



# the courier

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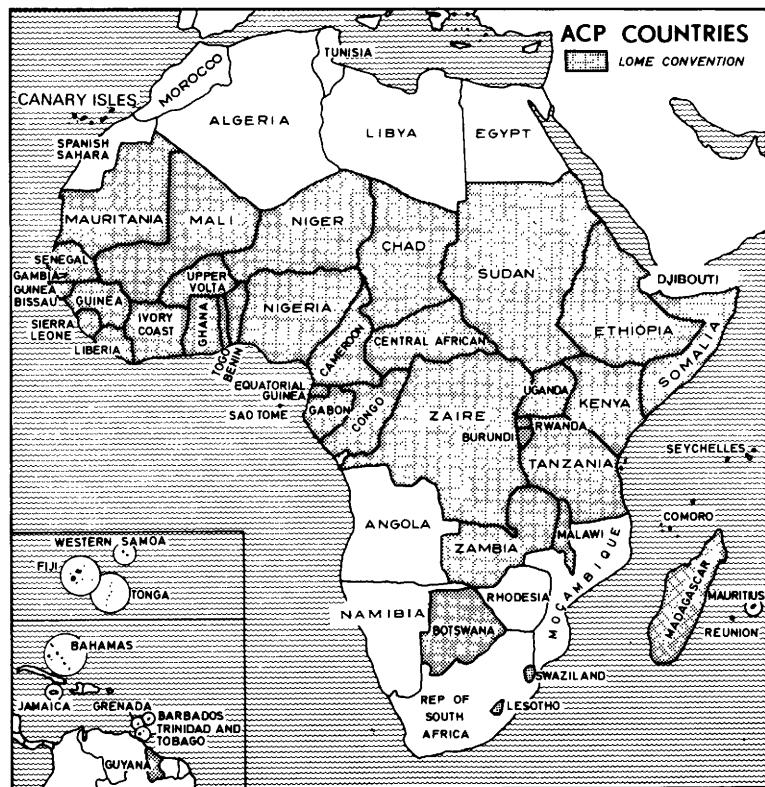
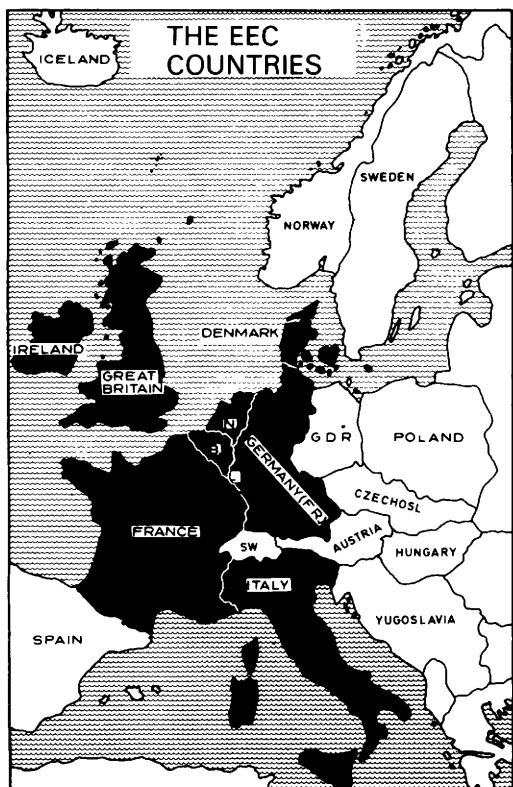
EDUCATION

## THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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## THE ACP STATES

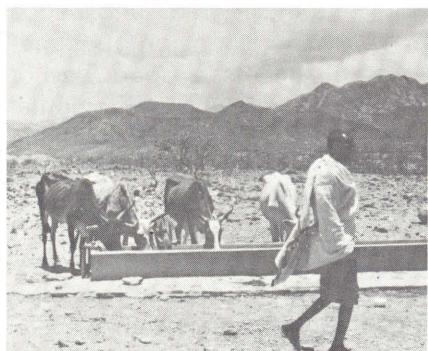
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| BAHAMAS                 | GRENADA          | SAO TOME PRINCIPE   |
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| GHANA                   | PAPUA-NEW GUINEA | ZAMBIA              |
|                         | RWANDA           |                     |



**West Germany** — The Federal German policy of economic cooperation with the Third World has not always been clear to a number of ACP countries. Cooperation minister Marie Schlei sharpens the focus on public and private German aid, the increasing dependence of her country's economy on customers in the developing world and the question of harmonizing European aid policies. **Page 3**

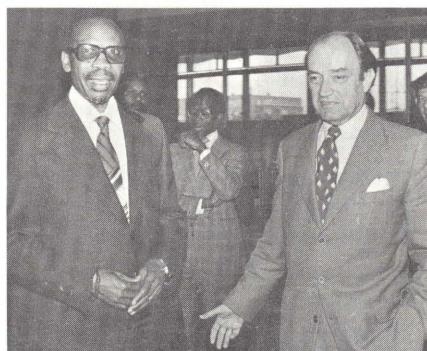


**Botswana** — Beef, diamonds and its land-locked position are the main features of Botswana's economy. As Africa's biggest meat exporter, and with increasing diamond production, Botswana was in a position to benefit from the trade provisions of the Lomé Convention but faced problems such as tariff and non-tariff barriers. The low level of ACP regional cooperation did not help. Sir Seretse Khama outlines the economy of his country and calls, at the international level, for improvements in the Lomé Convention and more cooperation between the ACP countries. **Page 12**

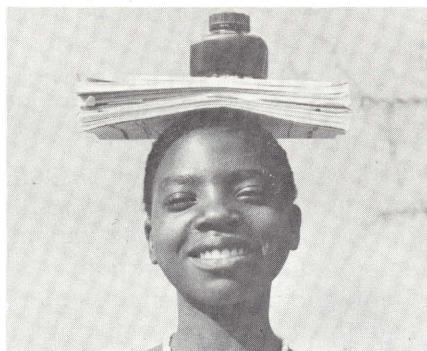


**Dossier** — Education, which here includes training, is fundamental to economic and social development. Despite their great efforts, the developing countries have still not generally found a satisfactory approach to the immense task of educating their youthful populations. The main problem is to narrow the gap between the elites and the uneducated — between town and country — and to adapt education away from the accepted schoolroom syllabus to the real needs of modern developing countries. **Page 20**

**Seychelles** — The Republic of Seychelles is made up of a number of islands off the African coast and counts itself part of Africa. The new Head of State, France-Albert René, discusses with the "Courier" the problems facing his country in its attempt to develop a national economy from limited resources. Apart from the selective development of tourism, President René sees the two main poles of development in the Seychelles as fishing and agriculture. **Page 7**



**Djibouti** — Newly-independent Djibouti has to face up to numerous economic problems, whether natural, as in the case of its aridity, or political, since the situation in the Horn of Africa has disrupted both the Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway and the port. To cope with these difficulties the new state is looking to international help, particularly through the Lomé Convention, which it has already applied to join. **Page 16**



# THE COURIER

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY —  
AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

No. 46 — November-December 1977

## CONTENTS

2. **EDITORIAL:** Adapting education to the life and needs of society

3. Interview: Marie Schlei, Federal German Minister of Cooperation

### AFRICA - CARIBBEAN - PACIFIC

7. Seychelles: interview with President René

- 11 Moyenne: ghosts and buccaneers in a tropical paradise

11. The gamble for sea-bed wealth

12. Botswana: interview with President Sir Seretse Khama

16. Djibouti: Africa's newest state

19. In perspective: the brain drain from the ACP countries

20. **DOSSIER:** Education

22. A fresh look at the world education crisis

27. Schooling in Africa

29. A new concept of education for Africa

30. The provision of education and its costs

36. Jamaica: the JAMAL approach

38. Sudan: the revolution in education

40. The Panafrican Institute for Development

42. The Declaration of Dar es Salaam

### EEC aid for education

43. Providing the infrastructure

46. Multiannual training programmes for the ACP countries

51. Training courses

52. Project-linked training

53. Development education

### DEVELOPING WORLD

53. The French central fund for economic cooperation

### EDF PROJECTS

55. Malawi: EEC aid

57. Ghana: the Kpong dam, an example of international cooperation

59. Togo: the CIMAQ clinker plant, an example of regional cooperation

### SPORT

61. Kenya's track trio: Boit, Kimobwa, Kipkurgat

### BOOKS (inside back cover)

### NEWS ROUND-UP (yellow pages)

## Adapting education to the life and needs of society

**P**resident Senghor said that "man is at both the beginning and the end of development." He is at the very centre of the concept and the concept cannot be an abstract one. A valid design for development is one which is aimed at serving man and improving the material and intellectual conditions of his life and his dignity. If things are undertaken on an uncertain or unrealistic basis, the results will not live up to expectations, efforts will be in vain and fresh problems will arise. This is particularly true of education.

Yesterday's mistakes cost more today in this field than in any other, probably because it takes so long for the effects of educational changes to be felt. The first mistakes were those of the colonial era, when a curious mixture of calculation, naïveté and ignorance led Europeans to believe they could transport their own education systems wholesale to Africa, all too often neglecting African characteristics and culture. Then there were the mistakes of the educational policy-makers at the time of independence. They themselves had been educated under the old system and generously felt they should aim to educate as many people as possible in a short time, but failed to pay enough attention to needs, means or consequences. It is as true today as it was yesterday that, "with-

out the shadow of the past, the present would hold any number of futures".

We should not judge the men of yesterday too harshly. It takes time to forge new ideas in the light of experience. It takes time to train a child's intellect and make him a man so he too can be productive. Over the last 15 years, most developing countries have been faced with a huge increase in the number of schoolchildren which they have been ill-equipped to handle, inspite of what has often been an enormous contribution from the budget. For example, all the education ministers of the UNESCO countries agreed that the generalization of primary education, i.e. schooling for all 6-11 year olds, should be achieved by 1980. In 1975, the percentage of children attending school was an estimated 67% in Asia, 48% in the Arab countries and 44% in Africa and it was clear that the 1980 target would not be met. It was Mr M'Bow, present Director-General of UNESCO, who said, a few years back, that in spite of an enormous effort, "African schools, which provide education that is ill-adapted to local needs and national problems, are increasingly emerging as instruments of social disruption." Too many pupils repeat years of study, their dropout rate is high and they are often unqualified to do the productive jobs

that the socio-economic development of the country demands. What is the point of training intellectual proletarians at great expense only to find they are unusable afterwards?

Over the last 15 years, the gap between town and country has widened and schooling for girls has lagged further behind. But awareness of the need for adult education has emerged and it has become clear that the methods designed for the industrialized world must be reconsidered and recast.

Africa covered a lot of ground between the conferences of Addis Ababa in 1961 and Lagos in 1976. The extension of education still seems a good way of removing certain fundamental obstacles to development, such as ignorance, ingrained methods and linguistic barriers. But change, improvement and transformation are happening all over Africa. Without returning to the elitist system of the past, it is clear that "the problem is more than just one of the quantitative development of education". Most African countries are already faced with the problem of the efficient working of their schools and their relevance to the life of the nation. In other words, they are concerned with adapting education to the life and needs of society. □

Alain Lacroix

**Federal Republic of Germany**  
**Marie Schlei, Minister of Cooperation:**

**"We have become increasingly dependent on the developing countries as a market for our exports"**

The West German policy of economic cooperation with the Third World has not always seemed very clear to a number of ACP countries. Cooperation minister Marie Schlei clarifies various points in this interview:

• Official aid to the developing countries has fallen, but it will be increased.

► This autumn the Federal Government will be presenting its third biennial Report on Development Policy to the Bundestag. What are the main ideas and new guidelines contained in this report?

— The third Report on Development Policy is currently in preparation and will probably be put before the Bundestag in November. Its main purpose is to report on important events in development policy in the last two years and to present and substantiate Federal Government policy. For example, we will have to look at the course and results of UNCTAD IV and the CIEC (North-South dialogue), and we will also report to the Bundestag on the whole range of our bilateral and multilateral cooperation with developing countries. I cannot anticipate the report on individual matters but I can assure you of one point, which is probably of special interest to you: the importance we attach to a European cooperation policy will also be brought out.

► For some time now a number of international as well as German organizations have been urging the Federal Republic of Germany to place more emphasis in its official development assistance on the poorer developing countries and on agricultural development. Are measures being taken along those lines, particularly with reference to the ACP countries?

— These demands are certainly not being directed at us alone and in recent years the ideas behind them have won general acceptance. We have helped to shape and have complied with the relevant recommendations of international organizations.

- Coordination of European development aid policies is important but "by no means an end in itself".
- Stabex: initial misgivings have now gone.
- The developing countries already take 22% of West German exports.



Marie Schlei

**"22% of all our exports now go to developing countries"**

We are linked with the ACP countries through the Lomé Convention. The ones that belong to the LDCs and MSACs(1) also receive aid from us on particularly favourable terms under our bilateral cooperation arrangements.

#### **Less official aid**

► The Federal Government has still not reached the official development assistance target of 0.7% of GNP which it agreed to in 1971. Your official aid amounted to only 0.40% of GNP in

(1) The 28 "least developed countries", as classified by the UN, and the 45 countries "most seriously affected" by the post-oil-crisis recession.

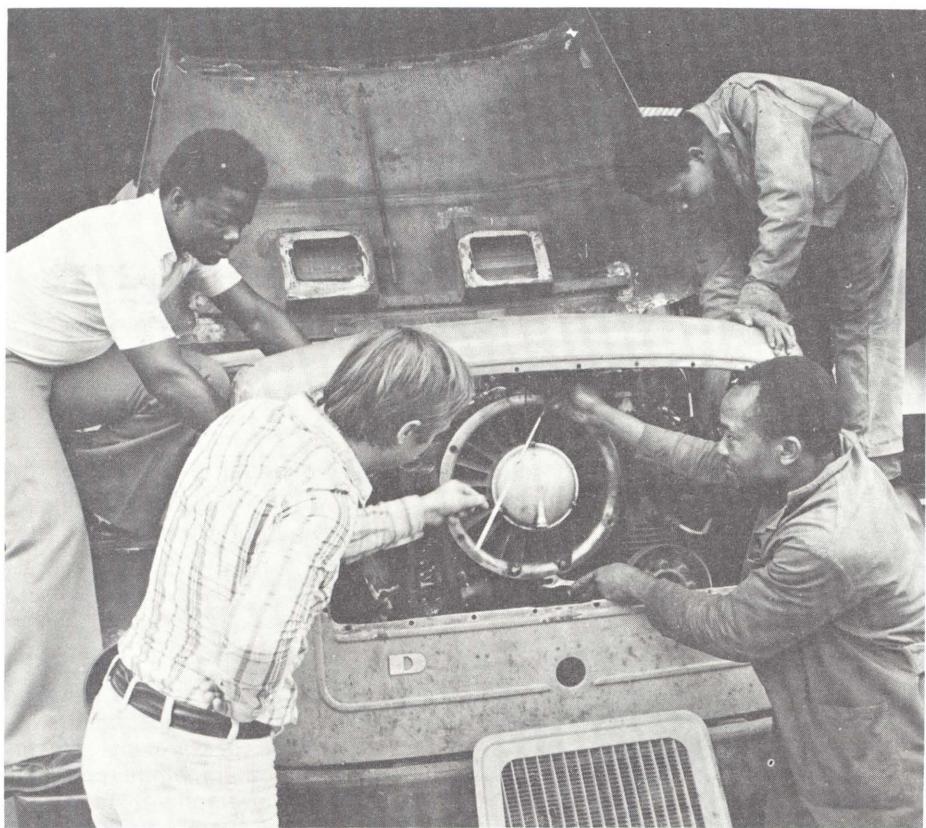
1975 and 0.31% in 1976. The world economic crisis did not affect the Federal Republic of Germany as badly as some of the other member countries of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC), and yet they were able to increase their official development assistance appreciably. Have the general budget cuts in the Federal Republic had an influence on the efforts being made in the field of economic cooperation and is there any definite indication of when the Federal Republic intends to reach the 0.7% target?

— Our official aid as a proportion of GNP was above the DAC average in 1975 and just below the average in 1976. Along with most of the DAC members, we have not yet achieved the 0.7% target.

When there have been budget difficulties, we have always tried to keep cooperation with the developing countries free from cuts. However, given the difficult financial situation faced by the public authorities, it was impossible to avoid cuts in the rate of increase for cooperation with developing countries that had been envisaged in the Federal Government's medium-term financial planning. This year, however, there has been a more promising development in that the Cabinet has decided to increase the resources to be made available to my Ministry over the next few years. These resources will grow at an appreciably faster rate than the Federal Government's overall expenditure.

#### **More private investment**

► The high combined total of official and private aid from the Federal



**West Germany provided 4.6 million DM for training farm machinery mechanics in Nkolbisson, a suburb of Yaoundé (Cameroon)**

Republic, which amounted to 1.17% of GNP in 1975 and 1.18% in 1976, is due in particular to the contribution of the private sector, which has increased rapidly in recent years. This contribution rose from DM 3800 million in 1974 to DM 7500 million in 1975 (+98%) and to DM 9300 million in 1976 (+23%). What importance does your government attach to private investment in developing countries?

— The contribution of the private sector, which you mention, can do a great deal to develop the Third World, a point which the Federal Government has always stressed. Of course, the extent to which the state can control private economic activities is limited in a free market economy, and the same applies to the majority of the private sector contributions in question, particularly export credits and financial credits. The Federal Government does, however, have means of promoting a whole range of German business activities with the aim of achieving significant effects in terms of development.

In this connection, I would like to mention in particular the state-owned DEG (German Company for Economic Cooperation), which participates alongside other German and foreign firms in investment operations which also meet development criteria. The capital of the DEG has been steadily increased in recent years and now

stands at DM 600 million. We are also trying via our developing country tax law to influence investment behaviour along development policy lines: investment in the least developed countries and labour-intensive production methods are particularly favoured under this law. In addition, our system of capital investment guarantees linked with bilateral agreements for investment promotion has proved to be a particularly effective means of promoting private investment in developing countries.

► It is sometimes said that, with its scientific and technocratic approach, German official development assistance does not make sufficient allowance for the social and economic circumstances of the developing countries. What is your opinion on this?

— First of all I would like to say that we are grateful for any constructive criticism, but I am not aware that our development cooperation is being singled out for criticism because of its technocratic approach. Although all measures are carried out only with the full agreement of the partner countries, there is always a danger that their real requirements may be overlooked in planning. We must be aware of that danger. We try to avoid errors in planning by analysing the requirements and bottlenecks of each country in close coordination with its authorities.

► The Federal Republic of Germany is highly dependent on exports and has a great interest in intensifying the international division of labour through broadly-based liberalization of the world economy. What do you feel about the important negotiations that are either over (CIEC) or are still continuing between poor and rich countries?

— Our economy is certainly highly dependent on exports. The important point, however, is that in recent years we have become increasingly dependent on the developing countries as a market for our exports. Today Third World countries already take 22% of our total exports. Some one million jobs depend directly or indirectly on those exports. The importance of the developing countries as export markets will increase still further in future since it will be a long time before the saturation point for capital and consumer goods is reached there. However, the developing countries' markets can only expand if their purchasing power and demand potential increase. The best way to achieve this, in my opinion, is through greater integration of these countries in the world economy and world trade. Progressive liberalization of the world economy will improve the international division of labour to the benefit of the developing countries, increase their share of world trade, and expand and intensify trade between industrialized and developing countries. In the longer term this will, I feel, bring advantages for both sides.

On this point the demands of the developing countries are fully in line

**Vegetable oil and soap works in Koulikoro (Mali) built with German assistance worth DM 22 million which particularly benefits local housewives**



with our own market economy ideas. Both UNCTAD IV and the CIEC showed that interest in progress on the trade liberalization front is mutual. Differences do exist, however, on the pace of liberalization. The developing countries want unrestricted market access to be introduced without delay, while we are increasingly faced with the problem of adapting the pace of liberalization to the capacity of our own industry and that of our partners in the Community. I feel it is important to say this quite openly to the developing countries. This does not mean that we will not open our markets any further but in specific sectors limits to market access are becoming apparent. The developing countries must be made aware of this if they are to plan their investment programmes sensibly and avoid misguided investment operations.

► How do you rate the way the Lomé Convention is functioning at present?

— The Lomé Convention still has a long way to run. We are only about halfway and you will therefore understand that I cannot attempt to evaluate the Convention comprehensively and conclusively.

One point that can be made, however, is that even before it was signed, the Lomé Convention achieved one result that can hardly be overestimated. States separated by all sorts of barriers as a result of past colonization came together for the long negotiations and developed a stronger feeling of solidarity—a very positive result both in itself and from the viewpoint of development. I wonder, for example, whether the Economic Community of West African States would have been established so soon without Lomé.

Today the Lomé Convention stands for relations on a basis of partnership



This plywood and furniture factory in Ethiopia opened in 1968 under German technical supervision

which have to a great extent been freed from historical complexes. Lomé is rightly taken today as a synonym for positive and constructive partnership between developing and industrialized countries. I would welcome it if this example were increasingly followed in the international conferences convened to redefine relations between North and South.

And now a word about the instruments of cooperation provided for under the Lomé Convention. The non-reciprocal trade preferences, which were implemented ahead of schedule, have already had a favourable effect on the ACP states exports to the Community, although the extent of the benefits is not the same in every case.

The fact that there have not yet been any spectacular successes in this area is of course partly a consequence of the depressed world economic situation. Despite certain problems in the application of the Stabex system, this instrument seems to be proving its worth.

Technical and financial cooperation began soon after the aid had been programmed. A good 25% of the funds has now been committed. Unfortunately, invitations to tender are lagging a bit behind. I hope that good regional projects will also come up for appraisal and approval soon, these being projects to which I attach very special importance.

Industrial cooperation, on which the ACP states pin high hopes, requires a long running-in period. Now that the institutional framework has been established, I hope that the first tangible results will soon be obtained.



## Anything new in Lomé II?

► What scope for improvement does the Federal Republic of Germany see in a second Lomé Convention?

— Here too it is still too early to make any detailed comments. This immediately raises the question of whether there will be a Lomé II. I personally think there will and, in view of the way things are developing, would argue in favour of a new Convention. But this is a political decision which depends on all the ACP and Community countries.

