims to create and extend industries to make finished consumer products and to set up industries to manufacture semi-finished goods.

Industrialization as we see it is based on the processing of local raw materials, the creation of vast agro-industrial complexes, the promotion of heavy industry by exploiting our mineral resources, creating intermediate industries, the promotion of small and medium-sized firms and the optimization of our hydro-electric resources with a view to producing electricity.

The major projects currently on the drawing board or actually being carried out are:

### The big agro-industrial complexes

— Camsuc, a second sugar complex in the Mbandjock area. This will involve a sugar plantation of 15 000 ha, which should produce an annual 50 000 t of sugar, rising to 80 000 t in 1980/81.

— Sariceco—improving 5 500 ha of land and constructing a rice mill in the Haute Sanaga area to produce 15 000 t of husked rice.

— Sodeble—rice growing over a 10 000 ha area in the Ngaoundere region, with a view to producing 30 000 t of flour in 1980/81.

— Industrial pineapple plantation in the Mbam area. This should produce an annual 100 000 t of fruit.

— Planting rubber over a 15 000 ha area in the Kribi region.

### Food industries

— A third cocoa butter factory, with a capacity of 25 000 t.

— Tapping and bottling of mineral water in the Nkongsamba region.

— A distillery to produce alcohol from molasses in Mbandjock.

— A cigar production unit.

— Maltings to supply breweries.

— A unit to produce an estimated 3 000 t of soluble coffee per year.

— A tuna and sardine preserving plant.

### Creation or extension of industries in the construction and public works sector

— Extending the CINECAM cement works to produce 600 000 t instead of 300 000 t per year.

— Setting up an integrated cement works on the coast with a view to exploiting the limestone deposits in the area.

— Creating an industrial ceramics unit to produce mosaic and floor tiles.

— Setting up rural brickworks.



— Doubling ALUCAM's aluminium production.

- Setting up an electric cable and wire production unit.
- Creating an industrial extruding unit to produce aluminium sections.
- Establishing a steel plant to reclaim scrap, etc.

### Chemical industries

- Creating a wood pyrolysis unit.
- An electro-chemical complex at Kribi to electrolyze sea water.
- Construction of an oil refinery near Victoria.

## Mechanics and electrics

**The 4th Plan specifies the following:**

- Assembling heavy lorries and tractors.
- Creating a unit to produce standard size nails and nuts.
- Producing light metal fitments.
- Producing spare parts for electrical equipment.

## Textiles

- Creating a second textile complex with a capacity of 13 million metres of cloth.
- Setting up a weaving unit to produce towelling.
- Setting up a unit to produce household linen and clothing.

## Other industries

- A tyre and inner tube factory for all types of vehicles.
- An industrial production complex to make paper pulp. This will be at Edea and should produce 122 000 t per year.
- Constructing a tannery at Ngaoundere to handle 20 000 cattle skins and 650 000 sheep and goat skins.

## Priority for agriculture gets results

► *The fourth five-year development plan set out in September 1976 concentrates on progress in agriculture, as previous plans have done. Food crops are a vital sector—have the results of the previous plans been adequate here?*

- Cameroon's economy is geared to

agriculture. Although agriculture only accounted for 35 % of GDP in 1975, it nevertheless occupies 80 % of the working population and provides us with 70–75 % of our export earnings. This is why priority in our successive plans has always gone to the development of the rural sector.

The various plans did not always live up to expectations, but, overall, results

**Principal road and rail links**  
(the dotted part of the railway was completed in 1974)







*Opening of the first working session of the Joint Committee of the Consultative Assembly*

## THE CONVENTION AT WORK

### First working session of the Joint Committee

During the week 30 November–4 December, the Joint Committee of the Lomé Convention met in Lomé, the capital of Togo. The 49 ACP and 49 European Parliament representatives drafted resolutions, which are then forwarded as opinions to the Lomé Consultative Assembly and then to the ACP/EEC Council of Ministers. The presence in Lomé of Mr Brinkhorst, President-in-office of the Council of the European Communities, Mr Spénale, President of the European Parliament and Mr Cheysson, EEC Development Commissioner is evidence of the importance attached to the work of the Committee—under the joint chairmanship of Mr Deschamps, Belgian Christian Democratic member of the European Parliament and Mr Kasongo, Representative of Zaire.

The Committee first accepted a draft report by Lord Reay on the management of the Lomé Convention since its advance implementation, and went on to adopt unanimously a statement covering the main points emerging from the lengthy discussions.

There are 16 points to the document, starting with the basic claim for a redefinition of a fairer world economic order. This reflects the Third World's anxiety in the face of the small amount of head-

way made by the major international conferences between rich and poor countries. It is worth mentioning that the European parliamentarians all supported this point.

The Committee then expressed its satisfaction for the way in which the ACP/EEC trade arrangements for the duty-free entry of 99% of ACP products were working and at the excellent start made by the 4th EDF. It noted that the Stabex had also got off to a good start in 1975/76, but recommended in general terms that certain improvements be made.

The Committee mentioned the sugar, beef and veal issues covered by an ACP/EEC presidential conference in October and went on to insist that the ACP should be properly consulted whenever the Community took decisions that affected them. Informing them after the event would not do.

In particular they wanted greater account to be taken of the ACP when generalized preferences, which were likely to cut back on the advantages the ACP had already acquired, were worked out.

The implementation of industrial cooperation should be speeded up and steps should be taken, within the frame-

work of the Lomé Convention, to help countries in southern Africa—particularly Lesotho, which was currently troubled by the intermittent closing of the Trans-kei frontier.

The last point was on the need for rapid consultation with economic and social partners in the ACP. This could coincide with the next ILO general meeting, which they would be attending, in Geneva.

However, the text of a statement alone does not reveal the political background of what are, of necessity, general formulae. Let us therefore look more closely at the points covered by the text:

Some African countries made very specific proposals in respect of the Stabex. No-one was surprised at Rwanda asking for pyrethrum to be put on the list of guaranteed products, nor that Tanzania would like cloves to be included. Gum arabic would be a useful commodity for the poor Sahel countries and rubber of enormous interest to the Cameroon, Liberia and Nigeria. Mr Cheysson was frank in putting the ACP on their guard against over-optimism and Mr Brinkhorst, in the name of the EEC Council, stressed that cooperation, not confrontation, would be the keyword of negotiations with the Third World and that the issue could not be dealt with before the next ACP/EEC Council of Ministers due to be held in Fiji next April. Minerals were the biggest problem. As Mr Cheysson said, there was no market price for these products, since they constituted an integrated market,



largely dominated by multinationals and it was not the multinationals whose interests they wanted to serve.

And it was Mr Cheysson who answered the ACP fears about persistent disagreements over the calculation of sugar prices and the value of the European unit of account in EDF accounts. Even if we are not in agreement as to the details, Mr Cheysson said, the sugar protocol nevertheless does ensure that the EEC is currently guaranteeing a sugar price that is 40% higher than the world price. As for the unit of account—they couldn't have the best of both worlds, asking for European services to be calculated in EUA when they were high and in CFAF when they were.

Jamaica raised the banana problem. The ACP states concerned were told that the banana trade depended on the multinationals which dominated the market and more than parliamentary wishes and expressions of good will from European governments were needed to right the situation. It could only be improved by an aggressive ACP trade policy.

The last delicate problem covered was in the Joint Committee's recommendation to organize consultation with the "social partners". How far should unions take part in industrial cooperation bodies? Many European parliamentarians feel that they should take an active part, without which intensive development would inevitably create misunderstanding. In particular there would be fears as to employment and the standard of living of working people in Europe which could well lead to a refusal to help the Third World.

Although certain African governments are not keen to see unions get a hold in this area, it would be in their own interest to take account of the psychological climate in Europe. This is why everyone was in favour of all the social partners being consulted as quickly as possible.

After the final declaration, the two co-chairmen of the Joint Committee gave details of the discussions to the press. Then a delegation of European parliamentarians left Lomé for Benin, Ghana and Liberia. This was the first time there had been any contact between parliamentarians and Ghana and Liberia both of which are new members of the Lomé Convention. □

LOUIS C.D. JOOS

## ACP EMBASSIES

Four new ACP ambassadors have presented their credentials to the President of the Council and the President of the Commission of the European Communities, they are: H.E. Ambassador Satya N. Nandan from Fiji (accredited to the EEC, ECSC and EAEC); H.E. Ambassador Donald B. Rainford, Jamaica, (to the EEC); H.E. Ambassador Thabo E. Ntlhakana, Lesotho, (EEC, ECSC, EAEC) and H.E. Daniel Narcis Mtonga Mloka, Tanzania, (EEC, ECSC, EAEC).

### FIJI

#### Satya Nand Nandan appointed Ambassador

Mr Nandan was appointed first resident ambassador to the EEC after six years in the Fiji mission to the United Nations in New York. He was born in 1936 in Suva, Fiji, and was educated in his early years in Fiji and New Zealand. Later he went to London where he took his LLB and qualified as a barrister in Lincoln's Inn. He also studied international economics, history and institu-

tions. When he returned to Fiji he became a barrister and solicitor of the Supreme Court of Fiji. He was posted to New York in 1970 and acted as Representative of Fiji from the 25th to the 30th session of the UN General Assembly. His work in New York has included service on the Political, Security and Legal committees, and the Special Sessions on the New Economic Order and International Economic Cooperation. He has also served on the decolonisation committee (the Committee of 24) and on the preparatory committee for the third UN conference on the law of the sea. He is the current leader of the Fiji delegation to the Law of the Sea Conference. Ambassador Nandan's interests include reading and various sports, and he holds college blues in rugby, soccer and cricket. His wife, Mrs Zarine Nandan is a graduate of Bombay and Columbia universities and is a journalist by profession. □

### LESOTHO

#### Thabo Ephraim Ntlhakana appointed Ambassador

Mr Ntlhakana has come from London, where he was Lesotho's High Commissioner, to become Ambassador to Belgium and the EEC. He has been active in government and diplomacy since 1965 when he graduated from Pius XII University College, Roma, later part of the University of Lesotho, Botswana and

*Mr S.N. Nandan presenting his credentials to Mr Ortoli*





Swaziland. Mr Ntlhakana was born in 1935 in Leribe, Lesotho, and was educated at the Lesotho High School in Maseru, the capital, and then at the Basutoland Teacher Training College in Morija. Before taking his degree, he taught for five years at the Hlotse Secondary School. Immediately after university he began his career in broadcasting and journalism and became a government information officer. After four years as a Counsellor in the Lesotho High Commission in London (1970-74) and a brief period as Chief of Protocol in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Maseru, he was appointed Director of Information and Broadcasting. In October 1975 he returned to London as High Commissioner and a year later was transferred to Brussels. Mr Ntlhakana is married with four daughters and one son. He has travelled widely in Africa and Europe and acted as alternate leader of the Lesotho delegation to UNCTAD III in Santiago. He enjoys singing, walking and watching sport, and is a keen gardener. □

## TANZANIA

### Daniel Narcis Mtonga Mloka also accredited to the EEC

Since 1972 Mr Mloka has been Tanzania's ambassador to Federal Germany in Bonn, and has now also been accredited to the EEC. He was born at Matombo, Morogoro, in Tanzania in 1938 where he later attended primary school. After his secondary education in Makenge and Dar-es-Salaam he went to Makerere University College in Uganda where he obtained a BA degree from the University of London. His first government position was as Assistant Secretary in the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives between 1962-64, but since then, apart from a brief period in the Ministry of Information and Tourism, he has been active in diplomacy and foreign affairs. His first foreign posting was to Germany, where he has since returned, and later to Canada. He was also given diplomatic training under UNITAR in both Geneva and New York. Leaving the post of First Secretary in Tanzania's High Commission in Ottawa in 1967 he returned home for five years, rising to the position of Principal Secretary in the

*Mr Daniel Narcis Mtonga Mloka presenting his credentials to Mr Ortoli*



*Mr Ntlhakana presenting his credentials to Mr Ortoli*





Ministry of Foreign Affairs. From there he went to Bonn as Tanzania's ambassador. Mr Mloka is married with four children. □

## Rwanda

**Late news.** The President of the

Council and the President of the Commission of the European Communities have also received H.E. Ambassador Calixte Habamenshi who presented his letters of credence in his capacity of Head of the Rwandese Republic delegation to the European Communities. □



J.L. Debaize EEC

**Mr Rainford had a discussion with Mr Ortoli after presenting his credentials as the new Jamaican Ambassador**

## JAMAICA

### Donald B. Rainford appointed Ambassador

Ambassador Rainford was educated in England, Canada and Belgium where he studied economics, international relations and international law. On entering the Jamaican government service he was first attached to the Ministry of Finance for three years before joining the foreign service in 1966. During the past ten years he has served in different capacities at the Mission of Jamaica at the United Nations in New York, the Jamaican High Commission in Canada, and more recently as Minister Counsellor at the Jamaican Mission to the EEC in Brussels during the negotiations leading up to the Lomé Convention. Ambassador Rainford was subsequently Deputy High Commissioner and then from

March 1975 to August 1976 Jamaican High Commissioner in London. He has now returned to Brussels as Jamaican ambassador to Belgium and the EEC.

## EDF

### Latest financing decisions from 4th EDF resources

**Republic of Rwanda — Construction and equipping of the Butare Faculty of Medicine (4th EDF):** A grant of 1 520 000 EUA.

Rwanda needs to be able to train medical staff to meet the country's health requirements and the Community is providing a 1 520 000 EUA grant for

the construction and equipping of the Butare Faculty of Medicine. The Faculty will be next to the hospital and will fulfil three fundamental functions—teaching and administration, practical work and research.

The project will help improve working conditions for both students and staff. At the moment they only have old, unsuitable premises and not enough laboratories. The project is one of a series of health schemes in Rwanda financed from bilateral and multilateral aid.

**Republic of Sierra Leone — Equipping hospitals, dispensaries and health centres (4th EDF):** A grant of 2 150 000 EUA.

The aim here is to improve the existing health infrastructure by supplying medical and hospital equipment to hospitals, dispensaries and health centres. A training scheme for maintenance staff will be run alongside this with a view to ensuring that both new and existing equipment will be kept in good order.

The project as a whole aims at improving the standards of diagnosis and treatment for both in- and out-patients and to go some way towards meeting the priority needs of the population in the health sector. It is in line with the Sierra Leone government objectives of strengthening existing infrastructure by improving equipment.

**Republic of Upper Volta — Land improvements below rural dams (stage II):** A grant of 1 778 000 EUA.

This should enable 300 ha of plains, used for rice and vegetable growing, to be improved by a system of irrigation and drainage. The areas in question are all below rural dams built with 1st EDF financing. The scheme is a continuation of a first stage of improvements to 150 ha of land, financed from the 3rd EDF (569 000 EUA).

The project also involves setting up a works team which would carry out and then maintain the improvements.

**Republic of Mali — Development of Fisheries, phase II (4th EDF):** A grant of 4 828 000 EUA.

A first phase of pre-investment and experiment in the fisheries sector, financed from the EDF, has been giving very positive results over the last three years from the point of view of both the usefulness of the scheme and the possibilities of implementation.

This project, in which Community aid will play an important part, is a continuation of phase I and has the following aims:



- to step up the income and standards of living of the fishermen;
- gradually meet the demand for fresh fish on the local market;
- make for greater optimization and rational exploitation of the country's fish resources and to increase outlets;
- push up quantities and introduce quality control of exported dried/smoked fish.

**Republic of the Gambia — Supply of the means of agricultural production (4th EDF):** A grant of 982 000 EUA.

This will enable growers in the Mac Carthy Island and Upper River provinces to be supplied with animal-drawn tillage equipment, draught teams and selected seed at prices they can manage.

The materials provided will meet the demands of the soil and main crops, and will include ox-drawn carts, seeders, ploughs, groundnut lifters and so on.

This will make it possible to intensify production by introducing the right growing techniques at the right period of the year and by avoiding labour bottlenecks during heavy periods.

The scheme covering 13 000 ha is some 20% of ground currently under cultivation in the area concerned. When operating normally, around year 6, it should provide an extra 8-9 000 t per year, including rice and cereals and 5 000 t of groundnuts, representing a gross value of some 1 400 000 EUA.

**Republic of Senegal — Study for the Tambacounda-Kedougou highway, Di-anke-Makam-Kedougou section (4th EDF):** A grant of 460 000 EUA.

This grant should enable an economic and technical study of a permanent road link to be made. It will be a modern, 200 km stretch of highway between Di-anke and Kedougou, extending the Dakar-Kaolack-Tambacounda-Dianka highway further into the south-east of Senegal.

The economic grounds for the project will be gone into in greater detail and a thorough set of technical specifications including the implementation study and the documents needed for the call for tender procedure, will be drawn up.

**Democratic Republic of Sudan — Economic and technical study of the Kadugli-Talodi road (4th EDF):** A grant of 300 000 EUA.

Like the previous project, this also aims at carrying out an economic and technical study for a permanent road link. This highway will be a modern stretch of 100 km between the towns of Kadugli and Talodi in the southern part of Kordofan province.

**Cooperative republic of Guyana — Comprehensive feasibility study of the technical, commercial and socio-economic aspects of a project to set up port and fishing facilities (4th EDF):** A grant of 140 000 EUA.

This comprehensive feasibility study will cover the economic, technical and socio-economic aspects of a project to provide port and fishing facilities on the east bank of the Demerara river near Georgetown.

It will involve, in particular:

- an analysis of the technical and economic aspects of the processing facilities;
- an examination of the repercussions of the project on the infrastructure;
- an assessment of the effect of the project on the construction and exploitation of fishing vessels;
- an assessment of the consequences for available fish stocks;
- an assessment of demand for fish products on the home and export markets and an indication of the right marketing and distribution systems;
- a calculation of the costs of the investment, the working capital required and the commercial viability of the project;
- an assessment of the socio-economic effects (on employment, taxation, foreign exchange earnings and training).

**Comoros —** Following the favourable opinion delivered by the EDF Committee at its 111th meeting, the Commission decided on 1 December 1976 to finance a technical assistance project in the Comoros for supplies of equipment and small repairs and maintenance in an amount of 220 000 EUA, from the resources of the fourth EDF.

This financing will help to rapidly provide the Comoros with much needed technical assistance and various supplies for the fields of water engineering, electricity production and health, sectors that are considered priorities because of their impact on economic productivity and the well-being of the population. This Community aid is designed to make it easier to carry on running the existing

installations and machinery under satisfactory conditions.

**Republic of Zaire — Kenge-Kikwit highway Section B: Mosango-Kikwit (second and third EDFs):** Grants of 5 290 000 EUA second EDF (i.e. at present: 5 055 300 Z.), 3 409 400 EUA third EDF (approximately: 3 256 800 Z.).

The aim of this project is to finance the overspending resulting from the increased cost of the Kenge-Kikwit road construction works on the section B from Mosango to Kikwit.

The reasons for the overspending are many. Among the most important, however, are the general increase in prices—which has been felt very badly in Zaire—and, incidentally, the fact that many of the points in the study originally drawn up for the project on non-Community funds, had to be modified.

**Republic of Burundi — Construction and equipment of a faculty of science at Bujumbura (4th EDF):** Grant of 3 500 000 EUA (i.e. at present approximately 339 360 000 frs. Burundi).

The aim of this project is to construct and equip a Faculty of science and a student's hostel at Bujumbura. It is to provide the establishment with lecture rooms and laboratories for practical and research work (5 456 m<sup>2</sup>) which it at present lacks and to give students access to the scientific disciplines which are of primary importance for the economic development of the country by providing them with satisfactory living and working conditions. The hostel, which is to have a surface area of 4 608 m<sup>2</sup>, will house 208 students.

By virtue of a Protocol Agreement between Belgium and Burundi, Belgium will be responsible for covering part of the operating costs of the establishment and training the staff that will eventually take over from the technical assistants at present working in the University.

**Republic of Cameroon — Supplementary financing for the Dibombari agro-industrial Palmoil complex (4th EDF):** Grant of 2 500 000 EUA (i.e. at present 692 890 000 F-CFA).

This additional contribution from the Community, together with Cameroonian capital, will go towards the completion of the project to set up a 6 295 ha agro-industrial complex of selected oil palms near Dibombari.

The scheme first received Community



aid from the third EDF and implementation began in 1973. However, the financing obtained in 1973 is inadequate to cover all the investment costs, mainly because of the sharp rise in prices over the last three years.

**Democratic Republic of the Sudan — Improvement of telecommunications (4th EDF):** Grant of 6 794 000 EUA (i.e. at present approximately 2 605 500 Ls.).

This project fits into the framework of a vast Panafrican telecommunications operation called PANAFTTEL, which is the product of a recommendation adopted in 1964 by an OAU Committee and provides for the establishment of direct telecommunications between 37 African countries. The whole of this large-scale operation provides for some 20 000 km of radio links and 17 international switching centres.

The financing decided upon by the Commission is designed to cover:

- replacement of the existing old, overloaded switching centre at Khartoum by a new automatic unit for national and international calls;

- extension of the capacity of the existing satellite earth station situated at Umm Haraz, near Khartoum, by means of a supplementary unit for direct communication with other countries.

The other projects that are part of the Sudanese section of PANAFTTEL will be financed in the main by the Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development.

**Ethiopia — Coffee improvement project including a food crop component (4th EDF):** Grant of 12 870 000 EUA (i.e. at present 29 369 340 birro).

In addition to low yield rates, the Ethiopian coffee industry at present is facing a number of serious problems; the production techniques are rudimentary, coffee trees are getting very old and the outbreak of the coffee berry disease is becoming a big threat to the industry as a whole.

The objectives of the project, the first one in Ethiopia submitted to the Commission for a financing decision, is to increase the yield per unit of area in important coffee-growing regions by introducing improved cultivation techniques, disease and pest control measures, supplying inputs and providing credit and marketing facilities; it is also proposed to provide the necessary supplies, facilities and services including research and technical assistance and infrastructures, notably rural roads.

The project will contribute towards improving food-crop production by both coffee farmers and other farmers in the project areas by providing farm inputs in the form of fertilizers and selected seeds. The project is located in eight districts distributed over the five major coffee-producing administrative regions of Ethiopia.

After four years, 33 500 farmers are expected to be using improved cultivation techniques. This corresponds to an area of roughly 25 000 ha of modernized coffee plantations and to a coffee production of approximately 178 000 tonnes.

#### 4th EDF totals to date

Another financing decision came into force on 18 October 1976: it concerns the Cameroonian project to extend the port of Douala and the Commission had decided to finance this project following the favourable opinion delivered by the European Development Fund Committee at its 108th meeting.

Other total commitments have been taken to date under the fourth EDF are — 353 000 EUA under the Stabex system, having been the subject of the transfer agreement dated 21 October for the Central African Republic;

- 19 959 000 EUA in the form of risk capital, following decisions taken by the Board of Directors of the European Investment Bank on 21 October and on 1 December 1976;

- 5 508 000 EUA interest bonus (grants) with regard to loans granted by the EIB from its own resources under the Lomé Convention.

Thus under the 4th EDF the grand total of commitments to date is:

346 600 000 EUA of which

- 240 730 000 EUA on grants
- 8 346 000 EUA on special loans
- 25 387 000 EUA on risk capital
- 72 137 000 EUA on Stabex.

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## EIB

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**Kenya.** A total loan worth 2 000 000 EUA (some 18.5 million Kenyan shillings) has been granted to the

Development Finance Company of Kenya Ltd (DFCK). This company will make loans, with the agreement of the EIB in each case, to help with the development of various industrial schemes throughout the country.

This is the first time the EIB has granted aid from its own resources under the Lomé Convention and is its first financing in English-speaking Africa.

The Convention provides for 390 million EUA to be granted as long-term loans from the EIB's own resources between now and 1980.

It is also the first time that the EIB has used the global loan formula in Africa. This system of financing enables the Bank to transfer resources via experienced local financing bodies and has been used successfully in most of the member countries of the EEC. Projects covered by global loans are often labour-intensive and the number of jobs created may be relatively high as compared to the size of the investment—which is particularly important as Kenya's economic development stands.

This global loan has been granted for 11 years, but repayments will not start for the next four. An interest rate subsidy of 3% (from the resources of the EDF) provided by the Lomé Convention, will bring actual rate of interest down to 6%.

#### An industrial project involving Togo, the Ivory Coast and Ghana

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has provided a total of 20 million EUA (CFA F 5 400 million) to help finance construction of a clinker production plant and installations at a limestone quarry at Tagligbo, near Lomé, in Togo.

The major part of this sum is in the form of a loan equivalent to 14 million EUA, drawn from the Bank's own resources, granted to Ciments de l'Afrique de l'Ouest-CIMAO, a company created by an international treaty concluded in December 1975 between the Republics of Togo, the Ivory Coast and Ghana, which hold 92% of its capital in equal shares.

Apart from this, acting as agent for the EEC the Bank has concluded three risk capital operations, each the equivalent of 2 million EUA (about 540 million CFA F) accorded to the Ivory Coast, Ghana and Togo.



**Mauritius.** A loan equivalent to 2 million EUA (14.8 million Mauritius rupees) has been provided by the European Investment Bank to help finance improved electricity supplies in Mauritius.

The loan will be used for a further extension of the largest thermal power station in Mauritius, at Fort Victoria. In July last year, under provisions of the second Yaoundé Convention, the Bank granted a loan of 1 750 000 EUA to contribute towards the cost of an earlier phase of works.

This new project will raise the power station's generating capacity to 62.4 MW which will enable Mauritius to meet expected increases in demand over the coming years, resulting from the rapid development of industry and tourism.

**Cameroon and Chad.** The European Investment Bank has mounted three financing operations under the Lomé Convention for a total of 23.3 million units of account (equivalent to about CFA F 6 500 m), in support of projects in Cameroon and Chad.

The largest of these three operations is a loan of 13.5 million EUA from the bank's own resources to Société Nationale d'Electricité du Cameroun (SONEL), repayable over 15 years. The interest rate is 6 1/8 %, after deduction of a 3 % subsidy drawn from the resources of the European Development Fund (EDF) as provided for under the terms of the Lomé Convention.

The funds will be used to part-finance construction of a dam and hydroelectric power station on the Sanaga River at Song-Loulou, together with transmission lines and switching stations, which will help SONEL to meet fast-rising energy requirements in southern and western Cameroon.

Acting as agent of the EEC, using resources provided for under the Lomé Convention for risk capital assistance, the Bank has provided the following "conditional" loan (1):

— 7.5 million EUA granted to the Republic of Chad over 20 years including an 8-year grace period, with interest at 2 %, to part-finance the Government's majority holding in Société Nationale Sucrière du Tchad-SONASUT.

(1) Conditional loans are repayable usually after fulfilment of certain conditions showing whether the project has overcome the risks inherent at the start and had achieved a certain profitability.

This will assist the construction by the company of a sugar complex at Banda in the south of the country where some 3 300 hectares are to be developed as sugar plantations and a factory is to be built with a refining capacity of about 30 000 tons per year. This will cover home market needs for at least ten years to come, replacing imports which at present weigh heavily on the balance of payments. About 1 900 permanent jobs will be created by this project, as well as some 1 000 seasonal jobs. □

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## IMPO/EXPO TRADE FAIR

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Many of the 43 developing countries which attended the IMPO/EXPO Trade Fair in London during October have come away with important orders for their products. Some 2 500 trade inquiries were recorded during the fair, and a number of these have now turned into concrete orders. The object of the fair, held at the World Trade Centre in London, was to help developing countries market their goods in Europe. It was organised by the Developing Countries' Import Opportunities Office which is financed by the British Ministry of Overseas Development and forms part of the London Chamber of Commerce. Over half the cost of staging the fair was met by the European Community, and additional funds were also provided by the Commonwealth Secretariat. The variety and quality of the products on display impressed the several thousand businessmen who visited the fair. Goods on display included handicrafts, tools, furniture, clothing, clocks, electronics, wines and spirits, various wood, plastic and rubber products, newsprint and paper. There was also a Caribbean fashion show highlighting beachwear. During the course of the fair a seminar was organised where experts gave advice to the visiting delegates on how to market their products in Europe and elsewhere. Examples of some of the orders made during and after the fair include:

— Mauritius, an order worth half a million pounds for knitwear.

— Trinidad and Tobago, an order worth £20 000 a month for the supply of confectionary to Ireland.

— Sierra Leone, a West German order for 5 000 pairs of corduroy trousers.

— Malawi, an order for 5 000 tonnes of groundnuts.

— Cameroon, six hundred articles of basketwear.

— Ghana, canned fruit worth £10 000.

Mr Reg Prentice, Britain's former Minister for Overseas Development opened the fair, the first of its sort to be held in London, and it is expected that many more orders will follow from the initial contacts made between producers and buyers during the fair.

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## SUDAN

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**While in the Sudan Mr Cheys-son signed two financing agreements with Mr Naseldin Mustafa, Sudanese Minister of State for Planning.**

The agreements amount to 344 000 EUA (1) placed at the disposal of the Sudan by the EEC in the form of non-reimbursable aid.

The signature of these agreements has a double significance, in that:

— on the one hand, the agreements represent the first commitments of the EEC for the Sudan under the Lomé Convention;

— on the other hand, the agreements also represent for the EEC the first concrete application of Title III of the Lomé Convention concerning industrial cooperation between the Community and the ACP States.

The projects in question are the following:

(1) Technical assistance and feasibility studies programme for the development of the building materials industry. Amount: 200 000 EUA.

The project aims to increase and diversify the capacity of the Sudanese building materials industry, seen as part of the realization of a vast investment programme (housing, industrial and office building, schools, hospitals, roads).

The programme should bring about an assessment of the long-term needs of the industry in question, an estimation of

(1) One European Unit of Account (EUA)=about 0.40 Sudanese pounds.



building materials requirements, an inventory of the already known sources of raw materials in this area, and an evaluation of the possibilities of introducing new or improved construction methods or materials.

(2) Feasibility study on the manufacture of alcohol, bakery yeast and animal feeding stuffs from molasses. Amount: 114 000 EUA.

The rapid growth of the sugar industry in the Sudan has led the national authorities to interest themselves in the use of certain sugar by-products, including molasses.

In this respect, a programme for the treatment of the product is envisaged for the production of bakery yeast, alcohol and animal feeding stuffs.

The financing agreement therefore relates to the preparation of a complete feasibility study on the technical, commercial and economic aspects of creating a plant. The study will include, inter alia, an analysis of the problems posed by replacement of petroleum products by fermented industrial alcohol and the calculation of investment costs, and the commercial viability of the various other technical alternatives. □

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## NIGERIA

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### Dr Ijewere sees several difficulties in the application of the Lomé Convention

The Nigerian ambassador to the EEC, Dr G.O. Ijewere has described as satisfactory the implementation of the Lomé Convention's STABEX scheme (Stabilisation of Export Earnings) which has given relief to some 17 ACP States which suffered a short fall in their export earnings.

Addressing the Foreign Service Cadets from EEC countries ambassador Ijewere noted that despite the problems encountered in the implementation of the Convention, the ACP states were reassured by the fact that in the process of implementation, they had found built-in mechanisms for resolving problems or ameliorating their effects by a process of

continuous dialogue between the two sides, and this, he thought, was the main source of strength of the Lomé Convention.

Ambassador Ijewere listed four problems which have been encountered in the implementation of the convention, these included problems within the EEC member states, where the party system makes it necessary for each government, in all major decisions, to take account not only of public opinion, but also of the interests of special pressure groups that influence such opinions.

He stated that the most powerful of these pressure groups, as far as EEC relationship with the ACP states was concerned, were the farmers and trade unions.

This, was well illustrated in the problems facing ACP exporters of beef and veal, sugar and groundnuts to the Community States who in recent years have found it necessary to erect barriers which would reduce the import of beef and veal into Europe in order to protect European farmers.

Dr Ijewere said that the second problem arose out of the lack of accurate and reliable trade figures in ACP states which has not made it easy for them to argue their case convincingly when trade figures produced by them were challenged by EEC negotiators.

The third problem to which Ambassador Ijewere drew attention was the need for consultation between the two sides before decisions affecting the other side were taken.

The fourth problem arose from the Community's obligations to third parties mainly in the area of trade liberalisation, through the Generalised Scheme of Preferences (GSP) and the Multilateral Trade Negotiations (MTN). He stressed that while ACP states were not opposed to trade liberalisation in favour of developing countries, they were not happy when the concessions they enjoyed under Lomé eroded.

Finally the ambassador expressed the hope that when the Centre for Industrial Development is established Nigeria will have the opportunity to continue to make valuable contributions to the development of industrial co-operation between the EEC and the ACP states. He said that Nigeria will seek assistance from the community in the training of skilled manpower, in research and development planning in the transfer of technology, especially in the vital areas of agro-industries, petro-chemicals and petroleum technology, and social infrastructure in the fields of education, health and housing. □

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## THE HAGUE

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EEC Heads of Government met on 29 & 30 November 1976 in The Hague (Netherlands) for the 6th session of the European Council. They adopted a policy on the North-South Dialogue.

The European Council confirmed the importance it attaches to the whole series of problems relating to international economic cooperation and to the EEC. It considers that the nature, composition and object of this conference endows it with special significance which warrants the continuation of efforts already under way.

The European Council feels that additional efforts need to be made by everyone concerned, with a view to reaching mutually satisfactory conclusions which will enable us to make considerable progress in international economic cooperation and make an important contribution to the economic development of the developing countries.

The Community, for its part, is aware of the increasing interdependence of world economies and anxious to encourage the right sort of climate for international economic cooperation. It is willing to make a positive contribution to the extent of its ability and in the light of the way in which its economy develops.

After a discussion on this subject, the Council confirmed its interest in the success of the North-South Dialogue and asked the relevant Community authorities to bear this in mind when working on the whole series of questions at issue.

### The new European Commission

The Heads of Government also accepted the list of names of Commission members to take office on 6 January next. The names were published by Mr Joop den Uyl, the Dutch Prime Minister.

The next president of the Commission will be Roy Jenkins, British ex-Home Secretary (Labour). The other British member is Christopher Tugendhat (a 39-year old Conservative and ex-journalist). France's François-Xavier Ortoli the current president, will remain, as will Claude



Cheysson (Socialist). The two German members—Wilhelm Haferkamp (Socialist) and Guido Brunner (Liberal) also stay. Italy will be sending two new members—Lorenzo Natali (Christian Democrat, ex-minister for agriculture) and Antonio Giolitti (Socialist). Denmark's member, Finn Olav Gundelach remains, as does the recently appointed Luxembourg member, Mr Vouel (Socialist). The Netherlands have appointed Mr Henk Vredeling (Socialist, currently Minister for Defence) and Belgium will be sending Etienne Davignon (Director of Policy at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs and President of the International Energy Agency). Finally, Richard Burke (Fine Gael, currently Minister for Education) has been appointed for Ireland.

The President and the members of the Commission have now to proceed with the task of allotting the various duties. □

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## EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

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In a answer to a question by Miss Flesch the Commission gave details of official development assistance (ODA) provided by the EEC member states in 1974 and 1975.

The ODA provided by the Community countries increased from nearly US \$5 000 million in 1974 to approximately US \$6 000 million in 1975, an increase of 24 %. This 1975 figure represents 40 % of the total amount of the financial resources both public and private made available to the developing countries and the multilateral organizations (1974: 44 %) and 44 % of the total ODA provided by the member countries of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) (1974: 43 %). The EEC countries thus increased their ODA as a proportion of their combined GNP from 0.42 % in 1974 to 0.45 % in 1975.

The proportion of grants in their total commitments increased from 66 % in 1974 to 76 % in 1975 and the grant element in those commitments in-

creased from 87 % to 91 %. These 1975 figures were well above the DAC averages.

Although these aid terms are good and the grant element is well above the target of 84 % set by the DAC in 1972, the same cannot be said of the volume of aid. The percentage of the combined GNP of Community countries accounted for by ODA, although much better than the 0.36 % achieved by the DAC countries as a whole in 1975 is still a very long way from the target of 0.7 % of GNP set in the United Nations recommendation. There are also considerable disparities between the various Member States. In 1975 the Netherlands, with a rate of 0.74 % became the first EEC country (and after Sweden the second DAC member) to reach this target whereas Italy moved further away from the target with 0.12 % in 1975 as against 0.14 % in 1974. For Ireland, which is not a member of the DAC the rate was 0.085 %.