Supposing there was a second Lomé Convention, I do not think it would make any spectacular innovations. The present Convention is functioning satisfactorily. The instruments are well-balanced and thus point the way to the future. I assume that our ACP partners will lay additional desiderata on the table and we will examine and assess them. What ultimately comes of them will be the result of fair negotiations. I would see a second Convention as a continuation of Lomé I in the light of the international situation and the experience gained from Lomé I. Perhaps a new Convention should take greater account than has been the case to date of the particular requirements and specific development level of each of the partner states, and there should perhaps also be an effort to achieve greater political partnership and cooperation together. In this context, I would particularly welcome an ever greater effort to promote regional cooperation between ACP states.

## **The coordination and harmonization of development aid: “a subject on which my government feels very strongly”**

► Do you see practical opportunities here for close cooperation between the EEC countries in the field of development aid?

— This question deals with a subject on which, as you know, my government feels very strongly. The coordination and harmonization of development aid, particularly within the Community, is for us by no means an end in itself. For us it is much more a matter of using the limited resources of development aid as effectively as possible in the interests of the developing countries. We are firmly convinced that this can only be achieved if there is agreement on objectives and instruments and on individual programmes and projects. As I see it, another important task facing the Community is to coordinate policies towards the developing countries—for example, trade and structural policy and development policy.

First of all, however, we—the donors—should agree on the meaning and purpose of development cooperation. As I see matters, the growing material gap between rich and poor, between North and South, is one of the greatest challenges of our time. The only possible answer is a policy of cooperation with the objective of reducing these differences in the interests of our weaker partners and thus, of course, in our own interests as well. If we could agree on this elementary principle, agreement on the ways and means of such a cooperation policy should follow quickly. I regret that we have not yet made much progress in this field. I am somewhat disappointed at the failure to take advantage of the programming of aid to the ACP states to carry out more joint Community projects in those countries.

In 1976 the Federal Government issued a memorandum on coordination and harmonization and it will continue to follow this subject attentively.

My ultimate objective is for outline planning of development aid to be carried out jointly by the Community member states plus the Commission.

### **Stabex: “our original misgivings have faded”**

► The Federal Republic of Germany has always expressed some reservations with regard to the application of the Stabex system set up under the Lomé Convention. How in the view of the Federal Government would it be possible to ensure that the ACP countries receive a fair income from their

raw materials exports when they have no influence on the trend of prices on the international market?

— I feel that there is a misunderstanding here. The reason the Federal Government was somewhat sceptical about Stabex at the time of the Lomé negotiations was because this was an innovation which still had to be tested, and our government felt that the system should not be too large-scale to start with. The extent to which our original misgivings have faded is shown by the fact that we now see export earnings stabilization as an instrument of raw materials policy that can be applied worldwide, and in fact we proposed at the CIEC that the possibility of such a system should be examined. In any such examination the Stabex system and the experience obtained with it will carry much weight.

Nevertheless, we are monitoring closely the application of the system. It has become apparent that certain problems and controversies have arisen in the interpretation of the relevant provisions. At the same time I feel that Stabex as a system can be a decisive help for raw-materials-producing and exporting developing countries without dislocating the market mechanisms.

► You are the fifth Federal Minister for Economic Cooperation and the first woman to be given this position. As a woman, do you place special emphasis on the role of women in the society and development of the poor countries?

— At the moment my Ministry is drawing up a position paper on the subject of upgrading the role of women in developing countries. In his most recent speech, given in Massachusetts, World Bank President McNamara described the key role of women in achieving moderate population growth. I was pleased to have my view confirmed from that quarter.

The position paper will put forward measures to promote the role of women in the developing countries and to involve women into all development aid schemes, such as rural development programmes, technology adapted to rural requirements, nutrition, health, family planning, and training and further training. I believe that improving the status of women will have population effects similar to those we have experienced in our own society. Of course we will only be able to cooperate in this field with those countries which have similar ideas. I hope that German women's organizations will cooperate with their counterparts in the developing countries.

► In your career before you became Minister, you were particularly concerned with certain social matters in Germany. What importance do you

attribute to the social problems of economic cooperation with the developing countries?

— The development process brings many social problems in its train which were not unknown to our society during the industrial revolution—for example, rural depopulation and population increase—but there are also questions with which we are less familiar, such as the sharp division between the traditional and modern ways of life. Here we can only offer the developing countries our own models as possible solutions. We can give them our support but, as with other issues, they must find their own solutions to their social problems.

### **“How to do away with the global contradiction between rich and poor”**

I do not consider that we have yet solved the social problems in the industrialized countries, and we have not yet managed to bring about a fair distribution of the opportunities and possibilities in our own society. We have divided up our prosperity amongst ourselves—but we have done so without taking into consideration those who also played a part in its creation.

The international problem of the moment is how to do away with the global contradiction between rich and poor. I think that the North-South conflict and the new economic order will be the crucial social issue of the next 25 years.

► What conclusions have you come to after almost a year as Minister and what do you hope to achieve during your period of office?

— It seems to me that there is insufficient awareness in the Federal Republic of our dependence on the developing countries and of the attitude we are expected to show and the action required of us here. It is clear that it is nowhere more necessary than in Germany to firmly establish development policy as a matter of crucial importance in the minds of the sections of society that carry weight. For me, it will be less a question of introducing new ways of thinking and new theoretical concepts than of what needs to be made politically possible out of a sense of responsibility for our own country and its dependence on the developing countries. I hope during my period of office to see UNCTAD V achieve positive results, to offer the developing countries a differentiated concept of economic cooperation geared to their particular problems, to do what I can to help satisfy their basic requirements, to promote the role of women and to make German workers see that their future is inextricably bound up with the developing countries. □

## The Seychelles

### Interview with President France-Albert René(\*)

The Seychelles became independent on 28 June 1976 and are party to the Lomé Convention. The "Courier" no. 39 (September-October '76) carried an article on the islands and in this interview the new President, Albert René, outlines the Seychelles' priorities—low-cost housing, fisheries and tourism—and underlines the importance of regional cooperation.

A particular concern in future will be to develop the outlying islands, hundreds of miles from the main island, Mahé.

► Independence came on 28 June 1976, and a year later, both President and government changed. Does this mean that the 1977-81 development plan has been altered too?

— I don't think so. I think the development plan is unchanged, although of course the priorities are different. For example, we have made low-cost housing our number one priority now and we have asked the EEC to help us here. We hope the aid will be quick in coming, since we feel that this is the top-priority sector for the Seychelles.

► The Seychelles occupy a special position in the ACP group. Your country is a geographical, cultural and linguistic crossroads and its importance is therefore greater than its size and population alone would make it. But there are considerable problems facing your economic development. Copra is the main export, together with some cinnamon, but that's about it. What are

you hoping to do in the future, boost your copra sales or diversify exports?

— This touches on our second priority, which is the development of agriculture and fisheries. We feel we cannot go on having an economy based on coconuts and the time has come to diversify, particularly so we can produce more food, fruit, vegetables and so on, so we don't have to import them. We want to set up another export industry, fisheries. We expect fish exports to outstrip copra or cinnamon exports in the near future. And thirdly, we have a tourist trade that we want to keep up and this is forcing us to produce a lot more food than we have been doing.

► The Seychelles already consume a good deal of fish, about 60 kg per person per year. Do you really feel that production can be increased and that it might be possible to develop certain fishery-linked industries?

— Yes, but a lot depends on developing commercial fisheries. So far fishing is still mostly traditional. This has covered almost all our needs, but I feel we should now be expanding our production of tuna and bonito for example, for export. Later on our output will be quite considerable and we will be able to think about industries such as fish-canning or the production of fish-meal or animal feed. We are seriously contemplating things like this. And we



President France-Albert René

also think that, particularly in these far-off islands of ours, it would be extremely useful if we could produce maize for the animals.

► There was an international conference on the law of the sea in June and many countries have now incorporated the idea of a 200-mile exclusive zone into their national laws. This is an important problem for the Seychelles, which have a vast area of sea. Have you already acted or do you plan to act on this?

— We took action on 1 August of this year when we adopted the 200-mile limit.

► The tourist trade is obviously a major resource and one which lends itself to development, particularly in a country as beautiful as yours. But there is the reverse side of the coin. Of course it brings in foreign currency and helps create jobs, but there are drawbacks and it can interfere with the natural surroundings or even the inhabitants if it does not pay proper respect to their way of life and their customs. What is your policy as far as the future of the tourist trade is concerned?

— The tourist trade is being developed under strict supervision. For a start, in future we shall only have hotels in certain specific places. We don't want to go on letting people build just anywhere. We have a plan under way

(\*) Albert René was born into a Catholic family of French origin in 1936. After attending secondary school in the Seychelles and Switzerland, he studied law at the University of London and then set up as a lawyer in Victoria. In June 1964, he founded the General Workers' Union, the country's first trade union, and the Seychelles People's United Party, which went on to take 48% of the votes in the 1967 elections. At a constitutional conference in 1970, Albert René called for the Seychelles to become independent. In June 1975, he became Minister of Public Works in the coalition government and, on June 29 1976, when independence was proclaimed, he became Prime Minister. He has been President of the Seychelles since 5 June 1977.

which will show exactly what hotel we want built where in what year. And we have also set an upper limit—about 4000—on the number of extra tourists we can welcome to the Seychelles every year. Thirdly, we want the tourist trade to spread to the other islands and not stay too concentrated in the main island. Fourthly, we are trying to get the tourists to discover the country and its culture for themselves without handing it to them on a plate. What I mean is that over the last few years, the trend has been to ask our dancers and singers to leave their own surroundings and put on shows in hotels. We want to change this. Now the idea is to leave the tourist, if he feels so inclined, to go into the villages to see how the people dance, how they sing and how they live. We want to stop our culture from becoming commercialized for the tourist. In other words, we are far more concerned with preserving our culture and the beauty of our country and preventing the tourist from taking over in the Seychelles, if you see what I mean. At the same time, we think this is the only way of keeping the kind of tourist trade that is going to last, because tourists won't come to look at concrete boxes. For example, we have decided that there will be no more

Mahé Beaches and that what we want are more hotels along the lines of Fisherman's Cove(1).

► You raised an interesting point in connection with tourism—and one, I think, that is a recurrent theme in your country's economic and social development, that is to say the need to think not of the development of Mahé alone but of the other islands as well, since the Seychelles consist of almost 90 islands. I think that the harmonious development of the various parts of your territory is one of your main concerns.

— Certainly. We want to develop our islands at all costs. We have done nothing so far. We have the loveliest islands and some of them, particularly those 300 or 400 kilometres away, are extremely good propositions and we have done nothing about them. We have no communications, no-one wants to go there, but we think the population should spread out and settle on these islands.

(1) Both recently built hotels, but very different as far as size and architecture are concerned. Fisherman's Cove is well adapted to the countryside and fits in with the environment and the natural surroundings.

► Wasn't there also a population problem in that most people were attracted to Mahé, the most developed of the islands?

— We still have this problem and we want to change the way the population is moving.

► I should like to ask a question that has more to do with the Lomé Convention. At the end of May a programming mission, led by Mr Hauswirth (2), came out. An indicative programme has been drawn up giving top priority to housing, with 61% of the total, followed by rural infrastructure (roads, water supplies and the development of small markets), the development of a meteorological station at the airport and the possibility of taking part in starting up a future development bank primarily to help craftsmen. Have there been any changes to the indicative programme?

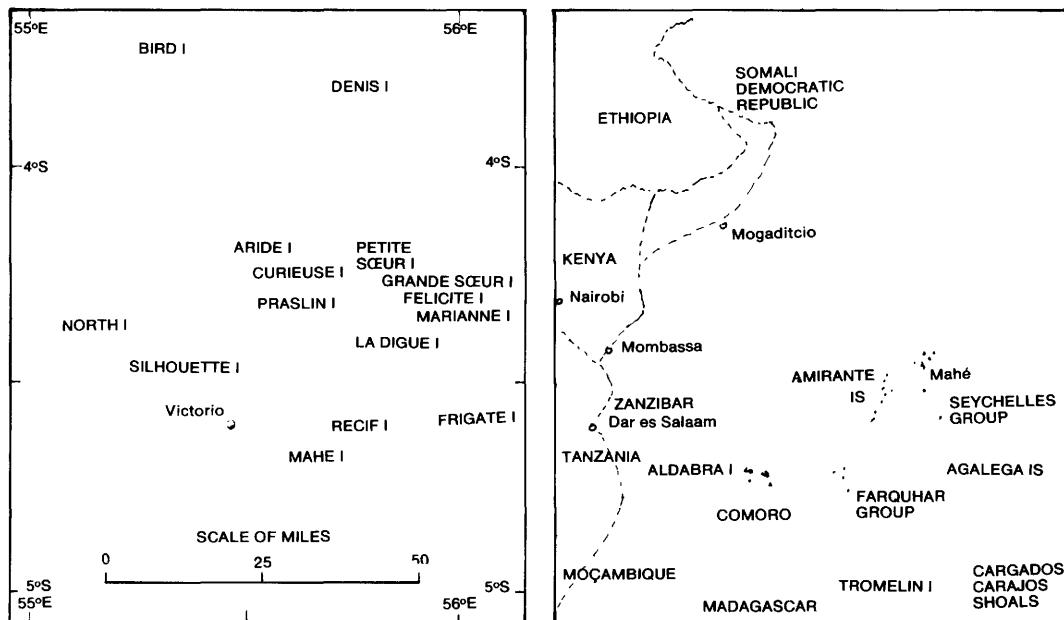
— None. On the contrary, as I have already mentioned, the question of low-cost housing has become our number one priority. We expect a lot from the Lomé Convention and I hope that we can get under way as soon as possible.

(2) Deputy director-general for development at the EEC Commission.

## THE SEYCHELLES

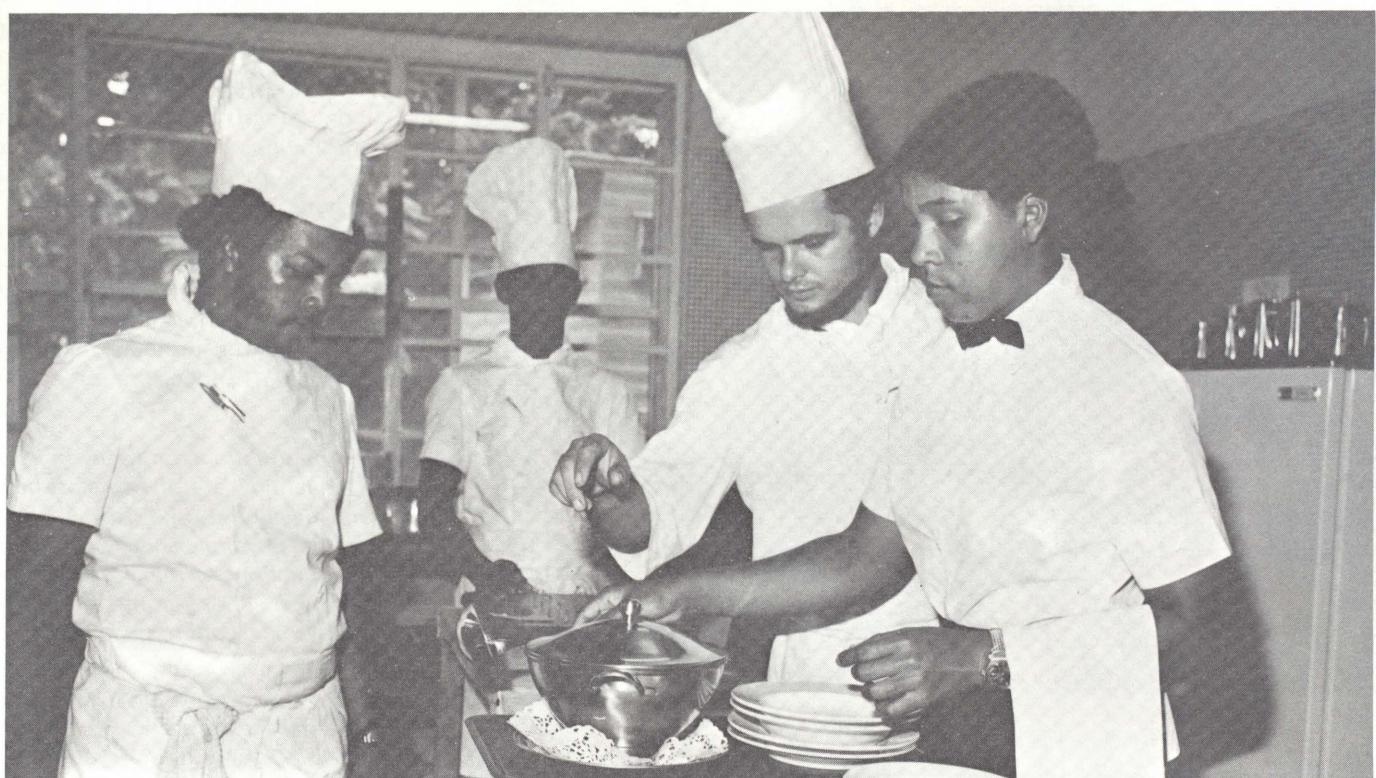
The 89 islands in the Indian Ocean which form the Seychelles Archipelago have a total area of 278 km<sup>2</sup>. There are 60 000 inhabitants in all, 45 000 of them on Mahé, the main island where Victoria, the capital, is situated. Mahé is about 1 000 km from Madagascar, 1 600 km from the Kenya coast and 1 600 km from Mauritius.

The islands, with their healthy tropical climate, are extremely beautiful. There are no mosquitos or dangerous animals. The beaches are magnificent and the people welcoming. The official languages are English and French, although a French-based creole is the commonest language. These isolated islands have few resources and



The Seychelles Islands and their position off the East African Coast

distance makes rising freight costs a particular problem. No mineral resources have so far come to light, although fishing could be developed and the tourist trade is particularly promising, having brought in 1 600 visitors in 1970, 36 000 in 1976 and 41 000 in the first half of 1977.



**Top to bottom:** Catering school — tourism is the second biggest source of income in the Seychelles; a hotel built to match its surroundings; there is a rich variety of bird life; fishing and farming, the other main economic activities



A Seychelles beach

► I think that assessment is quite well advanced now. Mr Chiarini(1) was telling me that the financing proposals were already well advanced.

— Chiarini: I should add that both the EEC and the Seychelles have still to add the final touches. We have the main lines of the project but one or two details are missing—the acquisition of the land has not been completely settled yet and a number of areas are not quite ready. We hope that actual building can begin early next year.

► Other aspects of the Lomé Convention must be of interest for the Seychelles. Copra, for example, might one day qualify for Stabex payments. And then there is regional cooperation with other Indian Ocean countries like the Comoros or Mauritius. How do you feel about this?

— We are very much in favour. We are already in contact with the Comoros about certain projects—we have a project for direct communication between our airports, which will be very important. But as far as we are concerned, this is something new. We are not really aware what the possibilities are and other countries, like Mauritius, have done nothing about it. And I understand that projects under this heading should be submitted by the end of this year.

Chiarini: The most urgent thing is for all three countries to clearly show their willingness to cooperate. This would save time in Brussels and complete a list from which only the Indian Ocean is missing. A great number of requests have been made and there is no time to lose. I contacted Mauritius's Minister of Planning before coming here and he has received documents from your Department of Economic Affairs. They are now being studied, but your High Commission in London could already be giving its support to the Mauritian Ambassador in Brussels in this respect. All three countries concerned must sign a paper and submit it to us.

► Doesn't the Lomé Convention also give you the opportunity to carry out micro-projects?

— Yes it does. I think we did go into this at one stage, but there were not many possibilities at the time. However, I think it is interesting to see that there is local participation in micro-projets. In the past, the government was not keen on involving the people, but now you have noticed that there is a lot that could be done on these lines in the villages as regards projects involving roads, water supplies and social centres.

► The negotiations on renewing the Lomé Convention are due to start next year and I should like to ask you whether the Seychelles have any particular suggestions to make or whether they feel there are any points on which the present text ought to be improved?

— I can't give you an immediate answer because we haven't gone into the problem. To be frank, we haven't had time to do so, although I think you will see the Seychelles taking an active part and making a useful contribution to the negotiations.

► How do you see the future of economic and cultural relations between Europe and the Seychelles and between Europe and the Indian Ocean in general?

— In my view, we in the Indian Ocean shall have more links, and stronger links, with Europe and I feel that, as far as the Seychelles themselves are concerned, Europe and European culture are very close to us and will get closer still. □

Interview by A.L.



Left to right: Messrs F.-A. René, D. Chiarini and A. Lacroix

(1) Technical adviser to the Commission delegate, Mr Schmidt.

# Moyenne — ghosts and buccaneers on a tropical island paradise

Moyenne, in the heart of the Seychelles Marine National Park, is probably the loveliest of the chain of islands round Victoria Harbour. And it is certainly the most authentic, offering the same luxuriant tropical welcome to visitors today as it did to buccaneers years ago.

In fact, until 200 years ago, pirates were the only people to have set foot on Moyenne and, since then, only four owners have lived on the island.

The present owner, Brendan Grimshaw, who likes nothing better than to show you round Moyenne and recount its fascinating history, can tell of ghosts he has met on the island, although he has been unable to unearth the legendary pirate treasure worth £ 30 million.

The tiny cemetery, with its two tombs, only one of which has a vault, is mentioned in the oldest documents about the island and dates back to 1892. Who is buried there remains a mystery. But the tombs are said to be the resting place of pirates and the coral cove below the cemetery is positive proof that treasure-hunters have done some serious digging here in the past.

About 10 years ago, a girl from Mahé dreamed she saw the tomb and a mango tree with the treasure buried beside it. She had never been to Moyenne and her dream was not taken seriously, as the wife of the island's owner could not remember having seen a mango tree in the cemetery. However, when she came home, she found that there was one. Then, during the heavy rainfall in late 1974, a small patch of cement, as old as the tombs themselves, came to

light as the earth was washed away in the exact spot the girl claimed to have seen the treasure. The present owner dug down to see what he could find, but abandoned his search when two coconuts fell beside him the very instant his spade hit the cement. So the treasure, if treasure it is, and the little square of cement are still there. A strange, exciting, but true story of Moyenne. And a surprising thing is that an ore-diviner visiting the island said that the cemetery and another old tomb were the two places where gold was hidden.

The island is full of ghost stories and the present owner was just as sceptical as most of the visitors until he met some personally. He can tell of doors and windows that slam, of beds that shake and of the noise of someone limping backwards and forwards between the cemetery and the old creole villa, usually around midnight, but, on rare occasions, at noon. He can also tell of a voice urging him to go to the coral cove at 4 o'clock the following afternoon when a turtle would emerge from the sea and lay its eggs. Perhaps his belief in ghosts began when he saw the turtle come out of the sea at 4 o'clock on the dot!