The acceptance of the target of 0.7 % of GNP seems to have played an important role in the aid effort. The Netherlands (0.75 %) and Belgium (0.59 %), which accepted this target without reservation, have a relatively high rate. Denmark too (0.57 %), which accepted the target but aimed at attaining it in the second half of the decade, has made very rapid progress in recent years. France, second in order of relative importance with 0.62 %, Germany (0.39 %) and the United Kingdom (0.39 %) all accepted the target but did not wish to specify when it would be reached. Italy, whose rate is the furthest from the international target, is the only country not to have subscribed to the United Nations recommendation. However, the imbalance between the volume and terms of the aid supplied by the Member States and the economic resources at their disposal, as revealed, for example, by their *per capita* GNP or their balance of payments position, shows even more clearly the disparity between the performances of the individual EEC countries and the distance that still has to be covered before their aid policies can be genuinely harmonized.

Reaching the international target of 0.7 % of GNP and increasing the volume of aid have always been regarded by the Commission as being among the main aims of coordination and harmonization of development aid policies. These aims were therefore given an important place in the Commission's work which led up to the Resolution on the harmonization

and coordination of cooperation policies adopted by the Council on 16 July 1974. The Commission has tried to define the object of this resolution, outline a programme of priority issues to be tackled, and define the mechanisms and procedures for implementing it. The memorandum from the Federal Republic of Germany advocating a programme of action for the further integration of the Community's development cooperation policies has placed added emphasis on the need for an early start to be made on practical work. Moreover, as the EEC countries indicated in recent statements at UNCTAD and in the Dialogue, they intend to increase their ODA rapidly so as to reach the international target of 0.7 % as soon as possible. Those EEC countries that are the furthest from this target have undertaken to do their utmost to make up the lost ground, which should reduce the gap between their aid performances and in the long run facilitate the harmonization of their development aid policies. □

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## ACP Tourism

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In a reply to a parliamentary question the Commission gave figures showing the economic importance of tourism in the Lomé Convention countries. Of the 49 ACP states, only 25 receive sufficient earnings from tourism for the amounts to be included in statistics on the tourist trade. These 25 ACP states can be classified in function of the amount of foreign exchange earned from tourism and the percentage of those earnings as a proportion of the country's GNP.

Among these 25 ACP states three main categories may be distinguished:

i. Six countries in which earnings from tourism represent over 5 % of GNP. These countries are, in ascending order: Jamaica (8 % of GNP), Seychelles (11 %), Fiji (13 %), Barbados (20 %), Grenada (30 %) and Bahamas (70 %).

In these countries, which are all islands, the part played by tourism in the economy is obviously very important, indeed essential. In the case of some of them at least the economy can be said to be dependent on tourism.

ii. Three countries in which, by contrast, earnings from tourism account for less



than 0.1 % of GNP. In these three countries (Nigeria, Sudan, Ghana), the importance of tourism is at present virtually negligible.

iii. Sixteen countries in which earnings from tourism represent between 0.1 %

and 5 % of GNP. Here tourism has in varying degrees an undoubted role to play in bringing in foreign exchange without, however, being a determining factor in any country's economy. These countries, nearly all of which are in Africa, are (in descending order): Kenya (4 %

of GNP), Mauritius and Trinidad (3 %), Chad (2 %), Tanzania and Guyana (1 %), Malawi and Gabon (0.8 %), Uganda (0.7 %), Ethiopia and Zambia (0.5 %), Ivory Coast and Somalia (0.4 %), Senegal (0.3 %), Upper Volta and Zaire (0.2 %). □

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## GENERAL INFORMATION

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### EEC COUNCIL

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#### Coordination of development policies and aid to non-associated countries

Following its discussion on 8 November 1976 on development co-operation, the Council adopted in December under the written procedure:

— a resolution on the strengthening of the coordination and harmonization of development cooperation policies within the Community.

The aim of this resolution is to provide a fresh impetus with a view to making the development cooperation policies of the EEC countries and the European Community as a whole more consistent and more closely complementary, affirming Community cohesion and enabling the Community to continue to play a constructive part in relations between developed and developing countries.

— a decision on the allocation of 20 million EUA entered in the 1976 budget for Community financial and technical aid for non-associated developing countries.

Further to the general agreement reached during its 410th meeting on 18 and 19 October 1976 on the commitment in 1976 of the 20 million EUA appropriation entered in the Community budget for 1976, the Council allocated this appropriation on the basis of the guidelines laid down by the Commission.

The following projects will receive EEC finance in 1976:

— Bangladesh: 57 000 ha irrigation project at Barisal; Community aid of 2.5 million EUA on a co-financing basis with the IDA and the Bangladesh Government;

— Bolivia: financing of an agricultural development and processing project through the Bolivian Government and the Banco Industrial (BISA)—contribution covering the total project cost of 2 million EUA;

— India: drought-prone areas programme in Uttar Pradesh—EEC contribution of 6 million EUA to the total project cost of US \$17 million, the balance being financed by the Indian Government;

— Indonesia: pilot project for the cultivation of vegetable protein (soya-beans) planned by the Indonesian Government at an estimated cost of 1.3 million EUA EEC aid (through the Asian Development Bank) of 1 million EUA, Indonesia's contribution being 0.3 million EUA;

— Pakistan: agricultural improvement project (EEC finance of 3 million EUA on a co-financing basis with the IDA and the Pakistan Government;

— Sri Lanka: reconstruction of a reservoir; Community finance for the full cost of 2 million EUA;

— Regional projects:

● Asian Development Bank (ADB) Technical Assistance Special Fund—Community contribution 1.5 million EUA.

● ICRISAT'S (International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics) 1977 programme—Community contribution of 2 million EUA for research activities relating in particular to the improvement of sorghum, millet, certain kinds of tropical pulse and groundnuts. □

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### EEC-UNIDO

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#### Cooperation agreement on industrial schemes in the developing countries

The Executive Director of UNIDO (UN Industrial Development Organisation), Dr Abd-El Rahman Khane made an official visit to the Commission of the European Communities at the end of November 1976. He was accompanied by Mr Sylla, UNIDO's Director of external relations, and Mr Padolecchia, Principal Counsellor. Mr Khane talked with Claude Cheysson, development commissioner, and with the people in charge of the Commission's industrialization policy.

Dr Khane's aim was to establish an agreement to bring about industrial cooperation between the two institutions in Third World countries. Action by DG VIII (the Commission's development directorate) was mainly concentrated in the ACP countries who had signed the Lomé Convention and it is thought that UNIDO/Commission cooperation will tend to involve the same countries. However, joint UNIDO/Commission aid to industrialization in the developing countries will also cover other countries as well. The UNIDO director outlined cooperation with the EEC to accelerate the industrialization of the developing countries for the "Courier".

Both UNIDO and the EEC development directorate are concerned with the economic development of the Third World. Both institutions, Mr Khane said, could study the areas where joint intervention could help development projects





*Dr Abd-El Rahman Khane, Director of the UNIDO, tells the "Courier" about the object of his visit: cooperation with the Community for Third World development. Mr Sylla (left), Director of UNIDO's external relations and Mrs Thérèse Gastart, head of the UN Office in Brussels*

advance quickly. Since the Lima meeting in 1975, UNIDO had had the sort of global cooperation policy that demanded a general analysis of schemes to be undertaken, but there also had to be a search for the essential means of implementing that policy. Cooperation with other aid and development organizations, particularly the European Community, was one of these means, Mr Khane said, particularly since the Lima Conference had stated UNIDO's prime aim as pushing up the developing countries' share in world industrial production from 7% to 25% over the next 25 years. UNIDO's first job would be to draw up a report on what the international organizations have done or would be doing in respect of industrialization in the Third World.

Its second task, in Dr Khane's eyes, would be to take stock of the current level of industrialization in developing and industrialized countries to see what mechanisms need changing if the developing countries were to be helped to industrialize. This will also help the industrialized countries arrive at a better understanding of needs with a view to taking the necessary steps, particularly in

sectors which had a real bearing on the general industrial activity in the developing countries. These sectors could be planning, financial and tariff questions, the transfer of technology and, most important, the training of higher technical management staff.

UNIDO's third task would be to carry out studies to identify the needs of each sector of industry and to reveal how each group of countries would share in achieving the aim of 25% of industrial production over the next 25 years. The Director did point out that this would exclude the start of industrial specialization in view of the considerable needs of these countries.

Dr Abd-El Rahman Khane also suggested that, although the work on transforming UNIDO into a specialized body with an industrial development fund was going slowly, this solution seemed a good one, since the new UNIDO could deal directly with the people in charge of the economy in the various member countries, which would be a major advantage in the organization's technical assistance schemes. A formula such as this would also make for better cooperation with other similar organizations

such as the Centre for Industrial Cooperation set up by the Lomé Convention. Industrial development and the transfer of technology should not be a one way traffic (north-south). It should also be along horizontal lines between developing countries, and, Dr Khane added, one of the organization's aims was to prepare the developing countries to better absorb the new technologies (both technically and culturally) in collaboration with bodies like UNESCO.

Dr Khane said he felt that the Lomé Convention was a breakthrough in the ideas and practice of international cooperation.

It should be remembered that the Agreement signed with the EEC concentrated on industrial studies, technical assistance, the promotion and financing of industrial investments, industrial technology and cooperation between developing countries. □

L.P.

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## ABEDIA

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Mr Cheysson, the EEC's development commissioner, spoke at the opening of the annual meeting of the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (ABEDIA) during November in Khartoum.

Mr Cheysson recalled that after centuries of war and disputes, the Europeans are on the way to unity; they do not intend to establish a new State but join their efforts in a Community, tomorrow a union.

In the making of the Community, the Europeans have decided to devote part of their common efforts to help in the development of the third world.

They do so at world level through a substantial programme of food aid (some 400 million US Dollars per annum) and the most advanced system of customs preferences (opening of the Common Market to the duty-free entry of some 5 000 to 6 000 million US Dollars worth of manufactured products every year).

Europe also takes part in international meetings bearing on development and commodity problems. In the North-



South dialogue in Paris, the Nine European States speak with one voice, that of the Community.

The most original aspect of the European policies towards the 77 relates however to two groups of countries which are particularly close to the Europeans in many ways: Arabs and Africans.

Such a policy said Mr Cheysson, is unique in the world. It has specific characters which can be found in no other pattern of relations between industrialized and developing countries.

Development is complex. It cannot be faced with one means of action only. All possible means should be made available simultaneously and jointly.

In the Lomé-Convention, as in the Maghreb and Mashreq agreements, there is such a conjunction of financial, technical, commercial, industrial facilities.

Trade access is also a significant aspect: 99.4% of the exports of the Lomé Countries enjoy a duty-free access to the largest market in the world. Trade promotion is organized systematically to take advantage of the free access.

Europe wants to work more closely with Arab funds and bilateral aid, in particular with Abedia, the pioneering agency for medium and long term strategy.

Already now, a substantial achievement has been made in this cooperation.

On 7 projects concerning 6 African countries, final decisions have been made involving Abedia for 70 million US Dollars, the European Community for 150 million (of which 45 million from the European Investment Bank). Some 16 other projects concerning 10 more countries are under consideration. □

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## ECOWAS

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Africa's largest economic community came into being in November in Lomé when fifteen West African countries agreed to protocols making a reality of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)(1). The treaty establishing the principle of the new community had been signed 18 months

(1) Its members are Bénin, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo & Upper Volta.

before. The Lomé summit, attended by 11 of the 15 heads of state, agreed on five protocols to be added to the treaty.

These protocols covered five main areas:

- the rules of origin of goods;
- re-exports within the community of imports from third countries;
- compensation for the loss of revenue which some members will suffer as a result of the progressive changes in tariffs over the next 15 years;
- the creation of a cooperation, development and compensation fund;
- the level of contributions of members states to the community budget.

The question of contributions to the budget created numerous problems because of the great differences in size and wealth of the member states. A complex ratio system was eventually agreed in Lomé based on proportions of GDP and per capita incomes.

The headquarters of ECOWAS will be in Lagos as Nigeria was the only country to offer to act as host for the new community. The Cooperation, Development and Compensation Fund on the other hand will be in Lomé. This means that Nigeria and Togo, who originally put forward the idea of ECOWAS and drew up the draft treaty, will be the seats of the new community's main institutions. The Lomé summit also agreed that the first Executive Secretary of ECOWAS should come from the Ivory Coast and the first managing director of the Fund should be a Liberian.

The structure of the community is headed by the Supreme Authority of Heads of State and Government, which is to meet once a year. In addition there will be twice yearly meetings of a Council of Ministers. The chairmanship of both will rotate. The Executive Secretary will be assisted by two deputies and financial officers. At least four specialised commissions will be set up to deal with various aspects of cooperation. The heads of state still have to decide on the composition and role of a Tribunal which will interpret the treaty and settle disputes between the parties.

### The aims

The community has been established to promote cooperation and development; to raise the standard of living of its peoples through economic growth

and stability; to strengthen the relations between its members in order to contribute to the progress and development of the African continent.

These aims are to be brought about through the community in a variety of ways:

- the creation of a customs union over the next 15 years involving the abolition of internal tariffs and a common external tariff;
- the free movement of community citizens within ECOWAS;
- a coordinated industrial development policy for the region;
- harmonisation of fiscal policies;
- joint programmes to exploit natural resources and improve agriculture;
- harmonisation of monetary and economic policies;
- a freer flow of capital between member states;
- a common transport and communications policy.

The timetables for the implementation of these aims vary and many will require detailed planning. The significance of the Lomé summit was that it created the machinery through which the aims could become reality. □

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## COMMODITIES

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Over the coming months, 14 basic products or groups of products will be the subject of comprehensive studies as part of preparation for the integrated programme for commodities decided by UNCTAD IV last May.

The UNCTAD general secretariat has published a schedule of preparatory meetings on each of the products or group of products. This provides for the successive consideration of fibres, rubber, jute and its derivatives (three meetings), copper, tropical wood, bananas, cotton, vegetable oils and oily fats, tea, bauxite, iron ore, manganese, phosphates and meat. A meeting on copper and another on jute have already taken place.

In addition, there have been two sessions of the special intergovernmental committee of the integrated programme, two sessions of the intergovernmental group of copper experts and, in March 1977, there will be a conference on negotiating a common fund. □



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## INFLATION IN THE THIRD WORLD

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The poor people of the Third World are tending to get poorer and the recession has only accelerated the process. These are the findings of an ILO study published in Geneva.

Workers on the minimum wage are among the least badly off, the ILO suggests, for there are millions of workers earning less than the minimum legal wage, since legislation in this area is not sufficiently strict.

The vast mass of unemployed and under-employed in the Third World—generally estimated at 300 million people—will continue to put pressure on the minimum wage and keep it around or below the normal starting wage.

This means that wages are likely to stay very low and, the ILO says, it would be a delusion to expect to be able to guarantee all workers an acceptable standard of living through the introduction of a minimum legal wage.

The ILO supplies a series of illustrative figures of the 1969/74 period. The biggest drop in the purchasing power of the minimum wage is in Ghana (59 %), whereas in spectacular rise (122 %) was registered in Libya.

The main drops in purchasing are in Zaire (-53.5 %), Pakistan (-48.4 %), Liberia (-41 %), Burundi (-37 %), Colombia (-36 %), Niger (-33 %), Mauritania (-32 %), Madagascar (-30.5 %), the Philippines (-29 %) and Zambia (-17 %). However, there has been considerable improvement in Morocco (+77 %), the Congo (+75.5 %), Senegal (+47 %), Mexico (+41 %) and Peru (+32 %). □

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## GATT

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The GATT report for 1975/76 says that world trade in primary products increased by less than 1 % in 1975

The main world trade trends in 1975 suggest that world trade reached \$880 000 000 000 in that year, an in-

crease of 5 % in value but a drop of 5 % in volume. The following main points emerge from the full text of the GATT report on international trade in 1975/76:

1. The industrial countries cut back imports by 7 % in 1975 as compared with 1974.

2. The recession in the industrialized world brought about the largest decrease in the volume of exports (some 8 %) in the developing countries since the war.

3. Export earnings of the whole group of developing countries decreased for the first time since 1958. In 1975, they dropped by something like 5 % and they accounted for 24 % of world exports, as against 26.5 % in 1974 and 18 % in 1971).

4. The value of exports in oil-importing developing countries was the same or very similar to the 1974 figure. These countries contributed 12 % towards world exports in 1973 and 1974, but this fell back to the 1971 and 1972 level (11 %).

### Trade by product

The dollar value of world trade in primary products went up by less than 1 % in 1975. The 7 % increase recorded for food products was counterbalanced by a 10 % decrease in commodity and mineral and ore exports. The recession also involved a slowing-down of the growth of world exports of manufactures, which dropped off from 33 % in 1974 and to 7 % in 1975.

Even more than in 1974, the development of world food exports was due to the industrialized countries, where sales increased by 8 % to developing areas and by 10 % to the countries of the east.

The value of exports of primary products from the developing countries—which had almost doubled in 1974 due to the rising costs of oil—dropped by 6 % in 1975. The major reason behind this was the decrease of \$7 300 million (i.e. 7 %) in exports of fuel to the industrial areas of the world.

The price of almost all basic products continued to drop again in 1975. Coffee was the only major food product whose price rose (by 38 %) over the year as a whole. It was only in early 1976 that the prices of basic products began to rise—and this rise continued throughout

the first half of the year. This discrepancy is partly due to the tendency of industrial countries to draw on their stocks instead of building up supplies until it became clear that the economic situation would go on improving.

The report also says that, in 1971/72 and 1975/76, net imports of cereals from the countries of the east increased by 22 million t, as against 3 million t in Western Europe, 4 million in Japan and 9 million in the developing countries. Export progress is mainly due to the fact that net exports from the United States have gone up by 40 million t over the same period. □

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## THE WORLD FOOD SITUATION

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The world food situation is better than it was a year or two back, although long-term trends in food production in the developing countries still give cause for concern. This was announced by the director of the FAO, Edouard Saouma in Rome.

World cereal production in 1976 will exceed the 1 300 million t/mark, i.e. an increase of 7 % over 1975, and the need for cereal imports in the poorest countries should be much less than last year, he said in a speech to the food policy and programme committee.

Mr Saouma launched an appeal to donor countries to accept the principle of long-term planning for food aid. He asked them to help reach the minimum 10 million t cereal target which the world food conference fixed in 1974.

He concluded by saying that we should eschew alarmism and smugness alike and make vigilance the watchword. □

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## THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES' DEBT TO THE OUTSIDE WORLD

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The World Bank's analysis of the trend in the external debts of 86 developing countries, reveals that there was



a substantial increase in official external debt in 1974, the last year for which reliable figures are available. During that year, the total outstanding debt rose from \$121 868 million to \$151 399 million. The increase (\$29 531 million) was much larger than the one recorded in 1973 (\$20 640 million) or in 1972 (\$14 180 million). In percentages, the increase in 1974 was 24.2%, as against 20.4% in 1973 and 16.3% in 1972.

African countries south of the Sahara only accounted for \$15 957 million of this, and of these, the countries with the largest debts were Zaire (\$2 563 million), the Ivory Coast (\$1 213 million), Zambia (\$1 189 million), Tanzania (\$1 096 million), Nigeria (\$1 079 million) and Sudan (\$1 051 million).

The funding organizations whose current loans rose most quickly in 1974 were the private banks and other private financial institutions. They were owed a total \$38 167 million—or 25% of the total debt at the end of 1974. Debts to these institutions mainly involved the oil-exporting countries (\$4 935 million or 12.9%) and those developing countries with relatively high incomes (\$27 767 million or 72.8%).

The debt to suppliers went up considerably in 1974 over 1973 (by \$2 884 million). This was largely due to a greater utilization of credit by the oil exporters and the developing countries with relatively high incomes. □

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## PHOSPHATES

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The six main exporters of phosphates in the Third World met in Dakar in November to set up a producers' cartel. These six countries—Algeria, Morocco, Jordan, Senegal, Togo and Tunisia—are aiming to control the volume of exports from the member countries of the new organization with a view to regulating the price of exports of phosphates, phosphoric acid and superphosphates.

The Dakar decision was an attempt at reversing the drop in world phosphate prices in 1976 after the rapid rise in 1974/75 when Morocco, which is responsible for 33% of world exports, pushed up prices sixfold. The high prices have, however, led to a drop in demand from fertilizer manufacturers, who use some 85% of world phosphate production.

Some 60% of EEC phosphate imports are supplied by the six exporting countries in the Dakar cartel. In 1975, Morocco supplied the EEC with 3 860 000 t, the United States 2 288 000 t and Togo 1 128 000 t. Senegal and the USSR are also major suppliers. World phosphate exports to the EEC amount to 11 million t and 6.25 million t of this comes from the ACP and the Mediterranean countries. □

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## IN BRIEF

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### LESOTHO

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Lesotho's Minister of Finance and Planning, Mr Sekhonyana has explained to Mr Cheysson, the EEC development commissioner, the particular problems his country is facing as a result of the restrictions placed on traffic across the border with the Transkei. These restrictions were affecting supplies and employment in Lesotho and the minister hoped he could count on EEC assistance. Mr Cheysson said he understood the problem and underlined the direct responsibilities of the EEC under the Lomé Convention and the position adopted by the "Nine" on the question of Transkei recognition. In view of Lesotho's problems the Commission would examine what could be done to ease the country's difficulties.

### STABEX

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The European Commission has decided to increase the transfer of funds to the Central African Empire for the loss of receipts suffered in 1975 in coffee exports. The initial decision of July last year amounted to 47 285 EUA. On the basis of new information provided by the Bangui government the transfer has been increased to 353 108 EUA. Although the period for presenting demands had expired the Commission, with the consent of the EEC governments, made an exception. The payment was made from Stabex, the scheme within the Lomé Convention to stabilise the export receipts of ACP states.

### ACP BEEF AND VEAL

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The EEC Council of Ministers has approved for 1977 the extension of the preferential import scheme for beef and veal from ACP states, mainly Botswana, Kenya, Madagascar and Swaziland. In agreeing to a one year period to replace the six monthly period which existed previously, the EEC has recognised the need of the ACP producers for a longer period for regulating their production and exports. The preferential system allows the ACP producers to sell their produce on the European market despite EEC protective levies. Eight of the EEC countries believe that the special concession will disappear once the protective measures themselves have been dropped. The United Kingdom however, believes that a lowering of the levy for third countries will continue for the time being.

### LEBANON Emergency aid

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In view of the critical situation in Lebanon the Commission has proposed to the Council a programme of emergency food aid of 10.28 million EUA and financial aid worth 400 000 EUA. The amount of aid provided to Lebanon by the EEC in 1976 has now reached some 12 million EUA (about \$14 million).

Action already agreed: 1.1 million EUA was provided during the year for the following specific projects:

- 3 589 tonnes of cereals
- 375 tonnes of powdered milk
- 200 tonnes of butter oil
- 100 000 EUA for the Red Cross to buy medical material.

### NORTH-SOUTH DIALOGUE

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The industrialised and developing countries have postponed what was to have been a decisive december meeting in their long and difficult dialogue on establishing a fairer world economic system. The meeting will now be held early this year.

The co-chairman of the so-called north-south dialogue, the Venezuelan minister of State Manuel Perez Guerrero, put the blame for the postponement on the industrialised nations.



The postponement of the foreign ministers' meeting, scheduled to take place in Paris from December 15 to 17, seemed inevitable when preparatory talks failed to produce results. This was largely because key participants like the United States and Japan were unable to take decisions while forming new administrations at home.

The developing countries are looking for concessions on debt relief, stabilising commodity markets, and opening industrialised markets to products from the developing world.

Apart from the United States and Japan, industrial participants in the Paris dialogue include the nine EEC states as a single unit, Canada, Australia, Sweden, Switzerland and Spain.

They have been having talks for a year with 19 developing countries on energy, raw materials, development aid and finance.

## IFAD

On December 18th 1976 the United Nations announced the creation of the International Fund for Agricultural Development. This 1 000 million dollars IFAD was proposed by a resolution at the World Food Conference in Rome 1974. It will allow a 50% increase of the assistance level yearly attributed to the agricultural development of developing countries.

## FAO

Mr Diguera Baba, Director of Forests and the Environment in Chad has been elected in Rome as first vice-president of the Forestry Commission of the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO). The Commission is formed from the forestry departments of 50 countries and its role is to advise the FAO on forestry policy.

## MALAWI-FEDERAL GERMANY

The Malawi Minister of Finance, Mr Matenje has signed two aid agreements with the Federal German government for a loan of DM 1.14 million to build a

new market at Lilongwe and technical aid worth DM 4.14 million for road building.

## MALI

Colonel Moussa Traore, the Mali head of state, has presided over a ceremony to lay the first stone of the Selingue dam project in the south of the country. The Mali industrial development minister, Mr Lamine Keita said the dam was a major investment for the country and an important development priority. It will produce 200 million kwh of electricity, irrigate 60 000 ha and provide 1 600 tonnes of fish. The work on the dam, costing some \$100 million, will be carried out by a consortium of French, German and Malian firms.

## THE GAMBIA

The Gambian Government has distributed 85 000 bags of food free to farmers this year. 60 000 bags of sorghum came from the World Food Programme as food aid. The remainder, in the form of rice, came from the European Community (20 000 bags) and China (5 000 bags).

## ECA

The next biennial meeting of the Economic Commission for Africa's ministerial conference will be held on February 24th in Kinshasa. The agenda will include various development topics such as trans-African highways and telecommunications to encourage intra-African cooperation.

## ENGLISH SPEAKING UNION

A branch of the English Speaking Union, a voluntary organisation which promotes international understanding through the use of the English language, has been set up in Belgium, the first in a non-English speaking country. One of the objectives of the new group is to create better understanding between its Belgian supporters and people overseas, particularly in the ACP.

## PAN-AFRICAN NEWS AGENCY

At the opening of a meeting of the Union of African News Agencies in Accra, attended by 11 African countries, Ghana's information commissioner, Brig. Robert Kotei, called for the setting up in the near future of an African news agency to promote cooperation between African states.

## SEYCHELLES

### Pan-African ornithological conference

265 ornithologists from 27 countries attended the 4th pan-African ornithological conference at Maché in the Seychelles to discuss conservation. President Mancham welcomed the visitors to the first international conference to be held in the Seychelles since independence and hoped that other organisations would follow. A nature conservation policy has existed in the Seychelles for many years. Cousin Island is the preserve of the International Council for nature preservation which runs it as a bird sanctuary. Visitors there are welcomed by a sign saying "this island belongs to the birds, you are their guests..."

The Seychelles also have several marine reserves, and over 150 bird species are known there, some unique in the world. There are also over 200 000 giant tortoises.

## AFRICAN ENERGY BANK

Delegates from 26 countries meeting in Accra have decided to set up an African Energy Bank to finance and develop African energy resources.

In a document containing 29 recommendations adopted at the end of the conference, organised jointly by the Ghanaian government and the Economic Commission for Africa, the delegates hoped to see the development of the hydro-electric potential of several African countries. They also called on African governments to consider the development of solar energy and the use of the wind. Finally they called for the setting up of a nuclear physics institute to train highly specialised personnel.

## Gabon leaves Air Afrique

Gabon has withdrawn from the multi-national airline Air Afrique, the second country to do so—Cameroon withdrew in 1971—since the company was set up almost sixteen years ago.

The reasons for Gabon's withdrawal were given by President Bongo in a television broadcast on 2nd December in Libreville. He said that he had taken the decision for economic and political reasons and in order to consolidate national independence.

Because the decision had been misunderstood by some African countries and by friends of Gabon abroad, Mr Kassa Mapsi, Minister of State and Gabonese ambassador in Brussels, held a press conference on 13th December at the Gabonese embassy in Belgium in the presence of his counterpart in Paris, Mr Sandoungout.

Mr Kassa Mapsi explained to the press that the departure of Gabon from Air Afrique was not simply a question of national prestige but rather a matter of sovereignty and in particular of the defence of the interests of the Gabonese people. Equality of the partners in Air Afrique was not guaranteed, the ambassador said. Although Gabon was responsible for 25 % of the company's receipts and was an important member of Air Afrique, it felt it had been wronged. The ambassador stressed that the decision had not been taken hastily or without a good deal of thought. It was, he said, a considered decision by the Gabonese government.

After its withdrawal Gabon will develop international routes for its own national airline, Air Gabon. Nevertheless Gabon does not want to adversely affect the solidarity of African countries and the efforts to develop cooperation, said the ambassador, and therefore Gabon will remain open to Air Afrique in the hope, as President Bongo put it, of keeping alive African solidarity.

Finally ambassador Kassa Mapsi denied reports in the "Financial Times" that Gabon was going to fail to honour its foreign debts in 1977. He pointed out that Gabon's budget for 1977 set aside 47 491 000 CFA francs for foreign debt repayments. The budget as a whole had risen to 257 thousand million. L.P.

## GENERALIZED PREFERENCES

At its 426th session the Council approved the rules, in the various languages of the EEC, for applying the 1977 scheme of generalised preferences which benefit developing countries. The decision to apply the preferences was taken in consultation with the Community's associated states and the ACP group. (See The Courier, No. 40, November-December 1976). □

## ACCESSIONS TO THE LOMÉ CONVENTION

The EEC Council for Foreign Affairs (Brussels — 13 and 14 December 1976) made a thorough examination of the terms on which Papua-New Guinea, Cape Verde, Sao Tomé and Principe may accede to the Lomé Convention.

It was noted that most of the problems had been resolved. The Permanent Representatives Committee was instructed to find a solution on which all delegations could agree with regard to the amount of financial aid to be added to that provided for under the Lomé Convention, a matter on which there was a perceptible movement towards consensus. □

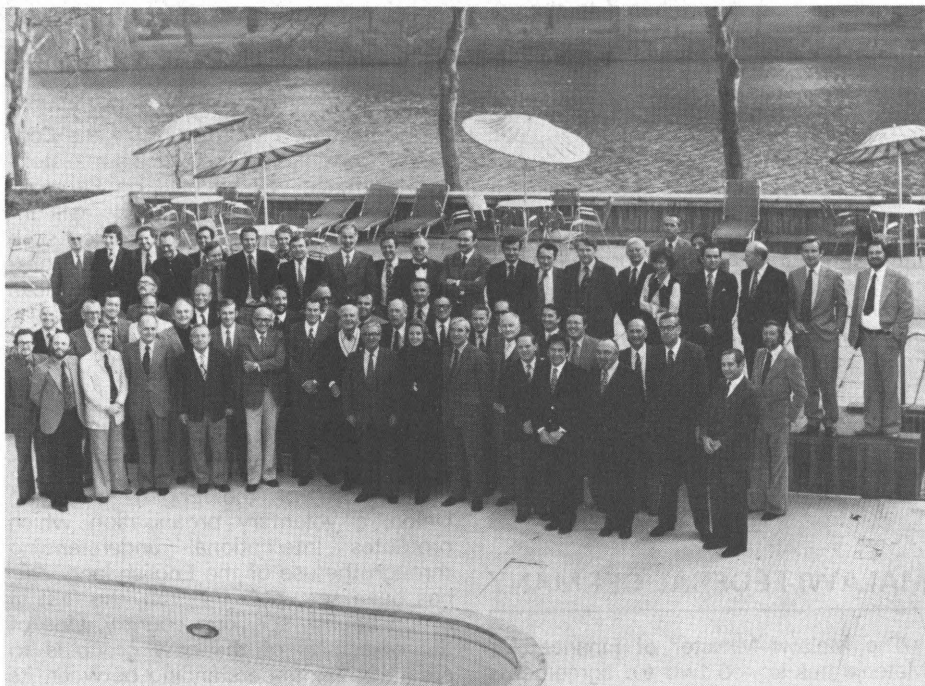
## BELGIUM-LUXEMBOURG

### Meeting of EEC delegates at Wépion

The Commission delegates to the ACP countries met in Belgium and, on this occasion, they were received in Luxembourg by the European Parliament. The Commission delegates were led by Mr Hauswirth, Deputy Director General of Development, assisted by Mr Christensen. Talks were held with the members of the Committee on Development and Cooperation, under the chairmanship of

Miss Flesch, and a reception was then given by Mr Spénale, the President of the European Parliament and Mr Deschamps, Member of Parliament.

During their meeting at Wépion in Belgium the delegates attended seminars addressed by several members of the Commission's development directorate on various aspects of the Lomé Convention.



*The EEC delegates during their meeting at Wépion*



have been good. Agricultural production has got very much better since 1960 in both quantity and in quality. And our attempt at diversifying crops has been so successful that Cameroon now grows the whole range of crops that are suited to the tropics.

But to return to your question on food crops—the results of our previous development plans have been very satisfactory from the production point of view, as one or two figures from the 3rd plan will show.

Millet, unfortunately, was affected by particularly unfavourable climatic conditions during the third plan, but, with this exception, there was a considerable improvement in cereal production. Maize production was far above the target (290 000 t) and reached 376 000 t in 1974/75. Although paddy rice was still inadequate, production increased from 13 000 t in 1970/71 to 24 000 t in 1974/75.

A wheat-growing development company has been established to follow up the results of tests in the Adamaoua plateau.

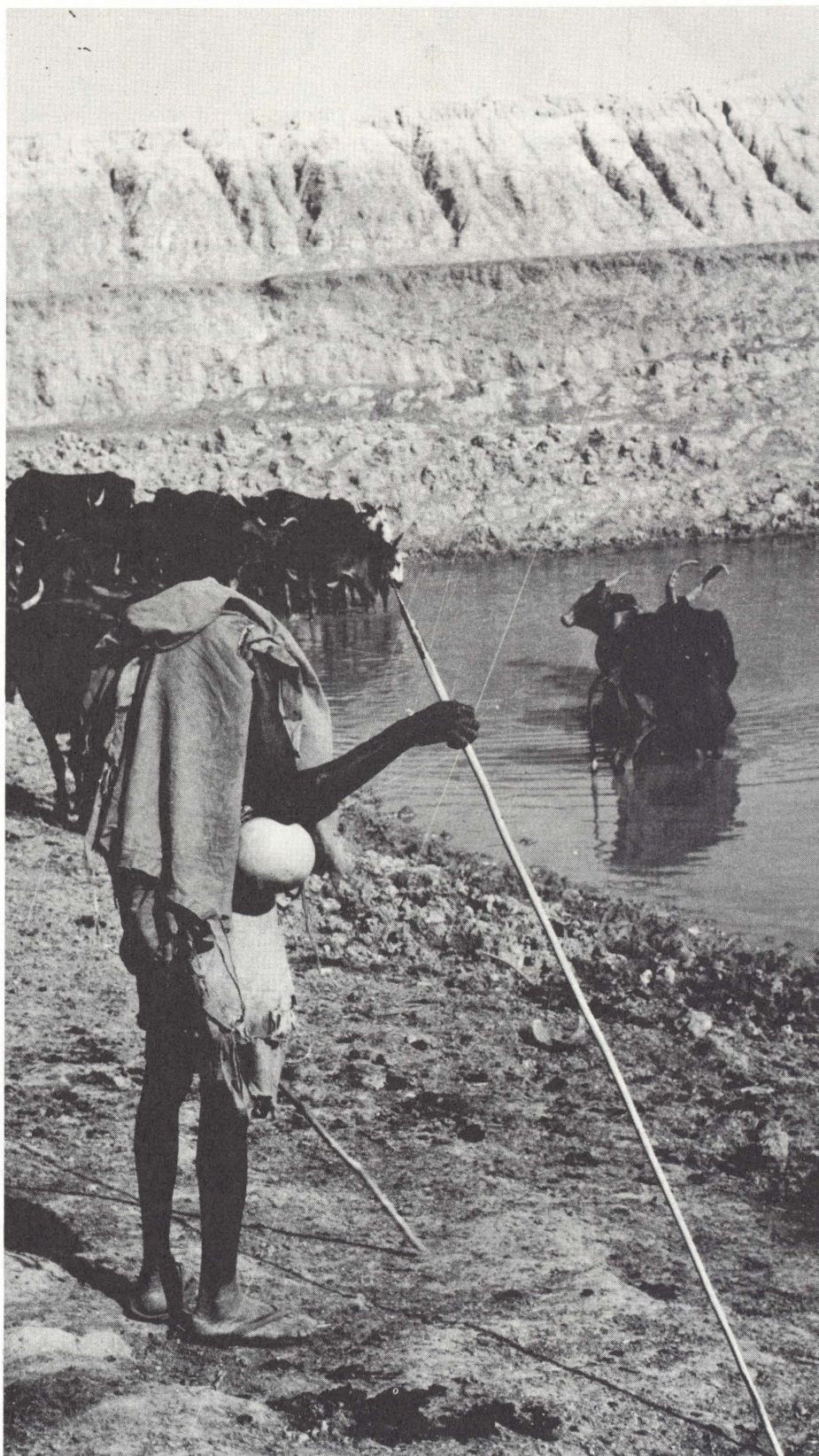
The target of 150 000 t of sugar cane in 1975/76 will certainly have been exceeded, since production in 1974/75 was already 252 000 t.