Yes, Moyenne has both natural and supernatural charms for the visitor.

The main path round the island runs by two old ruined houses. One of them, known as the house of dogs, was built by a former owner, a Miss Emma Wardlow Best, for strays she brought back from Mahé to a good home on Moyenne. The house of dogs and the many little rainwater basins dug for the happy inmates from 1899 to 1944,

But for more than a decade it has been acknowledged that hammering out an operable international treaty on the law of the sea is a Herculean task. This UN effort has turned into something of a poker game, with the United States holding the one important card—the Americans are almost alone in being able to afford to mine the sea bed. And US industry is pressing for that card to be played.

Other law of the sea issues—the right of passage, pollution, the special interests of landlocked States, etc.—affect rich and poor countries variously, but in the question of mining the sea bed,

when Miss Best died, leaving the island to two friends, on condition that nothing, not even a rat, was killed there. The other ruined house was once occupied by the oldest recorded owner, Melidor Louange, who married the 16-year old Julie Chiffon in 1850 when he was 17. He was a carpenter and she was a seamstress. There is no trace of their relations, but somebody left them Moyenne and they lived there for 42 years before they sold it, in 1892, to Alfred d'Emmerez de Chamoy for 501 rupees, a princely sum in those days. Alfred was known to light his cigars with 10-rupee notes!

Over the last two years, clear paths have been laid across the island so that visitors can see all it has to offer—its sandy beaches, its coral coves, shady cedar forest, deep caves, giant granite rocks and a variety of luxuriant tropical vegetation everywhere.

An old creole villa has been completely refurnished and the cool veranda is an ideal place for visitors to enjoy the Jolly Roger Bar, when they can refresh themselves with ice-cold beer or fresh coconut milk. A modern hospitality, Maison Moyenne, with a magnificent view of the mountains of Mahé beyond the waters of the National Park, offers guests the dual advantage of a virgin paradise isle and all the facilities of Victoria, the capital, only 3 1/2 miles away, a mere 20-minute trip across the bay.

Moyenne is, as its name suggests, the middle island, between St Anne and Round and Long Islands. It has good beaches at both low and high tide and 150 species of fish can be found in the shelter of its reefs.

From the highest point, visitors can admire a peerless view of Mahé and the surrounding isles and islets. And a hour or two spent strolling along Moyenne's paths is the ideal way to relax and discover the Seychelles' true way of life.

the US stands alone. One proposal at the conference was that private companies would be able to exploit the sea under a "parallel" system whereby a company would designate two sites to an international authority which would then put one of the sites into a "bank". This initially well-received idea has now run into opposition, to the disappointment of the Americans.

The Seychelles, along with the other developing countries, are watching the next moves with keen interest. It is a classic case of balancing everyone's right to share in "the common heritage of mankind" against dog-in-the-manger possessiveness. □

## The gamble for sea-bed wealth

The Seychelles' 100-odd islands may not add up to much of a land area, but they cover a vast area of sea. The riches of the sea are not only to be found in it but also on the bottom, in the form of "nodules" of minerals. The decisions taken on sea-bed minerals by the UN Law of the Sea conference are clearly of great interest to the Seychelles.

## BOTSWANA

**"It takes more than the signing of treaties to change people's attitudes and obviously cooperation between what some people called an inward-looking Community and the developing nations of the ACP group will take time to develop to our mutual satisfaction"**

### Sir Seretse Khama, President of Botswana

Botswana, one of the five land-locked ACP countries in southern Africa, is entirely surrounded by three minority white-ruled states (South Africa, Namibia and Rhodesia). Only in the north, at a point in the river Zambezi, does it have any physical contact with the nearest of its black-ruled neighbours, Zambia. A new road is being built to this point, with EEC help, to improve Botswana's communications since this, as President Khama explains in the following interview, is one of the country's major problems. Much of the country is desert, most of the population of 650000 living in the eastern strip along the line of its only railway, which runs from Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) down into South Africa. Botswana is developing its mineral resources, which are providing a growing share of national income, but the biggest foreign exchange earner is still beef and veal. As one of Africa's leading beef producers, the arrangements under the Lomé Convention for beef and veal exports to the EEC have been crucial for Botswana. The "Courier" asked Sir Seretse Khama, President of Botswana since independence in 1966, if he was satisfied with the present arrangements and what changes he would like to see under Lomé II.

► Botswana's main foreign exchange earner is still beef and veal and this has been a central issue in your country's relations with the EEC. Are you satisfied with the present arrangements with the Community for Botswana beef and what changes, if any, would you like to see?

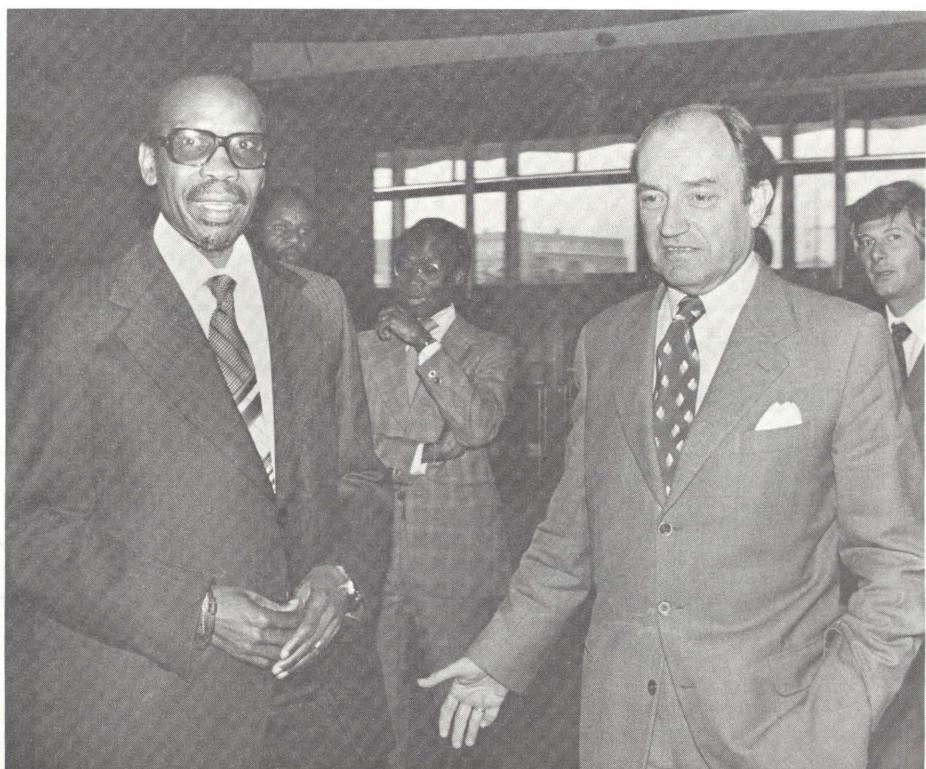
— We are very grateful that, since 1975, the EEC has been willing to give us and other ACP beef exporters the chance to export at remunerative prices the limited amounts of our high quality beef which the EEC agreed to include in the Lomé Convention. This said, we would much prefer the amounts to be greater, the 90% abatement of the levy to be permanent, and the licensing arrangement to be changed. At present, a licence can only be obtained by the 21st of a month for which it is valid; it would seem more sensible to be given the licence before the month for which it is valid and this would help us since we already have a three-week pipeline of meat due to our great distance from Community markets. The levy abatement has been

given three times for six-month periods and once for a year. Each time a lot of negotiation is involved, and we are never sure of the outcome. So we should like to have an agreement which covered a longer period—say till the end of Lomé I and then a new agreement to last the whole duration of Lomé II. This is technically quite feasible, since a percentage abatement takes care of absolute changes in the levy amounts. It is obviously politically more difficult, but I hope not impossible!

► Apart from the beef trade, what other areas of cooperation with the EEC are important to Botswana?

— Apart from the beef trade, Botswana receives aid from the EEC through its EDF. Under the aid agreement signed in 1976 the EEC will provide 19 million EUA for normal development programmes, particularly those affecting the rural areas. In addition, the EEC has since offered Botswana 10m EUA emergency aid to implement one of its life-line projects—the Botzam road. And 1m EUA for railway wagons. Food aid is also supplied by the EEC and 500 tonnes of grain are to be delivered this year.

► What is your general view of the way the Lomé Convention has worked



**Sir Seretse Khama at the European Commission in June 1977.**

until now, and assuming there is a Lomé II what changes or improvements would you like to see?

— I think that putting into practice the spirit and the letter of the Lomé Convention has met the same type of difficulties as putting into practice the aspirations of the Treaty of Rome itself. It takes more than the signing of treaties to change people's attitudes and obviously cooperation between what some people called an inward-looking Community and the developing nations of the ACP group will take time to develop to our mutual satisfaction. But I think something positive has been achieved and I think the chances are good that we will achieve more in a Lomé II. As to specific areas of improvement, I consider that, as one of the world's biggest trading groups, the EEC should lead the way in abolishing tariff and non-tariff barriers, especially as against developing nations.

► In what way do you see Community aid helping Botswana to overcome the problems created by its particular geographical position in southern Africa?

— By taking a more definite stand, as a Community, to bring about a solution to the Rhodesian problem. By further assistance towards Botswana's plan to take over and run the railway line. The 1m EUA emergency aid is indeed appreciated but the project has its long-term problems for which we will need external assistance.

By continued favourable response to our application for access to the European beef market.

► Turning to your government's priorities, agriculture provides most of the employment available in Botswana, and livestock the major share of national income. What are the government's plans in this area, particularly in view of the fact that over the last decade Botswana has moved from being self-sufficient in foodstuffs to being a net importer?

— I shall have to distinguish between the two main sides to our agriculture: livestock and arable cropping. The former provides the larger share of national income, but the latter provides the larger number of individual household incomes. Both sides therefore have equal priority.

The livestock side is the more fully developed. Over the last decade there has been much infrastructural development to provide marketing facilities

and services to the industry, and much progress in the quality and quantity of output. In the immediate future, we intend to concentrate on improving the management of the traditional herd, and on management of the rangeland that forms the foundation of the industry.

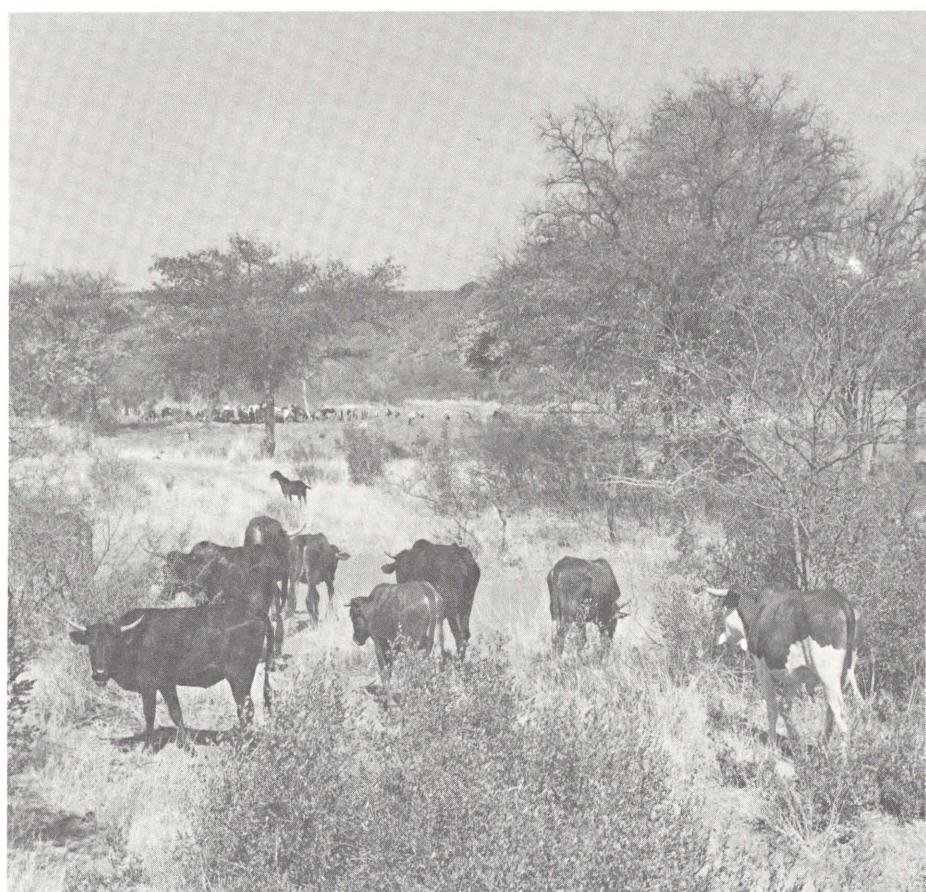
A major element in this is the recently launched "Tribal Grazing Land Policy" which represents a major change in land tenure and land utilization. Hitherto, most of the country's land has been communal grazing, theoretically available to all, although in the drier areas, individual ownership of borehole gave *de facto* control of large areas. It was in nobody's individual interest to manage communal rangeland so as to maintain it for the future, and our major resource was in danger of being destroyed. Under the new policy, owners of large herds will be encouraged to move them away from the heavily overgrazed areas near to settlements, and will be encouraged to obtain individual leases in areas that are still under-utilized, and to use improved management practices. Groups of small cattle-owners will be encouraged to set up group ranches in such areas.

Areas around settlements will remain communal, but again groups will be allowed to set up exclusive ranches, with the consent of the rest of the community. This will require a lot of assistance, particularly to the small-holder.

We are also aiming to improve our marketing system for livestock, both to assist farmers, particularly those in remote areas, and because rapid and efficient marketing is the best answer to our main problem—drought.

Also within the livestock sector, we shall pay particular attention to small stock—sheep and goats. These are a very important source of income and food to the smaller farmer, and a lot can be done to reduce mortality and increase offtake. The European Community is helping us prepare a project to assist this sector.

On the arable side, crop yields are presently very low and many of our farmers obtain inadequate and uncertain incomes. We believe, however, that there is a lot of untapped potential and that the time is now ripe to introduce improved farming systems that will raise yields, on a conservative estimate,



Beef is Botswana's main export

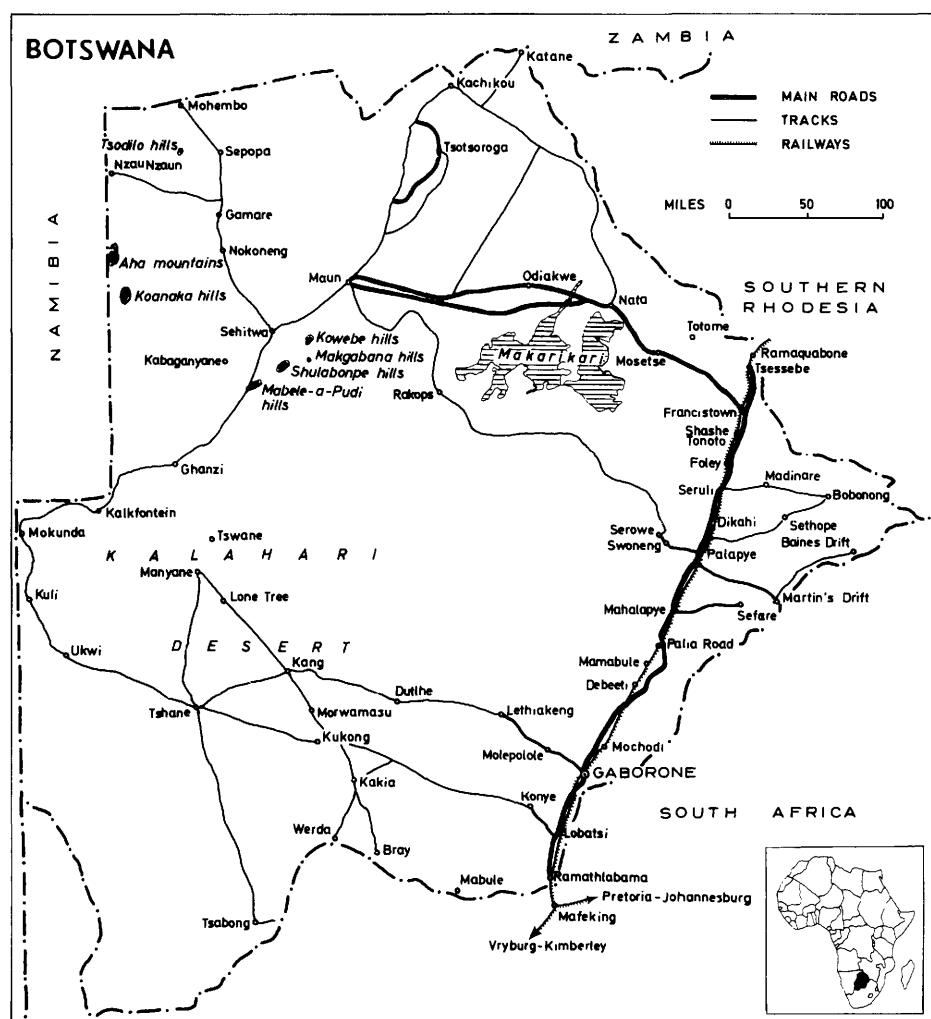
four to five times, as well as giving more security against crop failure. This will include, for example, soil and water conservation practices. The most common implement used in Botswana is the mouldboard plough, imported from South Africa where soil and rainfall conditions are different. Because this implement leads to great losses in soil moisture, we are developing minimum tillage implements, which have the added advantage that they require far less draught power. Improved systems are now being tested in the field and we hope to introduce them on a national scale from 1979/80.

In order to make arable agriculture more profitable and reliable, we shall also have to provide the same sort of infrastructural basis as has, over the years, been given to the livestock industry: research, extension advice, marketing facilities, credit, supply of agricultural input such as fertilizers and seeds. Most of this will be in the communal areas and will benefit the least prosperous section of the population. It will be expensive, and will need foreign aid, but we are convinced that it will be economically viable as well as socially necessary. In fact, we believe that we cannot only create more jobs and better incomes, but that we can even become a significant net exporter of food crops.

► Since 1971 diamond production has increasingly contributed to government income. How important is this new industry to Botswana and how do you expect it to develop?

— Since the commencement of production of diamonds at Orapa, diamond income has steadily increased its share of contribution to the national budget. Late last year a new but small mine, Lethakane, was opened near Orapa, further contributing to government revenue. The Orapa mine is being expanded so that by the end of 1979 diamond production at Orapa should double and government revenues from this mine should correspondingly increase. Diamond mining therefore has become a very important source of revenue. Prospecting for diamonds is continuing and we hope this will lead to further discoveries. At the moment the government is examining another prospect with a view to future mining. It is likely, therefore, that diamonds will contribute a substantial share of government revenue in the future.

► The other important mining industry is copper-nickel, which has



recently experienced some setbacks. What potential is there there?

— The copper-nickel project has suffered setbacks because of technical and financial problems including the fall in prices of copper and nickel. The mine's contribution to government revenues is thus not likely to be very significant. However, in terms of employment this project is very significant to the Botswana economy.

► A number of other minerals have been identified in Botswana in varying amounts. Is it possible to estimate what they in sum will mean for your country and how serious the financial and technical problems of exploitation will be?

— Because of the remote location of mineral deposits in Botswana, plus lack of infrastructure, only very high grade deposits can be commercially exploited. At present there are no commercial developments for other deposits, although exploration is active in a number of promising areas.

► With the development of a mining sector in a country which has extensive traditional agriculture, how will you

ensure that there is balanced development, particularly geographically and in terms of personal incomes and public services?

— Government policy is that revenues from the mining industry should be channelled to the development of the rural areas, the objectives being: to enhance incomes in that sector of the economy, to generate more employment opportunities in those areas and hence, to improve the standard of living there.

To the extent that the country's planning and implementation of development programmes is decentralized through local authorities, and resources are allocated to reflect demands in respective areas, this helps achieve geographically balanced development.

The provision of public services in a country as large as Botswana is indeed a problem. We are working towards the provision of basic services in health, education, water supply and communication facilities, and EDF aid is involved here in providing the infrastructure to enable local authorities to implement the programmes.

► As a landlocked country you are to a degree dependent on communications which pass through other states, particularly South Africa. How serious a constraint on your country's development is this?

— We, like all landlocked countries, suffer from not having control over our vital transport routes. All we can do in this inescapable situation is to try to develop as many transport options as possible in as many different directions as possible. It also places a high premium on the maintenance of friendly relations with one's neighbours, through whose territories our people and goods must pass, and this, as you will appreciate, is a particularly difficult problem for Botswana at the present time. Our development is currently being constrained by our need to spend scarce resources on contingency plans to cope with transport disruptions which are neither under our control nor of our own making.

► Botswana has also formed part of the economy of southern Africa in the form of the Southern African Customs Union but you have been moving out of the Rand currency zone with the creation of a new currency, the Pula. Why have you taken this step and how far can you realistically go in separating yourself from the historical ties you have with South Africa?

— We set up our own central bank and introduced our own currency, the Pula, to gain an increased measure of control over our own economic affairs. But as a small economy bordered by a powerful one we cannot become completely independent. We are linked to South Africa's peoples by ties of kinship and to her economy by trade. We hope, when her political policies change for the better, these links will be fruitful rather than pose a danger to our own development, as they do to some extent at present.

► Regional cooperation is now becoming a popular development theme and the Lomé Convention supports such policies, but how with its special geographical position can Botswana benefit from such cooperation?

— We need to develop alternative transport outlets to the sea. This need provides an opportunity for the EEC to support such regional transport projects; unfortunately for us, the minority basis of the governments in some of our neighbours (which we deplore as much as the EEC) apparently precludes

EEC financing. I would like the EEC to develop a more sophisticated view of this question, and arrive at some way of assisting Botswana to bear more easily the hardships which we suffer from our geographical situation.

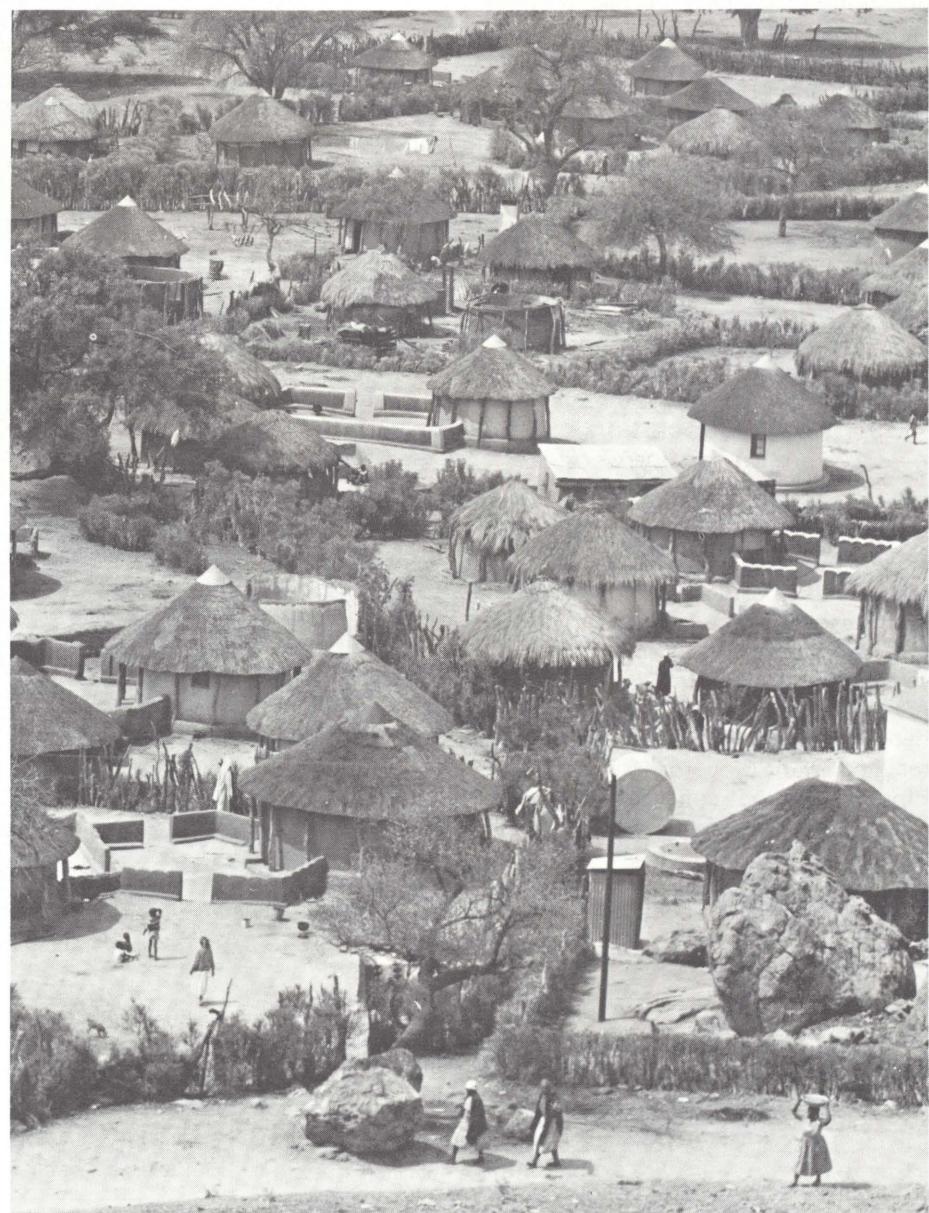
► Finally, if we could turn to a wider question, after the North-South dialogue in Paris you attended the Commonwealth Conference in London, which discussed policies for creating a new international economic order. How do you regard the progress of the various multilateral discussions that have gone on so far, and which areas of change in the international order do you think are most vital to achieve?

— There is a movement, albeit tentative, forward. The political will has been generated which now must be

translated into concrete action and into measures for practical reform.

Two areas stand out. Firstly the need to stabilize the prices of primary commodities for the developing nations at a level which enables the building up of resources in these nations. Only then will we be able to purchase the industrial goods and achieve economic take-off, and sustain development. Secondly there is trade.

The developing countries are calling for nothing more than a decision on economic activity on the basis of comparative advantage. We appreciate that the process of adjustment could be long and painful. That is why we support the current dialogue and education, because we believe the road to a new order must be more psychological than economic.



Serowe, Sir Seretse's home town

## DJIBOUTI

### Africa's newest state

The French Territory of the Afars and Issas, the last remaining French colony on the African continent, became the independent Republic of Djibouti on 27 June 1977(1). One of its first acts was to send a request to the ACP-EEC Council of Ministers for membership of the Lomé Convention. The request was favourably received by the EEC Council of Ministers, meeting at the end of July, and studies are now under way on the question of Djibouti's admission to the ACP group. In the meantime the benefits enjoyed by Djibouti as an OCT will be maintained for one year, and could be extended if the new state has not become a full signatory of the Lomé Convention by then. The EEC Council of Ministers will also support Djibouti's request for observer status in ACP-EEC institutions during the transition period. Assuming negotiations go as expected, Djibouti will become the 53rd member of the ACP group.

#### Long association with France

The French presence in Djibouti dates from 1862 when a treaty was signed with local leaders of the Obock region in the northern part of the country. The capital was not moved to the town of Djibouti itself for another 30 years, after further treaties with both Afar and Issa leaders. Once the capital had moved, however, agreement was reached with Emperor Menelik II of Ethiopia on the construction of the Addis Ababa-Djibouti railway which

was to become, with the port of Djibouti, the economic mainstay of the territory. The railway took 20 years to build and was finished in 1917. In 1946, the French Somali Coast, as it was then known, became a French overseas territory, which it remained until independence this year.

#### A desert enclave

The new republic of Djibouti is a small enclave of some 23000 km<sup>2</sup> between Somalia and Ethiopia with a coastline in the Gulf of Aden, where it joins the Red Sea. Most of the country is arid steppe inhabited by nomadic herdsmen who scrape a living from the inhospitable land. Of the population of almost a quarter of a million, about 160000 live in the town of Djibouti. The people themselves fall into two main

groups, the Afar in the north, and the Somali-speaking Issa in the south. There are also some 10000 Europeans and a similar number of Arabs. The population growth rate of 2.5% a year is high.

#### Few resources

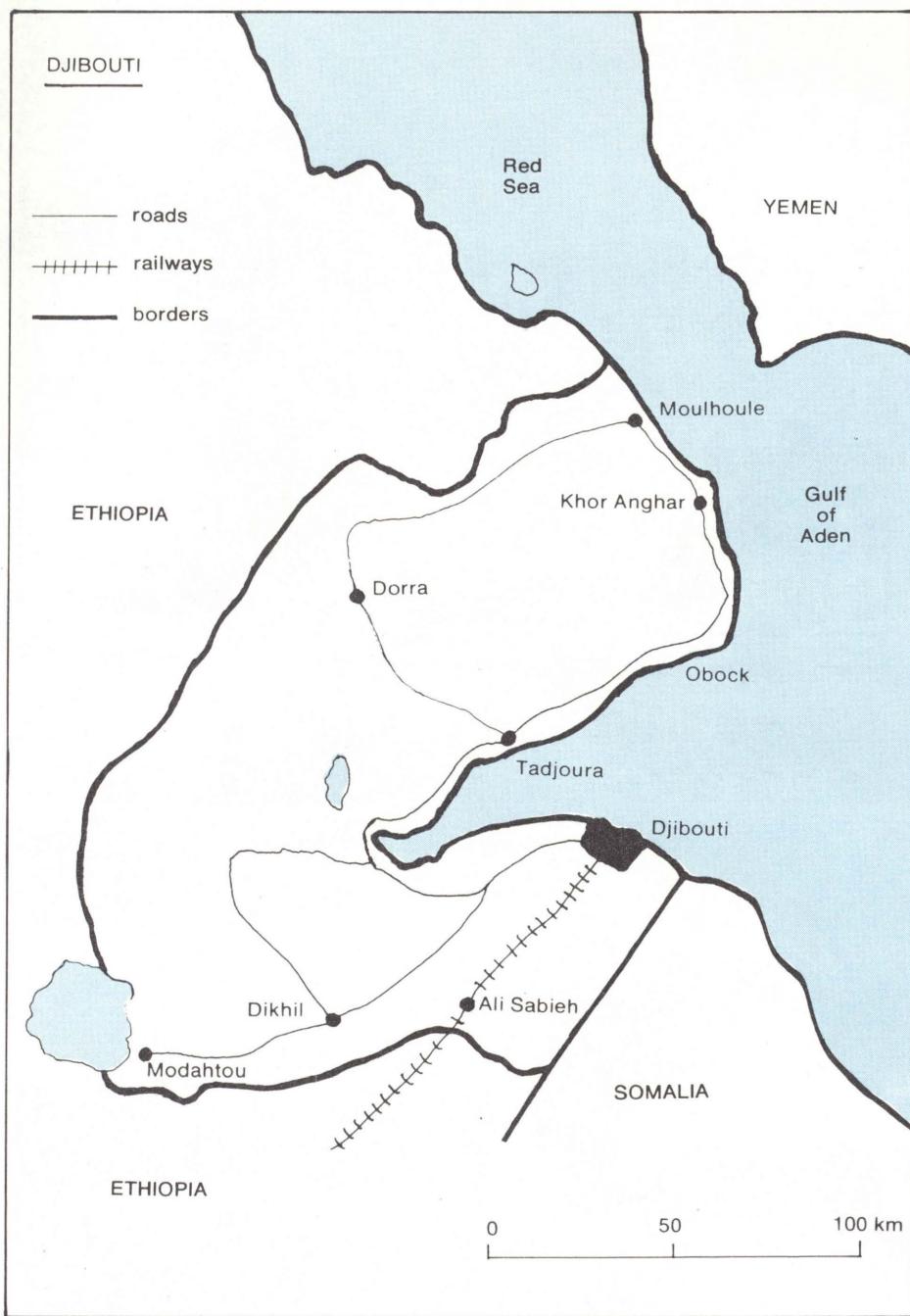
Agriculture in Djibouti is practically non-existent. A few market gardens on the outskirts of the capital provide some of the food needed by the population, and some small-scale date plantations have been started. Apart from this the majority of the rural population depends on the herds of camels, sheep, cattle and goats. There are an estimated 350000 head of sheep, 250000 head of goats, 20000 head of camels and some 10000 head of cattle. Animal skins and live animals represent the main exports of Djibouti, but the level of exports is insufficient to offset the imports of the territory, leaving it in heavy deficit. Djibouti's main imports are food, drink and agricultural products. In 1976 12.2% of the total tonnage imported was rice.



Congestion in the port of Djibouti

EEC-Djibouti trade in 1975 ('000 EUA)

|             | EEC total | France | UK    | Netherlands | Germany | Italy | Bel./Lux. | Denmark | Ireland |
|-------------|-----------|--------|-------|-------------|---------|-------|-----------|---------|---------|
| Imports     | 6 598     | 3 866  | 2 234 | 30          | 100     | 368   | —         | —       | —       |
| Exports     | 39 629    | 28 482 | 6 614 | 1 580       | 880     | 813   | 860       | 300     | —       |
| Total trade | 46 227    | 32 348 | 8 848 | 1 610       | 980     | 1 181 | 860       | 300     | —       |



### Trade imbalance

In 1957 Djibouti's exports were worth 2639 million Djibouti francs (approximately 13.2 million EUA) while imports, as opposed to transit goods for Ethiopia and Somalia, were worth 24166 million DF or some 121 million EUA. Most of Djibouti's trade is with France, followed by the other member countries of the EEC, Ethiopia and Japan. The

table opposite gives a breakdown of trade between the European Community and Djibouti in 1975.

The tonnage passing through the port of Djibouti for Ethiopia is greater than Djibouti's own imports, although the present troubles in Ethiopia will no doubt distort the figures for 1977. In 1976 the tonnage passing through the port reached a total of 279915 t of

which 165111 t was in transit for Ethiopia, 53 t for Somalia and 114751 t for Djibouti itself. This indicates the importance of the transit trade for the viability of the port.

### Central role of the port

Economic activity in Djibouti is concentrated in the capital and for the most part depends on the traffic of the port. The port is modern, with some 2700 metres of quays and moorings, 45000 m<sup>2</sup> of public and private stores, 70000 m<sup>2</sup> of open storage and a free port zone of almost 14 hectares. The port authorities employ 450 people and there are some 1000 dockers.

In the last decade the fortunes of the port have been affected by events in the region beyond the control of the local authorities, in particular the closure of the Suez Canal between 1967 and 1975. Some 1600 fewer merchant ships used the port each month as a result of the closure. The table below gives an idea of the effect of the closure.

The reopening of the Suez Canal in 1975 did not immediately restore the refueling and repairing role of Djibouti port to its pre-1967 importance. This was partly due to competition from other ports such as Jeddah and Assab, although the decline of Aden across the straits offset the impact on Djibouti to some extent.

The port at Djibouti is served by the railway to Addis Ababa, finished in 1917, and a new international road, also to the Ethiopian capital, which was completed in March this year. The rail link is vital as an outlet for Ethiopia as well as for the economy of Djibouti, and until the present troubles had seen a constant growth in its traffic each year. The freight tonnage carried between 1971 and 1976 rose by 18% and the number of passengers by 113%. The new road was built to increase Djibouti's transit traffic and it is not expected that it will adversely affect the level of rail traffic under normal conditions.

The presence of the port, the road and rail links, and the large expatriate community in Djibouti has led to the growth of an important service sector which represents 80% of the GDP. The public sector represents 40% of GDP.

### Water problems

Djibouti is a dry country and there is a continual need to find new water

|   | 1966    | 1972    | 1975    | 1976    |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Number of merchant ships using the port (monthly average) | 2 959   | 1 046   | 1 230   | 1 773   |
| Net tonnage of ships (million t)                          | 14.1    | 5.5     | 5.9     | 9.6     |
| Dry merchandise handled (tonnes)                          | 342 565 | 321 278 | 464 600 | 641 000 |

supplies. The economy of the country cannot survive without adequate water—even the port needs fresh water to supply passing ships. Since 1960 more than 50 bore-holes have been sunk and the town of Djibouti is now provided with sufficient drinking water. Rural water supplies are needed to improve living and health standards in those areas and to support nomadic pastoralism.

### Foreign aid

Water is one of the areas where foreign aid can contribute to Djibouti's economic development. Funds come mainly from France, but the European Community as a whole has provided assistance through the EDF and Stabex. Direct French support for Djibouti's budget rose from FF23.3 million in 1976 (4.16 million EUA) to FF26.7 million in 1977 (4.77 million EUA). Technical assistance from FIDES (the French investment fund for the economic and social development of overseas territories) was in the order of 10 million French francs this year (1.8 million EUA). Contributions from France's central fund for economic cooperation (CCCE) almost trebled between 1972 and 1975 when the figure was 38.7 million French francs (6.9 million EUA).

### EEC assistance

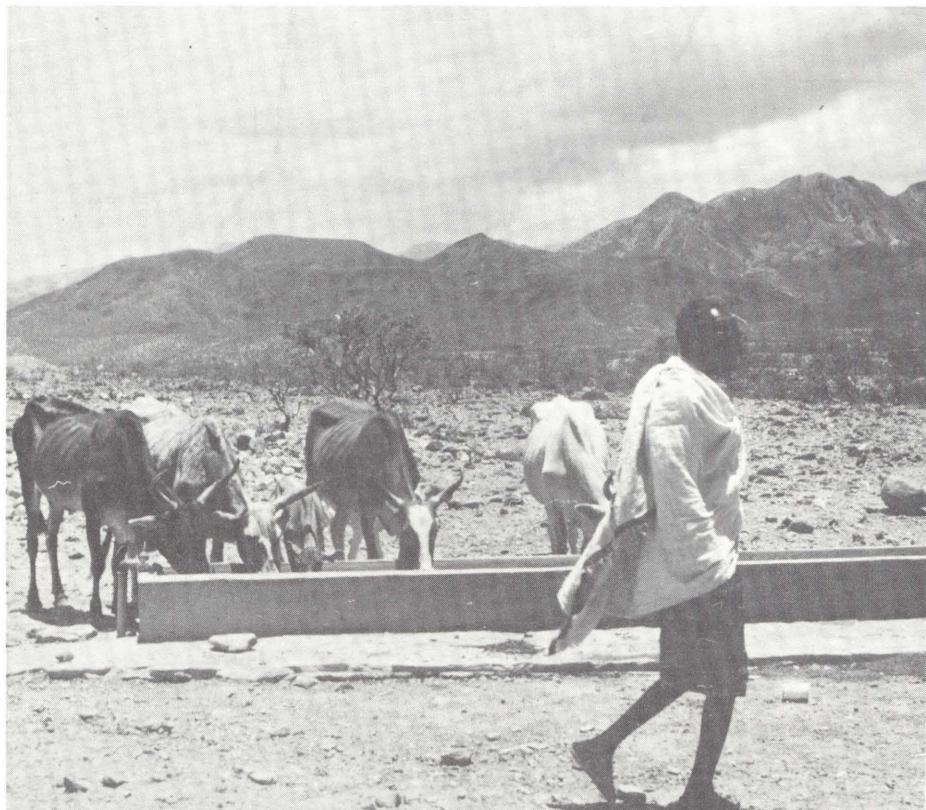
Djibouti has benefited from the first three European Development Funds and has just been allocated three grants from the 4th EDF. The following table gives a breakdown of the expenditure under the first three EDFs and the allocation under the 4th EDF:

|  | '000 EUA |
|--|----------|
| 1st EDF<br>Development of the "Stade" at Djibouti and of an oil tanker berth in the port     | 1 184(1) |
| 2nd EDF<br>Construction of 3 water towers in Djibouti town and development of the salt flats | 1 950(2) |
| 3rd EDF<br>Supplementary work on the southern breakwater at Djibouti and on the salt flats   | 1 697(2) |
| 4th EDF<br>Rural water holes, town drainage and training                                     | 1 030(3) |

(1) completed

(2) total as of 30.6.77

(3) see yellow pages for details



**Two of Djibouti's needs: water and transport**



### Stabex

In July this year the Commission transfers under the Stabex scheme for six OCT (overseas countries and territories) and former OCT. It was the first

transfer under this heading and Djibouti was allocated 265328 EUA of the total 3484855, that is 7.6%. The transfer related to export earnings from raw hides, skins and leather for the year 1976 and is non-repayable. □ I.J.P.

## The brain drain from the ACP countries

by LUCIEN PAGNI

**T**he lack of highly-qualified workers is one of the major problems the ACP countries have to overcome if they are to develop their economies. Their increasing requests to the European Community and other international organizations for technical assistance indicate just how acute a problem this is.

However, paradoxically, the ACP are suffering from a brain drain today. It is no new thing for technicians and scientists to leave their countries of origin. It happened in Europe, particularly before and after World War II; whether for racial, ideological, material or technical reasons, large numbers of German scientists, for example, emigrated to America. They included a certain Von Braun, the "father" of the American rocket, who helped make America the world's number one atomic power. Today, apart from some brilliant but wrong-headed brains who go to South Africa and help bolster apartheid, the best cadres in Europe are less and less tempted to leave home.

There are clearly different reasons for the ACP brain drain and we must look at this crucial phenomenon, which directly affects the developing countries' efforts to train their people, objectively if we are to understand it. There is nothing to be gained by covering up major facts that everyone agrees affect development, since we need a proper diagnosis if we are to administer an effective cure. There are three main rea-



sons for the ACP brain drain. They are political, intellectual and economic.

The problem only becomes critical if the root causes are political. As far as Africa is concerned, Professor Ofusi Appiah of Ghana, who is editing the forthcoming *Encyclopaedia Africana*, said at Lagos (Nigeria) during the colloquium at the World Black and African Arts Festival in January that "the human spirit should be freed from fear and servitude so that a viable intellectual community can be built on that continent". For, as he went on to say, "how sad it is to see some of Africa's best intellectuals abandoning their principles and ideals to become mere sycophants or leaving to seek freedom and fortune at any port abroad". As Professor Appiah sees it, the main reasons why the best African brains go abroad is that "any reasoned criticism of the political, economic and social problems of their countries tends to be taken as subversive". Just as Galileo was once oppressed by ignorant, intolerant people wanting to prove

that mathematics were of no use to the economy, "so do attempts to control people's thinking and rigid censorship oppress the human spirit", Professor Appiah said. He concluded that "Africa could well go on being underdeveloped if scientific thinking and the traditional heritage of intellectual freedom are not fully reestablished".

So the intellectual reasons for the brain drain are often linked to the political climate. The absence of any discussion of ideas implies a lowering of the level of knowledge and, consequently, a brain drain, to the extent that all scientific, economic, political, social and cultural progress involves the questioning of the validity of previous achievements.

And, of course, there are further, perfectly straightforward reasons for the brain drain from the ACP countries: salaries are often higher abroad.

But money is not everything. The brain drain is linked to the complex of factors that make up an intellectual climate, and it is an overall atmosphere that will have to change if the drain is to be stopped. The real brain drain is not motivated by positive factors, the appeal of "fresh fields and pastures new", but by negative ones.

As the writer André Frossard says: "intelligence is measured by the number of conclusions it can derive from a single fact and not by the number of facts it can deny in the name of a doctrine or a system." □

L.P.

# EDUCATION



**F**or a long time, and in many countries, the relationship between education and development has been viewed essentially in quantitative terms, and educational planning has often been approached from that angle.

This is probably accounted for by the fact that many countries have found it necessary to face and meet rapidly a growing demand for education, but also, and above all, by a conception of development which is itself quantitative, equating development with linear economic growth... But economic growth alone cannot be enough. It derives its justification only from the social progress which it renders possible, if we take the view that man is, and must be, not only the "centre of development", but also the agent of a kind of development which is conceived and achieved through the free and active participation of all, and for the benefit of all. The various aspects of such development—social and cultural as well as economic—must, then, be closely connected.

Such a conception has obvious consequences for education. If man is the ultimate end of all development undertakings, then it is he, both as an individual and as a member of society, who should be taken in hand and prepared for his manifold tasks and responsibilities. Our work has to be directed to forming this "complete man" and ensuring that he fulfils all his potentialities. If such an aim is to be achieved, education cannot be separated from the various procedures whereby man expresses himself, finds his place in the society to which he belongs, and asserts his mastery over the universe which provides the setting for his life...

Development can only come from within. It must be endogenous, thought out by people for themselves, springing from the soil on which they live and attuned to their aspirations, the conditions of their natural environment, the resources at their disposal and the peculiar genius of their culture. True development cannot be dissociated from a particular time and place. Education should accordingly contribute to the promotion of such endogenous development. But I should be misunderstood if I were to convey the impression that this endogenous development should represent a selfish attempt by each country to exist for itself alone. On the contrary, endogenous development seems to me to take on its full significance only in the context of solidarity among the peoples, which is expressed in, and the aim of, the concept of a new international economic order...