The following results were achieved in the tuber and banana sectors (1974/75 production compared with 1970/71):

- Plantain 1 070 000 t, against 695 000 t;
- Macabo 850 000 t, against 615 000 t;
- Yams 363 000 t, against 223 000 t;
- Potatoes 37 000 t, against 28 600 t.

As you can see, this far from exhaustive list shows that, with one or two exceptions, considerable progress has been made in food production. And Cameroon is one of the few countries of Africa that is in a position to feed its population properly.

However, as far as distribution is concerned, there is clearly room for improvement, particularly as regards transporting food crops from the country to the major consumer centres, and rationalizing the trade networks and stabilizing



*Wells and water schemes in northern Cameroon, where most of the cattle farming takes place, were financed by the EDF*



supplies so that prices can be regulated are concerned.

The government is well aware of all these problems and is currently working on seeking the right solutions.

### **The 4th Plan: agricultural exports and the economy**

► *As things stand, what are your chances of reaching the targets forecast in the 4th plan?*

— The international economic situation is, of course, uncertain at present. The world economic crisis we have just undergone is partly to blame, but there are also the monetary problems behind international inflation and the difficult atmosphere reigning over relations be-

tween developed and developing countries.

The first result of all this is the increasing tendency to cut down on international aid. And then there is the uncertainty about the future of world trade as a catalyst for the progress of the Third World. And, in this context, the chances of completing an economic and social development plan, where a lot depends on external aid and private foreign investors, are clearly worse for a country which cannot count on continuous, regular growth of its export earnings. However, we have tried to prepare for this situation in various ways.

First of all, the 4th economic and social development plan is different from the preceding plans. The whole conception is different in that it is more a pro-

gramme of projects than a list of objectives.

Secondly, we have tried to account for more straitened economic circumstances by making overall estimates which are fairly modest compared to those of previous plans.

Finally, the overall estimate for investments (CFAF 685 000 000) includes a contribution from the state and from public and semi-public concerns of more than CFAF 500 000 000—i.e. more than 72 % of overall financing.

As you can see, the government was anxious to be realistic in drawing up the 4th Plan and this is why the national contribution counts for so much towards the achievement of the projected aims. We think that, in spite of the uncertainty



*Textile industry development in Douala*



# Three major projects in the communications sector

## Extensions to the port of Douala The Douala-Yaoundé railway The Yaoundé-Bafoussam highway

The channel in the port of Douala is currently kept 5 m deep. With a tide of something like 2 m, the port is only accessible at high tide to vessels that draw less than 6.70 m, which is well below the average on the west coast of Africa. Douala is therefore at a disadvantage compared to other ports on the line. The severe constraints imposed by the shallow channel affect not only the running of the port but the economy of the country as a whole.

The channel will be dredged and some 7 000 000 m<sup>3</sup> of sand removed, more than half of which will be used to build embankments and the quayside for the upriver extensions, which will include a new 50 ha storage area plus an internal channel 7.50 m deep and an external channel 8.50 m deep. It also involves building a new fishing port and ship repair facilities (some 560 m of quay), a warehouse, a cold store, a 500 t floating dock, etc.

This major project will cost something like CFAF 24 680 million and will be carried out with cofinancing from Cameroon, the Cameroon National Port Office, Canada, ABD, ABEDIA, France, West Germany, the EDF and the World Bank.

The port has a vital part to play in the development of both Cameroon and Chad and the other countries of UDEAC, the Central African Republic in particular. The size of the financial commitments is indicative of the importance of the project to the three countries directly concerned—Douala is the main and the cheapest trade route for them all.

However, there is no point as far as the nation or the region is concerned in extending the port unless the Douala-Yaoundé railway is completely overhauled, unless a proper highway is built for the considerable amount of commercial traffic which exists and will go on existing between Douala and all the regions and states involved and unless the Yaoundé-Bafoussam highway is built to enable products from the north-west and the west to be brought out. This highway is the vital complement to the Bafoussam-Bamenda road currently under construction.

Bob Visser, EDF expert in charge of the work at the port of Douala, says this highway will be a real driving force for Cameroon's development and for the development of Chad and the Central African Republic, provided that all the relevant infrastructure is provided.

L.P.

of the international economic situation, our aims are well within our scope.

► *How important are export products for Cameroon's agriculture?*

— Cameroon's agriculture is traditionally divided into two categories. We have a so-called modern sector, comprising our export crops, and we have traditional subsistence agriculture. And the importance of each depends on our plans for their contribution to the economy.

However, as far as our government is concerned, the interest of having two sectors is relative, mainly because the change in consumer habits and progress in science and technology have blurred the clear dividing line between export and other agricultural products.

And, in fact, the problems in both sectors are very much the same. Outside the major agro-industrial plantations that mainly deal in palm oil, rubber, sugar cane, rice, tea, sweet bananas and pineapples, our problems are those of predominantly old-fashioned methods, inadequate financial means and agricultural equipment, young people moving to the towns, uneconomic prices paid to the producer, difficulties of maintaining roads to collect and transport the harvests and so on.

However, to get back to your question—export products of course play an exceedingly important part in our agriculture. There are four reasons for this.

First of all, agriculture for export is cash-oriented. The profits give a clear idea of the income of the average peasant farmer—which is particularly important if you remember that 68 % of the population lives in rural areas and that nearly 80 % of the working population is in the primary sector. It is also worth mentioning here that the peasant farmer's standard of living is directly dependent on the income derived from the type of export crop he grows.

Secondly, these exports bring us the greater part of our export earnings. In 1974/75, these products (including tim-



ber), exported as they were without any processing, accounted for 67.5 % of our total export earnings. So, obviously, export crops are a determining factor as far as our development is concerned in that they are our principal source of foreign exchange.

Thirdly, export products are increasingly used as raw materials in our processing industries. And their importance in this field is such that our new strategy for development is largely based on the on-the-spot processing of raw materials which we have hitherto been exporting in their original state. This is also a way of increasing the value of the products

on the world market, not forgetting the many beneficial secondary effects of this type of industrialization on our economy.

And fourthly, agricultural exports are, as things stand, one of the main sources of financing for our various investment projects, thanks to the contribution made by all the stabilization funds in the sector.

And, in the absence of any mineral resources, agricultural exports are Cameroon's greatest asset at the moment as far as external trade, improved living standards and continued development are concerned.

This is why our various development plans have given priority to the rural sector and concentrated on increasing, improving and diversifying production in what is the cornerstone of Cameroon's economy.

The 4th Plan has borne this in mind, more than CFAF 50 000 000 of the CFAF 70 450 000 (i.e. almost 71 %) due to go to agricultural development over the next five years will be channelled into export products. □

Interview by L.P.

*(Part II of this interview: will Cameroon become an oil-producer?)*



*Port improvements are under-way in Douala*



# **BENIN**

## **Virgile-Octave Tèvoèdjèrè, Ambassador of the People's Republic of Benin**

### **The advantages of a stable political regime**

The People's Republic of Benin was proclaimed on 30 November 1975. A year later, what else has changed apart from the name of the country? The "Courier" asked the Benin ambassador in Brussels.

► *A year ago, your country changed its name to the People's Republic of Benin. Was this just a change of name or has it some effect on the main aims of your domestic and foreign policy?*

— As you probably know, the old name of Dahomey was the name of a kingdom, one of the most enterprising of a number of kingdoms that were, in fact, separate, but administered by the French colonialists at the end of the 19th century as a single country. France's job was by no means an easy one because of fierce resistance on the part of the tribes. Remember the Amazons! The area became the French establishment of Benin, was later misnamed "Dahomey and dependencies" and finally became just Dahomey—which would be rather like calling the whole of France plain Burgundy or Normandy. You can see just how many artificial problems this sort of situation might create during the colonial period—and, even more important during the dozen years of politi-



Virgile-Octave Tèvoèdjèrè

cal instability and economic upheaval following the nominal independence granted on 1 August 1960.

Let us make this clear once and for all—the People's Republic of Benin, proclaimed on 30 November 1975, covers the whole area previously under French domination and only part of it is the old kingdom of Dan-Homè, which,

with its capital, Abomey, had such enormous influence years ago. All people in Benin today are proud of this past. They are proud of Dan-Homè whether they come from the north, south, east or west of Benin, because our society is one which no longer tolerates outmoded, retrograde sentiment of a regional or parochial kind. What makes our country today is the rich diversity of its different provinces.

Let us also make clear that the name we have chosen—Benin—calls to mind the glorious civilization that united us in harmony before colonialization was forced upon us. This civilization, of course, went beyond national boundaries and spread to our neighbours. The curious—some of them with bad intentions—should heed me when I say that there is no problem here. We are the People's Republic of Benin, quite specifically, and no-one is challenging that.

Any serious observer can see that this decolonization of our name has the advantage of gradually liberating our people from the mental and psychological burden of the colonial period. It has calmed our people and freed them to concentrate on working towards the main aims of our domestic policy. Our targets are stability, more united thought among the people of Benin, self-sufficiency and economic productivity, vigilance at all levels to discourage any recurrence of the political adventurism that regularly occurred in our country before the awakening of the nation on 26 October 1972.

Our destiny is shaped by a stable regime. It is stable, as you know, because it has the active support of the people, who are anxious to defend what their revolution has achieved and determined to neutralize any attack on it from without or within.

Lieutenant-Colonel Mathieu Kérékou, the President of the Republic, outlined our foreign policy in his key speech of 30 November 1972 and elsewhere. The

(\*) Mr Tèvoèdjèrè's 20 years as a diplomat have taken him to Washington, Bonn and to many international organisations including the UN. He now represents Benin to Belgium, Luxembourg and the European Communities.





*Growing cotton in Benin*

guiding principles are respect for national dignity and a desire for cooperation based on a policy of non-alignment, mutual respect for sovereignty, reciprocal advantages and uncompromising resistance to racialism and imperialism.

Could you have expected Benin to do otherwise? Since we changed our name, old Dahomey, the sick man of Africa, has given way to Benin, which is respected in the world today. We do not care whether you like us or whether you don't. But don't try and meddle with our affairs. It is this, our uncompromising and dignified attitude which enables us to get increasingly good results

► *Benin's economy is still largely dependent on the primary sector—food crops plus two industrial export crops, palm oil and cotton. Apart from rice, there has been hardly any increase in food production over the last two years. Can you tell us about trends in food crops at the moment?*

— The Government of the People's Republic of Benin is concentrating on

agriculture, which is the cornerstone of our development. But the whole country, and each of the sectors that make it up, must develop at the same rate. The policy of national abdication, when the country was being run by remote control, ignored the need for the balanced development of the agricultural sector. Rural populations were urged to do their utmost to push up the production of industrial crops for export—but this was to the detriment of food crops. The structures of the export-oriented economy we inherited from the colonialists did nothing to help the situation. The people were no better off because their efforts bore little fruit and they were sometimes even forced to cope with impossible food shortages and this in a country with such huge potential.

One of the government's top priorities is to give the people enough to eat—hence the importance of food crops in the general plan to mobilize everyone at every level to push up production throughout the country.

Production is the keyword. The country is now actively divided into various

production units, each with its own targets. Even ministerial departments have production units and civil servants and students are as willing to wield hoes as pens.

The party's over. Everyone who can work now does so—and at something which will serve the country's needs.

We will soon have enough food, if the climate doesn't play us the trick it played on farmers in western Europe last summer. Notice that, since then, public opinion in Europe has been more understanding of the problems of climate that we are continually faced with in the tropics. It is to be hoped that this understanding will lead to more spontaneous, more active and more substantial solidarity with our countries whenever the need arises.

► *Something like 80% of your export earnings come from palm products, cotton (seed and fibre) and from cocoa, most of which comes from Nigeria and is exported via Cotonou. This must mean that Benin's economy is extremely vulnerable to fluctuations in world market prices. Has your gov-*



ernment planned anything to counter this situation?

— I should like to point out that, contrary to popular belief, Benin does produce cocoa. It produces cocoa and it exports cocoa. It doesn't produce or export as much as some of its neighbours, but its production should not be confused with other people's. You mentioned Nigeria, a country with which Benin has close links. I don't need to tell you that Nigeria is quite able to decide where its own production goes. I cannot ignore the problem of illegal exports that neighbouring countries in Africa might encounter. Benin is also a victim of it—and we came off badly when we were refused quite legitimate compensation for loss of regular earnings from cocoa exported to the countries of the EEC. These countries benefited from our low prices and refused to give either us or our neighbours the amounts that were due to us.

However, your question is on the consequences of having an economy that depends on one or two export products. This is a problem common to many developing countries. The adverse effects of price fluctuations on export earnings from these products is one of the most harmful consequences and the usual answer is to diversify production.

The Benin government has gone beyond the traditional idea of diversification. Its attempts to diversify are combined with schemes to optimize primary products and process them on the spot. For example, we have planned an agro-industrial complex comprising huge sugarcane plantations and a processing unit, which is being established in collaboration with Nigeria. A tobacco and match manufacturing project is another example of this policy.

Then, we have to carry out research into mineral resources and how to make the best use of them. We have planned a cement complex to use our lime deposits. This too is being done in conjunction with Nigeria.

But, in spite of all this, it will be some time before our economy ceases to feel the effects of price fluctuations on the world commodity market. This is why

Benin, and indeed all the ACP states, appreciate the EEC's Stabex system and is joining with other developing countries—in organizations like UNCTAD—to persuade the developed countries to help with concrete measures to stabilize the developing countries' export earnings properly by indexing the prices of our raw materials to the price of manufactures in rich, industrialized countries. We are watching the North-South dialogue closely in this respect and we hope that Paris—or some other city—will make some positive contribution to solidarity between nationals as part of the new international—and not solely economic—order.

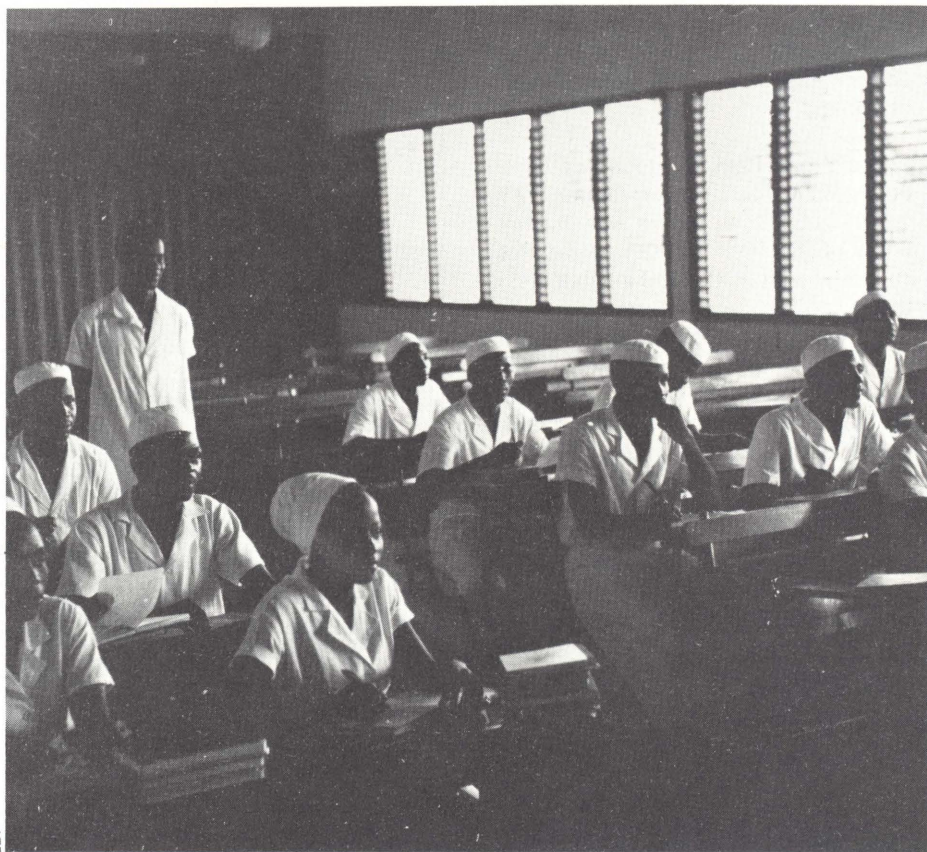
### Training

► *Something like a quarter of the Benin state budget goes on education and you are known to have a large number of cadres. I think a new reform of education is under way—can you tell us what it involves?*

— This is indeed the case. Studies of both syllabuses and structures are going on at the moment in preparation for practical implementation on 15 February 1977.

For some time, the cadres we trained did not really meet the needs of the economy, which led to a considerable brain drain. So now we need to adapt our system of education to the real needs of Benin. Schools must be the driving force behind the country's social and economic development and a privileged place for research and analysis where people can meet to discuss their desires and thereby bring about the transformation and improvement of the surroundings in which we live.

For this, very obvious, reason, schools must reduce educational wastage, if not cut it out altogether. They must establish close ties between practical and theoretical branches of education so as to enable everyone, whatever his ability, to



*Medical training school. One of the various schemes to increase the number of locally trained qualified workers*



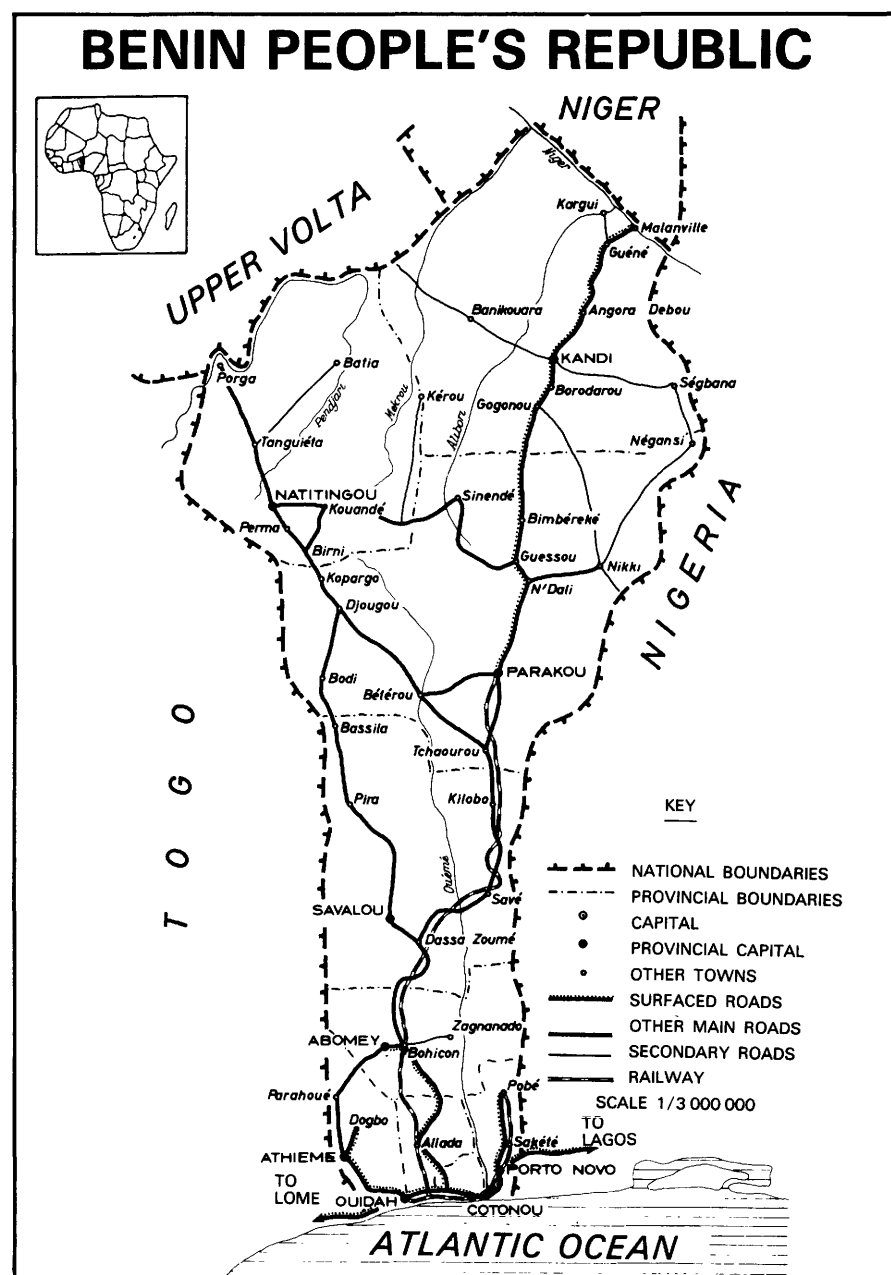
# BENIN

Benin covers a total area of 112 622 km<sup>2</sup>, is 700 km from north to south and has 120 km of Atlantic coastline. It is bounded by Niger and Upper Volta to the north, Nigeria to the east and Togo to the west. Apart from the flat, sandy coastal region with its offshore spits and lagoons and the single port of Cotonou, the country is mostly plateaux. The Atakora mountain chain lies in the north-west and there is the fertile Niger basin plain in the north-east. The climate varies from equatorial in the south to tropical in the north.

The World Bank put total population at 2 947 000 and growth rate at 2.7 % in 1973. GNP per capita was estimated at US \$ 110 in the same year. Porto Novo, with its 87 000 inhabitants, is the capital and Cotonou, with 139 000, the largest town.

The economy is largely dependent on the primary sector—which accounted for 37.6 % of GNP in 1973 with a total of CFAF 77 400 million. Annual growth rate here was 6.5 %, including 2–3 % inflation over the 1976/73 period. The secondary sector is weak (12.8 % of GNP in 1973) and it is the tertiary sector which is preponderant (49.6 % of GNP in 1973).

Apart from the usual food crops, agriculture is geared to cash crops, with palm products, cotton and cocoa accounting for more than 80 % of exports. There is some fishing, fish-farming and stock-farming potential in the north.



Modern industries in the secondary sector are geared to import substitution and to processing agricultural products, mainly for export.

The tertiary sector is preponderant, largely because of trading, which accounts for 25 % of GNP.

The country has, generally speaking, a reasonable amount of agricultural (including fishing and stock-farming) potential and there are good possibilities for hydro-electric installations on the Mono and Mekrou rivers. There is also considerable tourist potential in many areas.



find the job he needs. In line with our new policy, new schools will be democratic and for the masses. Schools are a means of national salvation. They are designed to be a development factor and it is therefore obvious that Benin must devote a large slice of its budget to them. So you can see that our people will appreciate any help with this venture enormously. This is why we have asked for EDF financing for our grants and training programme.

## Stabex has its imperfections

► *Benin is one of the ACP states that signed the Lomé Convention. Can you tell us what main benefits your country hopes to derive from the Convention?*

— The Lomé Convention is a framework for cooperation, a prime example of cooperation between developed and developing countries. Benin appreciates it enormously—although there is still a lot of ground to be covered. As for what we expect from the Convention—we of course want to see all the projects jointly agreed upon by the EEC and the Benin government fully implemented within the prescribed time. These projects are an important step forward along the path towards completion of the country's overall development plan and a contribution to the vital balance between the different regions that make it up.

*Six of Benin's products are eligible for Stabex compensation—palm oil, palm nut oil, oil cake, cotton, groundnuts and raw coffee beans. Doesn't this mean that the Stabex can be of real importance to your country?*

— The Stabex is the first concrete step forward in the search for a way of stabilizing the developing countries' export earnings and the EEC and its nine member states can be justly proud of it. As you know, the system is an exemplary one and has become a reference system for organizations concerned with stabilizing the developing countries' commodity prices. Our government is extremely interested in this system—but it

does think, as do many of the ACP countries, that there is room for improvement. The system is, after all, only an encouraging beginning. It is, in fact, a reference system which does not yet provide what we have the right to expect. First of all, it was hardly under way when a series of problems cropped up with the exchange rates. Take the curious example of the conversion of the CFA franc into French francs and then into European units of account. This incredible procedure has cost us millions—enough to build a hospital in the provinces. Calculations of this kind have been even more catastrophic for other ACP countries. And then again, the system is based on a reference period which isn't always favourable for everyone. And finally, the Stabex is not so much a stabilizer as compensation for specific losses on export earnings and it does nothing to solve the key question of deterioration in the terms of trade between rich and proletarian nations. What

we really want is the world price of our commodities indexed to the price of rich countries' manufactures.

However, Benin has got a good deal out of the first year of the Stabex. The system illustrates the good will of the industrialized countries and is a positive factor as far as the North-South dialogue and the UNCTAD talks on stabilizing our export earnings are concerned. The EEC is clearly in advance of other industrialized countries here. For very precise historical and economic reasons, the Community is pointing the way to a new world order. The Community must improve its system of cooperation and convince the rest of the industrialized world to pay more attention to the major problem of our time and be more aware of the mutual advantages which international solidarity brings. The People's Republic of Benin very much appreciates the EEC's pioneering spirit in this field. □

A.L.



*Mr Tévoédjrè visiting Mr Gtoli President of the European Commission soon after his appointment to Brussels*

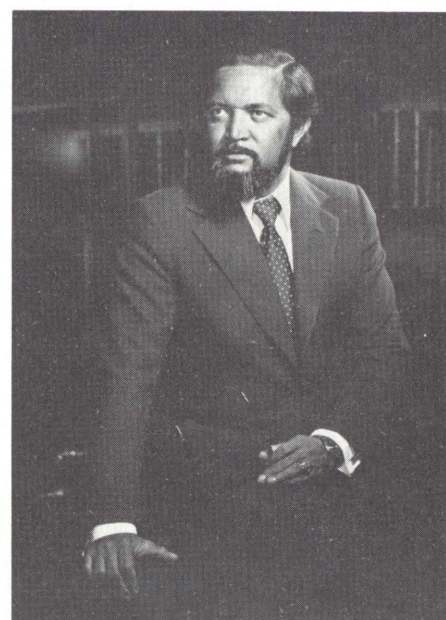


# The Seychelles

The smallest, and one of the most recently independent ACP countries, the Seychelles are optimistic about the future. This group of 92 islands scattered across the Indian Ocean became independent in June 1976 after 200 years of French and then British rule.



Georges Rassool  
*Seychelles High Commissioner in London*



President James Mancham

The tiny population, estimated at just under 60 000, lives mainly on the largest island in the group, Mahe, and some 15 000 live in the capital, Victoria. The people of the Seychelles are a mixture of races from Africa, Asia and Europe, but the various cultures have been merged into a distinctive Seychelles way of life so that today the population feels it has its own national identity. As a nation the Seychelles has only just emerged, but already plans are being made by President Mancham and his government, to develop the economy and provide the Seychelles with viable industries. The most important of these in the short term will be the tourist industry, into which much of the money from Britain, as the ex-colonial power, and eventually from the European Community, the Seychelles' new partner, will be channelled. As yet the Seychelles has no ambassador in Brussels, but Georges Rassool, the new state's first High Com-

missioner in London is representing his country's interests in Brussels as a new member of the ACP group and he gave the "Courier" his views on his country's development prospects.

## Tourism is doing better than agriculture

The Seychelles are beautiful Indian Ocean islands, many of them uninhabited and a natural attraction for tourists. With few other resources that can be developed the new Seychelles government hopes to extend the tourist facilities already on the islands. "But we don't want tourism to spoil the beauty of the Seychelles" insists Mr Rassool, "we don't want to fill the islands with concrete blocks. We are planning this very seriously and we can look at the mistakes of other countries which have developed tourism and learn from their

mistakes. The aim is to ensure that tourism grows no faster than the infrastructure and supporting services."

The greatest single boost to the Seychelles tourist industry came from the opening of the international airport on Mahe island in July 1971. Since then the number of visitors to the islands has increased rapidly. "In 1971, just before the airport was opened there were 3 000 tourists a year, in 1972 that went up to 15 000, in 1973 to 20 000, and in 1974 to 25 000. By 1975 it had reached 37 000 and this year, 1976, I think it will top 50 000. We are restricted, in fact, more by the shortage of beds on the islands. We now have some five major hotels and two are being constructed but we are not building them as fast as the investors want because we are planning it very carefully. We have just over 2 000 beds at the moment, which means that there's a waiting list of tourists for the Seychelles."





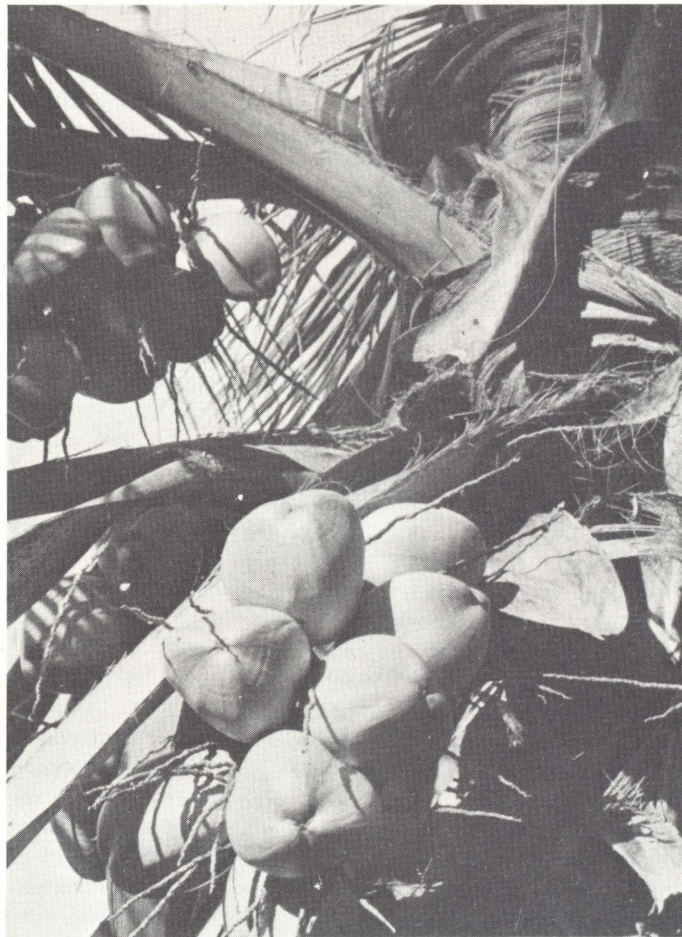
*The rapid expansion of tourism and the attraction of industrialisation are already causing some anxiety over the future of young people in the Seychelles*

The hotel and tourist trade now rivals agriculture as an employer in the private sector, and construction and transport, both of which benefit from tourism, are significant forms of employment. The Seychelles' main exports are copra and cinnamon bark, but these have never paid for the country's imports and a huge deficit exists. In 1975 imports reached a record 191.3 million rupees while exports and re-exports totalled only 35 million rupees. The chances of expanding agriculture are not great. "The amount of land we have that can be cultivated on the granite islands is limited. What we are doing to redress the balance of payments situation is to try and encourage other industries. Tourism we have already spoken about, but there are other possibilities. A free port area as an extension to the present new port in-

dustrial complex involving further land reclamation, is a serious possibility for industries primarily producing for export. The fiscal basis of a free port already exists in that imported raw material qualifies for a duty drawback when exported in the same or manufactured form."

### **Fishing potential**

The other possible area of expansion is obviously fishing. The 92 islands in the Seychelles group are scattered over 400 000 km of ocean and although fish provides food for the population and the tourists, it is at present on a very small scale. "The government has now commissioned a fisheries development study so that we can set up a viable fishing industry in the Seychelles, which would



*Coconuts provide copra, the main export of the Seychelles*

spawn other related industries such as freezing and fish meal plants. We have enough fish there. It is just a matter of developing fishing in the right way. At the moment the Japanese and the Koreans are there and we are waiting for the report on fishery before we decide on investment and where it might come from," Mr Rassool said.

Ambassador Rassool does not, however, believe that much can be done at present to substitute for the main imported food crop in the Seychelles, rice. Rice will grow in the islands, but with half of the total area unsuitable for cultivation and over 90% of the remainder under tree crops and shrubs, there are only some 2 000 acres of arable land. Land shortage is a restraint on development in all areas. The main island, where most of the population lives, is only 27 km by 8 km. There is some development possi-



ble on some of the outlying islands "but there is also the difficulty of water shortage on these islands, so this too will limit our development plans, which basically aim to make us more dependant on ourselves."

### "A few islands have telephones..."

With 92 islands the Seychelles face a major communications problem with the outside world and with each other. Mahe and some of the islands nearer to the capital have telephone links, but the rest have to depend on radio links, where they can be set up. Physical communication still depends on inter-island schooners. "Where there is a coconut industry the schooners visit perhaps once a month, perhaps every three months. Of course now we also have a steamer which is used to go to some of the other islands, some of which are up to 600 miles away. There isn't any commercial communication between most of the islands yet. Some have small airstrips. It is not the highest development priority, although of course the reason for opening up some of these small islands is for tourism. Some of them are very wild and uninhabited," Mr Rassool said.

### A new tax haven?

President Mancham has spoken of opening up the Seychelles to international banking and financial interests, and this is still a possible new development for the Seychelles. "The experience of some other territories should encourage us to look very closely at opening the door to off-shore financial interests, offering them a tax haven. Many important international banking organisations already have branches there such as Barclays, Standard and Credit Commercial. Habib are coming in January."

### Lomé opens up new opportunities

"I think we should derive considerable benefit in the field of financial and technical cooperation," says ambassador Rassool, "but apart from this there is much to be gained from my country associating itself with the smaller and like-minded nations sharing similar problems."

As yet relations between the European Community and the Seychelles have not reached the stage of concrete discussion of development cooperation. For the moment financial aid comes from the ex-colonial power, Britain. In 1974/75 this amounted to £2.9 million and in 1975/76 a sum of £3.9 million was set aside by Britain for the Seychelles. In June 1976 a cooperation agreement was also signed with France. Regional cooperation also interests the Seychelles government but this is hindered by the comparative geographical isolation of the country. However a degree of cooperation already exists in tourism where the Seychelles form part of a wider East African circuit, and ambassador Rassool believes that contact with other ACP states will increase. "We are interested in the future of our area in general and are keen to develop contacts with our East African neighbours. Our membership of the Organisation of African Unity is evidence of this.

Although the Seychelles has been a British colony for the last 160 years, the period of French contact is still evident. Both languages are used and French forms the backbone of the local Creole language spoken by most people on the islands. President Mancham has received titles and honours from both Britain and France. "It is my government's intention to foster existing cultural and economic ties in both the English and French speaking worlds," says ambassador Rassool, "and these ties will be further strengthened through the Seychelles' new links with the European Community and the other ACP states" □

IAN PIPER

## President Senghor in Brussels

The President of Senegal, Léopold Sedar Senghor, made an official visit to Belgium and the Commission of the European Communities at the end of October 1976. At the Commission, Léopold Senghor talked with President François-Xavier Ortoli and development commissioner Claude Cheysson.

President Senghor put the accent on the special nature of Community action, both under the Lomé Convention and *vis-à-vis* the Third World in general. He went on to stress one or two causes for concern—mainly the management of the



*President Senghor with Mr Ortoli, President of the Commission (left); on the right Mr Cheysson, Development Commissioner, and Mr Ousmane Seck, Senegalese Minister of Economy*



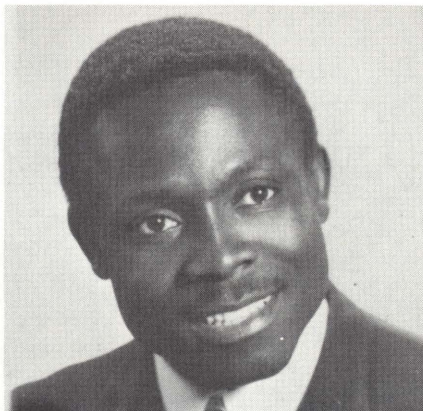
preferential system and the sale of certain Senegalese products (such as oil-cakes) and EDF help with building the bridge over the river Gambia.