Education, thus defined in relation to an entirely new idea of development, requires a thorough overhaul in depth. The fact nevertheless remains that the quantitative expansion of the educational system—as the prerequisite for any genuine democratization—will be an inescapable necessity in the coming decades, and will give rise to acute problems, particularly in developing countries whose school-age population will continue to increase at a rapid pace. According to the forecasts, by 1980 the 5 to 14 age-group in those countries will represent 44 % of the 15 to 64 age-group, and 38 % in the year 2000; whereas, in the developed countries, the 5 to 14 age-group will represent only 24 % in 1980 and 23 % in the year 2000. Between 1960 and 2000, for instance, the population between the ages of 5 and 14 will have trebled in Africa and in the Arab states, doubled in Asia and Oceania, and increased 2.69 times in Latin America. However, we find that the rate of increase of school enrolments throughout the world, which was 4 % per annum in the 1960s, was less than 3 % between 1970 and 1975: 38 % of

the children in the 6 to 11 age-group were not yet attending school in the developing countries...

There is still, therefore, an immense amount to be done in quantitative terms, but the experience of the last few decades has shown that, if it is to be fruitful, the effort made in this direction should go hand in hand with qualitative improvement, which is essential to ensure greater internal and external efficiency in educational systems. Democratization calls for a restructuring of educational systems which will provide educational opportunities which match the characteristics and aspirations of all groups within a society.

The necessity for this—as many reforms in progress go to show—should also be accompanied by an effort to provide, as far as possible, a common basis of education which will lay the necessary foundation for the nation's unity and will contribute to the democratization of society. The problem of reconciling the conflicting needs of finding a common basis for education and at the same time devising suitably diversified procedures for formal and informal education is one of the most difficult encountered in any restructuring of educational systems. But a partial solution is to be found in the concept of life-long education, which sets out to supplement initial training at various stages in life and to dovetail together the complementary resources of formal and informal education.

The structures of education must be renovated, but so must its content. High repetition and drop-out rates originate in the unsuitability of curricula and methods; or in the shortage of teaching equipment, teaching which is too abstract, and teachers who are under-qualified; or in mis-handling in the schools, if only through over-crowded classes which frustrate any attempt at serious teaching. A type of education which fails to provide motivation for the young, which is in conflict with the values of their environment, which has a certain unreality about it, or which is less attractive than the messages broadcast by the mass media, is bound to lose its value. Education which is not linked as closely as it should be to the child's environment, which does not enable him to foresee and imagine the world in which he is going to live and to adjust to its changes, and which does not prepare him for the working world through the kind of knowledge and know-how it provides, leads all too often to alienation and inability to adjust to society and to productive employment. This situation is even worse in countries whose educational systems still bear the stamp of foreign values and cultures, and where education is provided in a language which, for the child, is only a second language.

A great many reforms—and this, I think, is one of the trends emerging from a study of recent developments in education throughout the world—are directed to trying to achieve greater relevance, particularly by including productive work in education, not only for its economic value, but still more perhaps, for its educational value...

Lastly, efforts to secure the relevance of education are also needed with a view to promoting a better grasp of realities in the world today.

From the address by UNESCO Director-General Amadou Mahtar M'Bow to the organization's 36<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Education, held in Geneva from 30 August to 8 September 1977.

# A fresh look at the world educational crisis

by Philip COOMBS(\*)

A world crisis in education has become apparent in the last 10 years or more, resulting from a combination of powerful forces, some external and some internal to educational systems. The initiating force, starting right after World War II, was the explosive increase in worldwide educational demand inspired by sweeping political, economic, and demographic changes and by a "revolution of rising expectations".

National leaders everywhere responded to this explosive demand with a strategy of linear expansion whose simple aim was to expand their existing educational system in its old image as rapidly as possible so as to increase the number and proportion of each age-group enrolled at each level of the system. In the 15 years from 1950 to 1965, worldwide enrolments had roughly doubled—a truly remarkable accomplishment.

But the picture was by no means as rosy as the mounting enrolment figures suggested. Educational systems everywhere were faced by shortages of qualified teachers, classrooms and textbooks that could not be quickly overcome simply by spending more money. As they spread their limited resources thinner over more pupils, educators and the general public complained increasingly about the erosion of educational quality. At the same time, evidence accumulated of shocking internal inefficiencies hidden by the optimistic enrolment figures. In the rural areas of many developing countries (where the great majority of children lived) primary school drop-out rates reached 75%, and since many children—particularly girls—never even entered school, this often meant that no more than 10% of the whole age-group actually completed the primary cycle. And many of these had repeated grades, thus taking seven to nine years to complete a six-year cycle. This combination of high drop-out and high repeater rates meant that the actual cost of putting one pupil all the way through primary school was several times greater than the nominal cost (based on dividing the total school budget by the number enrolled).

Ten years ago it was already clear that educational systems everywhere were caught in a financial squeeze that promised to get steadily worse. To finance the great expansion, national educational budgets had grown dramatically between 1950 and 1965, generally two to four times as fast as the GNP and overall public revenues. In other words, education had been winning a steadily increasing share of available national resources—a trend that obviously could not continue indefinitely without crippling other important public services. By 1967, the rise of educational budgets was already slowing down or even flattening out in a number of

countries. The outlook was that in all countries, education's share of the national budget would stabilize, sooner or later, bringing annual increases into line with the growth rate of the economy and overall public revenues.

This might not have been so bad if educational systems were improving their efficiency and holding down or even reducing their unit costs, but the evidence suggested that quite the opposite was happening. After discounting for inflation, the real costs per pupil at every level were rising, mainly because teacher salaries were rising and no serious steps were being taken to increase the productivity of teachers or of capital resources used by education.

Two other clouds were on the horizon. One was the increasing uneasiness about the relevance of what was being taught to the real needs of students and their life prospects. The other was a growing imbalance between the rapidly expanding "output" of educational systems and the capacity of employment markets to provide appropriate jobs for the newcomers. The politically lethal problem of the "educated unemployed" had already shown up in such countries as India, the Philippines and Egypt, and was just around the corner in many others—including Western industrialized countries.

In addition, there was a more profound issue of equality and social justice. The theory had been that universal primary schooling and widened opportunities for secondary and higher education would erode existing social and economic inequalities and give every youngster, regardless of family background, an equal opportunity in life. But evidence was mounting, particularly in developing countries that were still far from the goal of universal primary schooling, that their urban- and elitist-oriented educational systems were inadvertently serving as a powerful engine of discrimination. The children of educated parents, especially in urban areas, who brought a good vocabulary and a higher measure of motivation to school, were far more likely to climb successfully up the academic ladder than the children of the poor and uneducated, who comprised the great majority in rural areas. There was also serious discrimination against girls in many areas, not as a matter of educational policy but because of deep-rooted cultural patterns.

All these factors contributed to the world educational crisis as it stood in the late 1960s. But the most fundamental cause of all was the inflexibility and inertia of educational systems themselves, with their tendency to cling to the traditional in the face of the rapidly changing world around them.

A new and more creative strategy was required, aimed not simply at expanding the existing educational system but at changing it to catch up with the vast social and political changes going on, with the simultaneous scientific and technological revolutions taking place in agriculture, industry, communication, transportation, health and other fields—with the explosion of knowledge itself.

## The crisis today

There are no clearcut solutions to the crisis for there has been no recent systematic effort to assemble, analyse and interpret the relevant information. Nevertheless, I shall venture a few personal and impressionistic observations.

Many far-reaching educational, economic, and social changes and new developments have occurred over the past

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10 years that have in some cases moderated and in others further aggravated the various crisis factors outlined earlier.

**Shortages and pressures for expansion:** In most of the industrialized world, the pressures to expand educational systems and enrolments have slackened dramatically in recent years and the former shortages of classrooms and qualified teachers have now turned into surpluses (especially at the primary level). There are two main reasons. First, the post-war bumper crop of babies has now passed through all levels of the educational system, and as young adults they are disinclined to produce a bumper crop of their own. The birth rate has fallen sharply, close to the point of Zero Population Growth in many instances. Second, with universal primary education having long existed in these countries and with the greatly increased participation rates in secondary and post-secondary education that have now been achieved, there is an inevitable and natural slackening of demand.

In most developing countries, though to a lesser extent, shortages of qualified teachers and facilities have abated considerably. However, the pressures for further educational expansion are still very strong and likely to remain so for some years to come. The continuing high birth rate, coupled with declining child mortality, requires the schools in most developing countries to increase their intake by two to three percent each year before they can even begin to increase their participation ratio. This rapid demographic growth, plus the further demographic fact that the school age population in these countries is a much higher proportion of the total population than in the developed countries, makes it extremely difficult to boost educational participation rates, especially in the lowest income countries.

Despite these difficulties, a sizeable number of developing countries—according to UNESCO statistical reports—have somehow managed to increase their participation rates over the past 10 years, though generally at a slower pace than earlier. Even more surprising, in the light of the earlier heavy emphasis on achieving universal primary schooling, the rate of expansion has been considerably greater in secondary

and higher education (where the costs-per-student are far greater) than in primary education. I strongly suspect that this curious phenomenon is linked to the widening social-economic gap between urban and rural areas and to the proliferation of rural poverty in many developing countries.

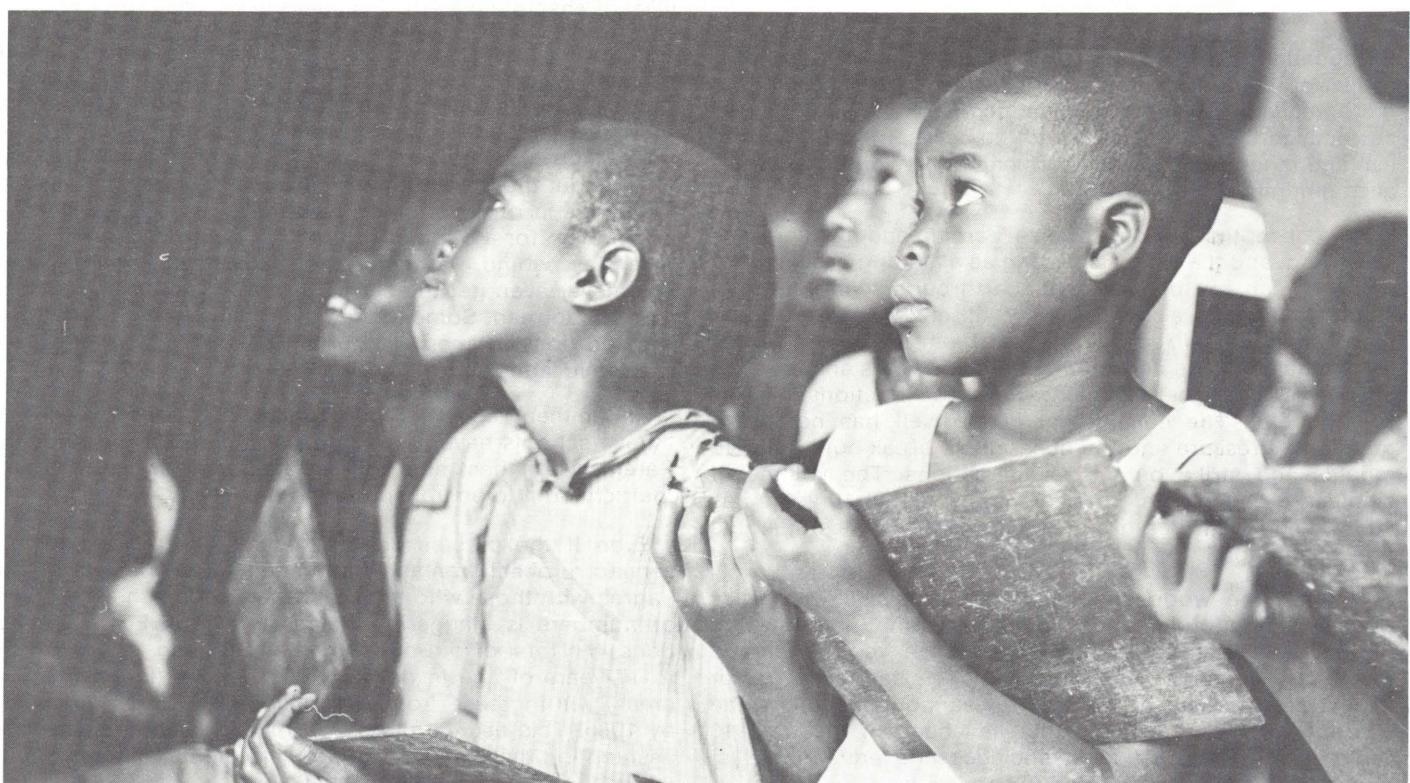
**Efficiency and productivity:** From the fragmentary evidence available, there is no reason to believe that there has been any substantial and widespread improvement in the internal efficiency of educational systems over the past 10 years, in either the developing or developed world. The same old indicators of low efficiency can still be found in abundance: rising unit costs unmatched by corresponding improvements in learning results; perpetuation of curriculum irrelevancies; under-utilization of costly facilities and equipment; heavy absorption of valuable teacher time on non-professional chores that could be done by others; incredibly high drop-out and repeater rates (especially in the rural areas of many developing countries); and underexpenditure on learning materials with adverse effects on teacher productivity.

This is not to suggest that there have been no efforts to improve efficiency, but innovations have generally been isolated and small-scale. The secret of spreading well-proven innovations on a large scale still remains to be discovered.

**The financial squeeze:** There seems little doubt that the continuing pressure of rising costs against stiffening budgetary constraints remains a major problem for virtually all educational systems.

The levelling-off of educational demand in industrialized countries has somewhat alleviated the pressure for large annual budgetary increases, but it has certainly not eliminated it or significantly reduced the difficulties faced by educational administrators. The public and legislative resistance to higher educational expenditures seems to have stiffened considerably over the past 10 years. At the same time, the pressures of inflation and the demands of greatly strengthened teachers' unions are giving sleepless nights to educational managers.

*Primary school in Rwanda*



Most developing countries, of course, other than those with large oil revenues, are far worse off financially. They not only face the pressures of inflation and of strong public demand for further expansion, but in many cases their education budgets have now reached 25-30% of total public revenues, making further increases very doubtful. According to published UNESCO statistics a good many developing countries have somehow managed to expand their educational budgets and education's share of the total public budget over the past 10 years. The latest UNESCO statistics available, however, stop at 1974. There is some independent evidence that suggests a substantial slowdown since then—due in part to the worldwide recession and the adverse impact of increased oil costs on national budgets, but also raising the possibility that education ministries in many developing countries are now bumping against immovable budget ceilings.

**Education and employment:** The imbalance between educational output and job openings has worsened considerably in both the developing and developed world and has become a prime concern of educational and political leaders.

Unemployment of the relatively highly-educated, though it gets the lion's share of attention because of its political volatility, is only the tip of a much larger iceberg. In developing countries it is the less educated and uneducated out-of-school youth who bear the main brunt of high unemployment, and their numbers have swelled considerably in the past 10 years despite increased educational enrolments. Chronic and sizeable unemployment, of course, is not a problem that can be solved by the schools alone, or even primarily by education, even though the schools and universities are often incorrectly made the whipping boy. But societies do have a right to expect their educational system to provide relevant education and experiences that will facilitate national development in the broadest sense and prepare young people to participate productively in the affairs of the society and its economy. There is little doubt that educational systems still have a long way to go in living up to this reasonable expectation.

**Educational innovations and adaptation:** The brightest aspect of the current picture, in my view, is the broader and more realistic perceptions of education that have gained currency in the last 10 years and the new spirit of self-criticism and innovation that has permeated the world education-community.

The conception of education as *learning* and not simply as schooling, and the view of learning as a lifelong process that not only can but must take place through many different channels and in a great variety of environments—some highly institutionalized but most of them much less formal—have gained wide acceptance in recent years and have set educators and others thinking in fresh directions. This is very hopeful. The educational crisis itself has helped to create the pressure and the necessity to break out of the old moulds and strike out in new directions. The volume of significant educational innovations in the last 10 years has surely been considerably greater than in any comparable previous period.

Whether the world educational crisis is still with us is largely a matter of definition. I believe it is and that we would be ill-advised to take it lightly just because we have learned to live with it. I say this not so much because of what has or has not transpired over the past 10 years but because of the enormity of the challenges that lie ahead in the next 10 years—challenges that most societies and education systems are presently ill-prepared to cope with.

## The outlook

In looking into the future, I propose to narrow my focus to the developing countries and in particular to their rural areas. In so doing I do not mean to suggest that their urban areas are not also filled with important challenges that must be dealt with, or that the industrialized nations will suddenly run out of educational problems of crisis proportion.

There is today, at long last, a wide and growing consensus that the dominant challenge facing the majority of developing nations is to develop their vast rural areas and to bring the long-neglected, poverty-stricken mass of their rural people into the mainstream of the national development process, as both contributors and beneficiaries.

Rural development in its full sense involves much more than expanding the output of commercial agriculture to supply urban customers and the export trade (which has been the main orientation of rural development projects up to now). It means helping the poorest of the rural poor, who have been largely by-passed by earlier rural programmes, to produce enough nutritious food to meet their own family needs. It means improving their basic health conditions and encouraging them to pursue their own enlightened policy of responsible parenthood. It means opening up new employment opportunities, raising the low productivity of rural workers, and diversifying rural economies to make these things possible. Not least, it means achieving a more equitable distribution of the benefits of development, and building more equitable rural societies.

This is obviously a very long task that will require a large and persistent effort, above all by the rural people themselves, but with strong encouragement and essential help from others.

Education—broadly defined as *learning*—clearly has a crucial role to play in this transformation, in close conjunction with other essential inputs. Rural people of every age, status and occupation will have to acquire new insights, knowledge and skills of many kinds, along with new attitudes and new hope, in order to lift themselves above the level of absolute poverty and sheer day-to-day survival.

If we are honest, we must admit that the existing urban-oriented elitist-oriented schools inherited from the past are not the answer to these rural learning needs. It is true that they have helped many bright and ambitious young people (mostly boys) to get to the city and better themselves. But what about the great majority who are left behind to live out their lives in rural settings? What have the schools done to equip them for a brighter future? A high proportion of those who stay behind, particularly those from the poorest families, never even get to school, or else drop out before even learning to read. Some of the most frustrated ones are those who do finish primary school but cannot go further up the academic ladder.

An eminent educator in Bangladesh observed recently, "these schools have nothing to do with improving rural life. Parents view them as a railroad station to which they take their children to be transported to the city."

Even if the present schools could be transformed into serving rural children and youth much more effectively—and I agree with those who believe they can—the sheer problem of numbers is staggering. According to UNESCO projections, the total of out-of-school children and youths from 6 to 17 years of age in developing countries (largely in rural areas) will increase from 264 million in 1975 to 404 million by 1985. This estimate is based on the relatively optimistic assumption that national school enrolments will continue to increase at the rate of the past 10 years.



Naud

**A blackboard under a tent for these nomad children in Mauritania**

If there is to be real rural development in the future, today's great out-of-school majority of rural children and youth are going to have to create it, and how can they best be prepared for this responsibility?

Part of the answer certainly lies in a drastic reorientation and recasting of the existing schools, involving not only a new curriculum but breaking loose from their traditional age-grade ties, enabling young people to pursue their learning interests on a part-time basis at their own convenience, and using as teachers anyone in the village who has something relevant and useful to teach.

### Non-formal education

An even larger part of the answer lies in *non-formal* education. By this I do not simply mean substitute ways to teach what is taught in schools, such as literacy and numeracy, but a great variety of very essential things that are not taught in schools and probably should not be attempted in schools, such as agricultural extension, skill training, health and family planning programmes, and functional literacy.

Non-formal education can be a substitute for formal schooling when there is not enough to go around, but primarily it is complementary and supplementary to formal schooling. It follows up formal education and tackles learning tasks for which schools are not well adapted. It serves audiences that are beyond school age. Its greatest virtue is its flexibility and potential for serving virtually any kind of learning need, at any time of day or night. And it can be low cost, especially if it takes advantages of locally available resources and does not try to emulate the expensive methods of formal education.

There are many more non-formal educational activities already going on in developing countries—and in industrialized countries—than is generally realized. Ironically, other ministries (such as agriculture, health, manpower and social welfare) are much more involved in these learning activities

than education ministries. But such activities need more attention. They need to be broadened and strengthened and to be better integrated with other development efforts. For non-formal education is not a "system" unto itself. Rather it is—or should be—an integral component of all different types of rural development programmes, a kind of lubricant that makes them work effectively.

The point I would stress is that both formal and non-formal education, if they are to be effective and productive, must be tailored to meet the *real* needs of rural people in their particular circumstances—not the presumed needs as perceived by distant experts. These needs vary from place to place and over time, and they differ among sub-groups within the same community.

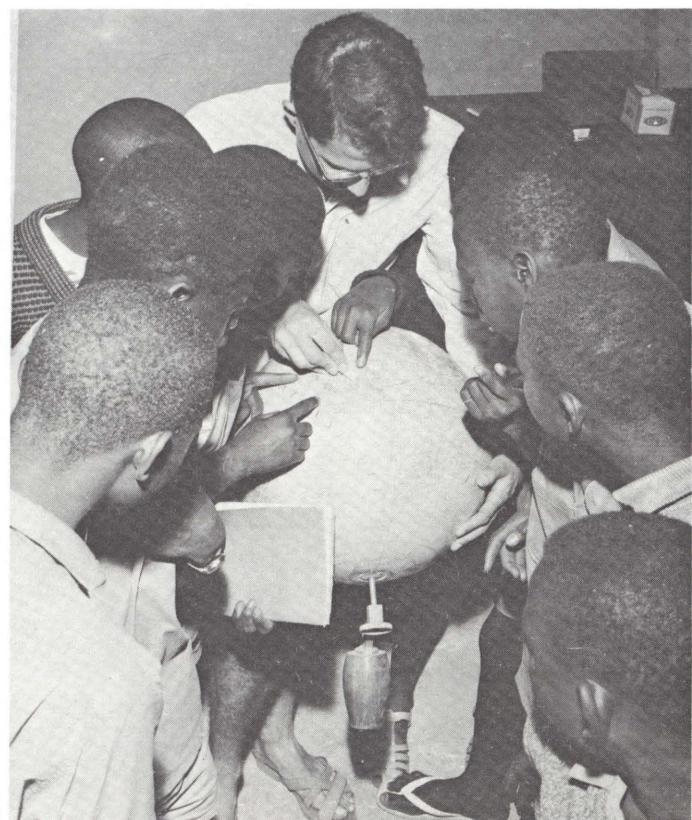
The cardinal rule, therefore, in planning rural educational provisions is to start with the learning needs themselves, not with a preconceived institutional solution (especially one imported from some industrialized country). Once the needs are clear, then the problem is to design a locally viable and low cost way to meet them, after considering various possible alternatives.

My colleagues and I at the ICED, in connection with a study for UNICEF, attempted to illustrate some basic categories of minimum essential learning needs of children and youths growing up in poor rural areas, as a basis for considering alternative ways to meet them. Briefly, we came up with the following six categories.

**Positive attitudes** toward cooperation with one's family and fellow-men, toward work and national development, and toward self-improvement through learning.

**Functional literacy and numeracy**, sufficient to read a newspaper or farm or health bulletin and to make locally useful measurements and calculations.

**A scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature** in the particular area.



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**Education should provide "a better grasp of realities in the world today" — A.M. M'Bow**

**Functional knowledge and skills for rearing a family and operating a household.**

**Functional knowledge and skills for earning a living.**

**Functional knowledge and skills for civic participation.**

These are only illustrative, but they suggest how educational planners, working close to the local scene, might go about examining the real learning needs as the first step toward devising appropriate ways to meet them. They also suggest a way to check the relevance and adequacy of what is now being taught, whether within the schools or outside.

The rural school as it generally exists today is primarily addressed to only one of these needs, literacy and numeracy (though it may contribute marginally to some of the others). This is not to criticize the schools but simply to emphasize that the schools cannot be expected to do everything and shouldn't try.

Let me emphasize that non-formal education is not a panacea. There are no educational panaceas for rural areas. The solutions will not be simple or easy. They will require ingenuity, persistence, patience and a lot of hard work over a long time. They will also require overcoming stubborn bureaucratic complexities and rivalries and abandoning the comfortable but fallacious notion that all education for a nation can be planned in a central ministry in the capital.

But all this is what makes it challenging. If an able and spirited young man or woman were to ask my advice on an exciting frontier to work on for the next 30 to 40 years, I would urge them to try rural education. And unless a great many such young people do in fact move onto the frontiers of rural development, with great energy and dedication, tomorrow's educational crisis may be considerably more severe and ominous than yesterday's or today's. □

## World illiteracy is increasing

### Pessimism at the 12<sup>th</sup> UNESCO International Literacy Day

One adult in three cannot read, write or write out elementary arithmetic. Last year there were 800 million illiterates in the world and their number is increasing; 60% of them are women, whose proportion of the total is rising. The number of Third World children who have not been to school between the ages of 6 and 11 will increase, at the present rate, to 134 million in 1985 (35 million in Africa, 90 million in Asia and 9 million in Latin America).

These were some of the figures put forward at the 12th UNESCO International Literacy Day on 8 September. They are so depressing that the two prizes normally awarded for literacy work were not given this year, for the first time.

In Teheran 12 years ago the world's education ministers pledged to stamp out illiteracy, "within one generation" according to the then head of UNESCO, René Maheu. The first approach was to launch massive literacy campaigns. Instructors covered vast areas in a few months, optimism prevailed—and the new readers lapsed into illiteracy again when the teachers had gone. Their new skill was simply not used in their daily lives. A second approach concentrated on 'functional literacy', presenting reading and writing not as an end in themselves but as linked to practical needs. In the face of local resistance, bureaucratic rigidity and the unhelpful attitude of the literate elites, this too seems to have broken down in many areas.

The history of the rich countries shows that education and development go hand in hand; yet UNESCO vice director-general John Fobes has pleaded again for more political will. "The most intelligent proposals and the most devoted cooperation will in the end be in vain unless a national political will is clearly shown from the start," he said. And again, the social needs have been compared to arms spending: for the cost of one modern bomber, 250,000 teachers could be employed for a year in the developing countries.

And yet the will need not only come from the governments. "The real crusade against illiteracy will begin when the women of the world call for it," Mr Fobes said. □

# Schooling in Africa (\*)

by Jonathan MONGORY

Schooling is one of the biggest concerns of African governments today. Not only does the continent's population grow faster than anywhere else in the world (by 2.9%—3% p.a.), but it has the youngest age structure, under-15s make up 44% of the population, 70% more than in the industrialized countries.

Although there is a smaller percentage of illiterates in the world today, says Mr M'Bow, UNESCO's Director-General, there are more in absolute terms than there were before.

There are about 800 million altogether, 60% of them women. Between 1960 and 1970, the number of illiterate women grew five times faster than that of illiterate men—by 40 million and 5 million respectively.

The socio-economic structures in the countries most affected and the use of the functional literacy method have partly caused this situation.

Illiteracy is obviously due to lack of schooling, in spite of the fact that a considerable effort was made after the first regional conference of African ministers in Addis Ababa in 1961. Between 1965 and 1975, total numbers of pupils enrolled at all three levels of education rose from 25263000 to 42023000 and, in primary schools alone, from 22345000 to 34865000.

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## A league table

The extension of education in each country is expressed by the overall rate of educational coverage of 6-29 year olds in 1972 plus the increase since 1960. This enables us to list 44 African countries in order (see table overleaf).

### Group I

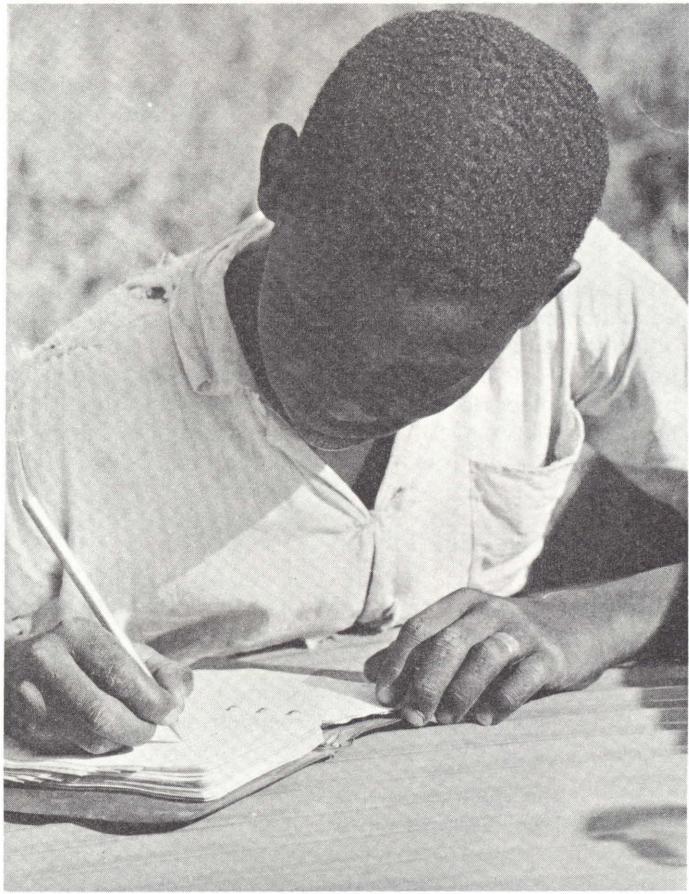
The schooling rate here is 10% or less, the average being 7.3%. This group contains 14.6% of the population in the region studied and 4.7% of school enrolments and is characterized by low population density, little urbanization and a nomadic culture. In 1972, per capita GDP was between \$70 (Upper Volta) and \$180 (Mauritania), with an average of \$80.

### Group II

The rate here is between 10% and 25%, with an average of 16.7%. Demographically speaking, this is the biggest group. The 6-29 age group represents 47% of the total population and 34.9% of enrolments in the 44 countries covered. This is largely because of Nigeria, which alone accounts for 37% of the population of the group and 17.6% of that of the 44. GDP ranged from \$150 (Rwanda) to \$390 (Angola) in 1972.

### Group III

The rate in this group is between 25% and 35%, the average being 32.9%. It varies widely within the countries of



*By 1985 there should be 2½ times more African children at school than in 1965 — but the schooling level will still only cover 25% of the 6-29 age group*

the group as between urban and rural areas. This group represents 26% of the population of the 44 and 38.9% of school enrolments. Average GDP is \$240, ranging from \$140 in Madagascar to \$430 in Algeria.

### Group IV

The rate here is above 35%, with an average of 40.7%. Primary school coverage is close to 100%. The countries in this group contain 11.8% of the population of the 44, but only 21.5% of school enrolments. Per capita GDP in 1972 was \$380, ranging from \$90 in Lesotho to \$1830 in Libya.

Between 1960 and 1972, the number of children of school age (6-17) in all four groups rose from 72.1 million to 98.4 million, a 26.3 million increase, and the number of children who actually attended school (all levels) from 17.8 million to 37.6 million. The number of children in the 6-17 age group attending school rose from 16.9 million to 35.5 million, an increase of 18.6 million.

Between 1960 and 1972, schooling was offered to 18.6 million more 6-17 year olds, while there was a 26.3 million increase in the school-age population; a close race between educational expansion and unparalleled population growth.

Between 1960 and 1972, the average rate of educational coverage went up from 14.2% to 22.5%, while the 44 countries' school-age population more than doubled. An analysis of the situation is called for, in the light of:

(\*) Extracts from an article which first appeared in the magazine "Topafrique" no. 21, Jan-Feb 1977.

**Schooling for girls.** The coverage rate here is far lower than for boys (1960: 9.6% for girls and 18.8% for boys; 1972: 16.9% for girls and 28.1% for boys). However, the disparity was reduced during the 1960/72 period, when the percentage of girls in the pupil population in the 6-29 age group throughout the 44 rose from 33.7% to 37%.

**Educational coverage.** Numbers have increased far more in secondary ( $\times 3.53$ ) and higher ( $\times 3.75$ ) than in primary ( $\times 1.97$ ) education.

## General recovery

A comparison of the increase in numbers at each level of education with the increase in each age group reveals differing trends, attendance in the 18-29 age group having gone up fourfold, while attendance in the 6-11 group has barely doubled. Net educational coverage rose from 30.9% in 1960 to 44.2% in 1972 for the 6-11s, from 14.6% to 26.1% for the 12-17s and from 0.9% to 2.4% for the 18-29s.

## Repeating years of study

In spite of these improvements, there is still a high dropout rate, since an average of almost one pupil in four (22.6%) gives up in the first year. This tendency gives greatest cause for concern in groups I and IV, where the percentages, at 31.6% and 30% respectively, are very much higher.

One of the main problems is the repetition of years of study. In 1965, 23% of all first-year pupils were repeating their course. By 1970, this had dropped to 18%—which still represents 5152000 pupils. Numbers are now stationary in absolute terms. Repetition tends to neutralize all attempts at providing more places for newcomers.

The repetition issue is not the only obstacle to the expansion of education in Africa. There are others: most importantly, the dropout rate. Children do not always give up in mid-stream from choice; it is often the schools that do not provide a complete range of classes.

The eradication of illiteracy has been one of the fundamental aims of the 44 since 1960. Most of Africa's national plans aim to provide all their people with primary education

at least. But even here, in spite of a 112% increase in educational coverage in the 44 over the 1960/72 period, school places could not be offered to 48.8%, or almost four of the eight million 6-year olds in 1965 and, as a result, they could not be classed among those who had stepped over the minimum literacy threshold. We should emphasize that there are 89.2% of potential illiterates in group I, 64.5% in group II, 38% in group III and 42% in group IV! There are different reasons for this: 90% of the illiterates in group I will never have been to school, whereas all illiterates in group IV are dropouts.

A UNESCO survey of the 1960/72 period forecast figures up until 1985 on the basis of trends observed in 44 countries of Africa (representing 92% of the population). A simple extrapolation of these trends would give 60171000 pupils/students at all levels of education in 1985, as against 24665000 in 1965 and 42034000 in 1975. The rate of coverage would be 25% for the whole 6-29 age group (43.8% for the 6-11s, 31.3% for the 12-17s and 4.6% for the 18-29s). That is to say education will be offered to two and a half times as many people between 1965 and 1985.

But, in 1985, there will still be a considerable difference in the situation of boys and girls and, of the 60715000 children being educated, only 23894000 will be girls, 19469000 of them in primary schools, 4130000 in secondary schools and 295000 in higher education.

## More teachers

So, total educational coverage at primary level in all African countries is not for 1985.

The population explosion is such that even just maintaining the 1972 rates would demand that the 44 cater for an extra 12 million 6-11 year olds, i.e. handle a 55% increase in the size of this age group over 1972 figures.

Between 1960 and 1972, GNP rose by an average 7.9% p.a. and educational spending by 10.4%. Secondary and higher education absorbed more than before, accounting for 40% in 1960 and 48% in 1970 and outlay per pupil was, on average, about eight times ( $\times 2$  in the developed countries and Asia,  $\times 3$  in Latin America) more than in primary schools.

Educational spending in group I rose from 1.4% of GNP in 1960 to 4.7% in 1972, in group II from 2.26% to 3.5%, in group III from 4.7% to 6.1% and, in group IV, from 3.7% to 4.9%.

Since the Nairobi conference, some countries have been spending 20%-25% of their national budget on education and others more than 30%. Teachers' salaries appear to account for 70% of educational spending.

The growth in the school population undeniably requires a parallel growth in teaching staff. Although the teacher/pupil ratio was fairly stable (about 1:40) over the 1960/72 period, there is no reason to suppose that this situation will continue. Experience so far has not made clear what the ideal ratio is if classes are run properly and produce results. We must not forget that, before making good our firm desire to do away with the scourge of illiteracy, we must first take stock of the realities of the situation. The basic conditions for the development of education are not just social or economic. They are political as well. □

| GROUP I     | GROUP II      | GROUP III         | GROUP IV  |
|-------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------|
| Chad        | Angola        | Algeria           | Cameroon  |
| Ethiopia    | Benin         | Botswana          | Congo     |
| Mali        | Burundi       | Central           | Gabon     |
| Mauritania  | Gambia        | African           | Lesotho   |
| Niger       | Guinea        | Empire            | Libya     |
| Somalia     | Guinea Bissau | Egypt             | Mauritius |
| Upper Volta | Liberia       | Equatorial-Guinea | Swaziland |
|             | Malawi        | Ghana             | Tunisia   |
|             | Morocco       | Ivory Coast       | Zaire     |
|             | Mozambique    | Kenya             | Zambia    |
|             | Nigeria       | Madagascar        |           |
|             | Rwanda        | Togo              |           |
|             | Senegal       |                   |           |
|             | Sierra Leone  |                   |           |
|             | Sudan         |                   |           |
|             | Tanzania      |                   |           |
|             | Uganda        |                   |           |

# A new concept of education for Africa

by Ekwa bis ISAL(\*)

As I see it, education in Africa since independence falls into two stages, symbolized by three names. Quantity, or Addis Ababa and Nairobi, and cultural identity, or Lagos(1). We now have to inaugurate a third stage, a time of individual cultural creativity and resolute utopianism. I shall briefly sketch the historical background to illustrate what I mean.

In 1961, educational planning was dominated by one idea—closing the gap. The target for 1980 was the generalization of primary education, the rapid development of the various branches of secondary education (general, teacher-training and secondary) and a breakthrough into higher education. A further aim was to reduce the enormous disparity in educational opportunities for boys and girls. The objectives thus defined, national policies began to differ according to the tastes of middle and upper cadres and, above all, according to available resources. The Teheran conference on literacy in 1964 shed a harsh light on the other face of education—the vast numbers of illiterate adults.

Nairobi, seven years later, dampened the original enthusiasm and there was anxiety, suspicion and hesitation. The increase in the number of schools was already endangering their quality and there was the problem of defining the priorities in an Africa that was 80% rural. Was gearing primary education to the rural way of life a meaningful concept? Was it vital to give priority to science and technology for economic reasons? Changes had to be made and the aspirations of the masses met without losing sight of economic necessity. This meant more democracy, tighter planning and maybe more constraints. Ideology shaped educational policy and nationalism and state control often went hand in hand. But political, economic and cultural dependence on the outside world remained.

The Lagos conference sounded the alarm. It took stock of 15 years of achievement, both quantitative and qualitative, in the race between the spread of education and the population explosion, in the drastic shortage of some countries' educational resources and in the fight against unemployment. It brought up, in the educational context, the problem of other development models based on cultural identity. The conference decided in favour of teaching in the vernacular and of a suitable transfer of technologies. But it was an Africa of great diversity that was working out its own path to development.

The time for individual cultural definitions has come. Africa is not just the Third World. It is four worlds at least, all of them educationally underprivileged. At the bottom of the ladder are those who still have nothing, and at the top are the nouveaux riches. Both are further divided across the economic barriers by the various cultural groups seeking greater unity or the benefits of cross-fertilization. There are languages and cultures to be pieced together again, consolidated and brought up to date. For example, the overlapping of history and religion, Islam and Christianity, makes it possible to be Berber-Arab and African-Negro at one and the same time.

(\*) Secretary-General of the International Office for Catholic Education. This article is reproduced from "Cahiers Toison d'Or, Univers Sud" (no. 43, June 1977).

(1) Three intergovernmental conferences on the development of education in Africa were run over a 15-year period: Addis Ababa in 1961, Nairobi in 1968 and Lagos in 1976.

So Africa's new schools will be pluricultural, for there are two Africas to modernize. The larger is rural and agricultural and the faster-changing is urban and industrial. The latter can look, not without problems of adaptation, to the industrialized world for its educational models, but the rural has no choice but to develop along lines of its own.

It is this new and varied type of education I want to discuss. Its general frame of reference is the new international economic order, where the products of the rural economy will command a fairer price and where the quality of rural life will improve as the end of this century approaches. The general aim in rural Africa must be to push up educational opportunities for both boys and girls, at the same time as providing basic instruction for men and women. A suitable method will be found of sharing more fully the use of educational resources—classrooms, teachers, the mass media, time and space.

I want to see schools that are more realistic and less ambitious, that aim lower but further, that cost less but serve the individual and the community and encourage more participation. Above all, I want schools that set their sights firmly on the target of modernizing rural Africa without a sharp break with the past.

All 7-15 year olds would receive basic schooling, with priority for the collective development of family and social life. Learning would be in three different places—in the school, in village educational centres offering a variety of courses, and in domestic activities, crafts and agriculture. There would be a four-year foundation course for all pupils, who would not necessarily be divided into classes in the current sense of the term; then there would be a period of learning at work; and this would be followed by various vocational, and more advanced, courses. For a minority, the courses would be more theoretical in nature, in preparation for secondary education. The school timetable would be adapted to seasonal and community work in the village. It would be geared to the agricultural year, with regional variations, even within the same country, according to climate.

Syllabuses (reading, writing, arithmetic, self-expression and basic skills) would be matched to the natural and cultural environment and would, for the most part, be taught in the national languages. But schooling would include an introduction to the language of the mass media—the rural press, posters, the radio, audio-visual features and sometimes television—without minimizing the understanding of Nature, such an important aspect of rural life. Practical training would include health and hygiene, nutrition, the techniques of agriculture and stock-rearing and an introduction to management, civics and politics. Education would be integrated, using both academic and non-academic means and calling on people from various walks of life—health officers, agricultural technicians, cultural leaders, craftsmen, party officials and anyone whose know-how can contribute to building a rural community culture—to help the teacher. Both pupils and teachers would share one essential quality: they would need a critical, creative conscience to assess the past and the present with a view to building something different for the future.

This new type of education would mean recasting the administrative side of things, whereby the ministry of education would become an organization that combined various sectors and subjects, in association with the departments of agriculture, health, culture and information. Its leaders would be called upon really to exercise their authority, adequate budgetary resources would be required and there would be a real need for an enlightened educational approach to information and general participation. All in all, it will require political sense of an exceptional level. □

# The provision of education and its costs

by Richard JOLLY(\*)

What options exist for meeting the basic educational needs within the foreseeable future and within the realities of economic and financial cost constraints? This cannot be adequately assessed without considering two related questions: what are the critical cost constraints, and what explains the large and rapidly rising costs of education, especially in the poorer countries which still have relatively low enrolment ratios?

This analysis will distinguish sharply between financial costs, which already are usually pushing against budgetary constraints, and what may be called the real manpower costs, which are usually in most respects far *inside* the limits of available resources.

## The ladder of success

The differentials paid at graduate and secondary level are not small. Combined with sharply narrowing educational

pyramids in which barely ten in a hundred of those who start primary enter secondary school and barely three of them go to higher education, the inequality is considerable: for those who make it to the top and into a graduate job, earnings of often 15 to 50 times per capita income, plus regularity of incomes, job security, annual increments and often virtually assured promotion prospects. By comparison, earnings for those who only get as far as a job requiring primary education are usually 3 to 5 times per capita income—tiny in relation to the earnings of those in jobs requiring graduate qualifications but even then considerably in excess of the earnings in cash or kind of the typical rural farmer.

These paradoxes are related in that one of the main causes for so many school leavers being unemployed is the existence of a structure of salaries and incentives which draws most of the skilled manpower away from the countryside to the towns and from occupations of priority for meeting basic needs towards educationally overloaded occupations and sectors where under-employment at junior and middle levels often co-exists with over-worked civil servants at the top. This inappropriate salary structure, by raising the costs of employing skilled persons is also a main reason why it is impossible to expand the school system, health facilities and other services and activities needed for meeting basic needs. This wage and salary structure is also the prime cause of the unit costs of secondary and higher education being so much higher than the unit costs of primary. Essentially it is a wage and salary structure out of line with the resources of the whole country.

Education is the ladder of success, which allocates the rewards and legitimizes the whole system. But, in doing so, enormous rewards have been created. Students, parents,

**Poor countries have to spend a much higher share of their resources than rich countries for each schoolchild**





*Learning a skill — apprentices in Lubumbashi (Zaire)*

the general public, the politicians, even the educational administrators have been drawn into a process which ever expands the number of places at secondary and higher levels, even with the risk of unemployment. All this has in effect been increasingly at the expense of resources for primary education. Yet the process can only continue for a limited time. Eventually, it will become too expensive. But the whole content and focus of education will have been corrupted by a preoccupation with its use for access to higher incomes and the better jobs. Education's contribution to meeting the basic needs of the majority of the population and to rural development may have been virtually destroyed.