Ousmane Seck, Minister for Planning and Cooperation, who accompanied the President, signed two financing agreements, totalling 10 738 000 EUA, for agricultural projects in Casamance and in eastern Senegal (see EDF news on the yellow pages).

Before leaving Brussels, the President of Senegal held a press conference at the International Press Centre, in which he spoke of the main political and economic events of the moment, particularly relations between the ACP and the EEC. He felt that fairness in trade meant indexing commodity prices to the prices of industrial products. Dialogue was one means of finding an answer to the problem of southern Africa that would be acceptable to the majority of the black population—but everyone taking part had to be willing to listen and prepared to compromise. □

## Culture and development

By LUCIEN PAGNI



Black Africa in general and the ACP in particular are faced with an acute problem of cultural resurgence, the logical consequence of the reaffirmation of African identity and personality. This movement, rooted in the works of such writers as Franz Fanon, Aimé Césaire, Camara Laye and Léopold Sédar Senghor, is of considerable socio-economic and political importance today. How can we reconcile the cultures and ways of life of the Third World with the economic development to which it aspires when the two involve what are almost diametrically opposed sets of values? The current feeling in the developing countries is that culture should be a prop for economic progress.

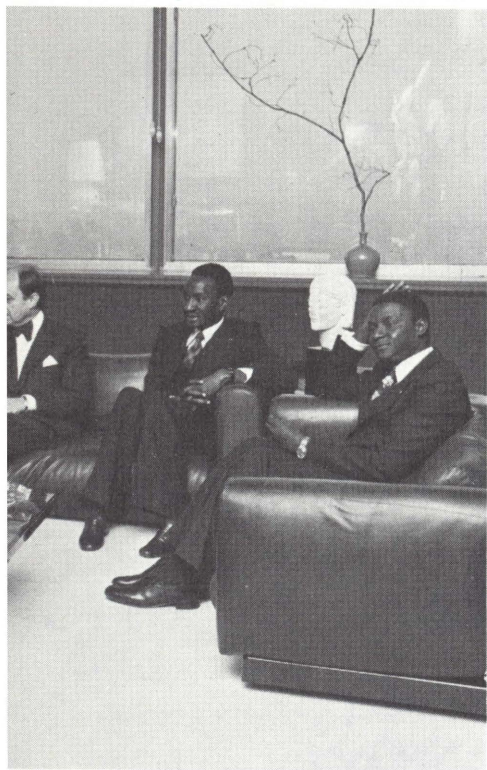
Development is the key word in the Third World today and the theoretical cornerstone of any political venture in these countries. But economic development is not an end in itself. The whole history of the industrialized nations now helping the Third World to achieve a state of economic well-being shows that material considerations alone are no justification for past conquest—whether good or bad—nor for any action the developed countries may take in the Third World now or in the future. It would seem that culture, although not a cause of slavery, was often seen as a justification for colonialism. And there is a positive side to cultural colonization, since it has provided the basic links that can unite the countries of Western Europe and the vast majority of the Third World, particularly the ACP group.

The ACP, in fact, are on the horns of a cultural dilemma. Should they go for a whole-hearted reinstatement of their traditional culture? Or should they maintain the *status quo*, knowing that they are strengthening the position of the foreign culture as their country develops along the same economic lines as that dominant culture?

The World Festival of Negro Arts in Dakar was certainly a part answer to this question. It took place in 1966 and the next session, the Festival of Lagos, (the Second World and Black Festival of Arts and Culture-FESTAC) due to take place from 15 January to 12 February 1977, will be bigger and have broader aims. This will be a true foundation on which black African culture can be rebuilt (see page 95).

Another partial answer to the question of cultural and developmental autonomy in the Third World is provided by the conclusion of a recent Dakar conference, which found that successful development is development which serves the aims of the cultures of the people involved.

This can stop the growing a-cultural movement in the developing countries today. It can give developing peoples the opportunity to rediscover their own particular spirit and bring to life the creative gestures so vital for anyone wishing to be active in the world, so vital for anyone wishing to be both spectator and actor in the multiple splendours of life... The issue is a social one... L.P.



European Commission (left) and development commissioner Seydina Oumar Sy, Senegalese ambassador in Paris, Minister of Planning and Cooperation



*Fishermen on the rapids of the Zaire river*





# Fisheries in the ACP countries

Almost three-quarters of the Earth is covered with water. But, the specialists tell us, the sea only provides us with 3 % of our food. Even stranger when you think that protein deficiency is one of the world's main food problems and that, together with meat, fish is a traditional and relatively cheap source of animal protein. Fishing in most places could give much higher yields if an effort was made to modernize and rationalize, to teach new methods and to increase regional and international cooperation.

Higher yields are a must in the face of growing needs. FAO statistics show that Africa consumed something like 225 000 t more fish than it produced in 1974. Present population growth rates in Africa and the anticipated increase in incomes suggest that actual demand for fish in 1980 will be as much as 5 million tonnes, some 1.6 million tonnes more than it is today.

The fishing industry is a huge source of food and, for some countries, a major source of foreign currency as well. In Mali and Chad, for example, fish is second only to livestock in the rural export stakes and, in Mauritania, Morocco and Senegal, fish products accounted for more than 5 % of all trade in 1970.

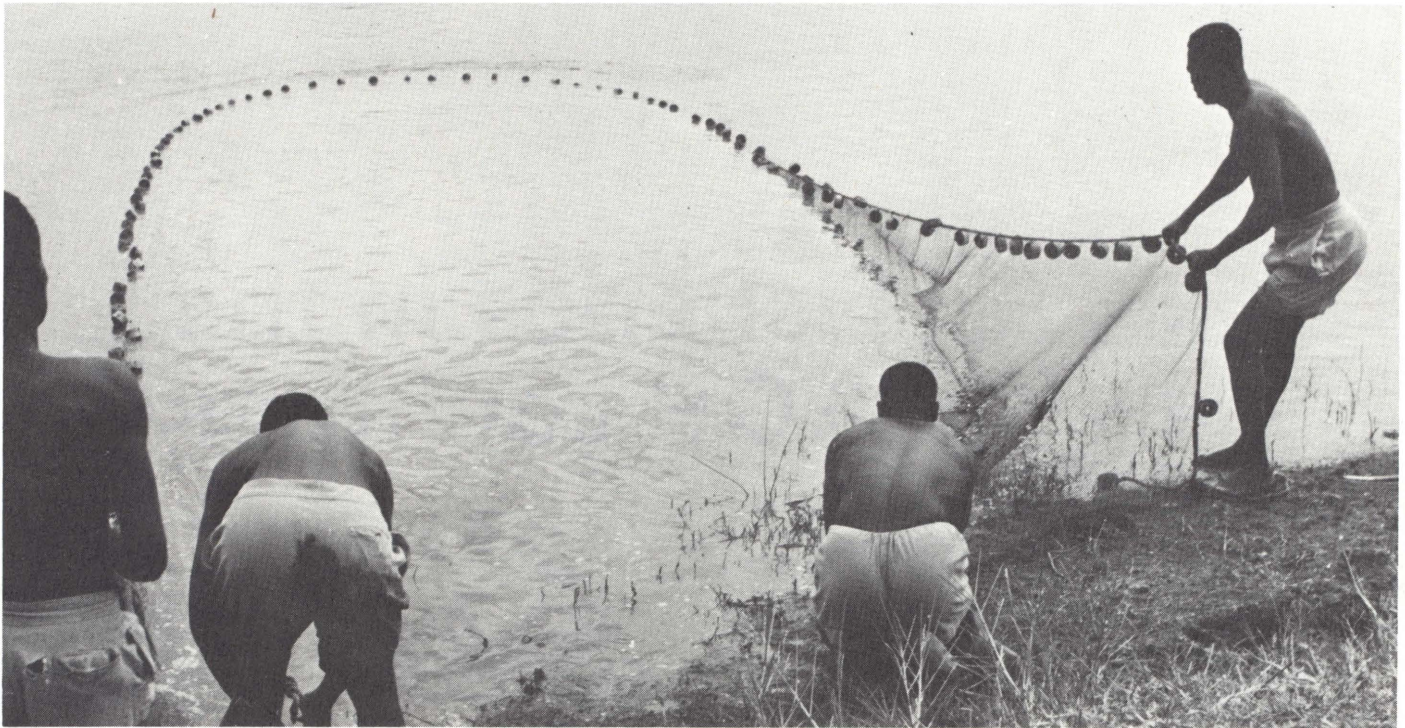
There are abundant fish stocks all along the west coast of Africa, especially in the colder plankton-rich waters between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn and, to a lesser extent, off the Somali coast in the Indian Ocean. And fishing has by no means reached its full potential. At the moment, two-thirds of the African catch comes from these areas. Local fishermen are active in both eastern and western waters, but foreign vessels are much more common on the Atlantic side.

This Dossier attempts to show how fisheries fit into the ACP economy, to assess sea fishing and inland fishing from the economic and social angles and to outline the obstacles and the conditions of the development of fisheries in the ACP countries. Fish-farming has already been successfully introduced. Aquaculture—the farming of the sea—is for tomorrow. The ACP and the EEC countries are currently much more interested in developing fisheries than they were. The fisheries sector offers good possibilities, but the variety and scale of the problems involved should not be underestimated. The recent Conference on the Law of the Sea abundantly illustrated these difficulties, particularly those connected with international cooperation, which is essential. □



AAA Photo





## FISHING

### Making more of a major natural resource

by G. WINCKLER (\*)

Water covers 71% of the world's surface. In spite of this, only 3% of the world's food comes from the sea. And only 0.03% of the sea's primary production of vegetable matter can be harvested in the form of fish (as the last link in a long food chain).

Up to now, over 90% of fishing has been carried on in depths of 500 m or less, that is on banks or continental shelves. In the ocean at large the phyto-plankton (mostly single cell) is so widely scattered that a food chain of use to mankind can no longer be formed. Exceptions to this are areas of upwelling and ocean currents.

(\*) Gunther Winckler is deputy director of the agriculture, forestry and fishery division of the federal German Ministry of Economic Cooperation.

### The shift from North to South

The fishing fleets of the industrialized countries are equipped with the most modern gear and processing technology. They have exploited the fishing grounds in their usual areas of supply as far as they can without endangering the industry's future, but some areas have already been overfished. The development of the fishing industry in the oceans of the northern hemisphere can be, in the main, regarded as complete.

There is considerable potential for extending the industry's productivity in the oceans of the southern hemisphere (south east Asia, Indian Ocean, coastal areas off West Africa and South America).

Because of the present developments in the law of the sea, practically all the remaining fishing grounds in the southern hemisphere will fall within the proposed 200-mile economic zone of developing countries.

The southern oceans contain additional reserves of protein in the form of entomostacan (Antarctic krill, for example), shrimps, octopus, lantern fish and so on. It is thought possible that the annual catch of this source of protein could be of the order of 100 million tonnes in the distant future. At the moment, however, there is a whole series of unsolved technical and economic problems preventing the economical use of these reserves.

### Management of so far unexploited resources

The fact that the traditional fishing grounds are exhausted and that protective zones have been established and restric-



## World production of aquatic organisms (million t)

	1961/63 (1)			1965/67 (1)			1968/71 (1)			1972/74 (1)		
	IC (2)	DC	Total	IC	DC	Total	IC	CD	Total	IC	DC	Total
(i) For human consumption	19.1	13.6	32.7	21.4	16.8	38.2	22.5	20.3	42.8	23.6	23.4	47.0
(ii) For fish meal	5.1	7.2	12.3	8.3	10.6	18.9	11.4	13.4	24.8	13.3	6.5	19.8
(iii) Total (i)+(ii)	24.2	20.8	45	29.7	27.4	57.1	33.9	33.7	67.6	36.9	29.9	66.8

(1) All figures are an average over three years.

(2) IC = Industrialized countries; DC = Developing countries.

Source: FAO, July 1975.

tions or bans imposed on fishing in these areas, plus the proposal for a 200-mile economic zone, are forcing the technically sophisticated fishing fleets of the industrialized countries to turn to lesser-used fishing grounds. There is no basic difficulty here since the "freezers" or "factory ships" have a very long range.

This transfer to new fishing grounds, whether they be inside or outside the new 200-mile economic zones, brings with it the inherent danger that fish supplies there too will be over-exploited within a short time.

Therefore, it is absolutely essential that effective and well-coordinated means of regulating and checking this trend be set up straight away—both at national level and over those areas outside the future economic zones.

The exploitation methods developed for the northern oceans are little good for the durable exploitation of the fish supply in the oceans of the southern hemisphere, and particularly in the developing countries' economic zones. Whereas in the north, the research carried out by fishery biologists has been directed towards the use of certain preferred varieties of fish which can be caught in large quantities, practically unmixed, fishing and fishery research in the southern seas have to cope with an extraordinary assortment of fish all mixed together.

Intensive research must still be carried out to lay the basis for a rational and durable fishing industry.

## The role of fishing in feeding the world

At the moment, fish supplies approximately 11% of the animal protein consumed (of this, some 85% comes from sea fish and about 15% from fresh-water fish). The trend in world production of aquatic organisms (except whales) since 1961 has been as indicated in the table above.

In Most African countries, fishing is most important as a local food supply, particularly as far as inland fishing is concerned. Fish is a major source of protein in a number of countries, as the following table shows:

**Relative importance of fish in food supplies**  
(% of supply of animal protein)

More than 40 %	Between 40 and 20 %	Less than 20 %
Congo (72 %)	Zaire	Upper Volta
Sierra Leone	Burundi	Mauritania
Gambia	Chad	Tunisia
Benin	Guinea	Egypt
Ghana	Gabon	Morocco
Senegal	Nigeria	Kenya
Cameroon	Mali	Zimbabwe
Zambia	Mauritius	Algeria
Togo	Uganda	Sudan
Ivory Coast	Tanzania	Niger
Liberia	Malawi	Somalia
Angola	Madagascar	Ethiopia
	Mozambique	Rwanda

Source: Forecasts on agricultural products 1970-80, vol. I and II, FAO, Rome (1971). Classification by order of the importance of fish in overall supply of animal protein. — Ed.



*Fish: a good source of protein and more could be made of it  
(handling sardines at Abidjan, Ivory Coast)*



The figures show that the total output from the fishing industry has been decreasing since 1971. While the catch for human consumption is still increasing slightly, that for fish meal production has fallen drastically (because of the failure of the anchovy catch off the Peruvian coast, amongst other things).

Over the 1969/71 period, the total production in the developing countries was, for the first time, just as high as that of the industrialized countries. This gave great impetus to the production of fish for human consumption.

If we assume that the world population will increase to 3 700 million by 1980 and to 4 600 million by the end of the century, annual fish production would have to be increased by some 8 million tonnes by 1980 and by some 27 million tonnes by the year 2000 if we wanted merely to satisfy the present **per capita** consumption of 8 kg. In fact, annual production is already going down as a result of overfishing of the traditional grounds.

The FAO considers that if all the fish resources of the world's oceans are wholly and rationally exploited, and care is taken to conserve them, the estimated demand for fish products can be covered, at least in the next 10 to 15 years.

This means above all that the fishing potential of the future economic zones of the developing countries should also be exploited accordingly. Approximately 50 % of world fish production comes from developing countries. Besides the important role fish plays in supplying protein for the populations of developing countries, it is enormously important because it offers potentially greater export earnings. In view of the expected increase in world demand for fish products, such earnings would in effect be guaranteed in the long term.

### Intensifying inland fishing

To cover the increasing demand for fish products, inland fishing will have to make a larger contribution through the intensification of fish-farming, lagoon fishing and aquaculture in the broadest sense. The aim behind all this must be to increase the quantities of fish produced over a given area and to increase the breeding of shellfish, which have an advantage over fish in that they act as filters and transform the primary vegetable matter in the water directly into high-value animal protein. The significance of intensified fish-farming is shown in the following table:

Fish production in relation to area

	Production in kg/ha
Deep sea	3
Northern seas	60
Carp breeding in northern climes	300
Fish-farming in the tropics	1 000
Intensive fish-farming (e.g. carp breeding in India)	8 000

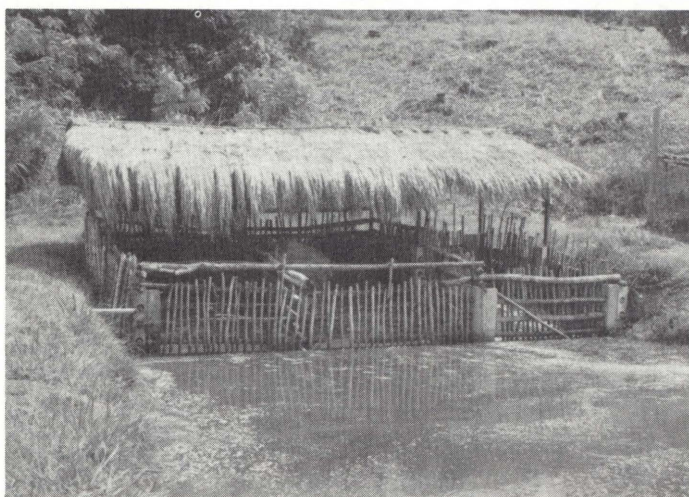
By promoting the intensification of fish-farming in developing countries, a little-known potential for the production of protein could be greatly developed. □ G.W.



*Something old: traditional fishing on Kabah Island (Guinea)*



*Something new: Mauritian fisheries research vessel*



*Something borrowed: fish-farming — adopting technology to Third World needs*



# Technology in fisheries development in the tropics

by N.R. JONES and J.G. DISNEY (\*)

It would be unrealistic to argue that technological innovation alone will contribute a decisive input to fisheries development, particularly to that section of the industry, the artisanal fisherman, most in need. Any effective action to develop small-scale fisheries in developing countries must be taken by governments, and the artisanal fisherman, lying at one end of a discontinuous spectrum of tropical fisheries technology, is not the easiest subject for assistance.

Above this level, the fisheries industry ranges through short trip, inshore operations, to long distance catcher-freezer and shipboard factory-processor operations comparable in sophistication with those of the most advanced fisheries. In many instances this last category is operated by developed, industrial countries, sometimes in joint ventures or trans-shipment arrangements with a developing country.

## Health hazards and marketing

Sections of the export industry have encountered difficulties in importing countries fearful of the transmission of food-borne disease. While it is clear that high microbiological standards can be met in tropical countries, it is apparent also from the incidence of complaints and rejections that the levels of public health education, and technical and infrastructural development, in some countries can precipitate serious problems of production and marketing.

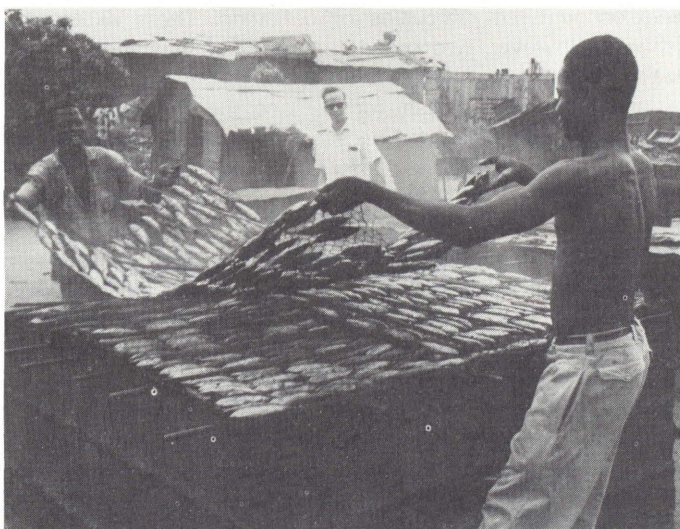
Analogous technical problems arise in servicing internal markets. There may be a case for the adoption of modified standards in some situations. Current handling codes are based on good cold/temperate fishery practice not necessarily relevant in the tropics. A recurring problem in food supplies, of equating quality to quantity, indicates such approaches to be realistic while affording bases for improvement in the longer term.

(\*) Tropical Products Institute, 127 Clerkenwell Road, London EC1R 5DB. This article is drawn from a report on the Conference on Tropical Fisheries, held in London from 5 to 9 July 1976.



AAA Photo

*Traditional methods of preserving fish drying it in the sun (above, in Togo) and smoking it (below, in the Ivory Coast)*



FAO Photo



In considering technological improvement for the local market it is necessary to take note of the very wide variations in consumer preferences and to balance experience of changing patterns of acceptability in some populations against the deeply entrenched conservatism of others. Such factors, obvious to indigenous specialists, may not be readily apparent to "outside" technical advisers lacking the language or sociological background. Reference may perhaps be made to the preference for strongly "off" flavoured dried fish in parts of West Africa and the frequent desire of the housewife throughout the tropics to receive her fish head-on, guts-in. It is particularly important to appreciate the effects of religious attitude in marrying technological development to the formulation of marketing policy.

Together with such considerations of official and consumer requirements in the internal and external markets, the technologist has to consider the constraints operating within the marketing system. Not infrequently, for instance, ice, which can be in serious short supply, is in the hands of middle-men or agents of plants, to whom the fishermen are heavily indebted. Local pricing constraints operating within cooperatives, arising under governmental direction, or often dictated by the purchasing limitations of the consumer population, may limit the practicability of applying the higher technologies.

### Some areas of possible technological contribution to development

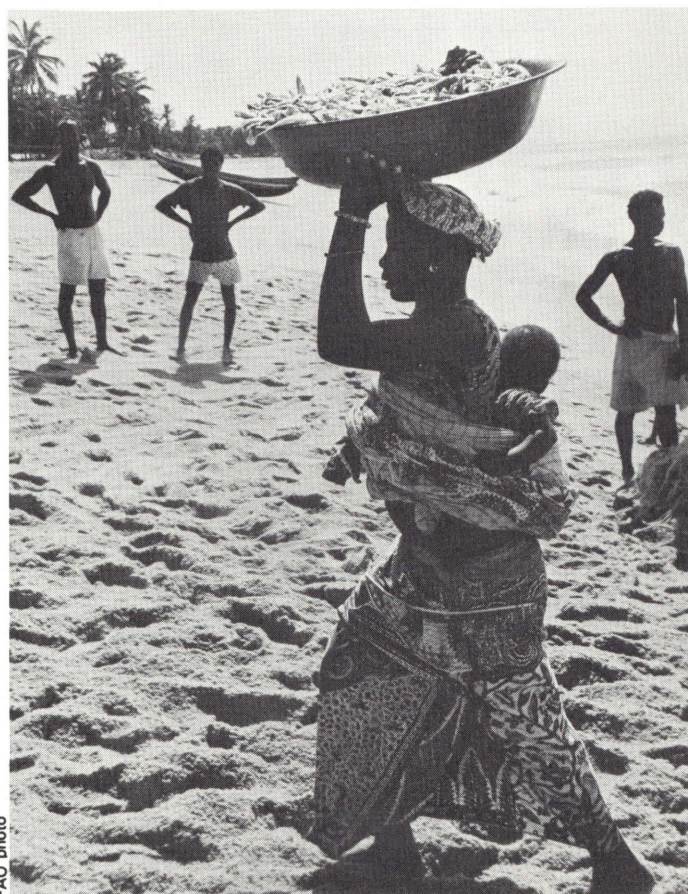
The contribution of post-harvest technology to wider programmes of fisheries development and food production lies (i) in improving the economics and total production of the industry through the avoidance of gross wastage (spoilage, dumping of trash fish), (ii) in improvement of yield and quality, taking into account sociological factors, the adequacy of return on investment and the wider considerations of food safety.

Food wastage was a major concern of the World Food Conference. Subsequent efforts adequately to quantify losses have encountered difficulties of definition. These extend to fisheries. However, two broad categories of wastage may be distinguished:

- large quantities of fish, for instance the shrimp by-catch, are discarded on the vessel because currently it is uneconomic to preserve and land them. Other large resources potentially of use for human consumption (e.g. small pelagic species) are also under- or un-exploited.

- considerable wastage of fish occurs after capture. Technologies for control are well established, however; the problems arise by and large, in application.

Substantial spoilage losses occur also in processed products. Problems arise particularly in the dried fish industries. Dried fish is still a significant element of the export industries of some countries, and an important source of low cost protein within producer countries. Losses as high as 50% are reported in some situations. Control procedures range from better "home keeping" to the use of appropriate insecticides.



*Fresh fish, but for how long? Modern techniques keep the catch fresh longer*

Any consideration of technological inputs must refer to "transfer of technology", which the literature commonly takes to infer a movement of the sophisticated technologies from the industrialised countries to the under-developed. There is also a movement publicising the merits of small-scale technological transfer, but again usually based substantially on Western technology. There is relatively little in the literature about the undoubted merits of many of the indigenous technologies of the tropics or possibilities for improving their performance. In many developing fisheries, transfer of technologies has been, at best, only partially successful. There has been incomplete appreciation of socio-economic factors, including particularly the capacity of local industry to adapt quickly and evaluate possibilities accurately.

In common with many fishery institutions world-wide, there exists in many developing countries an element of parochialism that ignores the wider role of post-harvest fisheries development in food industries more generally. This is unfortunate in servicing an industry that can be seasonal in character and in which plant, which profitably could be used for other commodities, can be idle for several months of the year. It is encouraging to note that, in parallel with food industry elsewhere, that of certain developing countries is increasingly aware of these possibilities.



## Commentary on optimal handling and processing technologies

### Handling of wet fish

Fish is a notoriously perishable commodity. In the tropics, at ambient temperatures, spoilage is rapid, often occurring within 24 hours. In ice, however, tropical species generally keep for extensive periods on average, by comparison with those of colder waters. Shelf lives of up to 45 days have been recorded for some species, 20-30 days being common.

Results on the effects of deheading and gutting tropical species indicate that there is little, if any advantage in terms of keeping quality. It appears that the additional handling involved introduces some incidental hazard. There is a need for further study in this field. For many indigenous markets where the intact fish is preferred it may well be that the common technical advice is erroneous. Where transport costs are high, or there is a requirement to disguise an unaccustomed species, additional processing to the extent of filleting or mincing may be indicated.

In the context of transfer of technology, established guidelines can be misleading. Tropical fish often spoils more rapidly than cold water fish if allowed to remain unchilled but keeps longer if chilled. It may well be unnecessary to advise very short trip fishermen to take ice (which they can ill afford and which may in any case not be available) to sea. For many distribution channels it appears that a chill chain would suffice for periods that in many northern, developed industries would indicate the use of a cold chain. Particularly in the context of the export industry, however, considerably greater attention should be given to cleanliness of handling and the quality of water supplies. Such common malpractices as sorting on fouled ground and the washing of shrimp in dock water are not to be tolerated.

In difficult situations, where chilling facilities may not be available, shade and evaporative cooling are of limited value.

### Freezing

Notwithstanding the indications above, progress has been made in West and Central Africa, and elsewhere on freezing for the internal markets. The economics is not markedly different from that of iced distribution in some situations but the maintenance of adequate storage and cold chains is difficult in many tropical countries.

In general, while there is considerable commercial experience of the cold storage of a number of commercially important species, there is little well-documented literature on other species of potential value. Information is required particularly on time/temperature tolerances. Perhaps what is most needed in the field is work to ascertain to what degree the cheapest (as distinct from the "best") practices can provide acceptable quantity and adequate storage life. In this respect the newer technologies of mince production, forming and freezing are of considerable interest.

### Canning

Maintenance of canned produce in acceptable condition in tropical countries can give rise to problems of corrosion and premature "blowing" by comparison with conditions in most developed countries. Problems of cooling water quality can arise also.

With respect to the pre-cook phase of processing, it has been noted that under West African conditions, hot air cooking with inversion of the can has been preferred to oil which cannot under local conditions be replenished fresh at an economic rate.

### Drying, smoking, salting, sauces

The bases of these technologies are well-established. Difficulties arise particularly in maintaining even minimal cleanliness under conditions pertaining in many developing countries. The common shortage of wood fuel has pointed to the need for the further development of cheap, efficient kilns. There is a considerable problem of insect infestation.

Reference should also be made in the context of drying to the well-established meal industry and the fish protein concentrates. These, in the cheaper forms, are still the subject of considerable interest in many less developed countries, although facing severe competition from some of the plant proteins and with some acceptability problems.

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Many attempts to solve developmental problems have failed, not because the technology was faulty basically, but because the social or economic climate was not conducive to change.

We have discussed, to some extent, the effect of poor infrastructure, such as water supply, and lack of education. We have not touched upon the often crucial difficulties of lack of trained personnel, particularly at the extension level, without which no amount of research, for instance, will be translated into development in the poorest sector. It seems to us that only the indigenous specialist in the field, strongly supported by government, will find many of the key answers. However, appropriately directed applied research which does not accept the common "dogmas" has pointed some avenues for commercial development, employing technologies optimal in the light of local conditions.

In purely technological terms, one of the biggest obstacles to advance is the lack of information in breadth on tropical species. We need information on quality control parameters on more species, in different geographical situations. We need data on seasonal compositional variations relating to processing character and a greater understanding of the inter-relationships of autolytic and microbial spoilage and their control in tropical species. □

N.R.J. and J.G.D.



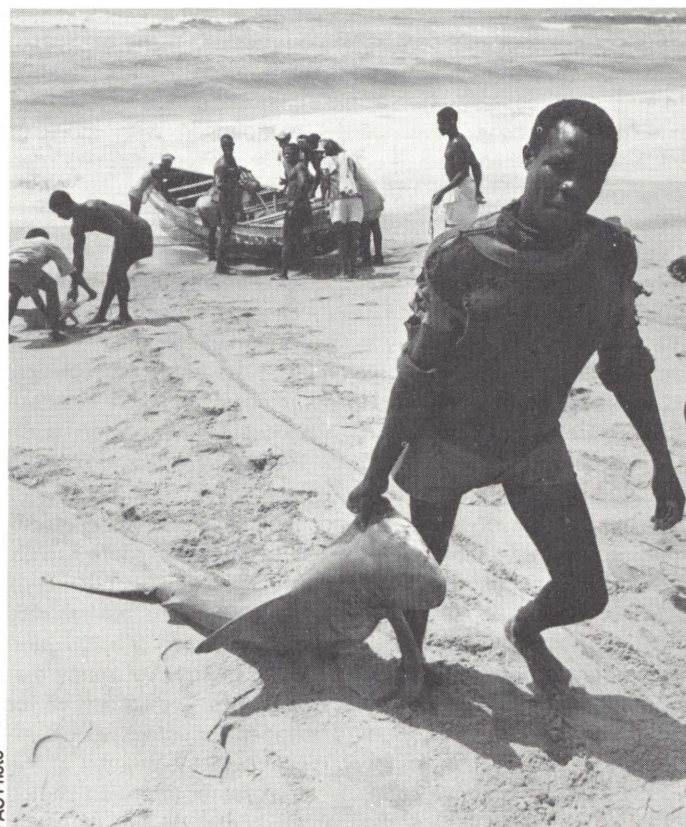
# Artisanal fishing in black Africa

by Carlo DURAZZO (\*)

Few people realized that there is almost as much inland fishing in Africa as there is in the oceans around it.

FAO data reveals that inland fishing in black Africa produces something like 1 000 000 t, whereas sea-fishing, usually from pirogues and local boats, produces some 1 203 000 t (1).

In Tanzania, for example, lakes Victoria, Tanganyika, etc, produce an annual 130 000 t of fish, as compared to the 12 000 t from the sea. Lake Chad alone provides 65 000 t and the Niger delta in Mali produces 120 000 t in a good year.



FAO Photo

*Unloading the catch. Following the deterioration of lagoon fishing, Benin's fishermen have had to go to sea*

## Main countries practising inland fishing (1970)

TANZANIA	130 000 t (13%)
UGANDA	130 000 t (13%)
MALI	110 000 t (11%)
CONGO	110 000 t (11%)
CHAD	65 000 t (6,5%)
NIGERIA	50 000 t (5%)+40 000 T (4%) from brackish water
ZAMBIA	45 000 t (4,5%)
MALAWI	35 000 t (3,5%)
CAMEROON	35 000 t (3,5%)
MADAGASCAR	35 000 t (3,5%)
GHANA	30 000 t (3%)
KENYA, SUDAN, EGYPT, ANGOLA, MAURITANIA, SENEGAL and BENIN	15 000/25 000 t each (1,5 / 2,5 %)
Others	80 000 t (8%)
<b>Total :</b>	<b>1 000 000 t (100 %)</b>

Estimated value of catch = \$ 150 per tonne = \$ 150 000 000

(\*) Vice-president of the Italian federation of fish cooperatives and head of the Propesca consultancy.

(1) Sources: Studies by Roger Aubray, Fisheries Department, FAO 1970 and FAO Annual of Statistics, 1970.

## Main countries practising sea fishing (1970) tonnes

	Pirogues	Local boats	Total
SENEGAL	220 000	30 000	250 000
GAMBIA	14 500		14 500
GUINEA CONAKRY	4 000	3 000	7 000
SIERRA LEONE	20 000	1 500	21 500
LIBERIA	4 500	3 000	7 500
IVORY COAST	20 000	50 000	70 000
GHANA	120 000	55 000	175 000
TOGO	6 500	500	7 000
BENIN	14 500	4 000	18 500
NIGERIA	73 000	8 000	81 000
CAMEROON	15 500	14 500	30 000
ANGOLA	420 000		420 000
TANZANIA	34 500		34 500
KENYA	8 000		8 000
SOMALIA	12 300		12 300
MOZAMBIQUE	3 500	3 500	7 000
MADAGASCAR	5 800	3 300	9 100
Others	7 200	22 900	30 100
<b>Total :</b>	<b>1 003 800</b>	<b>199 200</b>	<b>1 203 000</b>



## FISHING IN RIVERS AND INLAND WATERS

The work unit is the family. The African family will normally have between 10 and 15 members and all of them, men, women and children alike, take an active part in the fishing. The men catch and the women prepare the fish, which is rarely sold fresh outside the big towns, usually by smoking or drying it.

The encampment, comprising several families, may well be stable (e.g. lakes Victoria, Tanganyika, Edward, Albert, Rudolph, etc.), semi-nomad (e.g. moving from one papyrus island to another on Lake Chad) or totally nomad (e.g. the Bozos in the Niger delta who, as the river falls, follow the fish for 600 km upriver from Markala to Lake Debo and further via Mopti, Dioro and Diré to Timbuktu). Fishing techniques are usually good. All the fishermen use nylon nets, ingenious traps and baited hooks and build temporary dams when the rivers are low.

The boats (pirogues) are rarely motorized, but are extremely well-adapted to river fishing. They seem less suitable for the bigger lakes where violent storms are not uncommon.

## Main problems

### Boats

The pirogues used on the major lakes (Victoria, Edward, Tanganyika, Rudolph, etc.) do not usually have motors and the fishermen cannot stray far from their base camp because of the risk of storms—although they could not, in any case, cover any great distances using punt poles or paddles. They generally fish from the lake-side with fixed traps and hooks.

This sort of approach demands that the right boat at the most reasonable cost and constructed of the most suitable materials be chosen for each particular spot. As long as there is plenty of wood it is a good idea to use it, and the local craftsmen, who already build pirogues, are perfectly well able to go over to building bigger boats. But in other places—Lake Chad, for example, and other lakes in the Sahel—wood is not easy to come by and it is therefore better to try to use ferroconcrete or other materials. This automatically involves a much more sophisticated approach to construction. The problem has been neatly solved by the FAO in such places as Uganda, where very adequate ferroconcrete boats are built for use at Entebbe on Lake Victoria. Generally speaking, these vessels need small diesel motors so that the use of thirsty and fragile outboards, which usually only last a year or two, can be avoided.

*Traditional fishing on the Zaire: everyone lends a hand*



FAO Photo



## SEA FISHING



*River fishing in Zambia: outboard motors are useful but often temperamental*

### Fishing techniques

New techniques of fishing from better designed modern vessels can be used on some of the lakes—trawls on Lake Victoria, for example, or seines to catch dagaa, the fresh water sardines, from Lake Tanganyika. These great lakes are, in my opinion, generally under-exploited and production could in any case be increased, without envisaging breeding or stocking.