### **The crucial elements in educational costs**

A first step to unravelling what needs to be done is to decompose public (or private) expenditure on education into the crucial elements which determine unit costs. In fact, this is done far too rarely, and instead costs per student at different levels or in different types of education are calculated, quoted and used to determine policy in ways which are often highly misleading with respect to the true economic costs and resources involved. Like many other statistics, until one looks behind them, unit costs of education hide more than they reveal.

The critical determinants of educational costs are in most countries the following:

#### **Recurrent costs**

**The level and structure of teachers' salaries** — which in turn reflect (a) qualifications and grading of teachers at each level of education, (b) the relationship between teachers' salaries and that of others in the educated professional groups, and (c) the level of salaries of the educational professional group as a whole.

**The average pupil-teacher ratios** at each level of education — which in turn reflects (a) class size and (b) staffing and school organization.

**The non-salary costs of education** — which at primary and secondary levels are almost always a minor part of total

recurrent costs in all costs in all countries, frequently less than 20 per cent. At tertiary level, these may become more important, and occasionally a cause of unnecessary waste.

#### **Capital costs**

**The capital costs per place** — which usually reflect the standards and general quality chosen for school and university accommodation as much as actual space provision and general building costs. Critical also is the efficiency of school organization—notably whether shift use is common or exceptional, whether school and university facilities are left empty during vacations and whether subject options and timetabling make intensive use of specialist facilities like laboratories and assembly halls instead of requiring extra provision.

These four factors explain why the proportions of national income spent on education in different countries differ so much less than the percentage of school age children attending school. Among Commonwealth countries, public expenditure on education as a percentage of national income averages 4.8 per cent, ranging from 2.6 to 8.1 per cent and with three-quarters of the countries falling between 3.0 and 6.4 per cent. Yet enrolment ratios in the same group of countries range as widely as 34 to 112 per cent of the relevant age group at primary level, 3 to 83 per cent at secondary level, 0.2 to 37.3 per cent at tertiary level. These enrolment ratios are far from matched with the differences in public expenditure on education. Why?

The answer to the question is tremendously significant for illuminating the cost constraints in education. In brief, unit costs of education at each level differ much less than per capita income between countries and thus the poorer countries have to spend a much higher share of their resources for each person in education than the richer countries. On top of this, the poorer countries have experienced higher rates of population growth than the richer countries, usually 2 to 3 per cent per annum against about half per cent per annum. This in turn results in the school-age population being a substantially higher proportion of the total or working population than in the more developed countries. The economic impact is made more severe by the tendency in many areas to build secondary and higher education facilities at standards which often put considerable strain on the government budget.

The relatively high level of unit costs is explained by the average level of teachers' salaries and the pupil-teacher ratios. As a multiple of per capita income, teachers' salaries in Africa and the Caribbean are much higher than in Asia, and in virtually all developing countries are higher than in the developed countries. This is not to say that teachers alone are well paid. Often they are worse paid than many others with jobs requiring similar educational qualifications. But as a group, teachers and others with qualifications are often paid very highly in relation to the resources and average incomes of the country—with the result that any given share of the nation's resources buys much fewer teaching hours than it would in countries where salaries of the educated were only 2 or 3 times per capita income.

Two further difficulties follow from this situation. First, the cost of raising the quality of the teaching force by employing more educated teachers or upgrading existing teachers becomes proportionately more expensive than in richer countries. Second, the cost of expanding secondary and higher educational levels, which by definition require more highly qualified and trained teachers, also absorbs disproportionately large fractions of public expenditure on education.

Both these factors have operated over the last two decades or longer and account for the very rapid rise in educational costs in spite of much slower increases in enrolments. Since 1950, total public expenditure on education has risen on average some 21 to 23 times in most regions of the Commonwealth and in Africa, on average, it has risen 36 times. The increase of enrolments explains a good part of this rise in education costs, but in total, less than half. The remainder is mainly increases in teachers' salaries, the cumulative result of inflation, upgrading proportionately faster expansion at secondary and higher levels requiring more qualified staff, and to some extent, particularly in the earlier period, increases in teachers' salary scales in relation to the cost of living.

One may note in passing that two factors not mentioned so far have had little influence on changes in costs, though in principle they might have been important. The first is the pupil-teacher ratio, which has changed little since 1960. In spite of a slight tendency to have risen at primary levels and slightly more at secondary and probably higher levels, the potential for major savings in costs by changes in the pupil-teacher ratio has not been exploited. In contrast, and most unfortunately for education quality, expenditure on non-salary items seems too often to have been too low, resulting in ill-equipped classrooms and students and teachers without even sufficient basic books for many subjects. This is particularly tragic because compared with salaries, the impact on total costs of more and better equipment at primary (and often secondary levels) is almost negligible, yet its effect on educational performance is likely to be considerable.

### **The choices ahead — difficult options but real opportunities**

We are so accustomed to treating the financial constraints of education and so much of its cost-determining structure as given, that we often fail to realize what we sacrifice through not exploring options with sufficient imagination. In order to make this clear, one can calculate the extent to which it would be possible to move rapidly to universal primary education *without any increase* in total educational expenditure. This goal is only one of the quantitative measures which could be used. It is chosen, partly because it is in line with the basic needs strategy and partly because it illuminates more general issues, but in an area which in many countries is already accepted as one of high political priority. Many politicians might think again about the diffi-

culties of adopting certain cost-saving measures, if they realized the full extent to which they might make possible a rapid move to universal primary education.

### **Mobilizing teachers**

Education is essentially a labour intensive activity. The human resources required for expansion, persons with the skills and abilities to be teachers, are not lacking. Many such persons, as noted already, are under-employed if not unemployed and seeking work. The problem is not to find them but to mobilize them, to enable them to use their skills and abilities productively.

The conventional way to mobilize them as teachers (or into any other activity) is simply to pay them a salary. But this runs against the financial cost constraints in the sense that most countries lack the finance to pay the additional salary bill and, in turn, the foreign exchange and sometimes local productive capacity needed to supply the goods on which the additional salaries would be spent.

Can nothing be done? In principle, there are two ways around these constraints. One can "wait for growth"—for additional production to become available which will provide the foreign exchange and local resources needed for additional teachers' salaries and their additional consumption. Quite apart from the delays, however, this strategy may never succeed. Salaries and consumption levels have frequently shown a tendency to rise along with overall growth of national income, thus absorbing the gains in paying teachers more rather than in providing for more teachers.

The other objection to this approach is more fundamental. Many of the disastrous problems and inadequacies of the present situation arise precisely because of the failure over the last two decades to achieve redistribution with growth. Structures of production, employment, salaries and government services have been inherited or built up which prevent the general achievement of basic needs for many of the same reasons why basic education for all seems unattainable. Unlocking the structures which will make it possible to mobilize additional teachers for education is part of the wider process of meeting basic needs in general. Similarly, to postpone action on mobilizing under-employed manpower for teaching is probably to postpone action on mobilizing under-employed people and resources for meeting other basic needs as well.

What are the alternatives to "waiting for growth"? Essentially to provide for educational expansion (and to tackle other educational problems) with the resources already available, especially with available human resources. There are three major ways in which this can be done:

- a revision in the effective salary structure of teachers and other employees with comparable education;
- changes in pupil-teacher ratios and the other structural factors determining the major part of educational costs;
- much greater provision of financial support and resources from abroad.

### **Levelling excessive salary differentials**

A revision in the effective salary structure of teachers and other educated persons would make it possible to employ more teachers within a given budget. But it would also make possible a general narrowing of excessive differentials and incentives, one of the critical requirements for the eradication of educated unemployment and the establishment of an incentive structure related to the priorities of rural development and basic needs.

A wholesale restructuring over time of wages and incomes implies a major and sustained incomes and wages policy,

applying to all educated persons, not just teachers. One must frankly admit that in spite of the obvious difficulties in many countries, this seems to be an inescapable need if educated unemployment is to be eliminated and basic needs met.

At the same time, important though less satisfactory alternatives are available, both as positive measures in themselves and hopefully as steps towards more fundamental reforms. Such measures include: the adoption of national service wage scales for teachers and others in the first two or three years after training; the use of volunteer teachers or pupil-monitors; a revision of the automatic link between teacher's qualifications and individual salary grading. Some reduction of excessive salary differentials in general has often been achieved as a by-product of inflation, by providing only partial compensation for cost of living increases among the higher income groups but full compensation for those at the minimum wage level. All these approaches are or have been in operation—though often their broader significance as steps towards more general changes in salary and incentive structures has not been emphasized.

One quite different approach is for government to provide its financial support for education to the local community, and to leave it to the community to supplement in cash or kind the teacher's remuneration, in the form of free housing, free food or assistance with work on the teacher's farm etc. Such an approach, in principle, offers a major way to break through the gap between limited government financial resources and the additional consumption which employing more teachers would generate. It does this by building on the productive resources of the rural areas and not just by finance from central government (though it implies the need to diminish urban bias elsewhere in the community).

Each of these measures can be used singly or in concert, to make possible changes in education expansion and improvements in the short run and, at the same time, to move towards broader changes in salary structure. The extent of the salary changes required will naturally vary with the particular circumstances of each country. If at all possible, the measures should be applied to all salaried workers with educational qualifications, not just to teachers.

The second approach, whether with or without some change in salary structure, would be by changes in the factors internal to the educational system which largely determine its financial costs. These are the pupil-teacher ratio at primary level and those factors at secondary and higher levels which determine unit costs (which in principle could be both salary and non-salary factors).

## Higher pupil-teacher ratios

It is not suggested that changes of this sort would be lightly undertaken, let alone easy to implement. Particularly in countries with wide variations in population density, double sessions in primary schools may be impossible unless boarding facilities are provided. In countries with large land areas relative to population, building more schools and providing more teachers may be the only option for a significant proportion of the out-of-school population. Nevertheless, before they are dismissed as totally impractical, the following points should be carefully considered.

Pupil-teacher ratios of 50 or even 60 do not necessarily mean classes of this size. By means of double-session teaching, alternate classes attending on alternate days, pupil-teacher ratios of 50 or even 60 can be combined with classes of around 30, certainly less than 40. Such methods have all been employed at different times in both developed and developing countries. No doubt they are not ideal—but they may be preferable, educationally and politically, to either very large class sizes or to a whole educational system which leaves large numbers of a nation's children without school places.

— Pupil-teacher ratios are on average higher in those developing countries which have attained primary enrolment ratios of 100 or more than in countries which have not.

— Pupil-teacher ratios of the magnitude of 45 and 50, even 60, both with and without double session teaching are found in a number of countries today.

— Educational research has established no firm relationship, positive or negative, between class size and student performance.

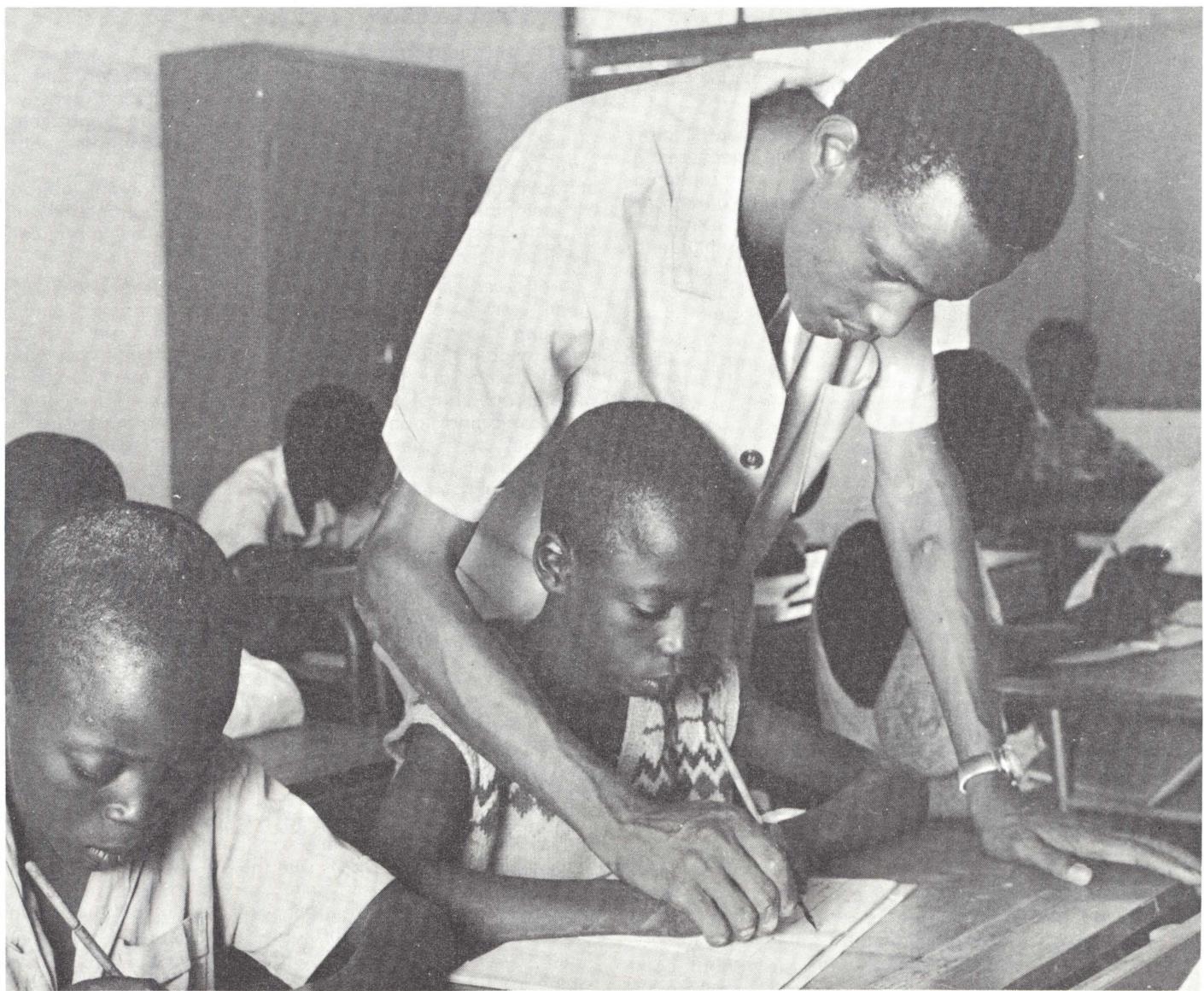
## More foreign aid

The third main option is to rely on outside resources rather than national ones, and so is hardly an example of the self-reliant approach. Nor is it in the present world a serious alternative to changes in salary or institutional structures within countries. International resources of the scale required are simply not in sight—and there is in addition the reluctance of many donors to meet local costs in the way which would be required. It will be recalled that the 1961 Addis Ababa Plan for educational expansion in Africa was based in part on a massive inflow of resources which, in the event, proved to be a totally unjustified approach.

Nevertheless, in a Commonwealth meeting the international dimensions of support for education need to be

*Bringing education "into line with the realities of rural development"*





#### *Are teachers paid too much? Closing the pay gap between the educated and the uneducated "seems to be an inescapable need"*

mentioned. Logically, the international redistribution of resources required is no less justified than the redistribution within countries which the earlier options implied. Moreover, in certain respects—notably in the flows of educational aid and students in one direction and the not unimportant brain drain flows in the other—international educational exchanges already take place. For certain of the poorer countries and in certain areas of specialist skills and technology a continuation and even some expansion of this will be necessary.

If this is to take place in ways which help rather than hinder the earlier policy changes, however, certain changes are required in the way it takes place:

— the supply of expatriate teachers at salary levels and living standards far above local levels only exacerbates the reform of salary structures earlier outlined. The supply of trained teachers on volunteer terms or of teachers from other Third World countries might help to avoid many of these problems;

— the old question of the relevance of curricula, textbooks, technologies and approaches imported from abroad takes on a new importance in the light of basic needs and the priority for rural development;

— support from abroad which sustains or helps to develop centres of excellence rather than centres of extravagance is obviously vital—as a move to emphasize quality in terms that matter and avoid excessive expenditure in other areas which raise unit costs to little effect on educational quality.

All these options imply some changes in the distribution of income. A few may imply some changes in the quality of education, to the benefit of those at present outside the system but at possibly some cost to those at present within it.

#### **To plan is to choose**

Cost or financial arithmetic can illustrate some of the issues, it can even help to dispel some of the illusions as to the nature of the real constraints involved. The purpose of this paper is not to suggest that achieving universal primary education or other educational changes is simply a matter of altering teachers' salaries, juggling with the pupil-teacher ratio or reducing unit costs in secondary and higher education. The educational, organizational, political and social issues are infinitely more complex than this. The financial issues are not. Yet it is the financial issues which usually are the ones which dominate the discussion as to why it is thought impossible to meet basic needs for education for all the population within the foreseeable future. □

## THE CONVENTION AT WORK

### Human rights in Lomé II?

**Claude Cheysson: "It's a subject we will have to discuss calmly with our partners"**

EEC development commissioner Cheysson recently raised the question of a possible human rights clause under a future Lomé II Convention, for which negotiations are to start next year, during an interview with Senegalese journalist Abass Aïdara for Zaire Radio and Television. Extracts from this interview follow:

► It is generally agreed that the Lomé Convention is no ordinary treaty. When we hear the questions about human rights in the ACP countries now being asked by members of the European Parliament we may wonder, perhaps naively, if it was for the sake of efficiency or simply through lack of perception that this issue, which everyone has acknowledged to be fundamental, was not tackled within the framework of the Lomé Convention.

— Lack of perception. We did not realize that this issue would become very controversial to public opinion. A second comment: you say the Lomé treaty is no ordinary treaty. It is the translation, the reflection of a situation in which we are trying to live together,

to work together to build a certain number of things together. Thus it seems to me that this treaty must imply the right for everyone to bring up his problems. We undoubtedly have a problem at present: public opinion has been aroused by some news, related to human rights, which has been published in the press.

A politician, and I am a politician, cannot ignore the fact that there can be no large-scale aid policies for development without the support of European public opinion. Why? Because development aid is not just a little financial aid or some trade facilities, it means searching for means which can be made available to our partners, to enable them to develop, to have access

to our markets, to sell their products in our countries, to enter into more equitable competition with our own activities. Consequently, a real aid policy for development will have an influence on our economy, our life, our society. That is a fact. If public opinion does not understand this, our hands are tied. So what public opinion thinks is an objective element which has to be considered. It is true that the public are upset by some news published in the press.

I believe that we have to help the general public to understand certain things: first of all, the criteria of judgement cannot be the same in Africa and in Europe, just as they are different if you consider 19th Century Europe and 20th Century Europe. If we consider France during the liberation period, we see that terrible things occurred, whereas France is now experiencing a period of peace and quiet. Thus public opinion has to realize that some countries experience crises from time to time, which at the extreme is civil war, as in Ethiopia; and that this situation, unfortunately, brings about excesses which are regrettable but cannot be criticized in themselves.

### "We cannot be indifferent to public opinion"

On the other hand, the public has to understand that we have no right to

### Cheysson tours Caribbean

EEC development commissioner Claude Cheysson toured several Caribbean capitals in September at the head of a delegation of EEC officials. Mr Cheysson visited four ACP countries, the Cooperative Republic of Guyana, Jamaica, Surinam, Trinidad and Tobago, as well as three French overseas territories (DOM), Guadeloupe, French Guyana and Martinique. In Georgetown (Guyana) Mr Cheysson met the Prime Minister, Mr Forbes Burnham (see photograph) and, during a press conference, he affirmed that the EEC states must not tolerate apartheid in South Africa. As far as the EEC's development is concerned, he considered that EEC countries should become more aware of the economic importance of cane-sugar export for Caribbean countries (see pp. XXI and XXII).



judge, nor even to be the least upset, when a country wants to establish a different political structure. Democracy does not involve necessarily a parliamentary system; for us, it does, but in other countries it can involve another system: you can have freedom of opinion within a one-party system, as well as in a multiparty system. That is no concern of ours. Thus there is no question of us interfering in the mode of political organization or in the way opinion is represented in countries which are our partners. On the other hand, when we see that in a country at peace there are systematic massacres, I cannot help thinking that public opinion is right to be upset.

Then what is the place of this in our policy? We cannot be indifferent to public opinion. Its feelings are justified. On the other hand, there is a fundamental principle: there should not be any interference in the affairs of others. I, a Frenchman, would not accept another country interfering in French affairs. When the Americans once declared that political regimes in Europe should not include such and such a party in power, we told them quite coldly that it was none of their business. Consequently, there is no question of us interfering in our partners' domestic affairs. You will tell me there is a contradiction here. We are upset by something happening in another country, we want to be able to express this, and, at the same time, we recognize that we cannot interfere. How are we going to resolve this contradiction? Frankly I have not the slightest idea at the moment. I can only say that I am grateful to you for questioning me on this point; I think that this is a subject that will have to be discussed calmly with our partners, during the negotiations of the next Lomé Convention. In the existing Convention, through a lack of perception as you said, this matter is not covered. Consequently, we have to enforce the Convention as it is. It is completely binding on us.

## ACP agreement

► Before the start of negotiations of Lomé II within the next few months, which will certainly take place after the direct elections to the European Parliament, do you think it will be easier for you to tackle this problem once the elections are over?

— Frankly I do not know. It will depend very much on what we manage to work out together. I say we, because a dialogue is needed between the ACP countries and us, between the Africans and the Europeans. You should understand that we have here a real

problem. I do not ask you to commit yourselves to find a solution, but to help us to explain this problem in a way which is sensible, logical and acceptable to you, because if you do not agree to it, it should not be included in a Convention which is the reflection of a common understanding and life. If we succeed in better determining this problem among us, then I am convinced that we will be able to explain it to political forces in Europe, that is to say the political parties and the representatives of the European Parliament.