### Processing the fish

Wherever fish is not sold fresh—i.e. in most cases—it is smoked or dried by what are usually elementary methods. Fish is often attacked by insects and in the Sahel, for example, an estimated 30/40% of production is lost between its being processed and sold to the consumer.

### What needs to be done

Where conditions are suitable for modern bases, there are attempts to set up small units comprising a cold room, ice plant and motor repair workshop. Success normally depends on viability, i.e. there must be the possibility of selling fresh fish on nearby markets. To my knowledge, experiments of this kind are being carried out in Mopti (Mali), Mwanza on Lake Victoria and Kigoma on Lake Tanganyika in Tanzania.

An FAO project at Entebbe on Lake Victoria in Uganda is being studied and there are projects of different types, like the EDF scheme in Mali, to protect dried or smoked fish by the use of insecticides that are not harmful for human consumption.

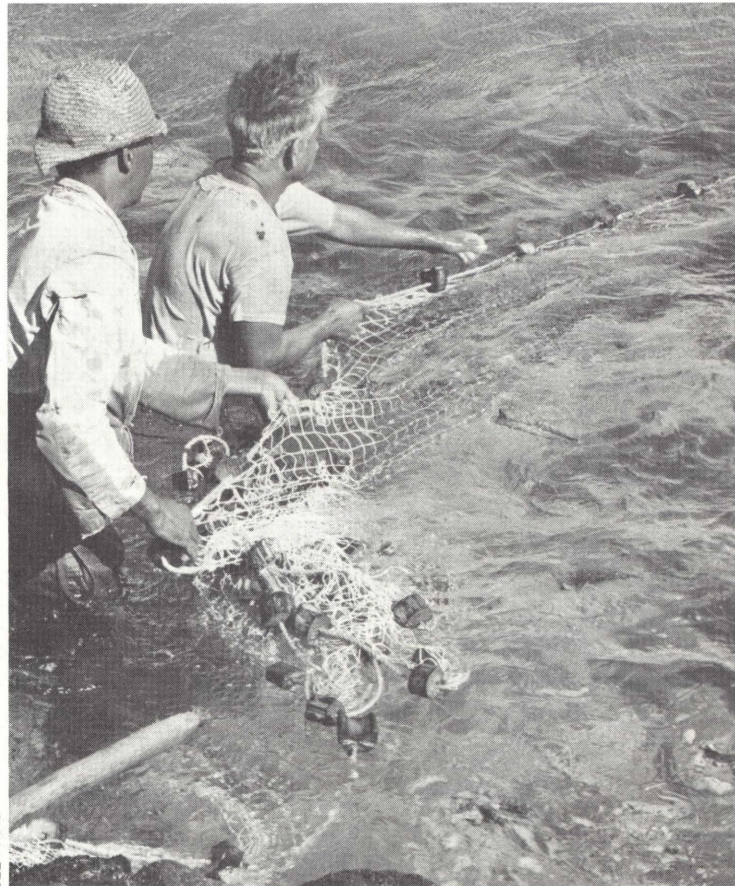
FAO Photo

In the Indian Ocean and the Atlantic, Africans usually fish from pirogues. Some people, like the Ghanaians, the Senegalese and the Angolans, are particularly good at fishing and are very keen on it. But, of course, pirogues cannot go far from the coast, since most of them are only equipped with paddles or (in the Indian Ocean) rudimentary sails.

For some 10 years now, outboard motors have been fitted to pirogues in one or two countries (Senegal, with Canadian aid, and Ghana, with aid from the UK). I feel that outboards, which are fragile and use too much petrol, are extremely costly, but they are often the only answer in places where there are no fishing ports—and often no unloading points either—and heavier vessels with diesel engines are out of the question. Mesh nets or hooks are the usual methods but, on the Atlantic coast, where there are abundant surface fish (Gulf of Guinea and off Senegal), rudimentary seines, which form a sort of cylinder, are used.

The FAO has introduced the real seine in Senegal. This venture has been so successful that there is too big a catch of sea fish in some seasons and fishermen are unable to sell their production, as they lack the means of preserving, transporting and organizing distribution. Apart from the traditional smoked (or even burnt) fish, which the women prepare on a bed of straw and which is sold on the traditional markets in the in-

### *Getting down to the job in Mauritius*



CEE Photo



terior, there are no outlets in places where the fish is actually caught, although towards the Atlantic coast in particular, consumers do exist.

Africans are great fish-eaters and average consumption is high, reaching an annual 15-20 kg per head on the Atlantic coast. One striking example is the success of the frozen fish sold by the Japanese, the Russians and the Poles, which is sent inland by Lorry from Lagos in Nigeria and from Accra. In spite of the fairly high prices, a large market, involving tens of thousands of tons every year, has developed in a very short time.

All the countries of Africa are aware of the wealth in their waters and are anxious to exploit it, both to provide cheap protein for their people and to export to the developed countries. Nearly all countries respect the preferential fishing rights in the 200-mile coastal zone and ship-owners from the developed countries have all been obliged to pay dues to be allowed to go on fishing or to set up mixed trading companies. This will be an increasingly common form of collaboration, although it is only a working proposition if ship-owners in the developed countries can fish the richer varieties—tuna, shrimp, squid, octopus, etc.—that they can sell at home. Of the other, lesser-known, types, which only interest the Africans, only the more valuable species are caught and then not consistently. French or Italian ship-owners are obviously not going to catch sardines in the Gulf of Guinea just to take them back to Europe, when there are enormous and, as yet unexploited, reserves in the Mediterranean and off Morocco. Fisheries must be established for the less valuable species, which must then be distributed in the countries of Africa themselves.

There are two main ways of developing the fish industry: — the existing artisanal fishermen must be better equipped; — semi-industrial fisheries based on existing or future ports must be introduced. They should use simple 20-100 ton vessels, seiners and trawlers.

### Equipping the small fishermen

Providing better equipment for artisanal fishermen also involves teaching them to use new techniques—the seine, lights for sea fish, long-lines and modern materials etc.—so as to push up the size of their catch. This inevitably means replacing the traditional pirogues by a half-covered or open boat with a small diesel engine. More sophisticated techniques would, of course, be impossible from pirogues, which are exceedingly cramped.

The big drawback of pirogues is that the catch cannot be properly preserved on ice and so the fish is of poorer quality on unloading, and the species which could be frozen on land and would be suitable for the European/Mediterranean market cannot be processed. The local distribution of frozen fish is also a problem.

**Difficulties to be overcome** — Even if the fishermen are given proper demonstrations and make a rapid job of learning the new techniques, they will often be at a financial disadvantage

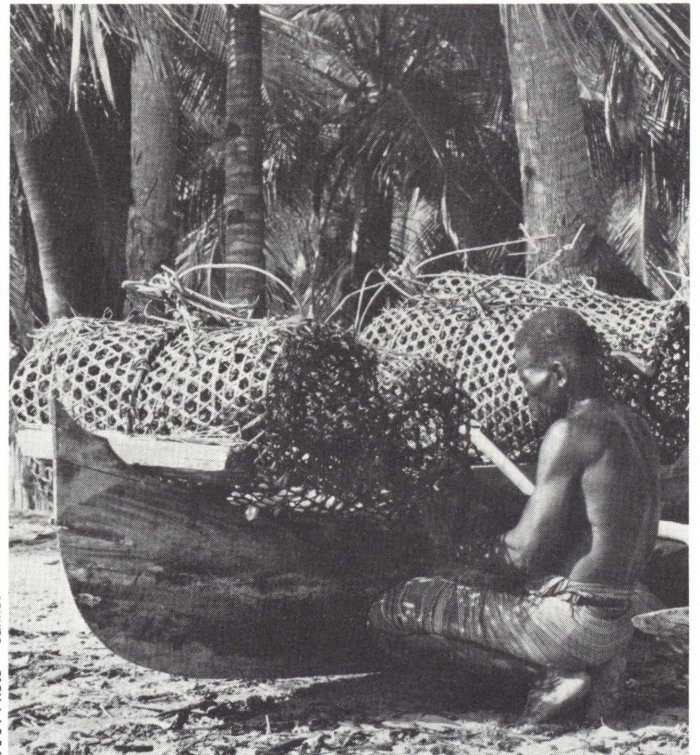
when it comes to building and buying bigger vessels. The demonstrations must, therefore, be followed up by a national and international aid plan, which should include technical and administrative training for local workers, and the setting-up of small ports with the minimum of infrastructure for artisanal fishing concerns.

### The market for local fish

There is obviously no point in equipping the local fishermen if, as in Senegal, for example, they cannot then find a market for their bigger catches. Financial aid should be provided to set up cold storage and small ice plants and to introduce transport. Where seasonally poor road conditions or distant potential markets make this impossible, mechanized smoking or drying should be introduced, regardless of the fact that it is more expensive than traditional methods. All this involves a highly organized approach adapted to the fishermen who are, after all, used to catching the fish rather than processing or marketing it.

All the developing countries of Africa want to develop the activities of the individual fishermen and to create new industrial enterprises. For the money this requires, they are charging ship-owners who want to fish in their waters, they are asking for international aid and the richer among them are providing their own financing. The FAO is actively involved. Certain countries of Asia and the West are directly concerned, either as part of standard bilateral cooperation schemes or because they are in-

Nossi-Bé beach, Madagascar  
*Compare this with a modern trawler*







AAA Photo

*Beach in Martinique. Name of one of the boats: "La vie c'est la chance" (Life is a matter of luck)*

directly interested in fishing rights. The World Bank is financing a number of infrastructure and boat-building projects (e.g. in Ecuador and Morocco) and the Community's EDF is also helping by financing a major inland fishing scheme in Mali.

Over the coming years, efforts in the fisheries sector will need to be doubled. They will need to be trebled as far as sea fishing is concerned if, as is hoped, African fishermen are to catch what is now caught by the international companies, which take, at the moment, an average of 3 500 000 t per year in the 200-mile zones which will now become the exclusive preserve of the maritime countries.

The emphasis must be on training. It is often neglected and it is vital. You cannot fish from a production line. Fishing depends on men. Managers, teachers, technicians, leaders and fishermen must be trained to do their job.

There are two possible types of training, which ought to be combined:

- practical training during the execution of a project.
- training in specialized fishery schools, which could cover one or several projects, or, at least, be based on an overall assessment of numbers needed throughout the country.

Practical training, as part of one or a number of projects, will be aimed at adults. Farmers will be converted to fishing and refresher courses provided for people already working in the sector.

Priority investments for the small fishermen must, therefore, be in training, even though it is extremely important to build small fishing ports and finance boats alongside the training programme. Unfortunately, things often happen the wrong way round. The infrastructure first, then the boats, with light transport infrastructure bringing up the rear. Few investments are made in training the people actually concerned, although they are the ones who have to use the infrastructure. □ C.D.

*They may not be as pretty as the boats above, but they don't depend on luck to find fish (Abidjan fishing fleet)*





## Inland fisheries in Africa

Inland fishing is one of Africa's most important resources. However, the activity is a fairly new one for most governments throughout the continent and they frequently underestimate the contribution that the attendant industries make or could make to the national economy and to the well-being of the people in general.

Africa (including Madagascar) covers a total area of 30 million km<sup>2</sup>, of which a third is desert. The main lakes cover some 250 000 km<sup>2</sup>, while the river basins account for 15 million km<sup>2</sup>, the rest being semi-desert regions with only temporary or highly seasonal rivers.

Current statistics indicate that total annual production of fresh fish from inland waters—including brackish water, lagoons and fish farms—has gone up considerably over the last decade, rising from 820 000 t in 1964 to 1.4 million t in 1974. Africa, in fact, is the world's second largest producer of freshwater fish, behind Asia, and its 1974 catch almost equalled the combined inland catches of North and South America, Oceania, Europe and the USSR. Its freshwater catch accounted for 40% of total fish and fish products produced throughout the continent of Africa (excluding South Africa), the latter figure being 3.5 million tonnes in 1974 (see details in Table I).

Freshwater resources thus represent considerable wealth. Although the figures we have are not fully reliable, they do show a 73%—and as much as 108% in some cases—increase in catches since 1964. However, this sort of growth rate cannot be maintained, as many fisheries are now intensively exploited. But others still have considerable room for expansion.

In some of the major lakes, intensive fishing of certain stocks (*Tilapia esculenta* in Lake Victoria and various types of *Lates* in Lake Tanganyika, for example) is cause for concern.

This and the following article are based on an FAO report prepared for the 9th FAO regional conference on Africa that took place from 2–12 November 1976 in Freetown (Sierra Leone). — Ed.



*Inland fishing at the Nyegezi: rural development centre (Tanzania)*

However, it is perfectly possible to use intensive, or even industrial, methods to catch some of the less popular fish, such as *Haplochromis* in Lake Victoria, without endangering the species. The production of fisheries in various flood plains, including those of the major rivers, could also be stepped up. The Sudd area in the Sudan and the Okavango marshes are highly underdeveloped. Artificial lakes in certain areas have pushed up the freshwater fish potential and fisheries are quick to set up there.

The development of fisheries must be encouraged so that supply can keep pace with increasing demand. A prudent estimate, on the basis of potential resources, suggests that the major lakes could produce three times the present figure, reaching 1.3 million t (Table II). In certain places, investigations are already well enough ahead for no time to be lost in implementing fish industry development programmes geared to increasing production and, at the same time, in organizing the efficient utilization of the catch.



**Table I**  
**Africa: production, consumption and demand for fish**  
(‘000 tonnes)

Country	Freshwater production 1974	Total production 1974	Total consumption 1974	Estimated demand 1980
ALGERIA	Ø(1)	36	36	45
ANGOLA	20	470	310	380
BENIN	23	33	36	48
BOTSWANA	1	1	1	2
BURUNDI	11	11	11	14
CAMEROON	50	72	78	115
CENTRAL AFRICAN REP.	4	4	4	6
CHAD	115	115	115	150
PEOPLE'S REP. CONGO	8	19	31	40
EGYPT	69	96	76	110
ETHIOPIA	1	27	24	35
GABON	Ø	4	10	13
GAMBIA	1	6	12	16
GHANA	41	223	311	404
GUINEA	Ø	5	20	50
GUINEA-BISSAU	Ø	2	2	5
IVORY COAST	8	69	154	190
KENYA	25	29	30	40
LESOTHO	Ø	0	0	2
LIBERIA	4	23	26	30
LIBYA	Ø	4	10	12
MADAGASCAR	38	64	60	80
MALAWI	42	42	40	56
MALI	90	90	70	90
MAURITANIA	13	26	10	23
MAURITIUS	—	8	10	14
MOROCCO	Ø	288	317	475
MOZAMBIQUE	—	13	26	45
NIGER	15	15	13	15
NIGERIA	347	685	800	1500
RWANDA	1	1	1	2
SENEGAL	10	357	307	320
SIERRA LEONE	1	51	62	80
SOMALIA	0	5	5	8
SUDAN	22	23	23	30
SWAZILAND	0	0	0	2
TANZANIA	145	168	170	200
TOGO	3	11	20	35
TUNISIA	Ø	43	30	40
UGANDA	168	168	169	220
UPPER VOLTA	4	4	9	13
ZAIRE	111	124	213	318
ZAMBIA	37	37	45	70
DEPENDENCIES	0	60	62	85
	1428	3532	3759	5428

Source : FAO annual of fish statistics, Vol. 38, 1974, unpublished FAO documents — Department of Fisheries.

(1) Ø = less than half of one statistical unit, i.e. less than 500 t.



## Fishing in lakes and reservoirs

This accounts for half the production of freshwater fish, and should continue to do so over a considerable period.

However, some lakes, mainly Lake Chad and other similar ones in the central Niger delta, have been adversely affected by the recent drought in the Sahel, even though their resources were underexploited before. Although it is difficult to say what the long-term effects of the general drought throughout the Sahel may be (since we do not know whether current climatic conditions are the result of short or long-term trends), it is clearly responsible for a drop in fish production and, consequently, for the increased sensitivity of surviving stocks to human error. Precautions will therefore have to be doubled to avoid over-fishing, so that stocks can be reconstituted.

Experience with other African lakes, such as Chilwa, Mweru, Wa Ntipa and Rukwa, where there is periodic flooding followed by drier periods, suggests that fisheries of this sort have remarkable powers of recovery.

In many big African lakes, fishing tends to be underdeveloped and the time-honoured materials and equipment, so eminently suited to the local conditions, are used. The catch is primarily intended to allow the fisherman himself to subsist and the yield is low. However, since the turn of the century, local fishermen have been using tangle nets, cast nets and hooked lines and these, together with trawls, etc., on some of the bigger lakes, have increased production. It is partly because the boats have hardly increased in size that fishing is still mainly confined to small shallow lakes and to the edges of the bigger ones.

New industrial trawling concerns are now being set up on Lake Victoria and it is likely that more modern seine nets will be used on Lakes Tanganyika and Nyasa (Malawi), so that stocks in deeper waters can be fished.

The launching and expansion of industrial fisheries of this type require that improved methods of fish processing and marketing and, probably, new products, be evolved. At the moment, much protein that could be used is lost because of attack by insects, mainly coleopters (*Dermestes* and *Necrobis*). Between 20% and 40% of the weight of dried and smoked fish is lost in many freshwater fisheries and, consequently, any improvements in the methods of preserving traditional products (i.e. smoked/dried fish) will mean a considerable increase in the quantities that actually reach the consumer. A rapid disinfectant project has been started in Mali and this is currently being expanded with EEC (EDF) aid (1). Inland fisheries in Africa would benefit enormously from a large number of projects of this kind.

(1) See article on fishing in Mopti on page 80.

**Table II**  
**Africa: potential production of the major lakes**

Site	Area (in km <sup>2</sup> )	Average annual production 1970-85 (thousand tonnes)	Estimated potential (thousand tonnes)
LAKE VICTORIA	67 000	115	420
LAKE TANGANYIKA	34 000	79	310
LAKE NYASA (Malawi)	28 500	30	100
LAKE TURKANA (Rudolph)	7 000	2	7
LAKE KYOGA	2 280	62	100
LAKE IDI AMIN (Edward)	2 220	16	25
LAKE MOBUTU SESE SEKO (Albert)	5 500	14	30
LAKE GEORGE	270	4	6
LAKE KIVU	2 700	3	1
LAKE RUKWA	2 000	5	8
LAKE CHILWA	1 000	2	3
LAKE MERU/NTIPA	5 200	18	30
LAKE BANGWEULU	12 000	8	10
LAKE KARIBA	5 300	3	14
LAKE CHAD	14 800	135	150
LAKE KAINJI	1 250	8	10
LAKE VOLTA	8 727	35	40
LAKE NASSER/NUBIA	5 000	9	20
LAKE TSANA	3 500	5	15
LAKE KOSSOU	1 750	2	8
RIFT VALLEY LAKES - ABAYS, ZUVEYS etc.	3 100	—	17
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>213 097</b>	<b>548</b>	<b>1 324</b>

Source: FAO, Fishing industries division, CECPI publications 1972.

**Table III**  
**Summary of data on various African waterways**

River	Length of primary river	Area of river basin (km <sup>2</sup> )	Catch (t)
NILE	6 669	3 000 000	40 840
ZAIRE	4 700	4 014 500	81 700
Oubangui	1 060	772 800	4 670
Kassai	1 735	342 116	7 750
NIGER	4 183	1 125 000	38 000 (1)
Bénoué	1 400	219 964	12 750
ZAMBEZI	2 574	1 300 000	21 000
SENEGAL	1 641	338 000	16 000 (2)
GAMBIA	1 120	77 000	800
BLACK VOLTA	650	45 324	1 560
RED VOLTA	260	6 871	390
WHITE VOLTA	255	6 602	70
PENDJARI	330	11 226	140
OUEME	700	40 150	646 (3)
MONO	360	22 000	533
TSANA	600	38 000	500
BANDAMA+SASSANDRA	1 650	172 000	2 800

(1) Production of primary river only: +90 000 t from central delta = 128 000 t.

(2) Production of primary river only: +2 500 t from Make Guiers and 11 500 t from the delta = 30 000 t.

(3) Production of primary river only: +6 454 t from the delta = 7 100 t.

Source: Welcomme, 1976.





*Fishermen on the Zaire river*

AAA Photo

### River fishing

Recorded catches for African rivers only amount to 340 000 t (Table III). Most of this comes from flood plains, the 10 most important of which produce an annual 280 000 t of fish between them (recorded catch)—i.e. slightly more than 40 kg per hectare. There is obviously room for improvement in most of the major flood plains.

Generally speaking, rivers provide fish for subsistence or small-scale concerns, often run by poorly-equipped fishing communities spread out along the river banks. However, there are a number of larger fisheries, most of which are around the principal flood plains, such as the central Niger delta and the Kafoué plains, or, again, on the lower reaches of other rivers like the Zaire. Fishermen in these areas are better equipped and often have motor boats and modern materials. Since fishing and marketing businesses are concentrated and could both benefit from better facilities, it might be possible to further develop fisheries in the zone, as the extensions to the Mopti (Mali) unloading shed illustrate.

Estimated production from the rivers is doubtless only based on areas where fishing is sufficiently intensive to warrant the interest of administrators and biological research workers. This is why current statistics only show catches in flood plains and rivers that are big enough to support large or medium-scale fishing operations.

However, river fisheries are highly dispersed and those of any size are the exception rather than the rule. Production here is difficult to assess since it is immediately absorbed by the consumer without passing through any intermediary. We must, therefore, conclude that production estimated on the basis of these big fisheries is below the real figure and, according to calculations, current catches are probably nearer 530 000 tonnes. The river potential, therefore, would probably be slightly higher.

### Other inland waterways and lagoons

Fish-farming is not one of Africa's traditional activities and its introduction over the last 25 years has been a major achievement. The aim is twofold: to stock natural waters and to improve the nutrition of the rural populations. Developments have so far been confined to breeding fish in ponds, mainly for subsistence or on a part-time basis by peasant-farmers, commercial enterprises being still only emergent. The main problems are an inadequate knowledge of local possibilities, a lack of technical experience at village level, the supply of young fish and the absence of any proper financing plans. Breeding in brackish water is still in its early stages.

A recent symposium on fish-farming in Africa in 1975 recognized that, even with small investments, substantial earnings could rapidly be made by practising intensive methods in the flood plains and by producing joint plans for the use of water from irrigation systems, sewage treatment installations and multi-purpose reservoirs. As was said at the symposium, any national development of fish-farming would demand proper development plans based on feasibility studies and a clear idea of the requisite targets and input. Then there would need to be technical training for cadres at all levels and the creation and extension of instructional services. Information would have to be collected and distributed, incentives provided to encourage commercial developments in the private sector, more young fish produced for fattening and research stepped up into species that have proved successful at the breeding stage.

The potential of Africa's waterways is vast. A survey conducted in the Niger delta alone has revealed that there are 750 000 hectares of mangrove swamp, of which 400 000 ha could easily be turned over to fish. Even at the modest rate of 400 kg per hectare, this area could produce an annual 160 000 t of fish. Vast lagoons of brackish water could be similarly exploited in Ghana, the Ivory Coast, Kenya, Senegal, the Gambia, Sierra Leone and the Rufija Delta in Tanzania. □



# Economic and social aspects of fisheries development

Although the prospects for the expansion of inland fishing in Africa seem encouraging, there are still a number of limiting factors to development. In addition to the biological and hydrological limitations, the development of the fish sector is hindered by various social, economic and political considerations. The exploitation of certain isolated and inhospitable spots that are often inaccessible for large parts of the year also demands a concerted effort by the countries concerned.

## THE MAIN PROBLEMS

**The various uses of water.** — Inland waters in Africa are normally considered to play a vital role in irrigation, agriculture, the home, industry, electricity production and transport. Although we take the presence of fish in water for granted, they nevertheless constitute a living, renewable resource. The various uses of water, besides being incompatible, affect the ecological balance and make it impossible to maintain adequate stocks of fish for the fishing industry.

River fishing is dispersed over a wide area and therefore tends to be neglected. It is also easily prey to the usually harmful effects of the other users of water with which it com-

petes. Flood plains play a vital part in the reproduction and growth of various species. These flood plains are used for agriculture and drained for irrigation purposes or to avert disease or inundation, and their levels are altered by dams and dykes. Fish stocks are thus in danger throughout the inland waterways. This could be avoided by integrated plans and careful analyses and assessments of the activities in, and uses of, the river basins before projects are carried out.

**Pollution.** — Water pollution is fast becoming a menace in Africa where, in spite of the fact that there are no large-scale sources of industrial pollution, the current use of pesticides, herbicides and fertilizer to push up agricultural production plus sewage and industrial effluent in several big towns on the great lakes (Bujumbura, Jinja, Kampala, Kisumu and Mwanza) has caused a certain amount of local pollution. It is obvious that measures must be introduced to prevent and control pollution so as to protect both the health of the local people and the stocks of fish in the waters.

**The consequences of land clearance.** — The extension of areas under cultivation in most places has led to enormous areas of forest being cleared in the various river basins, often down to the water's edge. Rivers have silted up, thereby bringing down the numbers of fish in lower reaches and lagoons and near the estuaries, and causing increasing flooding during the rainy season. This means that the river valleys cannot be colonized or improved for agriculture. However, the areas subject to flooding are now much larger and this in itself will encourage the production of new stocks of fish for future fishing.

**The risk of disease.** — A certain number of inland fishing grounds have remained unexploited or difficult to work since the areas are breeding grounds for disease. In cases such as this, development cannot be confined to the water. It also has to involve measures to safeguard and improve the quality of life by running prophylactic and curative health schemes alongside fishing projects. Many of these areas have sparse populations, few access roads and little of the infrastructure that accelerated development demands.

## Boosting trade between neighbouring countries

The problem of surplus freshwater fish production in countries like Chad, Mali, Tanzania, Niger, Malawi and Uganda requires that a real effort to boost trade be made by a larger number of countries. There are little or no direct trade links and the existence of customs and tax controls, and the obstacles raised by regulations and trade tariffs between the various outlets do nothing to help solve the problem of the surpluses and shortages of fish that occur within and between the various countries due to seasonal variations in supply and demand.

*Dug-out on Lake Victoria*



AAA Photo





*Repairing nets in Zaire: should the fishermen's socio-economic situation be unravelled too?*

EEC Photo

## Popularizing new techniques and improving infrastructure

Although we have made some progress in introducing more up-to-date equipment, fishermen have not always been keen to use it for a number of complex reasons. Many of them are not yet convinced that it is effective and profitable, so more instruction must be given to persuade them that they should switch to modern methods. Many of them live from hand to mouth and are therefore not in a position to put up enough money for the equipment. Moreover, some of the equipment is not available and, when it is, transport problems often prevent the fishermen from using it. And in many cases, the governments make only minimal efforts to keep the fishermen informed via the instructors.

Other major obstacles to the expansion of fisheries in the region are inadequate technical know-how, insufficient capital and materials and, generally speaking, a complete absence of the fundamental infrastructure needed for any future development.

## DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTS

Considerable progress has been made in the inland fishing industry in Africa, although there is still a lot of unexploited potential. Some fisheries are moving up from the cottage industry to the much larger-scale concern, as on the big lakes

in East Africa, but in some areas no contributions at all have been made to exploiting even part of the fisheries potential. This is the case in Lake Turkana (Rudolph) and Lake Tsaba and some of the great rivers.

The indicative world plan suggested that African fisheries were one of the most promising areas for economic and social development. In many countries of Africa, huge artificial lakes have become an increasingly large source of fish supplies in areas, in Ghana and Ivory Coast for example, a long way from the sea. Inland fisheries have also been boosted by intensifying fishing on lakes Victoria and Tanganyika, where unexploited stocks of fish are estimated at several million tons. There is room for expansion in the flood plains and rivers. Underwater farming would appear to be full of promise for many areas of Africa.

We already have a mass of scientific data that could be used immediately to develop inland fishing as it ought to be developed. However, in some cases, further research is vital to clarify the biology of the fish stocks and to provide a correct assessment of existing numbers so as to be able to judge actual potential or, as on Lake Victoria, to estimate the effect intensive fishing will have on stocks.

## Simple, practical programmes

Fisheries authorities should take greater care to implement simple, practical programmes like building roads to improve access to the unloading points, to set up rudimentary fish markets and introduce new machinery, develop river transport, etc., as a first phase. Progress would then depend on the possibilities the authorities had of extending their programmes to make them more ambitious, perhaps by combining them with other governments' plans, and getting the state to finance wide-ranging development programmes with the help of various international and bilateral organizations.

Although the governments concerned are already well aware of the potential, they must now be ready to concentrate more on this sector if they want to overcome the current difficulties, which are mainly due to inadequate infrastructure and to the fact that the fisheries tend to be situated in the most inhospitable and inaccessible parts of the continent.

## The effect on employment

Although fishing industries are not an important source of employment in the various countries at the moment, the figures should improve as the sector develops.

An estimated million and a half people work in the inland fishing industry in Africa. Jobs tend to be temporary, particularly in river fishing where work varies according to the seasonal level of the water. However, if certain activities such as the construction of pirogues and boats, the sale of equipment and the processing and marketing of fish, are taken into ac-



count, it is clear that the industry as a whole provides employment for many more people than the statistics would lead us to suspect.

As far as employment is concerned, the small-scale fishing concerns absorb, and will continue to absorb, a good deal of labour, thereby supplying work and food for an ever-increasing African population. Small-time fishing, which accounts for 95 % of catches, will therefore go on supplying more of African fish production for some time to come. It is important for reasons of nutrition, employment and social stability, and efforts should be combined to pursue a rational development within the framework of existing social structures.

### **Need for regional and international cooperation**

The use of water always provokes sharp conflicts of interest and it has always been fishing so far that has suffered. It is thus more vital than ever for the conflict of interests to be studied. A rational scheme for improving inland waters will, therefore, take account of the various uses to which the water is being put so that a clear development policy can be devised.

Ideally, planning of development programmes in these sectors should be based on an economic analysis that takes account of both advantages and disadvantages. If there are no firm facts available, however, it is worth noting that fishing provides many people with a subsistence living and that any change in the characteristics of the lakes and other inland waterways may rob the local fisherman of his job and his main source of food. This being the case, it is vital to investigate the effects of any development plan in the fisheries sector to assess the exact economic and social consequences.

Fish are highly mobile and migrate across lakes or waterways in blissful ignorance of frontiers; so one country's stocks may well be affected by fisheries schemes, pollution or other activities on the part of a neighbouring country. Fisheries schemes in international waters must therefore be properly integrated. The FAO is always drawing the attention of the states bordering on international waters to the need to introduce joint development programmes and projects, to ensure that the fisheries side of things is not neglected. Where there is no special body in charge of cooperation in respect of a waterway, lake, etc., the countries bordering it should recognize the need to set one up.

The rational exploitation of underwater resources demands that all states cooperate in many sectors, ranging from harvesting to developing the distribution of fish products. But certain countries concerned have no experience or technical know-how and they need regional cooperation and better use to be made of the fisheries training institutes which accept foreign students. There are establishments of this kind in the Ivory Coast, Ghana, Malawi, Morocco, Nigeria, Uganda, Senegal, Tanzania and Zaire. But they still need to ask for participation and assistance from abroad to provide more advanced scientific technological and managerial training—and, in certain cases, to obtain the capital which the countries of Africa so desperately need. □

## **The African committee for inland fishing**

Two or more countries share the basins of several of the major African lakes. Similarly, a large number of waterways constitute frontiers between different states. The coordinated improvements to these zones demands the cooperation of all the states bordering on them. Generally speaking, improvements have been made by setting up international organizations (like the East African Community, the Lake Chad basin committee, the Senegal development organization, the Niger committee, etc.). These bodies were set up via international agreements between European governments or by the African countries themselves after independence.

In certain cases, the inland fishing industry comes within the scope of those international organizations that were intended to promote sub-regional cooperation. However, these bodies were nearly always set up for other sectors of the economy than fishing. For example, navigation on international waters, irrigation, hydro-electricity and so on. In fact, not one of 10 international bodies of this type in Africa is exclusively concerned with international development in the inland fisheries sector.

In 1971, the 56th session of the FAO Council (resolution No 1/56), at the request of the African nations, set up a committee to deal with inland fisheries in Africa which is recognized as the only intergovernmental body in the fish sector in Africa as a whole. The committee's job is to promote and improve inland fisheries, coordinate international research into fish and fish products and devise national and regional programmes of fisheries development. At the first session in Chad in 1972, the committee outlined eight priority areas—training, cooperation as regards international waters, stock assessment, publicity, standardization of data systems, aquaculture, fishing on flood plains and artisanal fishing concerns.

Between the first and the second (Accra, Ghana, 1975) sessions, the committee set up working parties on fish and local fishing methods, plus two others which would work by correspondence and discuss flood plains and stock assessment. At the second session, a major symposium on aquaculture was organized and an *ad hoc* sub-committee set up on the protection and development of fishing in the Sahel. The committee also approved a proposal on the regional development of small-scale African fisheries. The main topic at the third session (scheduled for end 1977) will be the development of fishing in flood plains.



The FAO has divided the oceans of the world into statistically defined fishing zones, and most of the ACP countries are in one of three major ones—West Africa is in zone 34 (east-central Atlantic), East Africa in Zone 51 (western Indian Ocean) and the Caribbean in zone 31 (west-central Atlantic). The ACP countries of the Pacific are more widely spread, Fiji being in zone 71 (west-central Pacific) and Samoa and Tonga in zone 77 (east-central Pacific).

Nearly all these zones have their own official organizations representing the maritime states in question plus any other country with fishing interests. These bodies were set up to ensure the proper management of resources and research into and general development of the zone.

There are only 13 ACP states—all of them landlocked African countries—which do not come into one of these maritime zones.

On the basis of what is mainly FAO data, we have divided the 36 other ACP countries into their respective fishing zones. We have listed their resources and production to date, classified them within their zone, compared them as a group with the non-maritime states that fish in their zone and outlined recent trends in sea fishing.

Without going into the effects of the fisheries sector on the economy of each ACP country individually, the comparison of the three main fishing zones reveals considerable differences. The 17 ACP states of western Africa, whose zone is the biggest of the three in question, are in the lead, with 28.4% of total nominal catches in the east-central Atlantic...

However, it should be noted that this is mainly due to three of these states, Senegal, Nigeria and Ghana, who have 22.7% between them.

## WEST AFRICA

### Relative importance of the ACP states

The east-central Atlantic fishing zone, FAO zone 34, involves 17 ACP countries. It goes from the Straits of Gibraltar in the north to the mouth of the Zaire in the south and from the coast of West Africa to 40°W in the Atlantic Ocean.

## Sea fishing in the



*Nigerian fishermen try out an English*

The first thing that emerges here is that the waters containing the most fish are opposite the least populated coasts, from Morocco to Senegal. The Gulf of Guinea, in the southern part of the zone, where there is a greater concentration of people, does not get the "upwellings" that occur along the more northerly coasts. These upwellings of cold water carry the food on which plankton feeds. Plankton is the basic food of pelagic, or surface-dwelling, fish (such as herrings, mackerel, tuna, etc.), which, in turn are eaten by other fish.

This natural movement of cold water is the basis of the food chain of the fish population and the determining factor as far as the multiplication of fish stocks is concerned. It is



# ACP countries



*urf boat made of aluminium*

also worth noting that the continental shelf, where most fishing takes place, is much wider in the north, where it varies between 55 and 200 km, than in the Gulf of Guinea, where it is no more than 20 km wide. This zone provided 5.2 % of the nominal world catch in 1974 (69.8 million t).

## Current resources and exploitation to date

The fish resources in the east-central Atlantic zone are extremely complex and varied. They include large stocks of pelagic fish, often of a single species (sardines in the north, for

example) and many small groups of different types of demersal, or bottom-dwelling, fish (such as sole or cod), the latter being mainly in the southern part of the zone.

It should also be noted that pelagic stocks are always on the move up and down the coast and therefore sometimes enter other zones where the respective maritime countries may wish to exercise their own fishing rights.

Resources fall into three main sub-groups:

**Table I — Catch by species**  
FAO annual statistics for 1974  
('000 tonnes)

Total catch	3 658.5	100 %
Crustaceans (crabs, lobsters, etc.)	31.9	0.6 %
Molluscs (oysters, clams, etc.)	22.9	0.6 %
Sea fish (herrings, scorpion fish, etc.)	3 390.0	92.7 %
Other (cuttlefish, turtles, etc.)	213.7	5.8 %

Sea fish include herrings, sardines and anchovies in first place, totalling 1 296 million t, and mullet, jacks and sauries with 696 million t, in second place.

Generally speaking, the stocks in this zone have been well identified. Some are extensively fished, some are over-fished and most have reached the level of full exploitation. Potential can be divided into three sub-zones: the north, with an estimated potential of 750 000 to 1 000 000 t of demersal fish (sparidae, whiting, octopus, etc.) and some 1 500 000 t of pelagic fish (sardines, mackerel, etc.); the tropical region, with a wide variety of demersal fish amounting to just short of half a million tonnes, plus the same amount of pelagic fish (sardines, octopus, anchovies, etc., not as yet exploited); and the ocean section, where there is an enormous tuna potential (most—i.e. some 0.5 million t—of the potential Atlantic catch as a whole).

## The position of the ACP

As table II shows, the USSR dominates the zone with 31.3 % of total fish caught in 1974, as against 25.8 % in 1973 and 23.2 % in 1972. It has thus consolidated its position in recent years. Other developed countries that figure large are, in order of importance, Spain, Japan, Norway, France, Poland and Italy, the latter being 15th out of some 40 nations fishing the east-central Atlantic zone in 1974.



The African countries accounted for a total of 1.33 million t in 1974, i.e. 36.4 % of the total. The countries of Africa using the east-central Atlantic include all the maritime states and African islands along the coast plus Egypt and Angola, which is in the south-east Atlantic zone. The 17 maritime ACP states total is 1.04 million t, i.e. 28.4% of the figure for the whole zone. Compared to all the other groups of ACP countries which fish in their respective zones, this is a relatively good result—although it should be noted that it is mainly due to Senegal (9.5 %), Nigeria (9.2 %) and Ghana (3.9 %), the other 14 ACP's only accounting for 5.7 % of the total catch between them. Most ACP states manage to keep their tonnages fairly stable (on the basis of FAO estimates, since no proper statistics are available).

**Table II**  
**Nominal catches by country**  
**('000 tonnes) in east-central Atlantic**  
**(selected countries)**

	1972	1973	1974	Order of importance
URSS	848.8	942.7	1 145.0	1
Spain	243.5	363.7	363.7 F	2
Senegal*	278.6	303.8	347.0	3
Nigeria*	318.3	327.8	337.8	4
Morocco	228.2	378.3 F	267.3	5
Ghana*	222.0	109.9	144.5	6
Japan	120.2	113.2	126.8	7
Ivory Coast*	66.4	50.5	61.2	11
Sierra Leone*	50.0	50.3	50.3 F	13
Cameroon*	21.6	21.6 F	21.6 F	20
Liberia*	12.6 F	13. F	12.6 F	22
Mauritania*	8.0 F	8.0 F	12.6 F	23
Congo*	14.0	13.9	11.0	24
Togo*	7.6	7.9	8.1	27
Benin*	5.9	8.6	7.0	28
Guinea*	5.0 F	5.0 F	5.0 F	29
Gabon*	4.5 F	4.5 F	4.5 F	30
Cape Verde	4.8	4.4	4.4 F	31
Equatorial Guinea*	4.0 F	4.0 F	4.0 F	32
Guinea-Bissau*	1.7	1.7 F	1.7 F	34
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	0.8	0.8	0.8 F	36
Total	3 248.6 †	3 432.1 †	3 658.5 †	

\* = ACP country.

F = FAO estimate.

† = All countries of zone 34.

## Trends in foreign participation

There has been rapid expansion in this zone in recent years and catches increased from 570 000 t in 1958 to 3.6 million t in 1974, mainly accounted for by fleets which have come a long way from countries outside the zone. Their catch increased from 80 000 t in 1958 to 2.34 million t in 1974, i.e. 14 % and 64 % respectively of the nominal catch in those two years.

At the moment, the maritime states are joining forces to get a larger slice of the cake in their zone. This is why they have set up a sub-committee (of the east-central Atlantic fisheries committee) for the exploitation of the resources of the maritime countries. The extension of the 200-mile zone will be an important contribution to the strengthening of their position. Since 1970, coastal fishing has been stepped up, often pursuant to economic cooperation agreements between non-maritime industrialized countries and governments or enterprises in the maritime states.

The maritime states that almost monopolize the pelagic stocks along the coast—often joint stocks because the fish migrate—will be able to improve their overall position if they can manage to establish proper management of these stocks and some sort of reasonable cooperation between countries with converging interests. Such cooperation is imperative because an attempt must be made within the zone to harmonize the demand for fish protein from the more crowded countries on the Gulf of Guinea with the supply from the northern parts, where, although the desert comes down to the coasts and the population is consequently small, the fishing countries naturally want the maximum economic benefit from their rich fish stocks.

One other factor calling for cooperation is the intensive fishing of stocks in this zone. This makes joint management by the countries concerned—including, therefore, the maritime ACP states—both necessary and imperative.

## EAST AFRICA

### New research in the Indian Ocean

The western Indian Ocean fishing zone, known as area 51 by the FAO, includes nine ACP countries, five on the African mainland plus Madagascar, the Seychelles, the Comoros and Mauritius.

This fishing zone covers a vast area of sea from the Horn of Africa and the west coast of India in the north, to a line 50° south, midway between the Cape of Good Hope and the Antarctic. Its eastern and western limits are the points 30°E and 80°E, or roughly lines drawn south into the Indian Ocean from Sri Lanka in the east and Natal, in South Africa, in the west. The fishing catch in the area is dominated by India where over 50 % of the total is landed in good years. The nine ACP countries in the area took only 4.6 % of the catch in 1974 and 4.8 % in 1973. The fishing in the zone is mainly done by developing countries, the most significant developed countries fishing in the zone, the USSR and Japan, landed only 6.4 % and 1.4 % respectively in 1974. The catch in selected countries between 1972 and 1974 is shown in the table below.



**Table III**  
**Nominal catches by country ('000 tonnes)**  
**in Indian Ocean, Western, (selected countries)**

Country	1972	1973	1974	rating '74
India	739.8	948.1	1065.1	1
Pakistan	184.9	209.0	163.3	2
URSS	129.0	43.7	135.1	3
Yemen (DR)	122.6	133.5	133.5 F	4
Sri Lanka	93.5	93.7	103.0	5
Oman	100.0 F	100.0 F	100.0 F	6
Ethiopia*	25.8	25.8 F	25.8 F	12
Malagasy*	14.2	21.2	25.4	13
Tanzania*	28.9	23.0	23.0 F	14
Mauritius*	4.8	7.5	7.5 F	18
Somalia*	5.0 F	5.0 F	5.0 F	20
Kenya*	7.5	4.0	3.6	21
Seychelles*	2.5	3.0	3.5	22
Comores*	2.0	2.0	2.0 F	26
Sudan*	0.8	0.8	0.8 F	30
Total :	1 734.4 †	1 892.5 †	2 107.7 †	

\* = ACP country.

F = FAO estimate.

† = all countries in area 51.

countries who belong to the Indian Ocean Fishery Commission (IOFC), most of them are also concerned that small scale traditional fishing should not be ignored. Fishing by small coastal communities provides a valuable source of food for local consumption as well as employment for several million people in the Indian Ocean area. Developing this sort of fishery is in many ways more difficult than promoting large scale commercial fishery. The latter, although costly, can be concentrated in a few ports, with comparatively small numbers of people, and as a result is easy to organise. The former affects many more fishermen, scattered over a large area in small villages. The FAO has made some studies of the problems involved and is planning, through the IOFC, further studies. At the last meeting of the Commission in Mombasa last year it was agreed that small scale fishing developments should be part of more general rural development plans because of the close socio-economic ties between coastal fishing villages and the surrounding agricultural areas.

## Coastal aquaculture

Apart from small-scale fishing, and modern ocean fleet fishery, there is also the possibility of coastal aquaculture (sea farming) in East Africa. The East African Marine Fisheries Research Organisation, with its headquarters in Zanzibar, has already explored some of the possibilities in this field and is to cooperate with the FAO in further studies. Aquaculture requires a high level of capital investment and the use of advanced techniques. It also has to be planned to fit in with the marine environment so that existing resources of fish, molluscs and crustaceans are not adversely affected. Progress in this and other fields of research in Indian Ocean fishery will be reviewed at the next full meeting of the IOFC scheduled for the first half of 1977, and forms part of the overall development programme for fishery in the western Indian Ocean sponsored by FAO/UNDP. □

## The East African Fisheries Resources Survey

Because of the estimated potential of the Indian Ocean and the limited information available on which to base an organised extension of fishing, research is currently a high priority in area 51. Along the East African coast a major survey is being conducted by the Soviet vessel, R/V Professor Mesyater chartered by the FAO and UNDP. It has now completed over half its oceanic surveys and the full results should be available later this year. All types of fish are included in the survey—pelagic, demersal, molluscs and crustaceans. The ship began its investigations with trawl and acoustic observations along the East African coast from just north of Mombasa down to the Mozambique capital, Maputo. The second area of study included the islands on the African side of the Indian ocean from the Seychelles, through the sandbanks of Fortune, Saya di Malha and Nazareth, down to Mauritius and Reunion. A preliminary report on the findings of these first surveys was submitted to the FAO in August. It is hoped that the final report will give information on the quantities and distribution of fish, and on the particular problems presented by fishing in the area where the continental shelf is narrow, less than 12 km in most places, and where coral outcrops make trolling the bottom difficult. The East African current is also swift, making fishery by unpowered craft dangerous.

## Small-scale fishing

Although current surveys could open up the way to more efficient fishing with modern fishing fleets by the developing

# CARIBBEAN

## The fishing potential

**The seven ACP states of the Caribbean come within the western-central Atlantic area known as fishing zone 31.**

It stretches as far as 35° north (as far as the American state of North Carolina) and its southern limit is along the line 5°00'N, or roughly down to the border between Brazil and Guiana. In the west the zone includes the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean sea, and in the east ends in mid-Atlantic along the line 40°W. The United States has the longest coast in the area and dominates the fishing industry as a result of its much greater investment and research. In 1974 the



United States fishing industry caught over one million tonnes of fish, while its nearest rival, Venezuela took only 129,000 tonnes. The ACP state with the most significant catch is Guyana with over 23 000 tonnes in 1974. While the United States is responsible for over 65 % of the catch in the fishing zone, the seven ACP states together take less than 4 %. (See table V for relative importance of catches)

### Untapped potential

The Western Central Atlantic is one of the under-exploited fishing zones of the world, but unfortunately it is also an area where there has been limited research, and reliable estimates of those species of fish with the best potential are lacking. Those studies which have been carried out, by Bullis and Carpenter in 1968 for example, report an abundance of pelagic species throughout the Caribbean. These studies also indicate under-utilised demersal (bottom) fish such as snappers and groupers in the Gulf of Mexico and the shelf area of northeast South America. The development of these resources are inhibited in some areas by the presence of ciguatera or toxic fish. There is also high potential, as yet untapped, of deep-water crustacea. The total catch in the area at present is 1.4 million tonnes. In 1971 Gulland estimated that the potential yield for demersal and pelagic stock alone was between four and six million tonnes. The latest FAO research puts the figure slightly higher at 4.8 to 6.4 million tonnes.

### Unloading from a specially made tuna fishing boat in Kingston (Jamaica)



**Table IV**  
**Atlantic, western central**  
**Nominal catch by country 1970-74**  
**(selected countries) '000 tonnes**

Country	1972	1973	1974	1974 rating
U.S.A.	950.4	886.2	1 002.4	1
Venezuela	138.7	144.5	129.0	2
Mexico	129.8	132.6	124.7	3
Cuba	72.5	72.8	73.0	4
URSS	73.8	8.9	25.6	5
Guyana*	17.6	19.0	23.6	6
Japan	4.8	3.4	10.9	7
Jamaica*	9.5 F	9.6	10.1 F	8
Barbados*	4.0 F	4.0 F	4.0 F	13
Surinam*	3.8 F	3.8 F	3.8 F	14
Trinidad and Tobago*	3.4 F	3.6	3.4	16
Bahamas*	2.0 F	3.1	3.0 F	17
Granada*	1.8	1.8 F	1.8 F	21
Total :	1 484.0 F†	1 362.9 F†	1 486.9 F†	

\* = ACP country.

F = FAO estimate.

† = All countries in area 31.

### Type of fish available

By far the most important fish taken from the Western Central Atlantic zone are menhaden, a herring type fish which is found in large shoals. It accounts for over 40 % of the total catch. The United States and Mexico are responsible for most of this production. Also important are shrimps, oysters and redfish (see table IV).

**Table V**  
**Catch by major species groups (source FAO yearbook)**  
**'000 tonnes, 1973**

Total catch	1 407.6	100 %
Crustaceans (crabs, lobster, shrimps etc.)	207.7	14.75 %
Molluscs (oysters, clams, mussels etc.)	171.8	12.21 %
Sea fish (herrings, tuna, redfish etc.)	1 026.5	72.93 %
Turtle	1.6	0.11 %

### Prospects for development

The Western Central American Fishery Commission (WECAFC) has studied the production, trade and consumption of fish in the Caribbean area, and finds the prospects for development encouraging. The region has stocks which can be increased without major ecological or conservation problems arising. In many of the countries of the region, fish is an important source of food and readily acceptable by the population. The WECAFC believes that inter-regional trade in fish



can be increased and that in some countries import substitution was possible and foreign exchange earnings could be increased by marketing the more highly prized fish outside the region. The ACP and other developing countries in the area could benefit from improved fishery which can provide employment, food and a cash income. The advisory team which has looked at development potential for the FAO suggests that along the northern coast of South America (Guyana, Surinam, Venezuela, etc) trawl fishing for groundfish presented the most opportunities, while around the Antilles—it was suggested that present fishing methods should be improved. The team also stressed the need for a balanced relationship between the modern commercial fishery sector and small-scale fishermen, most of whom come from the developing countries in the area. Also necessary is more research into resources technology and marketing methods, and an exchange of information and careful planning by the various states involved. The World Bank, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the UN (FAO) are helping in these fields, and in addition there are bilateral aid programmes. Since the first session of the WECAFC at Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago, in October 1975 a number of working parties have been at work on various aspects of fishery development in the area. An international fisheries development project was also launched and a WECAFC executive committee set up to implement it. The full Commission itself will meet again during 1977 to monitor progress and consider further ways of exploiting more fully the fishing potential of the Caribbean region. □



## PACIFIC

### Room for everyone

**In the west-central Pacific, Fiji accounted for 4 261 t out of a nominal catch of 5 057.9 million in 1974.**

This tonnage is of considerable importance for the whole of Fiji's economy and has been dropping recently.

(tonnes)

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Total for the zone	4 173 200 F	4 496 000 F	4 740 600 F	5 028 100 F	5 087 909 F
Fiji	4 100	4 200	4 800	5 100	4 261
% of total	0.098	0.093	0.101	0.101	0.084

Source: FAO, 1976 (F = FAO estimate).

Thailand dominates the zone with 1.39 million t in 1974, followed by the Philippines (1.19 million t) and Indonesia (0.8 million t).

Fiji's catch comprises 3 700 t of various sea fish, 256 t of trochus shells, 188 t of crustaceans and 100 t of fish of the tuna family.

**There are few reliable statistics for Samoa and Tonga:** In 1974 the FAO estimated 900 t for Samoa and 726 t for Tonga out of a total 1 066 million t—i.e. 0.084 % and 0.064 % respectively of the total. There is no available research into the various species. However, it is worth noting that these results are important for the national economy in a zone dominated by the United States (0.314 million t) and Mexico (0.303 million t). □

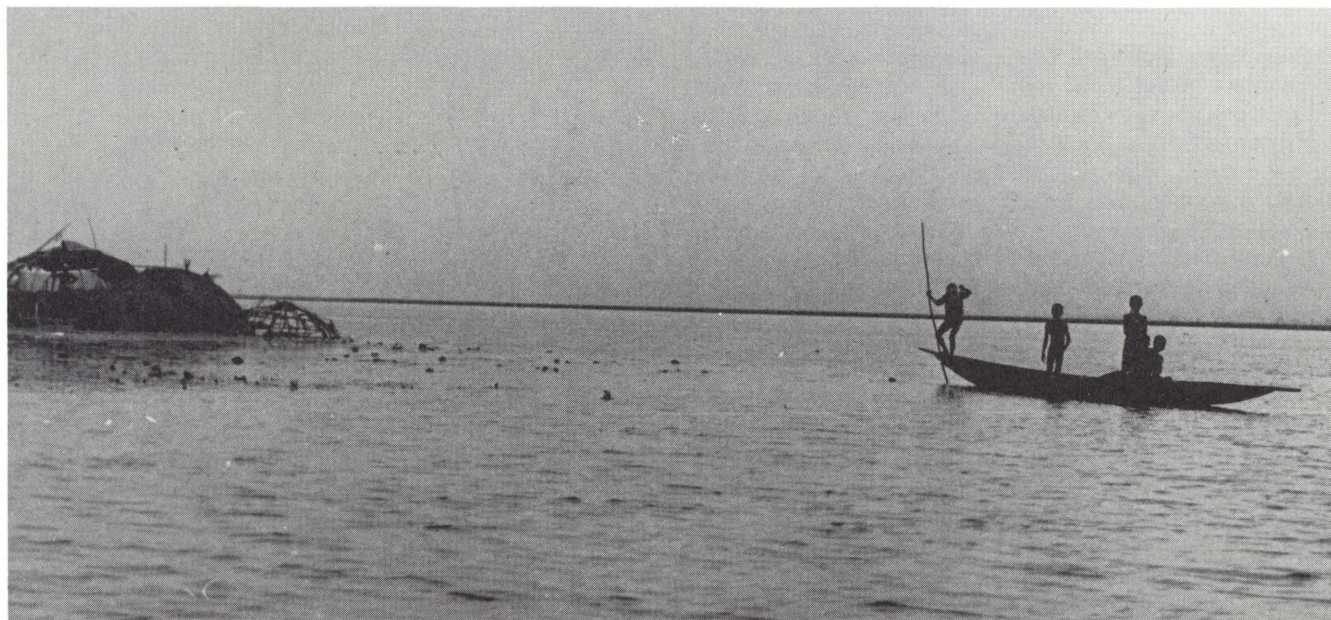
I.P. and R.D.B.

*The anxious wait for the fishermen to return (Senegal)*





## AFRICAN FISHERIES: 1974 TRADE FIGURES



FAO Photo

Product category	Imports		Exports	
	Quantity (in '000 t)	Value (in US \$'000)	Quantity (in '000 t)	Value (in US \$'000)
1. Fresh, frozen and deep-frozen fish	227	37 698	117	39 317
2. Dried, salted and smoked fish	54	41 295	23	9 605
3. Fresh, deep-frozen dried and salted shellfish	2	3 306	24	38 420
4. Fish conserves, with or without airtight packaging	71	42 436	125	85 982
5. Shellfish conserves, with or without airtight packaging	0	500	0	50
6. Crude or refined fish oils and fats	3	1 260	41	6 300
7. Fishmeal and similar products for animal feed	13	5 460	95	32 300
	370	131 952	425	211 974

Source: FAO annual of fisheries statistics, vol. 39, 1974.

The table shows Africa's contribution to world trade in various fish products. Sea products are mainly concerned, especially dried or smoked fish which is highly appreciated in many countries.

African fish imports are worth a modest US \$ 130 million and local fisheries could easily cover this, except in the case of a few expensive specialities. Exports (over 400 000 t, worth a little over US \$ 200 million) could also be considerably increased.



# Intensive fish-farming in tropical Africa

by P. LESSENT (\*)

A summary of the main results of the CTFT's research into the reaction of certain African species to intensive fish-farming, methods that can be used in rural areas and the socio-economic aspects of intensive tropical fish-farming in the future.

After 20 years' work on introducing and promoting fish-farming in French-speaking areas of Africa and in Madagascar, it would perhaps be helpful to take stock of the results and draw one or two conclusions that might serve for the future.

Fish-farming is the ideal answer to the protein deficiency of many populations in tropical Africa and in Madagascar. In fact, in areas where the tsetse fly puts stock-farming out of the question, the hydrographic situation is normally adequate for natural or artificial lakes to be maintained. Moreover, fish-farming has a certain advantage over other sources of protein food, since yields are high and the Africans tend to prefer fresh water to salt water fish.

## Methods of fish farming

The *tilapia* fish-farming venture in Shaba, Zaire, was developed with the collaboration of the mining industry. The method was the mixed age one and involved continuous use of one stretch of water kept permanently stocked to near maximum capacity.

This method has considerable drawbacks, mainly in the equatorial regions where *tilapia* reproduces constantly and yields therefore always contain a high percentage of small, unmarketable fish. It also cuts out any possibility of selection for restocking.

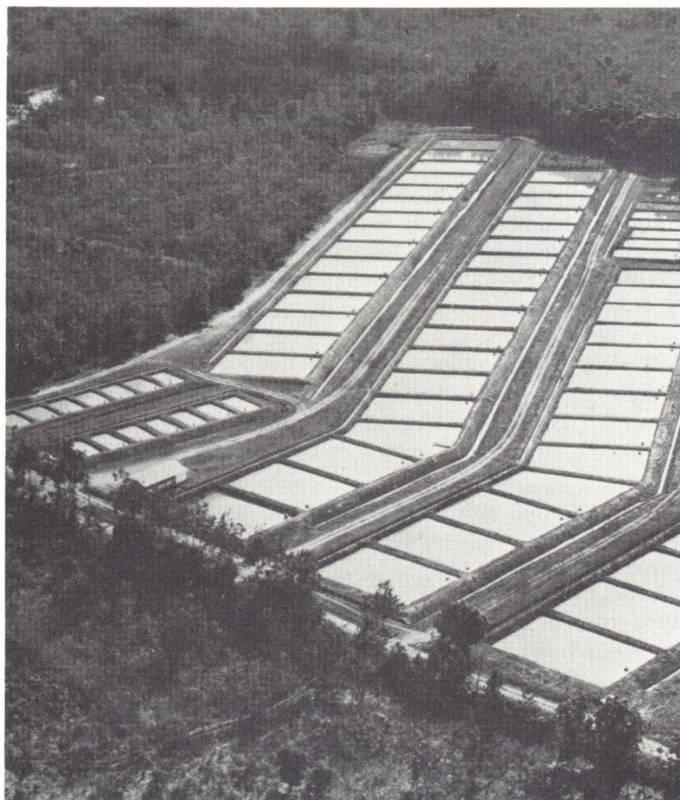
To counter this, fish farmers have used the standard age method, whereby the lake is stocked with young fish of the same age. They are kept until they reproduce for the first time and the adult fish are then taken for consumption and the young fish used to restock.

Others things being equal, this method produces less than the mixed method, but there is a higher percentage of 70/100 gr fish.

More elaborate methods and techniques must be used if high average weights and yields are to be obtained.

The first of these is to farm an all-male stock of *tilapia*. This involves separating the fish as soon as the sex can be identified and bringing up the males, which have a higher growth rate than the females, apart. This is a more difficult method than the previous one and the more fish there are to sex-type the greater the risk of error. Practically speaking, it is difficult to avoid one or two females slipping in and this considerably reduces the value of the method, unless a number of predators, which eliminate any smaller fish but leave the stock of fish for fattening alone, are brought in.

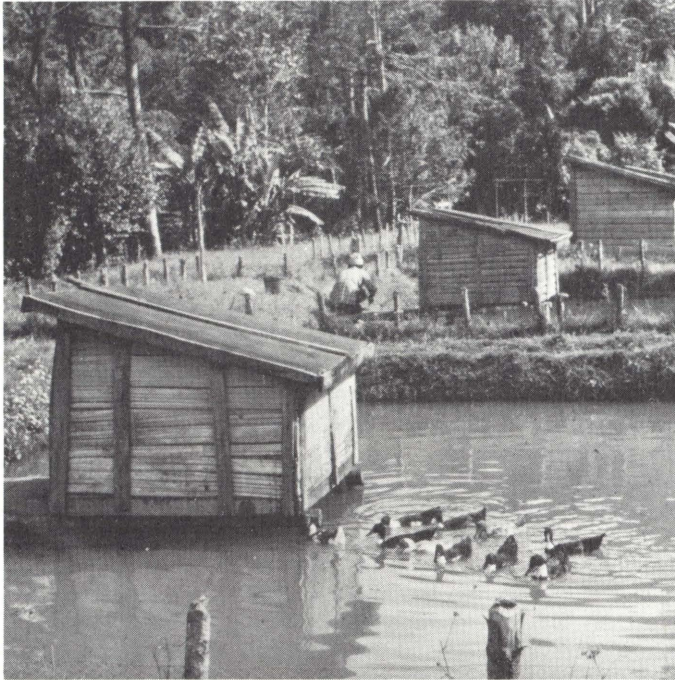
*CTFT research station at Bouaké (Ivory Coast)*



CTFT Photo

(\*) Head of the fish and fish-farming division at the CTFT (Tropical Forestry Technical Centre), Nogent-sur-Marne (France).





*Duck pen by a fish pond in Madagascar*

A second method involves breeding single sex **tilapia** hybrids. Surprising and most encouraging results have been obtained with **cichlides** in Malaysia, Israel and the Ivory Coast, by crossing two different types of **tilapia**. **Tilapia mossambica** females and **tilapia hornorum** males give fertile hybrid all-male descendants. Identical results have been achieved with **tilapia nilotica** females and **tilapia hornorum** males. The experiments carried out at the test centre were encouraging, although a disappointment here is the fact that it is very difficult to keep pure stocks of parents and to distinguish them from the hybrids. This is a difficult method to popularize, since young hybrids must, normally, be produced in specialized centres.

Finally, there is a method of raising **tilapia nilotica**, where fish of different ages are kept separate and where predatory fish are also used. This method has been perfected over the last few years by research workers at the CTFT fish research centre in the Ivory Coast.

There are three stages of farming in three separate ponds:  
— mass production of young 4/5 gr **tilapia** in five months;  
— production of 30/40 gr fish in 35 days;  
— fattening of **tilapia**, in the presence of predators, in five months.

The predators' job is to destroy all young fish born in the pond or, failing this, to keep them back and prevent them from developing.

**Lates niloticus** (thread fin) is strictly a fish-eater and enables a fry-free catch of high market value **tilapia** to be obtained. The yield from **tilapia nilotica** farms, where the fish are fed with rice bran, is between five and six tonnes per hectare per annum (average weight of fish=185 gr after five months of fattening in ponds of 400 m<sup>2</sup>).

**Clarias lazera** is omnivorous, with a tendency to prefer fish, and has a greater capacity, so that yields of six tonnes of **ti-**

**lapia** plus more than one tonne of **clarias** per hectare per annum can be obtained.

The predator will be chosen in the light of the socio-cultural environment—type of food, consumer preferences, etc.

Whatever the method, the yields from intensive fish-farming are closely tied up with the fertilization of the pond and the way the fish are fed.

Many countries have large quantities of agricultural and agro-industrial by-products (rice bran, draff from breweries, middlings, oil cakes, etc.) for which there is no use and these could well be fed to the **tilapia**. These by-products can always be used as they stand, but results will vary according to the nutritional value of the individual foods.

Joint fish/pig and fish/fowl farms have also given first-class results in many countries in the tropics (Far East, Central Africa and Brazil). Pig and fowl wastes can be used as organic fertilizer and are often directly used by the fish. In farming of this type, the cost of fish feed is reckoned to be nil and pig sties, chicken runs and duck pens can be built by or over the water.

\*  
\* \*

There is still little farming of fish other than **tilapia**. The carp (**cyprinus carpio**), however, is an exception and rural fish farms have been set up in Madagascar and, more recently, in Nigeria and western Cameroon.

**Heterotis niloticus** is still no more than a makeweight. It has a good growth rate, but it can only be raised in low density farms and there are considerable problems attached to its reproduction in ponds.

Finally, **clarias lazera**, which has been tried out in Egypt and Central Africa, is hopeful. It does not have exclusive eating habits and can quite well use microphageous and artificial food. It is highly resistant to the extreme conditions of farming, grows fast and gives exceptional yields and is therefore a promising candidate for the African fish industry, providing the problem of intensive stock farming can be solved.

Research workers have not so far come up with any encouraging results from their testing of other African species.

Fish-farming in brackish water can perhaps one day be de-

### *Tilapia nilotica*



CTFT Photo



veloped in lagoons, as in the Far East. It would be based on various types of **tilapia**, mullet, **chrysichthys nigrodigitatus** and, possibly, **clarias lazera** and there would, of course, be opportunities to farm shellfish and molluscs as well.

Finally, there is a doubtless brilliant future for super-intensive farming in cages, once the problems of cage technology and the industrial promotion of cheap feed have been solved.

## Fish-farming systems

Until 1960, the facilities offered by **tilapia** farming in Africa brought about a spectacular increase in family breeding ponds, most of which were abandoned two or three years after installation.

There were no methods, in fact, which could produce a fish of marketable size; supervisory staff and instructors were inadequate and inefficient, and supplies of fresh water to the ponds were not properly ensured. In addition to this, the fish were fed inadequate rations at irregular intervals, because the village was far away and, finally, the new fish farmers were, for a number of reasons, insufficiently motivated.

For some 15 years now, research organizations have been attempting to find farming methods which are both adapted to the new socio-economic conditions and within the reach of the future farmers. A dozen officials, who will be forming the supervisory team behind the instructors, have also received the relevant technical training.

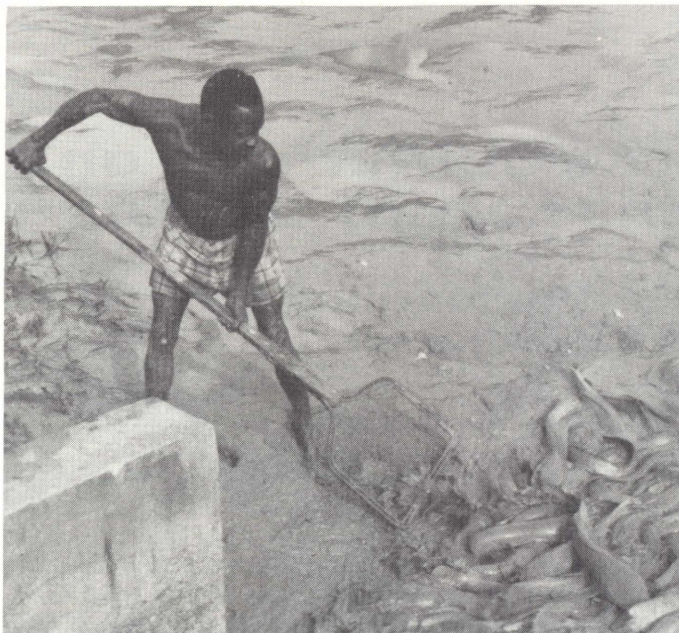
African governments know what the right fish-farming methods for rural areas are and they have a certain number of specialized staff. They must now devise their fish-farming policy in the light of their own needs and their own possibilities, after they have listed their resources, such as the availability of by-products, the identification of suitable sites and so on.

However, in the future, African fish-farming should not be a marginal activity where efforts are mainly geared to feeding the producer. It must be considered as a speculation at the level of the craftsman or the tradesman—purchasing feed and selling products, etc.—and, thus, an urban-oriented industry. As in other branches of agriculture, the returns of intensive fish-farming will depend on the cost of the installations, the cost price of feed, the cost of labour, the volume of production and the sales price of fish.

It must, moreover, be an integral part of any hydro-agricultural improvement scheme to ensure total control of waters in conformity with the requisite standards for installation. Apart from any losses due to evaporation and infiltration, all the water going through fish farming ponds is usually replaced for normal usage, as it is in other irrigated growing systems.

It would be reasonable to hope that fish farming of this quality will be the best backing for the spread of techniques and the launching of this activity in any rural areas where the setting-up and exploitation of such farms is a reasonable proposition.

The problem of nutrition is an urgent one for many countries. It must be hoped that adequate staff and adequate equipment can be provided for fish farming operations so as to push up the rate at which methods tested in research stations can be popularized. □ P.L.



*Harvest time on the fish farm*



*Pigsty by a fish pond: simple and effective cooperation*

CTFT Photo



# The Conference on the Law of the Sea

## Its implications for ACP fisheries

by J.E. CARROZ (\*)

Developing countries have played a decisive role not only in broadening the scope of the third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea to encompass nearly all aspects of ocean affairs but also in devising the new principles that are already changing radically the regime applicable to world fisheries.

The desire of developing countries in 1970 to avoid limiting the agenda of the conference to the question of the deep seabed and to the few matters that had been left unsettled by the first and second conferences at Geneva in 1958 and 1960 can be easily understood since they had had little or no part in those conferences. In their view, the conventions adopted at Geneva reflected essentially the interests of developed countries.

Since the seventeenth century, when the development of sea-borne trade and the emergence of powerful maritime nations led to a shift from the notion of closed seas claimed by a few countries to the concept of open seas, the two basic principles of the law of the sea have been that a narrow strip of offshore waters should be under the exclusive sovereignty of the coastal state and that the high seas beyond should be free. These principles were originally intended to satisfy and reconcile the requirements of national security with freedom of trade and navigation. But they applied to all activities in both areas and *ipso facto* defined the legal framework within which fishing activities were carried on. The peculiarity of this situation has made itself felt only in the last few decades with the dramatic improvements and innovations in fishing equipment and methods. An increasing number of countries, mostly but not exclusively developed ones, have become involved in long-range fishing beyond the vicinity of their own coasts and near the coasts of other countries.

Several developing countries, lacking the financial and technical means required to exploit the resources off their coasts and fearing that these would be depleted before they were in a position to exploit them, reacted by adopting measures to extend their territorial sea or to establish an exclusive fishing zone beyond the territorial sea. At the conference itself, in their search for a compromise solution that would in particular take account of the needs and interests of international navigation, a few developing countries were instrumental in formulating the concept of a 200-mile exclusive economic zone, which figured prominently in the Revised Informal Single Negotiating Text before the conference. The text provides that the rights of coastal states in the zone will include "sovereign rights for the purpose of exploring and exploiting, conserving and managing the natural resources, whether living or non-living, of the bed and subsoil and the superjacent waters". Together with the principle of common heritage of mankind that will apply to the sea-bed beyond the limits of national jurisdiction, this concept will undoubtedly be one of the most important elements of the new international law of the sea.

### 200 mile zones: 90% of the resources

The establishment of exclusive economic zones on a worldwide basis, wherever geographical conditions permit, would affect to a considerable degree the regime of exploitation and management of the living resources of the sea. Indeed the main changes are becoming apparent since more than half the coastal states of the world have already enacted legislation or have legislation under active consideration to bring fishery resources off their shores under their jurisdiction and control.

When considering the implications of extended jurisdiction for the fisheries of developing countries, it may be useful to bear in mind some characteristics of the living resources of the sea. In the first instance, even though 200-mile zones would cover some 35 percent of the oceans, they would include about 90 percent of the living resources presently under commercial exploitation. Because of the location of these resources, most fisheries are conducted well within 200 miles. The main exception is tuna, 40 percent of which (about 600 000 tons) are caught on average beyond 200 miles.

### The oceans: some rich and some poor

Another important characteristic of the living resources of the sea is their uneven distribution. The areas of high production coincide largely with the geographical distribution of phytoplankton and zooplankton and may be grouped into three categories: (a) the upwelling areas and divergencies off the western sub-tropical continental coasts (Peru, California, north-western and south-western Africa) and along the Equator, where cold, nutrient-rich waters rise to the surface; (b) temperate and sub-arctic waters of the Southern Ocean, North Atlantic and North Pacific; (c) shallow waters over parts of the

(\*) Principal legal officer (international fisheries), FAO. The views expressed in this article are those of the author and not necessarily those of the FAO.



continental shelves. It is therefore a fact that some parts of the oceans are rich and others are poor. The large and lucrative fishing grounds of the world are to be found in the vicinity of a rather limited number of coastal states and, indeed, these comprise both developing and developed countries. Nevertheless, it seems likely that with extended jurisdiction, a majority of developing coastal states will be able to reserve for themselves more resources than at present. It is also of interest to note in this connexion that areas where resources are still under-exploited are areas where coastal states are exclusively or predominantly developing countries. This is so particularly in the Indian Ocean and the south-west Atlantic.

### Mobile resources

Lastly, reference should be made to the mobility of the resources. All the animals in the sea are mobile for at least part of their lives, but the extent of their movement varies considerably from one species to another. Most animals which support large commercial fisheries move over some tens or hundreds of miles. Their migration patterns may be extremely

complex, either inshore-offshore, laterally along coasts or vertically. In nearly all areas, the movements are confined to the waters above the continental shelf, but several species, e.g. anchovy, sardinella, the Atlanto-Scandian herring and the north Atlantic cod periodically move farther out into the ocean. Some animals, like tuna and whales, migrate across whole oceans. This mobility is important because it may affect catches by individual countries. Fish in their migrations take no heed of artificial lines drawn by man for purposes of jurisdiction over any part of the ocean.

Mobility is also important because it will affect the types of management measures needed for resources. In contrast with minerals, the living resources of the sea can produce a sustained yield provided they are subject to rational conservation measures. If the resources are not fully exploited, they may be wasted. If they are over-exploited, depletion will ensue and the damage may become irreparable. The control of fishing with a view to maintaining a stock at its optimum level requires that management measures should be worked out and put into effect and these must apply to the whole stock throughout its range.

*Man's attempts to control the waters: can a legal framework do it any better?*





## The areas for action

The advantages to be derived by developing coastal countries from the establishment of exclusive economic zones will therefore depend, on the one hand, on the geographic conditions prevailing in each particular area and on the abundance or scarcity of living resources off their shores. This is why much importance was attached at the conference to the need for working out solutions to the problems of land-locked and geographically disadvantaged states. On the other hand these advantages will depend on the ability of the developing countries to manage and exploit these resources and to protect them from encroachment by third parties. Thus, many of these countries will find it necessary to devote considerably increased efforts to fishery research, to the collection and analysis of data, to stock assessment and monitoring, and to working out and giving effect to management measures.

It is interesting to note in this regard that the very first provision on fisheries in the Revised Informal Single Negotiating Text concerns the obligation of the coastal state to determine the allowable catch of living resources in its exclusive economic zone; this is followed by a number of provisions on the adoption of conservation measures, the objectives of management and the use of living resources. In particular, the coastal state has to take proper conservation and management measures to ensure that these resources are not endangered by over-exploitation. To this end, the coastal state and relevant sub-regional, regional and global organizations are to cooperate as appropriate.

Furthermore, the coastal state has to promote the optimum utilization of the living resources in its economic zone, to determine its own capacity to harvest those resources and, where it does not have the capacity to harvest the entire allowable catch, to give other states access to the surplus through agreements or other arrangements. The text also enumerates the obligations of coastal states for the conservation and development of stocks shared by two or more coastal states or by a coastal state and another state fishing in an area beyond and adjacent to the exclusive economic zone.

## New responsibilities for coastal states

This brief presentation of the relevant provisions before the conference should suffice to give a general idea of the increased responsibilities that extended jurisdiction will entail for coastal states. Once developing coastal states are assured of having a fairly secure amount of resources on which to base the development of their fisheries, they may be expected to take a keen interest in the use of these resources, from catching to marketing.

In many cases, this will involve changing their approach to planning for the expansion of their fishery industries. Here again, no two countries will be in the same position and there will be varying degrees of emphasis on the use of the new fishery resources as a source of protein food, labour or foreign exchange. To give but one example, the abundance of living resources depends in part on upwellings in coastal zones. These nutrient-rich upwellings are produced by strong winds that drive surface waters towards the high seas and normally coincide with arid coastal zones, off the shores of countries

which may often be sparsely populated, have no maritime tradition and where the consumption of fish is very low. This will of necessity affect the fishery policy of these countries.

Some developing coastal states will be in a position to use their own technical and financial resources in order to take full advantage of the wider fishing grounds under their jurisdiction. In many cases, however, the development of fishery industries will require more than local public or private enterprise. The level of assistance provided by bilateral aid agencies and international technical or lending institutions will need to be increased very greatly. Furthermore, profitable collaboration may be possible by partnership between coastal states and other states or private firms from other states if the foreign partner can fill the gaps in capital, equipment, technology, infrastructures or markets. This will be facilitated by the fact that the reallocation of jurisdiction in favour of coastal states will necessitate the redeployment of certain fishing fleets; other uses and other fishing grounds will have to be found for several hundred big trawlers and factory-ships. Another consequence of this reallocation might well be diversification of the supply bases for international markets.

## New forms of cooperation

The new forms of cooperation with developing coastal states are already becoming familiar. There are still examples of agreements or arrangements under which foreign vessels can exploit the fishery resources in the territorial sea or exclusive economic zone of another state against the payment of fees, but these licensing agreements are not always viewed with favour by developing countries as they do not contribute directly to the launching or improvement of local industries. One of the most obvious results of the extension of national jurisdiction has been a spectacular increase in joint venture agreements and negotiations between developing coastal states and other states or foreign companies. This is accompanied in many cases by a public sector participation in commercial fishing operations so as to provide a local partner for joint ventures and to promote the development of fishery industries in the country. Increasingly, the objectives of these arrangements will be to provide training to nationals of the developing coastal state in all aspects of fisheries and to facilitate the establishment of local, land-based, processing, marketing and export industries. Joint ventures are therefore expected to accelerate the transfer of technology until such time as developing coastal states become self-sufficient.

It may be appropriate to conclude with a reference to the Joint Declaration on Fishing Activities that is annexed to the Lomé Convention of 28 February 1975. In that, the European Economic Community stresses its willingness to encourage the development of fisheries in the African, Caribbean and Pacific states which so desire, within the framework of the provisions for industrial, financial and technical cooperation set out in the Convention. The ACP states, for their part, declare their willingness to negotiate with any EEC member state bilateral agreements likely to guarantee satisfactory conditions for fishery activities in waters within their jurisdiction. It is hoped that this and other forms of international cooperation will contribute to the harmonious development of world fisheries in the context of the new international economic order. □ J.E.C.



# Community aid for ACP fisheries

EDF aid to the fisheries sector has mainly been concentrated on infrastructure to enable the whole sector to expand. Outside these infrastructure projects, and various studies, there has only been one fish production scheme proper—"Operation Fisheries" in Mali. A 4th EDF commitment of 4.8 million EUA has been granted for this project and phase II can now get under way. The EDF is following the scheme closely, as are various other bilateral and multilateral organizations. A feasibility study of the fishing port facilities near Georgetown in Guyana was the only other fisheries project for which commitments had been made under the 4th EDF by the end of 1976.

A brief look at aid under the first three EDF's shows the relatively small number and overall amount of EDF investments in this sector. However, it is worth noting that this is only due to the lack of interest in fisheries the ACP governments have shown to date, since it is the governments themselves which have to ask for financing and list priorities.

As regards methods of financing, 93.4 % of total commitments were grants, only one project being covered by a loan on special terms (1 040 000 EUA or 6.6 % of total).

Infrastructure over the period in question accounted for 83.5 % of total commitments, studies for 2.2 % and fisheries proper only 14.3 % (this figure includes preparation—building and fitting out of a hydrology laboratory—and implementation of phase I of Mali's "Operation Fisheries").

A study of trends during the first three EDFs reveals a noticeable drop in the percentage of fish projects to total projects—the 8.6 million EUA that went to fisheries under the 1st EDF represented 1.65 % of total commitments of that Fund, whereas the 4.3 million EUA under the 2nd EDF only represented 0.6 % of total commitments (as of 30 September 1976). Only 2.9 million EUA were allocated to the fisheries sector under the 3rd EDF, amounting to 0.34 % of the total as of 30 September 1976.

The fisheries sector accounted for 0.75 % of total commitments under EDFs I, II and III, a clear indication that fisheries are getting far less aid than other sectors.

Summary of commitments to the fisheries sector during the first three EDFs (up to 30 september 76)(1)

Country	Title of project	EDF	Amount in EUA
Benin	— Cotton fishing port	EDF II	624 000
	— Study of extensions to the Cotonou fish port	EDF III	110 000
Ivory Coast	— Superstructure for Cotonou fishing	EDF III	540 000
	— Abidjan fish port	EDF I	1 390 000
	— New fish quay at Abidjan	EDF II	1 470 000
	— loan on special terms		1 045 000
Congo	— Fish preservation	EDF II	2 000
	— Study for a fish quay at Pointe Noire	EDF II	88 000
Mali	— Development of fisheries in Mid-Niger (hydrology laboratory)	EDF I	151 000
	— Development of fisheries	EDF III	2 126 000
Mauritania	— Fish port at Port Etienne	EDF I	2 876 000
	— Completion of Port Etienne fish port	EDF II	1 096 000
Senegal	— Fish quay at Dakar	EDF I	661 000
Somalia	— Study of the development of fisheries	EDF III	150 000
St Pierre and Miquelon	— Fish port on Saint Pierre	EDF I	3 545 000
Total :			15 874 000

(1) Two commitments have already been made under the 4th EDF – the continuation of Mali's "Operation Fisheries" (phase II, for 4 828 million EUA) and a feasibility study of port facilities in Guyana (140 000 EUA).

(Commitments as of 30 september 1976 in EUA)

	EDF I	EDF II	EDF III	Total
Total commitments	522.589	727.939	870.387	2 120.915
Fisheries	8.623	4.325	2.926	15.874
% of total	1.65 %	0.59 %	0.34 %	0.75 %

Henricus Overzee, head of stock-raising and fisheries at the Commission's Directorate-General for Development, talks about aid and prospects for the fish sector under the 4th EDF (see page 84). □

(1) A Joint Declaration on fishing activities is annexed to the Lomé Convention. It reads as follows:

1. The Community declares that it is willing to encourage, within the framework of industrial, financial and technical cooperation activities in the ACP States which so desire, the development of the fishery and related industries.

2. The ACP States declare their willingness to negotiate with any Member State bilateral agreements likely to guarantee satisfactory conditions in the fishery activities in the sea waters within their jurisdiction. In the conclusion of such agreements the ACP States shall not, under equal conditions, discriminate against Member States of the Community.



# MALI

## Operation fisheries

### The environment

The hydrological system of the Niger involves considerable flooding and the waters gradually spread from west to east over the July to January period. The waters cover some 2 000 km<sup>2</sup> when the river is low, but this rises to more than 20 000 km<sup>2</sup> at high water level. The fishing seasons at Mopti are:

- July-September: flooding begins, unsuitable for fishing;
- October-November: river in full spate, little fishing;

— November-June: fishing.

An estimated 80 000 people (of whom 54 000 are active) fish in the Niger basin, the area covered by the project, and almost 20 % of them follow the flood waters.

The extended family, i.e. a group of several households, is the basic unit in fishing and there are some 8 500 of them. The Bozo (56 %) and the Sohono (15 %) are the predominant peoples. They have 8 700 pirogues, of which less than 8 % are motorized, to use for both fishing and transport.

Almost the whole catch has to be prepared before marketing, since, in view of the distances between the fishermen and the consumers (in southern Mali, Upper Volta, Ghana and the Ivory Coast), it may be several months before the fish is sold. Processing varies according to the type of fish and where it was caught, but more or less half is smoked and half dried. However, fish prepared in this way is subject to attack by insects (*Dermestes*) which, depending on storage time, can spoil up to 50 % of total weight and seriously affect market values.

*Mopti: a fishing port at the gateway to the desert*







*EEC development commissioner Cheysson (dark glasses) at the Mopti project with (r. to l.) Alassane Konare director of "Operation Fishing" Emiliano Fossati and Pasquale Raimondo*

## The importance of fish for Mali's economy

Mali's economy is largely dependent on the rural sector, mainly agriculture, stock-raising and fisheries, which occupy almost 90% of the population. Primary production in general accounted for 50% of GDP in 1972.

Fisheries accounted for 3% of GDP and provided some MF 4 000 million of monetary income for the producers. The gross value of Mali's fish and fish products at domestic consumer or retail level is an estimated MF 7 000 million.

The annual catch is of the order of 100-120 000 t of fresh fish, mainly from the Niger basin between Ségou and Gao. Mopti is the economic centre of the fishing industry and the headquarters of "Operation Fisheries", a semi-public body which is both beneficiary and organizer of the project and responsible for the zone in question.

Fish not consumed by the fishermen themselves is dried or smoked and exported or sold on the home market. Before the recent drought, an annual 6 000 t (representing some MF 2.5 million or 4.8 million EUA) of dried/smoked fish was exported, mainly to the Ivory Coast, Upper Volta and Ghana and 3-6 000 t went to the domestic market, but production during the recent years of drought has been well below this level.

The following table shows the estimated total of fish in the Operation Fisheries project zone plus the figures for domestic consumption and official exports of dried/smoked fish (in tonnes) in 1970-1975.

If we assume that consumption by the fisherman himself and by the local population accounts for no more than a small percentage and that the rate of fresh to dried/smoked fish is about 531, then the figures in the bottom two lines must be taken as minimum amounts.

Yield rose again in 1975 after normal flooding in 1974/75 and it is hoped that, since flooding was also normal in 1975/76, the current year will show a further improvement.

Fisheries are very important as far as Mali's economy is concerned and the country exports a large amount of dried

Description	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
Total catch of fresh fish	102 000	82 000	72 000	77 000	70 000	90 000
Dried and smoked fish:						
— official exports	5 148	3 868	2 850	1 504	988	2 836
— domestic market	6 048	4 975	5 005	3 719	2 586	4 799

*The Mopti project included port extensions*



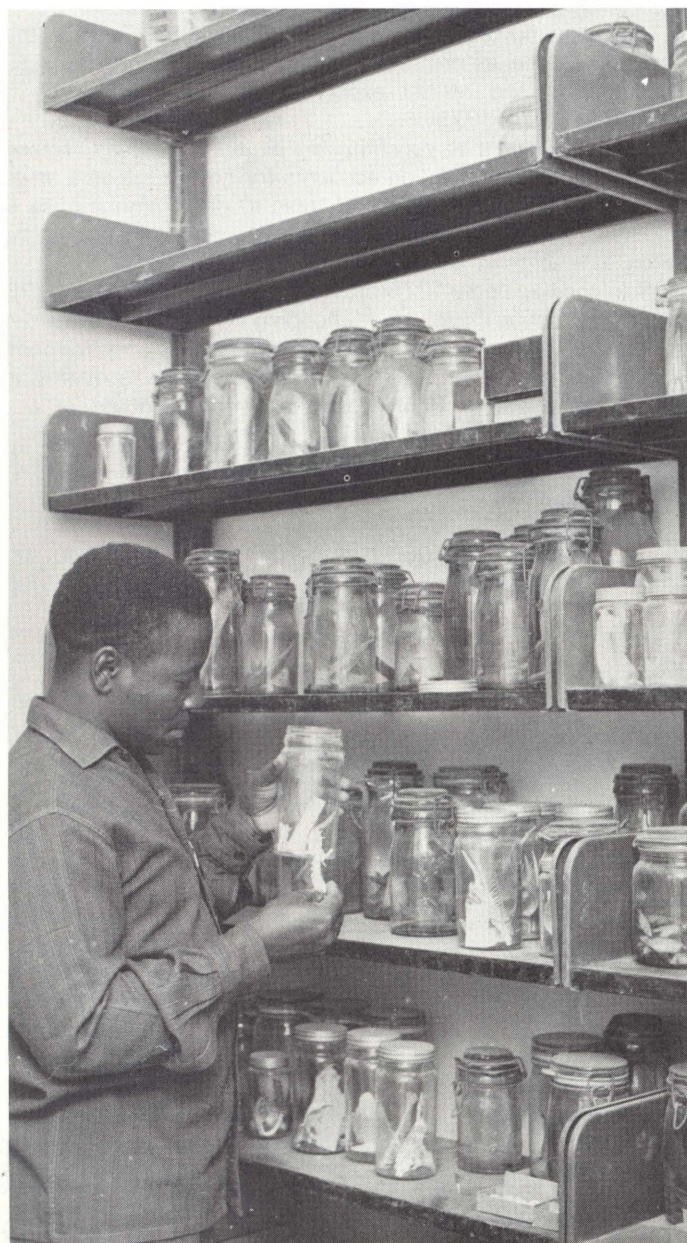


ed/smoked fish. This is why the government's three year programme for economic and social recovery in 1971 included a fisheries development programme which was to be coordinated by the specially set up Operation Fisheries and financed with EDF help.

### Phase I of the programme

A commitment of 151 000 u.a. for the development of fishing in the mid-Niger area was made from the resources of the 1st EDF in 1960. The amount primarily covered the costs of building and equipping a hydrology laboratory in Mopti and

*Some that didn't get away: classification of fish from the Niger in the EDF-financed laboratory in Mopti*



marked the beginning of Community aid for the development of Mali's fishing industry.

In 1971, 2 126 000 u.a. (Yaoundé) was granted from the 3rd EDF for Mali's fisheries development project. This covered the early years of implementation, from 1972 to the end of 1975. Allocation of funds on 31 December 1975 was as follows:

— improvements and buildings	40 %
— equipment and materials	15 %
— technical assistance	25 %
— contribution to operating costs	20 %

Over the same period, the Mali state budget contributed MF 70 million (126 000 u.a.) to the operating costs of the scheme, which also had MF 230 million (414 000 u.a.) income of its own. This included MF 150 million (65 %) in 1975 alone.

The objectives of the first phase were:

- Increasing the quantity of dried/smoked fish by reducing the quantities spoiled by insects.
- Improving the quality of the product.
- Diversifying marketing and introducing a technological research programme.
- Optimizing fishing craft by the proper maintenance of existing outboard motors.
- Improving marketing centres.

Mali will then be in a position to increase considerably the volume of products marketed, push up exports and raise the producers' income.

OP (Opération Pêche-Operation Fisheries) is the framework for the project. It was set up as a special rural development body to promote and coordinate efforts in the fishing industry.

In 1972, the Mali government invited OP to carry out the country's fisheries development project. Administratively OP is attached to the Directorate for Waterways and Fisheries and comes under the Ministry for Rural Development, but it is autonomous as far as finance and management are concerned.

OP is responsible for general administrative services, public services, special development activities and for economic and commercial activities as well.

The four years of drought covered the same period as phase I of the project. In addition, the authorities have been slow in adopting the necessary laws and regulations for the fisheries sector and these two factors, combined with the realities of the situation, require a revision of the targets and oblige the organizers to try out new techniques, mainly of processing. This is why the results of phase I fell far short of what was anticipated.

In general, the operation has nonetheless proved successful:

- An aid/instruction body has been set up to cover the whole vast area involved in the project (see map). Various deinfestation, drying and smoking tests have led to the provision of useful information for the average fisherman.
- Various services provided by OP have been improved, mainly those in the port of Mopti. This is of great benefit to everyone in the sector and to the national economy as a whole.
- Processes in the fish factory at Mopti have been improved and the future now looks hopeful.
- Experimental sales of fresh fish have revealed what steps need to be taken and what investments need to be made during phase II.

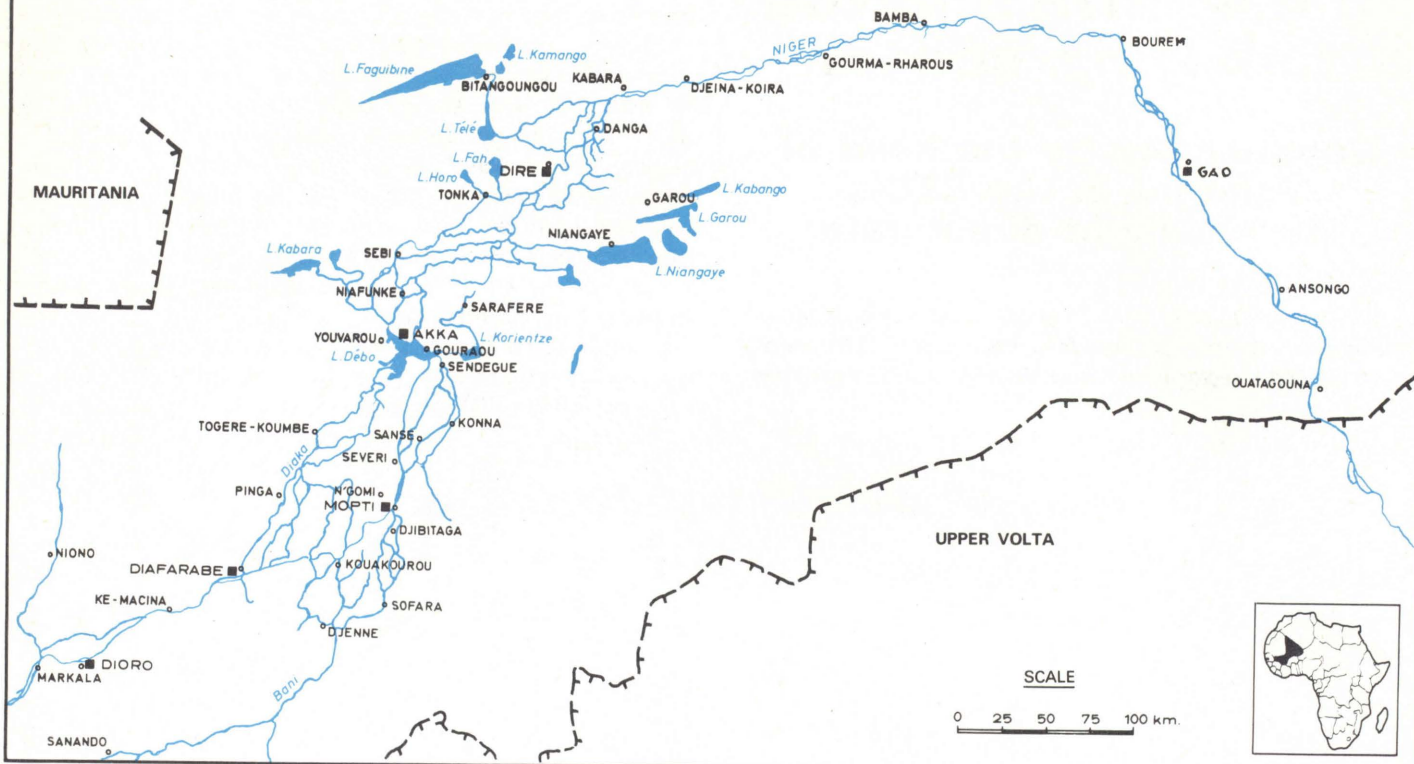


## REPUBLIC OF MALI

PROJECT ML.401.76: FISHERY DEVELOPMENT

### KEY

- FISHING SECTOR
- PROMOTION SECTOR



— The recently adopted laws and regulations on fishing have reinforced OP's means and should enable the environment and the national heritage to be protected.

### Phase II of the operation

The operation has been successful, but it still cannot function without help and it must have immediate support if the development of Mali's fisheries is to be sustained. The government therefore asked for aid from the 4th EDF, as from 1 January 1976.

The effects of the three year programme have, of course, been considerably reduced by the drought, which was particularly dramatic as far as agriculture (cereals), stock-raising (cattle in particular) and fisheries were concerned. The main aim of the five year economic and social development plan (1974/78) is to provide the people with enough food (basic products)—hence the importance of developing the fish sector.

When the 4th EDF programming mission went out to Mali on 2-5 December 1975, phase II of the fisheries development project was listed as an emergency, top priority project.

Total cost of the project is 6 361 000 EUA, of which 75 % (4 828 000 EUA) has been provided by the EEC. The remainder will be covered by OP earnings.

The overall aim of the project is to make the best and most rational use of the country's fish resources, to benefit:

- the fishermen, by providing them with means of improving their income and living standards;
- the consumers, by laying the foundations of a fresh fish retail network which will ensure a regular supply of high-protein food at reasonable prices;
- Mali's economy, by helping to preserve the national heritage and, above all, by controlling the quality of "Mopti fish", which, under this label, should have every opportunity of keeping its export markets, both strengthening its position and diversifying exports, thereby increasing the country's foreign currency reserves.

The time available to the Commission to implement the financial and technical cooperation provided under the Lomé Convention was too short to allow this project to be presented in 1975, so the remainder of 2nd EDF resources for Mali, amounting to 158 000 u.a., were allocated to ensure continuity during 1976 and, in particular, to enable the technical assistance team, which was well-established, to stay on.

The beginning of phase II, with Community aid from the 4th EDF, was therefore put off until 1 January 1977. □



## The 4<sup>th</sup> EDF and the fisheries sector

### Commentary by the head of fisheries in the EEC's development directorate

► *Mr Overzee, most of the ACP states could well push up their production of fish from both inland and ocean waters. What are prospects like in this sector and what are the main problems to be overcome?*

— It is up to the ACP governments themselves to take the initiative as regards the projects they want us to finance, and we have to admit that few fish projects are put forward, in spite of the fact that we ourselves feel there is obvious room for expansion. We have no other alternative than to try to make the various governments understand that the EEC Commission is very much in favour of projects in this sector. There are countries where the fish sector has a good deal of potential but the means of distributing it and keeping it fresh are very inadequate. Fish, from the sea and from inland waters, can provide the cheap, protein-rich food which many people do not get at the moment.

Although some countries fish all along the coast, methods of transport and preservation are far from good and we have a number of 4th EDF projects aimed at dealing with this si-

*The EDF helped build this fishing port at Abidjan (Ivory Coast)*





tuation. We feel that fish-farming, which has been developed mainly in Zaire, Kenya, Lesotho and Swaziland, is a particularly important venture because of the amount of protein that can be obtained relatively cheaply.

► *So people need to be taught to increase their fish production and they need the right infrastructure to transport it and keep it fresh.*

— That's right. In some ACP countries, for instance, fish is only sold in the capital at the central market. Since most people take public transport, carrying fish around in the heat is naturally not always very popular. So, we don't just need to increase the catches and lay on transport but, in the case in point, we need to open a series of small, simple but refrigerated sales points throughout the town.

► *The ACP do not appear to go in for much sea fishing. Do you feel they should try and use modern methods and compete with the industrialized countries, or would they do better to adapt and improve their traditional small-scale fishing?*

— I should like to make a distinction between two types of fishing, the small-scale variety along the coast and deep-sea fishing. Deep-sea fishing obviously requires expensive vessels and professional crews with mechanics as well as fishermen. And these mechanics probably are not natural sailors and will not really want to go to sea, especially since their particular talents are very much in demand elsewhere. Which means that the development of deep-sea fishing will have to be left to foreign or to part-owned fishing concerns that set up in the countries themselves. We must be careful not to condemn this sort of fishing, since it does enable a country to obtain a greater and more varied supply of food for its people and it can also generate fish-processing industries, creating employment and perhaps bringing in foreign currency as well.

Fishing on a small scale, however, as practised by the local people themselves, should not be neglected. They have been seafarers all their lives, and their simple methods could often be improved upon. They need more equipment.

Some of our projects are geared to improving the conditions of fishing, first by setting up revolving funds to enable better equipment—including outboard motors—to be bought and to cover the costs of new smoking sheds. Then we are planning to train the fishermen to use more up-to-date equipment. There will be boats that go farther out to sea and there are plans to get equipment that individual fishermen can use in their own craft. Our projects usually also involve building or improving roads to transport the fish, opening sales outlets and providing refrigeration facilities so that the fish can be taken inland.

► *Under the first three EDFs the emphasis was more on developing infrastructure in the fisheries sector and few commitments went on fishing proper. Why is this?*

— The Lomé Convention says that the ACP governments have to take the initiative. In practice this has always been the case as far as the EDF is concerned. Right from the EDF I, it was the governments of what were then called the "associated" states that had to propose the projects and, if there have been very few actual fishing schemes, it is because the governments never mentioned them. Of course, if we can encourage the governments' interest in the fisheries sector, through the "Courier", for instance, I shall be delighted.

► *Has 4th EDF programming revealed greater ACP interest in fisheries? And how will this sector stand in relation to the 4th EDF as a whole?*

— There is clearly much greater interest in the fish sector and, as I just mentioned, where we had only one project before, we have several in preparation now. But fisheries will still only account for a very small percentage of 4th EDF aid.

► *What are the main projects being financed or in preparation?*

— Those already under way include the Mopti (Mali) project, which was started operationally under the 3rd EDF and which we are now continuing under the 4th. Other interesting projects in preparation are local fishing schemes in the Gambia and Guinea-Conakry and a fish-farming operation in Benin. In addition, Ethiopia has presented a fish project, which may well cover both lake and sea fishing, although nothing is certain at this stage. There are more projects, mainly to produce fish meal, in Uganda and another, yet to be finalized, in Guyana. We have small-scale fisheries projects in the Caribbean, often involving such things as the construction of small quays and sheds. The details of some of these are still be settled.

► *Can we talk of a Lomé Convention fisheries policy? If so, what are its main guidelines?*

— Insofar as we do have a fisheries policy, our aim is to study fish-farming possibilities, as I mentioned before. This is a very important field and one which we feel is not being properly exploited. We are making a start on it, but it is relatively new to the ACP countries and we want to go cautiously. We feel that we should innovate slowly so that people can get used to fish in their own time and without being rushed into it. □

Interview by  
R.D.B.



# EEC — Mashreq cooperation agreements

At the beginning of November 1976, several months of negotiations between the Commission of the European Communities and the countries of the Mashreq (Egypt, Syria and Jordan) were completed when an agreement was initialled by the representatives of the Community (Claude Cheysson and Maurice Foley), Egypt (Zakaria Abdel-Fattah, Minister for Trade), Syria (Ambassador Farid El Lahm) and Jordan (Nijmeddin Dajani, Ambassador to the European Communities).

The EEC has already signed a preferential agreement with Egypt, but the agreements with Syria and Jordan are entirely new and similar to those signed with the Maghreb (Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco) early this year.

Mr Cheysson said that completion of the Mashreq negotiations was the culmination of the Community's southern Mediterranean policy as outlined by the heads of government of the Community in 1972. He added that the only missing agreement now was with the

Lebanon and this would be negotiated as soon as the political situation there allowed.

Claude Cheysson described the various features of these global cooperation agreements, which were very similar to the ones already concluded with the Maghreb. What was really unusual was that they were for an unlimited period. They provide, as from July 1977, free access to the Community market for industrial products from the countries in question, the only restrictions being ceilings for one or two products (phosphate fertilizers, refined oil products and textiles) which would not, in any case, be applied beyond the end of 1979. He said that the agreements also provided preferential treatment for agricultural imports, but the Mashreq only reported small amounts of these products to the Community (\$50 million per year), whereas the Community's agricultural exports to the Mashreq were considerable. Mr Cheysson announced that the reservations all three countries had expressed as to the duration of the total

270 million EUA of financial aid could be handled by the general affairs committee. He ended by emphasizing the institutional framework for cooperation that had been established—the ministerial council for cooperation and the possibilities of organized contact between members of parliament, plus the clause precluding the Mashreq from discriminating among the EEC countries or their nationals or firms.

## The Community and the Arab League

The Community has contractual links with 9 of the 20 countries of the Arab League—three of them (Mauritania, Sudan and Somalia) have joined the Lomé Convention and agreements have been concluded with the three countries of the Maghreb and now with the Mashreq as well. These countries account for almost half the Community's exports to Arab countries, where there is an increasingly large market for EEC goods. Furthermore, these nine countries have a trade deficit of 2 725 million EUA with the EEC, although with the Arab League as a whole, the trade deficit (of 9 240 million EUA) is on the Community's side. This very unusual trade situation is additional justification, over and above the political options of the Mediterranean approach, for the conclusion of special agreements with these countries.

Mr Cheysson pointed out the original features of the type of cooperation the EEC proposed and then again emphasized what this choice involved for the Community. The policy, he said, was by no means a marginal affair and had to be properly integrated into Europe's economic planning. It forced the Community to go in for greater integration of its various sectoral policies and was, he said, a major challenge. He also announced that emergency food aid would be proposed for the Lebanon as soon as possible and that the Community would be helping the country to rebuild. The commissioner announced that a supplement to the existing agreement with Israel was currently being negotiated. □

*On the dotted line... Nijmeddin Dajani (left) and Maurice Foley*





# The Club of Rome and the Third World

## Dr Peccei describes his "non-organization"

The Club of Rome and the RIO report: as announced in our last issue, the "Courier" is presenting two interviews, one with Dr Aurelio Peccei, President and co-founder of the Club of Rome, and another with Professor Jan Tinbergen, coordinator of the third Club of Rome report (RIO—reshaping the international order). Dr Peccei outlines the activities and the philosophy of the Club of Rome—the non-organized organization, as he calls it. Professor Tinbergen explains his contribution to the RIO report. The "Courier" met both men shortly before the RIO report came out. Since then, as they hoped, there has been increasing discussion of what might be called the first real attempt at presenting an overall approach and specific proposals for bringing about a new world order.

### From the myth of growth to the myth of the nation state

► *What has the Club of Rome achieved since it was founded eight years ago?*

— I am an optimist and so my judgement will be an optimistic one. The Club of Rome is a small organization with only 100 members. We ourselves decided to keep numbers down to avoid becoming an organization in the accept-

ed sense of the term. The secretariat, for example, only consists of my two secretaries, and we work without a budget, since all members pay their own expenses.

We are a small group of committed men, transcultural rather than transnational, and we have been able to fulfill the task we set ourselves, of acting as catalysts for existing organizations, or for ideas that are already in the air and for policies that are sometimes already partly thought-out.

I think we have been fairly successful in casting doubt on the myth of material growth and we shall be dealing with something we have already touched on, the myth of national sovereignty, the myth of the nation state as the basic, irreplaceable unit of the modern world.

We Europeans are the first to understand what is involved with our idea of a European Community. This is a prototype in the world today and should gradually be used to lay the foundations for a world-wide community. If we cannot forge a community spirit with our four billion people in a world which has fewer resources than we thought, then the tension will increase and something will snap.

So, the Club of Rome has pricked the great big bubble of growth and it will do the same for the myth of the technological fix, the idea that technology is a universal panacea. And we shall do the same for that more dangerous myth, which says that justice can be achieved

by violence. Whatever the culture, whatever the civilization, justice can only be achieved by peaceful means. This is the old myth that material power, domination and manipulation of information, corruption and the separation of minorities, races and sexes are means of attaining the ideal of justice. We in the West are rich and it is only by seeking the good of mankind in general that we can do good for ourselves.

The Club of Rome has a certain amount of credibility in developed and developing countries and even in the East. They realize that we are sincere and are not serving sectoral or national ends.

### The evolution of the newly-independent states

► *You are against the myth of the nation state. But many young states, particularly developing ones in Africa, for example, are still seeking their own identity and nationality...*

— I think they have to realize it is impossible to live in the world today with the nation state as the basis of our political organization. But it isn't Gabon, for example, that has to give up its nation state. First and foremost it is us, the rich, we who have benefited from such things for three whole centuries, we who have technology, economy, industrial wealth and intellectual ability, we are the ones who have to give up part of our national sovereignty. But we must learn to go beyond the nation state. We must do this by setting up communities like the European Community, by creating coalitions like OPEC or the new Latin American organization. Young states can emerge over 15 to 20 years. They can create their structures, their ruling classes and enjoy running their own affairs. During this transitional period, it is we Europeans who can and must lead



the way away from the concept of the nation. The African states must have all the time and all the means they need to establish themselves in their own way as they see fit. But they have to realize that they too, one day, will have to leave national sovereignty behind them.

## The Club of Rome and the Third World

► *How far have representatives of the Third World participated in the Club of Rome's activities to date?*

— We do have representatives of the Third World, of course. But we don't have enough of them. Initially we felt it was important to belong to the Club of

Rome. Now things have changed and there appear to be so many potential members that being an actual member is more a question of luck. We have about 20 representatives of the Third World at the moment, but we are increasing this contingent. To belong to the Club of Rome, you have to be well-known in your field, you have to have certain moral qualities, you have to be committed to the general improvement of the standard of living of men the world over and, finally, you have to be mobile. Most potential members from the developing countries, of course, meet the first conditions, but they are often prevented from taking part in meetings, talks and symposia and so on by the great number of urgent problems in their own countries and this puts con-

siderable restrictions on their mobility. In principle, we try and avoid enrolling politicians proper, since they already have a specific task to do and, in any case, they tend to subscribe to the "my country first, right or wrong" doctrine.

► *Professor Ayandele of the University of Ibadan is a member of the Club of Rome and has, for example, already expressed a certain amount of scepticism as to the reception of previous Club of Rome reports in Africa. How do you wish your activities and publications to be publicized, particularly in the ACP?*

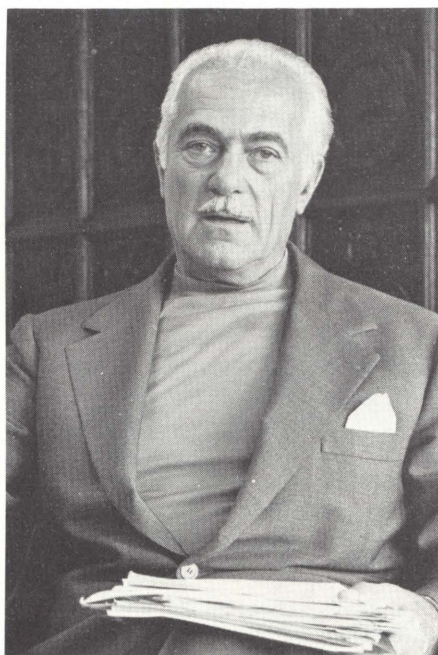
— The Club of Rome has not, so far, been able to make itself known everywhere. We would like to but we don't have the means. However, when I corre-

Aurelio PECCEI. — *La qualità umana* (The Human Quality) — Biblioteca delle EST, Edizioni Scientifiche e Tecniche — Arnoldi Mondadori, Milan, 1976 — 236 pages — Lit 5 500.

"To my children, to their children and to young people everywhere, to help them understand that they must be better than we are." This is how Aurelio Peccei, a 68-year old economist from Turin, dedicates his book. It is perhaps the best way of explaining his one idea and fundamental desire—to make the world a better place.

Aurelio Peccei is a manager par excellence, who has proved himself in the greatest of transnational societies. He is the head of Italconsult, the Italian braintrust of world renown. He is the inspirer and co-founder of the Club of Rome—the non-organized organization, as he calls it. This book is a boldly-written autobiography. But it is more than that. "I have simply said what I know, what I think and what I feel", he says. Don't expect a Club of Rome-style book. There are no tables and no statistics. Just clear and direct language.

## LA QUALITÀ UMANA



Dr Aurelio Peccei

*"Man is, perhaps, of all the resources the one we waste and neglect the most... Man is both the source of all our problems and the only means of answering them"*

He has enormous experience, has accomplished a lot and has many contacts throughout the world (much of his career has been spent in the Third World), partly because his work for the Club of Rome, the World Wildlife Fund and various other international bodies forces him to travel a great deal.

This life has been a source of reflection and has enabled him to learn the lessons of what has happened to the world and to suggest which way we should be turning. The personal reflections of such a man who, during his full life, has watched all the great problems of the world emerge and who can see them against the relevant cultural background, beyond considerations of economy, finance or energy, remain profoundly humanistic. And his conviction stands, in face of the discouragements of current affairs. His activities in the resistance in World War II led to imprisonment and torture at the hands of the fascists, but Peccei concluded that the experience only served to confirm his conviction that there exists in man a great force of good waiting to be freed, but which modern society has not yet been able to free.



sponded with, for instance, President Senghor of Senegal and Minister Chagula of Tanzania, they expressed great interest in our activities and revealed an increasing interest in our activities in Africa as a whole. The world is so varied that it is very difficult for everyone to adopt the new ideas launched by the Club of Rome or any other body. In some countries or regions, such as Morocco, the American mid-west or the USSR, we can barely get through at all. In others, such as Algeria, Iran, the Netherlands, Canada and Japan—these are only examples—the Club of Rome is well-known.

I also think that the world is going through a period of profound change, and people can neither adapt to the change itself nor to what it may bring in the future.

## Towards a world-wide social contract

► *How do you personally see relations between industrialized and developing countries at the moment?*

— First of all, it is worth noting that the Club of Rome does not have one standard opinion. It does, after all, have 100 members, representing all the major philosophies of the world today. Generally speaking, the opinion of the Club of Rome and my own opinion is that we have a dangerous situation of imbalance in the world today, which must be righted as soon as possible. One of the most obvious bones of contention is the difference between the economic situation of the North and the South. In 1974, after the 6th special session of the UN General Assembly, these differences led me to take a personal decision to contact Professor Jan Tinbergen, to ask him to coordinate a thorough study that would serve as a basis for a discussion of the vital changes in the developed/developing country relationship. The study reveals, primarily, that no amount of effort or goodwill can make any appreciable difference within 30 or 40 years. The developed countries must realize that they have to start reducing the differences now, since the situation

itself is an explosive one. They must also explain and demonstrate to those developing countries which have opted for self-reliance what they are doing to bridge the gap, since both rich and developing countries must have a clear idea of the way the world is going.

If you know where you are going, you may not mind taking time to get there. But the destination must be clearly in sight and an effort must be made to reach it. We need almost a world-wide social contract between the two groups of countries, with the world of tomorrow firmly in our sights. Europe has, morally speaking, the possibility of establishing this long-term venture and guaranteeing the developing countries an improvement. We must remove the long-term uncertainties of the Third World, both by specific action to remedy existing problems and by showing our desire to improve the situation and to introduce the changes that will break down the differences. Without this, Europe will be one of the regions that suffers most.

## Confidence in man

► *But are you confident that the gap between developed and developing countries can be bridged?*

— Yes, I am. Because the greatest potential answer to all these problems is man himself. Man is perhaps, of all the resources, the one we waste and neglect most. This is the theme of my book, "La qualità umana". Man is both the source of all our problems and the only means of answering them.

I have been pessimistic about trends so far, but I am moderately optimistic when I see what we can achieve. Various things lead me to believe that Europe—including Scandinavia—is the only place at the moment where we will find ideas on how to embark on a new order.

► *What is the logical link between the various Club of Rome reports?*

— After Dennis Meadows' "Limits to Growth" in 1972, where we overturned

the myth of growth, we had a second report, "Strategy for Tomorrow", by Eduard Pestel and Mihajlo Pesarovic, in 1974, which was an attempt at providing some means of handling the world's problems. The report presented a certain methodology and a certain mechanism, with a view to establishing the order that the decision-maker wished to create and contained the means of rationalizing his decisions.

The third report, the RIO project, is the basis for the new international order that the Club of Rome gradually proposes to bring about. The fourth report, by Ervin Laszlo, on the goals for humanity, is due to appear in February 1977 and will deal with aims beyond the establishment of this new order.

The international order we are proposing in the RIO project simply takes account of demographic data and the 150 nation states as they are at present, without any discussion of what goes on inside them. But it is naturally important to observe what is going on inside these states and the new project, our fourth report, is one to attempt to see how society can be organized and what direction it should take. It is thus a philosophical report.

## Bridging the rich/poor gap

► *What are the main lines of the RIO project?*

— As usual, the Club of Rome discussed the project at length with the coordinator, Jan Tinbergen. And then we gave him *carte blanche* from all scientific, philosophical and other points of view—and we were fully confident as to the results.

The preliminary discussions defined the general aims of RIO. The intention is not to redistribute wealth, but to start working for a different distribution of income whereby the poor will be better off yet the standard of living of the rich will not stagnate. We want to reduce the disparity between rich and poor. This is how to bring about the well-being of all the citizens of a better-balanced world. □

Interview by R.D.B.



# The RIO report

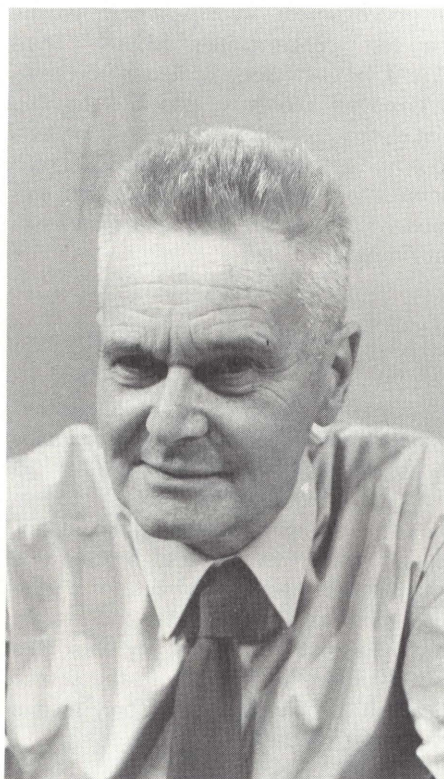
## The viewpoint of Jan Tinbergen, who coordinated the project

Professor Jan Tinbergen, the 1969 Nobel Prizewinner in economics, centralized and coordinated the work of the 21 experts who contributed to the RIO project. He sees the job as a continuation of his own work with the UN development planning committee. He is aware of the controversy provoked by previous Club of Rome publications and expects critical reactions to the project, but, he said, "it is our job to trigger off a discussion which will go on far beyond the first examination of the report".

His guiding principles in organizing the work of the 21 experts were, primarily, to recognize the supra-national character of the decision-making process in the 10 fields under investigation and, secondly, to ensure a balanced approach by setting up an individual working party—including an expert from the developing countries and an expert from the industrialized countries—for each field.

### Supra-nationality and the new sovereignty

Like Dr Peccei, Professor Tinbergen insists on the need to aim at a supra-national process of decision-making, which implies that new forms of sovereignty have to be created. In his eyes, the many difficulties involved will not prevent certain regional groups from creating precedents to light the path to this new form of sovereignty which will go beyond national boundaries. "I am thinking, for example, of the European Coal



Professor Jan Tinbergen  
*Can the Third World wait indefinitely?*

and Steel Community, where the rights and obligations were supra-national ones. There is no need, either, to group countries according to the geographical affinities. OPEC, for example, has proved that if countries supplying a given product on the world market join together and collaborate closely, they can obtain tangible results. "Some countries have obviously

lost on the deal, but we must rejoice that the potential of this kind of cooperation—I'd almost call it unionism—has been understood," he said. Cultural diversity is, nevertheless, he feels, vital and the RIO group is seeking to establish a new, fairer world order wherein every country's cultural originality, in the broadest sense of the term, would be preserved.

Pleading for advanced multilateralization of the world decision-making process at a time when some institutions have been discredited by certain sections of public opinion and by certain political leaders is, in spite of all, the only logical or possible answer as far as managing this new type of supra-national sovereignty is concerned. For example, Professor Tinbergen considers as generally positive the attitude of the World Bank, which has constantly proved to be an effective organization, which is increasingly aware of its own responsibilities and which has all but ceased to be a tool in the hands of the United States. Tinbergen says that trade is vital. He had the impression that "the current Tokyo negotiations will be more effective than preceding ones as far as solving the problems of the developing countries is concerned—although this, of course, remains to be proved". He also emphasizes the interest of the type of cooperation adopted by the Lomé Convention and which he would like to see allocated bigger amounts, since, he said, "it is a formula which enables the countries concerned to participate much more than they do in other organizations".

### The gap between rich and poor and their converging long-term interests

The widening gap between rich and poor hits worst the worst off, who al-



# The RIO report: its main proposals

"Reshaping the International Order", the third report of the Club of Rome, begins with a review of the malaise that has affected international economic relations over the past few years and the effect this has had on the process of economic development in the Third World. It concludes that nothing short of a total transformation of world economic, and therefore political relations, will avert a serious deterioration in the world economic order to the detriment of both rich and poor. In the view of the RIO report the disparities between rich and poor, if left to widen, will bring the world to crisis. It calls for greater awareness of the dangers ahead and proposes a series of reforms to bring about a new international order:

- the international monetary system should be overhauled through the phasing out of national reserve currencies and international agreement on a new reserve money. Regional monetary reform and rationalisation should lead to a stable world system;

- income redistribution and the financing of development should be achieved by an increased transfer of resources between rich and poor countries and the rich and poor within individual countries. The minimum human needs of the poorest should take priority. Development assistance should be more multinational, have a greater grant element, and move towards greater automaticity. The UN system should be structurally reformed and a World Treasury eventually set up with its own funds derived from international

- al taxes and productive resources under its own control;

- greater food production is essential if a major food crisis is to be averted. Regions should organise to achieve self-sufficiency, and in the meantime structural reform of food production should take place. New methods, crops, seeds, fertilisers and irrigation systems should all be encouraged and diseases and pests that attack crops tackled scientifically. Population control is crucial. As more research and better administration of food problems is needed the report suggests the creation of a World Food Authority;

- industrialisation, trade and an improved international division of labour are important for development. The world as a whole should consider the problem of "what is produced where" and make it more rational. Reform of the trade and investment system could raise the share of industrial production by developing countries from 7% to 25% by the year 2000. An international industrialisation strategy should be worked out possibly through a World Trade and Development Organisation;

- a world agency for mineral resources would also help to bring about a more equitable distribution of energy, ores and other mineral resources. Price fluctuations could be controlled and supplies guaranteed. Developing countries should form producer organisations to improve their bargaining position. A world taxation system should also replace national ones in the field

of mineral exploitation. The search for new energy resources, and the conservation of existing ones should also be at a world level and any new resources pooled;

- the developing countries must be given greater access to scientific and technical research and research itself be more geared to the needs of the poorest, again perhaps through new international bodies;

- transnational enterprises should also be more accountable and their actions promote the wellbeing of the poorest. Developing countries should combine in regional or producer groups to negotiate with transnationals;

- the human environment needs balanced management on a world level to ensure its harmonisation with social and development objectives;

- the world armament industry should be under greater control. The limited progress so far on force reductions and arms bans shows the need for a World Disarmament Agency to reduce the wastage of resources represented by military spending;

- finally the vast potential offered by the oceans of the world should be managed by the world community as a whole in the interests of all, particularly the poor.

The report does not underestimate the immense change in attitudes needed to bring these economic and structural reforms about, nor does it claim that all could or should be done at once. The authors believe a start could be made on reshaping the international order by choosing those changes which are most immediately practical, that is to say those which are politically possible, those which have a clear net benefit and those which will bring about early results and thereby encourage further action. □ I.P.



ready have first-hand experience of precarious conditions. Tinbergen says that the realization that the interests of developed and developing countries converge in the long run was one of the main reasons why the Club of Rome sounded the alarm. For the rich, the widening gap primarily involves a relatively rapid increase in income *per capita*—all proportions being equal—and a relatively low increase in population. And the opposite is true of the developing countries. Professor Tinbergen stresses that both parties must react and we must not, for example, confine ourselves to asking the developing countries to reduce their growth rate. RIO experts are agreed on the 0.1% annual growth rate target throughout the world proposed at the Bucharest conference on demography. The rich should expect slower growth in income *per capita* and the developing countries must be ready to make theirs increase faster.

The contribution of the third Club of Rome report to narrowing the gap is the attempt to present a plan. Tinbergen calls it an ideal plan, although it is open to amendment. RIO experts have tried to prepare the ground as rationally as possible for the promotion of the well-being of humanity, particularly the poorest of the poor. Time limits—1985 and the year 2000—have been fixed for the various targets and Professor Tinbergen feels that this leaves no other alternative than the solution the report proposes, although he realizes that progress towards these targets will probably prove to be slower than he hopes. There is a risk of heightened tension in the world and he regrets that the proposals of the strategy for the first development decade, or those put forward by Professor Hans Singer or the Pearson report, were not taken more seriously.

### **Are the developing countries running out of patience?**

One of the main aims of the first development decade was for the developed countries to provide 0.7% of GNP as official aid to the developing countries. Only Sweden and the Netherlands have achieved this figure, the Nether-

lands for the first time in 1975, and Jan Tinbergen hopes that the Club of Rome reports, and the RIO report in particular, will help make certain politicians realize that they must not persist in blindly doing what public opinion tells them to do but should modify it much more than they do at present. He feels that there is no point in working on specific target figures. Instead we should be stimulating the forces of self-reliance. And here again, he compares the developing countries now with the early days of the trade unions. If there is no organized body to defend the people's interests, the people will remain immobile. To get results, you have to work your way into a position of strength and, when they drew up the RIO report, Tinbergen and his team consistently sought to find how, other than by sheer force of numbers, the developing countries could change the balance of power between rich and poor. And he again insists on the convergence of interests and on the possibility of setting up new coalitions which could help alter market conditions.

But, he added, "we, as intellectuals, have only the power of our words. Although words have made their mark in history, mankind has, alas, sometimes had recourse to other arguments".

### **Political power and putting the RIO report into practice**

The authors of the RIO report are independent experts and, as such, have to try to get the politicians to put their proposals into effect. Here, Tinbergen is particularly impressed with the fact that the campaign against extreme poverty was devised by an American, quite well known in his vast country and thus in a position to convince his fellow citizens of the interest of the programme. The RIO authors aspire to be persuasive enough to convince a certain number of politicians although this must wait until their ideas have gained a certain amount of currency. Mentalities in the western world must be changed—which means accepting a modest lot. The quest for a new world order should mobilize politicians and awaken public opinion. Professor Tinbergen points out an already discernable change in attitude in person-

al contact particularly on the part of young people, even young company managers. The conservative idea, whereby members of the Club of Rome and other groups and individuals bent on a fairer world are no more than systematic detractors of their own society, seems, Tinbergen feels, to be gradually disappearing from both theory and fact.

### **Allocation of tasks**

The allocation of tasks in a changed and re-ordered world should mainly be proposed and organized by small groups, since they are bound to be more efficient than very large parliamentary-type groups. This allocation is directly linked to trade policy and is one of the most difficult problems involved.

Professor Tinbergen feels that we should get used to the idea that a certain number of sectors will be out of place in both developing and developed countries. Services, for example, are one of the main potentials of the developed world, but a potential that needs to be catered for in advance and not just settled after the event. The main question is to know where to recuperate the jobs lost in the labour-intensive industries—in services and, for a while yet, in metallurgy and in other branches, such as the manufacture of capital goods, where employment would expand if we pushed up our development aid. He also believes that certain political and union leaders have woken up to the need to convince their voters and followers that change must come. Sweden has already led the way and the recent ILO conference on employment encouraged the trend. The policy of transnational firms on the problem of job creation should be aligned against the developing countries' priorities. Professor Tinbergen believes, from his widespread personal contacts at this level, that here again new trends are emerging and that, in the future, we should attempt to put the experience and know-how of the transnational organizers to good use. And we should perfect the sort of technology that is right for the developing countries. □

R.D.B.



# AIR MADAGASCAR

## Madagascar's national airline

by TOM A. ANDRIANAMORO (\*)

Madagascar needs a national airline. Any internal flight—to Tamatave, Diego-Suarez, Nossi-Bé or tiny places like Bekily and Berorona—will prove the point. No passenger 10 000 feet up can fail to be overawed by the vastness of the island, tamed by technology it is true, but impressive for all that. The island covers 592 000 km<sup>2</sup>. It is bigger than France, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands put together.

Back in 1948, when the foundations of one of the most comprehensive internal networks in the world were being laid, an anonymous—and exceedingly picturesque—writer forecast the enormous tasks and responsibilities that would be the lot of Madagascar's future airline. There was one country in the world, he said, where people hop on planes just as Parisians hop on trains and buses. It wasn't America—and the passengers didn't swig whisky 3 000 metres up. The country was Madagascar.

If a cartographer was asked to produce a hemispherical map with Antananarivo as the southern pole, the "big island" of Madagascar would appear very isolated from the world's big cities. A line or two drawn in to show the flights linking Madagascar to the rest of the world completely changes the situation. That is the miracle of air travel.

On 1 January 1962, MADAIR, as the company first called itself, took over the whole of the domestic air network and began running the Antananarivo-Paris route, first with a DC 6 hired from the



*A Boeing 737 of Air Madagascar, a company with a growing role on African and international routes*

old TAI and then with a Boeing 707 hired from Air France. The early years were difficult. A fully independent company had to be created. And, in addition to its domestic services, the airline had also decided to branch out into the hazardous field of long-distance routes.

Air Madagascar's image for the first ten years was clear from the word go. The long distance network became the profitable part of the company's ventures and the domestic network was looked upon as a social service compensating for the country's poor road system, using second-hand planes and making considerable losses. However, there were already plans to get the better aircraft for the arduous routes involved.

In 1967, when the company's investments were well over the million Malagasy franc mark for the first time, the accent was put on updating the flying stock, mainly by bringing in a large number of Pipers, light planes to fly little-used routes and cover special flights, which were extremely important in a country in the early stages of development. Profits that year enabled payments on a Boeing 707-320 B, for long hauls, to be speeded up.

In 1969, the company continued to increase its fleet of light aircraft and bought its first Boeing 737 outright.

By 1971, five Twin Otter 300s had been added to the fleet. This marked the end of the DC3 era and heralded the domestic network's new look. Boeing 737s and DC 4s now covered the profit-making routes and Twin Otters and Pipers flew the secondary routes and relief services.

In 1972, the second Boeing 737 was delivered, which helped the company establish itself as a regional airline linking Madagascar with the other islands of the Indian Ocean and East Africa.

After this period of modernization and the development of a commercial and technical infrastructure on the ground, Air Madagascar took on its present form:

— A long-distance service between Antananarivo and Paris, Rome and Marseilles, by Boeing 707-320 B.

— Major domestic services and a regional flight network (which has been expanded), served by Boeing 737-200. Madagascar's geographical situation has meant that the airline has become a central point for flights throughout the Indian Ocean. The regional service was originally confined to flights to the Comoros and Reunion but it now serves Dar-es-Salaam (Tanzania), Maputo (Mozambique), Moroni (Comoros), Reunion, Mauritius and, the most recent addition, the

(\*) Head of public relations at Air Madagascar.



Seychelles. Nairobi and Djibouti are covered by the long-distance services. The island of Nossi-Bé is also served by Boeing 737. Antananarivo is fast becoming the gateway to the Indian Ocean and Air Madagascar links the tourist centres in the area, an obvious attraction for anyone wanting to see the maximum number of countries in the minimum amount of time.

— Six twin Otter 300s, which are ideal for domestic flights, are now in service.

— Certain domestic passenger and all freight services are now flown by two DC 4s.

— Twelve Pipers cover the socially important non-profit making services.

\* \* \*

The company is fully equipped to maintain all its 23 aircraft. Very early on, the organizers realized that a national airline, hoping to expand, had to be able to handle its own technical problems. Now that investments have been made, in both equipment and advanced training, Air Madagascar's technical centre near Ivato international airport is a major

industrial complex and the only one of its kind in the Indian Ocean. All but the Boeing 707s are serviced and maintained here and a number of national air force and private planes also use the facilities.

These workshops have expanded over the past few years and can now handle planes belonging to other airlines in the area. Air Mauritius, Air Comores and Air Djibouti, for example send aircraft to Antananarivo for maintenance.

This is exactly the sort of industrial cooperation recommended by AFRAA, of which Air Madagascar is a member and which aims at spreading maintenance work on its members' planes among the various companies involved.

\* \* \*

It is often said that a company, or indeed any human undertaking, is no better than the people running it. Air Madagascar's currently healthy position—which it is determined to maintain, is primarily due to its policy of providing continual training and information and bringing in as many national staff as

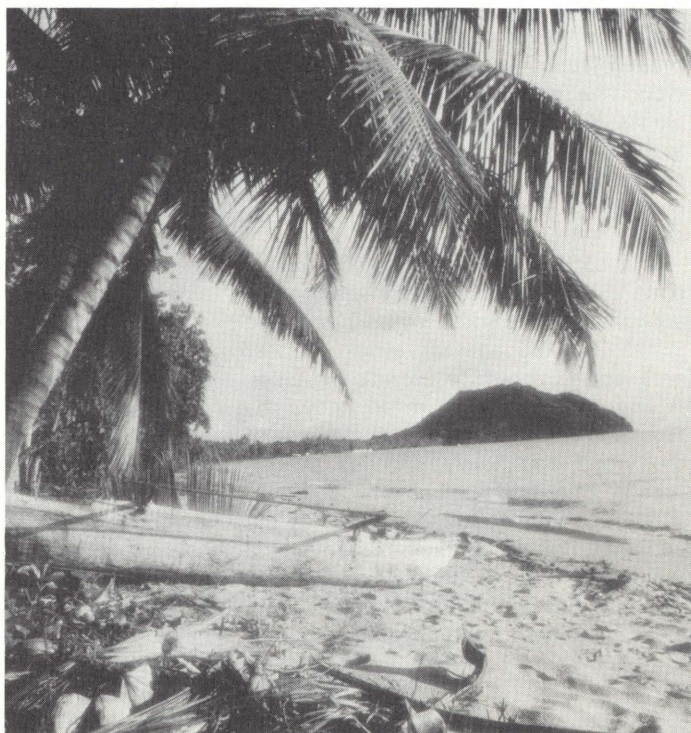
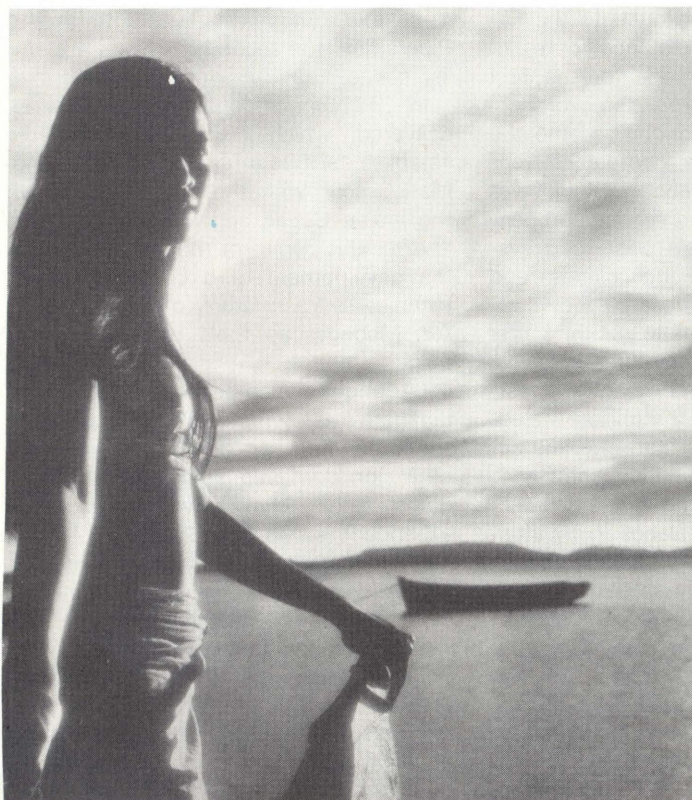
possible. This is a far cry from the attitudes which so often hamper firms in other countries.

Proper recruitment, training staff to a competitive level and, most important, keeping it there, are the stages in a process which, for Air Madagascar, has been a means of ensuring success. Chairman Adrian Dahy, and general manager Maurice Rajaofetra, are now leading a united and youthful team, which is aware of just what is involved in maintaining the airline's position in the world today.

The company has achieved what it has against a constantly evolving background. Now after 15 years of service Air Madagascar fulfils a national need and is a viable economic proposition in the modern world. The organization is a dynamic one. It has an obvious contribution to make to the growth and economic development of that part of the Third World which it serves. It is proof that an airline can help improve the well-being of people in developing countries like Madagascar, who make up two-thirds of humanity today. □

T.A.A.

*A young Malagasy woman on one of the island's beautiful beaches*



Photos Alain Nourait



**Lagos, 15 January - 12 February 1977**

## **2<sup>nd</sup> World Black and African Festival of Arts and Culture**

Lagos. — The World Black and African Festival of Arts and Culture (FESTAC) opens in Lagos, capital of Nigeria, on 15 January. This festival is the second of its kind. The first, known as the World Festival of Negro Arts, was in Dakar (Senegal) in 1966. The Dakar event was mainly for negro peoples, as Senegalese President Léopold Sédor Senghor, festival founder, had hoped. It was also in line with the idea of negritude, the literary and cultural movement of which Senghor, along with Aimé Césaire (from Martinique) was the principal founder.

Festac still of course has this negro bias. But it does more. It goes beyond the purely intellectual concept of negritude to include the more down-to-earth, practical, day-to-day aspects of negro civilization, i.e., popular culture. This is in line with OAU thinking, which suggests the festival should "bring together the substantially untapped cultural and artistic resources of black and African communities the world over and enable them to contribute more significantly to mankind's resources of arts and culture"

### **60 black and African states and communities**

Festac 77 will involve 60 black and African states and communities representing almost 800 million people in the world today. Ambroise Mbia (Cameroon), secretary general of the International Festival Committee, thinks Festac 77 will be "the greatest black international event ever", from which the cultural identity of black and African people will again emerge, enabling them to con-

firm "their solidarity and the vitality of their creative genius".

There will be many cultural events, from folk and classical dancing to regattas and a colloquium on black civilization and education. There will be displays on

themes such as African dress, various anthologies of books and, most important, an exhibition, "Africa and the Origin of Man".

The 60 black and African states and communities will be represented by something like 15 000 artistes from South America, the Caribbean, the USA, Canada, the UK, Ireland, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Australia, Papua New Guinea and, of course, Africa—including North Africa. Sixteen OAU-recognized liberation movements—including SWAPO (Namibia), ANC (South Africa), ZANU, ZAPU, ZIPA and so on—will also be there.



**The national theatre in Lagos**  
*the most beautiful in Africa but also the most costly (\$40 m)*



## Preparing for the visitors: an immense task

The Nigerian government has poured an enormous amount of money into Festac 77. The centre we saw last October is vast. The entirely new Festival Village, a series of small modern houses, will welcome 18 000 visitors. The rooms are very spacious and a great effort has been made successfully with humbler necessities such as plumbing and access roads. The theatre, the biggest and most modern in Africa, has now been completed. It has a number of auditoria, in one of which, seating 8 000, the highly successful South African drama group performed in October.

Kaduna village can also house 10 000 people. These vast visitors' facilities are a measure of the aims and importance of the festival itself. Earl Cameron, chairman of the UK Festival Committee, had this to say about it all: "The main purpose, of course, and of the festival which started in Senegal in 1966, was to bring black people together through-



**Commander Fingsi,**  
*Nigerian chairman of the international  
committee organising the Second world  
and Black Festival of Arts and Culture*



## THE ROYAL IVORY OF BENIN

### Symbol of FESTAC 77

This 16th Century ivory mask from Benin has emerged through the years as one of the finest examples of known African and black art.

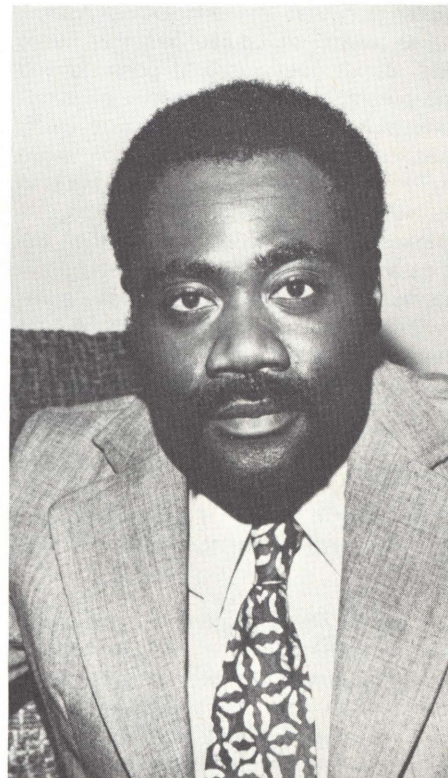
It was worn as a pectoral by Benin kings on royal ancestral ceremonial occasions; was last worn by King Ovoramwen who was dethroned at the fall of the Benin Empire in 1897. The same year, it fell into the hands of the Consul General of the Niger Coast Protectorate, Sir Ralph Moor, and now rests in the British Museum.

The tiara formation at the crest of the mask is made of 10 stylised heads and symbolises the king's divine supremacy and suzerainty.

The two incisions on the forehead which were originally filled with iron strips are royal tattoo marks. Round the neck, the artist has carved the coral bead collar which is a common feature of the king's paraphernalia.

out the planet, for them to realize their own culture, their own wealth of culture and that they might, so to speak, re-establish themselves on the planet and look forward in the future to being among the leaders instead of lagging behind, which we cannot deny we have been over the past few hundred years. So this festival is aimed at that mainly—that we may be uplifted, recognise our own culture and not always have to mimic the European type of culture. Not that I have anything against European culture, they have got what they have got and we have got what we have got. But we should respect our own culture".

The Festival of Lagos will be a major cultural event and may well help black and African people the world over to take stock of their situation. One thing still stands in the way of success of this outstanding event, and that is the transport problem. However, a special Nigerian government committee was due to meet to solve this practical problem before Festac 77, a meeting place for all the ACP states, begins. □ L.P.



**Ambroise Mbia (Cameroon)**  
*Secretary-General of FESTAC 77's inter-  
national committee*



# BOOKS

Samuel NANA-SINKAM. — **Pays candidats au processus de développement (Candidates for development)**. — Editions Mouton, Paris 1975 — 581 pages — FF 145.

The '50s and '60s, when the "candidates for development" became fully independent, were a time for research into economic and social planning. The '70s are a time for critically examining the results and deciding whether or not the plans were well-founded. There is considerable variation, but none of the countries has actually embarked upon the development process. Some have reached and maintained a fairly high growth rate, but growth is not development, although development involves growth. Others are stagnating.

An analysis of the development plans of African countries south of the Sahara reveals the main obstacles that imported models, without any attempt at adapting them to vastly different structures, are unable to handle. It also reveals what African planners are most concerned with, which should help in the search for models that are properly adapted to conditions in the country in which they are used.

Nana-Sinkam has answered one or two important questions: the definition of under-development and the related questions of its historical origins and the various stages of its evolution. He also deals with the under-developed countries' capacity to absorb financing and the question of explicative and informative models of economic growth. Various connected topics—such as the functioning of the international monetary system—are also covered within this general framework.

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André ANGLADETTE and Louis DESCHAMPS. — **Problèmes et Perspectives de l'Agriculture dans les Pays tropicaux (Agriculture in the tropics—problems and prospects)**, with a preface by Maurice Schumann. — Editions G.-P. Maisonneuve et Larose, 11, rue Victor Cousin, 75005, Paris, France — 772 pages — 1976 — FF240.

This work deals with the various techni-

cal and social aspects of the whole range of solutions brought to the specific problems of agriculture in the tropics.

The book is by no means exhaustive, but it is much more than a technical handbook. Angladette and Deschamps go beyond what has been achieved so far to discuss what is still to be done and show how the study of tropical agricultural problems opens onto the whole issue of underdevelopment in general. This is why the work provides food for thought, as Maurice Schumann rightly says in his preface.

The book comes at a time when we are having enormous problems with food supplies, particularly in the Third World, and when the technological societies are going through a worsening period of crisis and it forces the reader to the conclusion that the development of agriculture in the tropics cannot be dissociated from the urgent task of revising the model for the industrialized countries' growth.

ooo

**Exhibitor's Guide — fairs, salons and exhibitions.** Published by the Commission of the European Communities, Brussels.

An expanded and updated English edition of the original French exhibitor's guide, this book aims to give practical advice to exhibitors from developing countries at the major international trade fairs.

These fairs, which are for the most part held in important commercial centres in the industrial world, but also increasingly in the capitals of developing countries, play an important role in the

promotion and sale of products from developing countries in world markets. The EEC under the Lomé Convention has opened up a large potential market for goods from developing countries but as Claude Cheysson, the EEC's development commissioner, said at the recent Berlin trade fair, the community has also to help its partners "to sell and to conquer the market which is open to them".

This book is part of the attempt to encourage the growth of ACP exports to Europe by providing detailed information on how to participate in a trade fair. It offers advice on what and how to sell, and reviews the variety of promotional activity which salesmen from developing countries might undertake. The main part of the book is a step-by-step guide to the planning that goes into setting up a stand at a trade fair, the activities during the few days of the fair itself, and the all-important follow up of contacts after the fair. Good planning and presentation is essential if the exercise is not to be a waste of time and money. There is a great deal of practical work to be done; the booking of the stand, the furnishing and organisation of the graphics and publicity, staffing, and perhaps also some gimmicks—competitions and free gifts, for example—to attract interest in the stand. There is, of course, no substitute for actual experience, and no doubt many exhibitors from developing countries who have already had stands at trade fairs have learnt a great deal from their early mistakes. This book will still be of help to them and is essential reading for any salesmen just about to embark on a promotion at a trade fair.

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