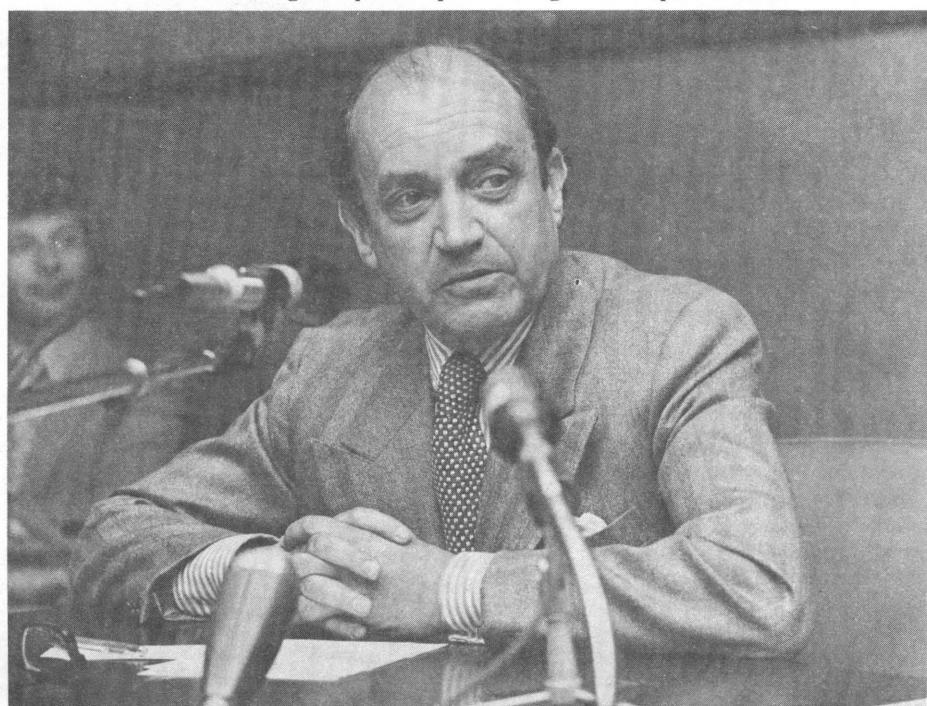
► Do you think that these questions of human rights can be tackled within the framework of the Lomé II negotiations, on the occasion which President Senghor calls the socio-cultural dimension of the Convention or Eurafrique? Do you think that wanting to have the live forces of ACP and European countries participating will allow progress, thanks to the contribution of the trade unions, young people, and why not even women?

— I answer yes without hesitation to the second part of your question. I hesitate a lot about the first part. It is true that the fundamental problems existing among us have to be discussed with the relevant political and cultural authorities of our countries, and I am satisfied that it is the case during a meeting with equal representatives of European Parliaments and ACP states or a meeting with a head of state who is willing to receive me or one of our ministers. I am more hesitant about the first part because President Senghor's

theory, which has evoked much sympathy throughout Europe, does not easily fit into the relations between the Community and all the African countries, African unity. There is such cultural variety in Africa that I sometimes find it difficult, even awkward, to accept that Africa expresses itself as a cultural unit. On the other hand, Europe is not a cultural unit, it does not intend to become one. I am European because I am French and I have no desire that my children, my grand-children or my great-grand-children be German or British. I completely reject the cultural fusion of the European peoples. I claim that we have a right to cultural diversity. I will go further—far from progressing towards cultural fusion in Europe, I think that, on the contrary, each region of Europe has to be allowed to express itself culturally. It is not because I am in Belgium that I say this. I say this for France and I believe that Corsican, Breton, Alsatian and other such cultures have a right to express themselves. Then to talk of European cultural unity not only shocks me but offends me; to talk of African cultural unity evokes, of course, important themes: your taste for rythm, your musical talent, your presentation of sociological phenomena, of phenomena of relations in society, in the form of great movements of colours and sounds, what Senghor calls the black culture. This evokes my sympathy, but to go further in cultural expression, in socio-cultural expression, with reference to Africa, makes me feel uncomfortable and, with reference to Europe, I categorically reject this idea.

Claude Cheysson

**"When we see that in a country at peace there are systematic massacres, I cannot help thinking that public opinion is right to be upset"**



J.L. DEBAZE — CEE

## **EUROPEAN DEVELOPMENT FUND**

The Commission of the European Communities has taken the following further decisions to finance projects from the resources of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th EDFs, bringing total 4th EDF commitments so far to 926750000 EUA.

### **Tonga**

#### **4th EDF**

Exceptional aid: 200000 EUA, equal to approximately T \$ 182000.

This is to help cover the cost of repairing the damage caused by the earthquake of 25 June 1977 in the Tongatapu and Tuwa Islands. It should cover the bulk of the costs of the reconstruction teams and the purchase of equipment and building materials for repairs to schools and hospitals.

### **Djibouti**

1. 4th EDF: Rural water supply (supply of drilling equipment).

Grant: 650000 EUA, equal to approximately DF 129870000.

The purpose of this project is to supply the Republic of Djibouti with the necessary drilling equipment and means of transport to enable it to carry out deep drilling operations as part of a short-term rural water supply programme.

This equipment will make it possible to bring about a substantial improvement in the living conditions of the nomadic population by establishing water supply points and areas for fodder and food crop cultivation where the only permanent source of water is deep ground water; in the longer term, this equipment will also make it possible to undertake further surveys with a view to the improved evaluation of ground-water resources and their exploitation for agricultural and industrial purposes.

2. 4th EDF: Extensions to the Djibouti town drainage system.

Grant: 310000 EUA, equal to approximately DF 61938000.

This project is necessary for the functioning of the Salines Area project, which was carried out under the 3rd EDF at a cost of 3071000 EUA.

The bulk of the aid will be spent on (a) supplementary works (primary and secondary waste water networks) and (b) equipment to maintain the existing Djibouti drainage system.

3. 4th EDF: Fixing of an interim training programme.

Grant: 70000 EUA, equal to approximately DF 13986000.

This sum is to cover the cost of (a) a number of development planning scholarships and (b) the organization of a 2-3 month seminar to improve the qualifications of some thirty future middle and higher management staff.

### **St. Vincent**

4th EDF: Reconstruction of the Georgetown-Peruvian Vale Road (17 km).

Grant: 1920000 EUA, equal to approximately EC \$5850000.

This project involves the reconstruction and strengthening of the road connecting Peruvian Vale to Georgetown (16.7 km); this section is the northern part of the Windward Highway, linking the most important agricultural area of the island, located in the east, with the capital and deep-water harbour of St. Vincent.

Almost half (10000 t) of St. Vincent's banana exports come from this area, which has a population of approximately 30000.

### **Dominica**

4th EDF: Coastal roads (36 km).

Grant: 1960000 EUA, equal to approximately EC \$5962000.

The project involves the bituminizing of two sections of the ring-road linking the island's economic centres; the first section connects Salisbury and Portsmouth on the west coast, and the second connects Hatton Garden with Castle Bruce on the east coast. The aim of the project is to reduce transport costs and thereby stimulate the development of tourism and agriculture in Dominica.

### **All ACP states and OCTD**

4th EDF: Fixing of an overall sum for the programme of basic and advanced training courses for the period 1 February 1977 to 31 December 1978.

Amount: 650000 EUA.

The aim of this project is to finance (a) short training courses for ACP students or ACP nationals, particularly executives of national enterprises, and (b) advanced training courses for ACP officials.

The programmes scheduled cover the period 1 February 1977 to 31 December 1978.

### **All ACP states**

4th EDF: Budget of the Centre for Industrial Development

Amount: 1300000 EUA.

In addition to operating expenditure, the Centre's budget covers programme expenditure, i.e. expenditure on promotional contacts and meetings, information and press relations, contribution to prefeasibility studies, short-term expertise, assistance to existing industries and a training programme.

### **Réunion: Port of Pointe des Galets**

2nd and 3rd EDFs: Development of open storage areas.

Amount: 468800 000 EUA, equal to approximately FF 2625800.

This sum is intended to cover the cost of developing 28400 square metres of open storage area equipped with the various necessary services and connected with the existing access roads to the port. This development is essential in view of the increasing volume of traffic handled by the port of Pointe des Galets.

### **French Guiana: Port of Le Larivot**

3rd EDF: Construction of a fishing wharf.

Amount: 454000 EUA, equal to approximately FF 1976800.

The aim of this project is the construction of a fishing wharf 76.40 m long between the two existing wharves at Le Larivot, 15 km from Cayenne, thereby forming a single wharf 446.40 m long.

Since the quantities of fish landed will increase from 2651 t in 1975 to approximately 6000 t in 1990 (local consumption plus exports), this scheme will help meet the fishing industry's requirements.

### **Kenya**

1. 4th EDF: First annual microprojects programme.

Grant: 63000 EUA (equivalent at present rates to approximately KSh 5907510

The first annual microprojects programme put forward by the Kenyan government is mainly concerned with rural and social development, particularly:

— agricultural water engineering (water supply, distribution and irrigation); water supply in rural areas has been given top priority in the Kenyan national development plan for the period 1974-1978;

— social infrastructure in rural areas (unaided village secondary schools); unaided village secondary schools (under the "Harambée" self-help tradition) need substantial support to fill the gap between available places in state secondary schools and the much higher number of students who have completed primary education, as Kenyan authorities have provided primary education for almost all children.

2. The Commission of the European Communities decided on 25 August 1977 to grant the Republic of Kenya immediate exceptional aid amounting to 300000 EUA from the resources of the 4th EDF.

This aid is to help the government in its efforts to make good the damage caused by the torrential rains and floods in the suburbs of Nairobi, the western region of the country and the coastal region.

The work involves mainly repairs to road and social infrastructure and the replanting of food crops.

## Madagascar

1. 4th EDF: Microproject programme.  
Grant: 2060000 EUA (i.e. at present approximately 577006000 MGF).

This microproject programme based on rural development involves especially:

- the construction of warehouses, workshops, micro-factories;
- action to develop livestock;
- the development of fishery and livestock production;
- the construction of wells, foundation rafts, culverts, tracks;
- the setting-up of national leisure and youth centres.

Under the provisions of the Lomé Convention, this programme is financed jointly by the EDF (42%), the local communities involved (15%) and the Malagasy State (42%).

2. 4th EDF: Microhydraulic engineering programme.

Grant: 4480000 EUA or at present approximately MgF I 254848000.

- Improvement of agricultural production on land currently under cultivation;
- increase in crop acreages;
- improvement of the food self-sufficiency ratio;
- allowing for increase in population;
- job creation, with the provision of housing facilities for several thousand families;
- import reduction.

These are the main objectives of the Community financing, which should

enable farmers' incomes to be increased and the standard of living to be improved in the region of Hauts Plateaux and Haut Mandrare.

This programme, lasting four years, will affect a population of approximately 150000 (22000 holdings) and will cover 22000 ha.

## Rwanda

4th EDF: Kigoma-Mururu high-tension line.

Grant: 3900000 EUA or at present approximately 410670000 Rw.F.

This grant is intended to provide supplementary financing for the completion of the Kigoma-Mururu high-tension line. This country is now being supplied from the Ntaruka power station, which can no longer cover demand and has to be supplemented by the energy capacities of the Mururu power station. It is thus necessary to lay a high-tension line, 185 km long, divided into two sections, between Kigali and Mururu. The lack of initial financing results from a certain number of difficulties, especially: updating of the tender, price variations (due to the extension of the term completing the contract—36 months then 48 months), change in exchange rate, and finally extra work.

## Niger

4th EDF: Continuation of rural development in the Badéguichéri Department (2nd phase).

Grant: 2954000 EUA or at present approximately CFAF 827415400.

The first 1266000 EUA integrated development project (dry crops) of the Badéguichéri valley (located south of Tahoua in the low and middle Illela valley) was intended:

- to increase cotton production;
- to improve the soil by anti-erosion work;
- to obtain participation of the peasants in the management of the proposed schemes.

The aim of this allocation of 2954000 EUA is to carry on the operation, which will reach a total cost of 4220000 EUA.

The results of the first operation look hopeful and the financing of the second phase should allow their consolidation and the achievement of the original objectives.

## Chad

4th EDF: Integrated agricultural development of Southern Chad.

Grant: 15631000 EUA or at present approximately CFAF 1577243100.

This is to consolidate the hopeful results obtained during the first phase

of the integrated agricultural of Southern Chad, which ended during the crop-year 1976/1977.

The main objectives of the project are:

- to extend cotton production;
- to diversify agricultural production by the extension of food cereal production;
- to extend the combination of arable farming with stock-breeding;
- to increase participative organizations of farmers and stock-breeders.

This project is an important part of the Chad action programme in the rural sector for the period 1977/1982, both as far as the scale of financing and the scope and economic importance of the area are concerned.

The project should consolidate the situation of farmers who have already modernized their farms, the creation of new "modern" holdings and the increase in food production and agricultural diversification.

## Upper Volta, Niger, Mali and Togo

4th EDF: Study for the Fada N'Gourma-Niamey road on the Ouagadougou-Niamey axis.

Grant: 1000000 EUA.

The aim of this regional project is to carry out an economic study and draw up the technical dossiers necessary for the execution of the road, which will link Fada N'Gourma (Upper Volta) to Niamey, capital of Niger.

The financing of this study has been requested by Togo, Upper Volta, Niger, Mali and the Conseil de l'Entente.

The objective of the financing is to provide the economic and technical studies necessary to complete documentation for submission to potential financiers.

The section of road in question is part of the West-East link (Bamako-Lake Chad) and the Niamey-Lomé (port) road link.

The economic study will outline the interest—especially economic—and the various advantages for the countries involved.

The cost of the project is divided up as follows: 650000 EUA for the section located in Upper Volta, 350000 EUA for the section in Nigeria.

## Liberia

4th EDF: W.V.S. Tubman Technical Institute, Harper.

Grant: 1000000 EUA—at present about LIB \$ 1143000.

This project fits into the framework of the government's national education policy.

The Community financing will be assigned to:

- the overhaul and the equipping of certain college buildings meant for special technical training at further education level;
- the construction of two workshops (with equipment);
- necessary technical assistance, and the granting of scholarships.

The Liberian government will cover other capital expenditure required by the project and will ensure its financing.

This project should allow the speeding-up of training in professional and technical sectors which have now a shortage of labour.

## Ivory Coast

4th EDF: The peasant community of the Kossou Lake.

Special grant: 3600 000 EUA or at present about CFAF 1008360000

The aim of this project is to set up 2000 family holdings in the savannah belt surrounding the Kossou Lake (central Ivory Coast).

Agriculture will for a long time still remain the essential production sector of the Ivory Coast economy.

The objectives of this project are as follows:

- to even out the regional imbalance between forest and savannah belts by a better geographical distribution of investment;
- to encourage people to stay in the region by providing them with agricultural production systems which give attractive surplus returns;
- to increase considerably regional agricultural production by an extension and intensification of farming.

Community aid will cover preliminary studies, land preparation, rural infrastructures, equipment required for introduction of the use of draught animals, supervisory staff and training equipment.

This project should bring about a considerable increase in regional agricultural production, a rise in farmers' incomes, a decrease in the market scarcity of some agricultural produce and, consequently, a reduction of imports.

## Burundi

4th EDF: Production of timber.

Grant: 2551000 EUA—at present about Bur F 260712200.

The project is intended to plant trees on 3200 ha of damaged land in the Mumirwa region.

Apart from increasing timber production, this operation will help to protect basins which form the banks of several rivers flowing into Lake Tanganyika.

This project should enable Burundi not only to avoid importing increasing quantities of timber, but especially to stop over-exploitation of its rapidly declining forest resources.

The Community aid will finance:

- nursery planting;
- land preparation, planting of seedlings;
- upkeep for five years,

This project will lead to the creation of new jobs and the provision of incomes. It will bring about a reduction of medium and long-term imports and less dependence of the national economy on the outside world.

## Ghana

1. 4th EDF: Development of oil palm cultivation at Twifo.

Loan on special terms: 6800000 EUA — at present about Cedis 8785600

The project is concerned with the creation of an agro-industrial complex in the Twifo-Mampong region (central province), covering an area of some 10000 ha in the Hamang Lands, which are at present state property.

It is one of the three vegetable oil development projects supported by the Ghanaian government whose essential purpose is to supply the domestic market with vegetable oil; this action should enable foreign exchange savings, while securing lower and more stable prices. The complex will include a 4800 ha oil palm plantation, a 1200 ha area of vegetable oil small-holdings and a processing plant for fresh produce from these palm plantations and from the 200 ha of small estates already cultivated on the initiative of the CEREDEC (development association of the central province).

When the complex reaches its full working capacity (13th-14th year), the annual maximum production will exceed 16000 tonnes of palm oil and 3000 tonnes of cabbage palms. At present prices (643 EUA per tonne of palm oil and 101 EUA per tonne of cabbage palm), the gross return would amount to 10.6 M EUA per year.

The EDF loan on special terms (40 years, 10-year grace period, 1% interest rate) will cover foreign exchange costs (a total 6.8 M EUA) of the project development, during the period of eight years which will elapse before it finances itself. The Commonwealth Development Corporation (CDC) will allocate 5.3 M EUA to cover the foreign exchange costs of the plant, whereas the government, supported by other

public and private sources, will finance all local expenditure (about 26.2 M EUA).

2. 4th EDF: Weija irrigation pilot project

Grant: 3125000 EUA (equivalent at present rates to approximately Cedis 4037500).

This EDF grant constitutes the first stage of the contribution to a three-phase programme, intended to set up an irrigation network covering a 1500 ha area of small-holdings at Weija (25 km west of Accra).

The main objective of this project is to meet the needs of the domestic market for market-garden produce (tomatoes, onions, aubergines...). Ghana is a net importer of foodstuffs and the development of these 1500 ha is of great importance.

At this first stage, the Community contribution will concentrate mainly on expensive construction ventures, the main water-supply network, water mains and the infrastructure necessary for the development of the project.

The irrigation department at the Ministry of Agriculture will be responsible for the implementation and administration of the project.

## Congo

4th EDF: Fixing an amount for the financing of a pluriannual training programme 1976-1980.

Grant: 1100000 EUA, equivalent at present rates to approximately 308110000 CFAF.

In the indicative programme for the People's Republic of the Congo, 4.4% of the total amount of Community aid will be allocated to training.

In accordance with the objectives of the national plan, the reported requirements have led to the setting-up of a general scholarship programme mainly concerned with training in the following fields: agriculture, mines and energy, and health. The selected specializations will allow management staff to be trained in these three sectors of the economy and will serve principally to implement and maintain EDF projects.

Furthermore several specific actions concerned with training will be undertaken, especially for three particular cases:

- the town-hall of Brazzaville (maintenance by the urban highways department);
- the National Board of Congo Palm Plantations (RNPC) (accounting staff and upkeep of plantations);
- the SIACONGO—sugar-mill, flour-milling and oil-mill—(personnel, stock and supply staff).

## **Madagascar**

4th EDF: Fixing an amount for the financing of a pluriannual training programme 1976-1980.

Grant: 1900000 EUA, equivalent at present rates to approximately MgF 532190000.

This Community training programme carried out jointly with the Malagasy authorities includes mainly scholarships and training courses in the field of technology, economics and health.

Moreover the EDF will contribute in the retraining of middle and top management in conjunction with other aid sources (financing of certain organization expenses, as well as participants' lodging).

## **Ethiopia**

4th EDF: Pluriannual training programme (1976-1980) (first phase).

Grant: 1631000 EUA, equivalent at present rates to approximately Birr 3881780.

Community aid for education and training in this country is twofold: the general education programme; the pluriannual training programme (1976-1980).

This programme was established to take account of the following objectives:

- to cover training requirements for EDF-financed projects;
- to meet skilled labour requirements in the following fields:
  - agriculture;
  - mines and energy;
  - urbanization and housing.
- to meet general, but more specific, requirements such as those of navigation, air security and professional training for postal and telecommunications departments.

## **Senegal**

4th EDF: Fixing an amount for the financing of a pluriannual training programme 1976-1980.

Grant: 3527000 EUA — at present about 987912700 FCFA.

This pluriannual training programme has been worked out taking into account education reform in Senegal. This reform aims particularly at developing technical and professional training.

It has the following characteristics:

- the agricultural and technical sectors account for 94 % of the training planned;
- training at further education level will be carried out in Senegal (72 %) or in the EEC states (22 %);

— emphasis will be laid on training teachers.

This programme is geared to priority sectors of the national development plan and should contribute considerably to the success of the Senegalese government's efforts in the field of education.

## **Chad**

4th EDF: Pluriannual training programme 1976-1980.

Grant: 1900000 EUA, equivalent at present rates to approximately CFAF 532190000.

This Community financing will mainly cover a pluriannual scholarship programme, providing a certain number of specific types of training according to the needs expressed by the Chad government.

Emphasis will be laid on training in the following fields: health, agriculture, economics, equipment, education.

With a view to adjusting training to national and African realities, only some types of training (12 % of the total) will be carried out in Europe. The remaining scholarships will be granted for training on the spot or in other ACP states.

## **Togo**

4th EDF: Fixing an amount for the financing of a pluriannual training programme 1976-1980.

Grant: 4924000 EUA, equivalent at present rates to approximately CFAF 1379212400.

This programme, worked out by the Togo government, is important owing to its effect on the achievement of the objectives of the plan.

On one hand, training actions are intended to be combined with development projects, with financing provided by Community aid.

On the other hand, they have been selected according to priority aims of the country's social and economic development plan.

— With reference to training connected with the projects, note should be taken of:

- training of personnel required in certain sectors such as: meat production, development of cotton-growing, maintenance of village water engineering projects and of the railways (connected with the CIMAO project).

— With reference to training connected with priority aims of the plan, emphasis is laid on the following sectors: agriculture, industrial technology, tourism, education.

This important training programme should contribute considerably to the successful implementation of the third national plan.

## **Guyana**

4th EDF: Aid for national small and medium-sized firms.

Special credit: 700000 EUA, at present about G\$ 2040500.

This EDF loan on special terms (40 years, 10-year grace period with interest at 1 %), in the form of a line of credit, will be placed at the disposal of the AGRIBANK (Guyana Agricultural Cooperative Bank) for Guyana's small and medium-sized firms, as provided for by the Lomé Convention. This grant will be guaranteed by the Guyanese government.

The AGRIBANK was established on 27 May 1973, under the 1962 Public Corporation Act. It was entrusted with raising the necessary funds to promote the development of agriculture, fishery, forestry and allied industries. The AGRIBANK provides loans to farmers, fishermen and cooperatives with a view to developing:

- crops (citrus fruits, mangos, avocados, etc.);
- livestock (beef for slaughter, dairy cows, pigs, goats, poultry);
- short-term crops (corn, soya, cotton, other food crops);
- purchase of farm machinery and equipment;
- commercial, coastal and high-sea fishing and fish-breeding;
- forestry, including sawmills;
- firms for treating and processing agricultural produce.

## **Jamaica**

4th EDF: Trade promotion.

Grant: 650000 EUA. Special loan: 1000000 EUA — at present about J \$ 656500 and 1010000.

To overcome lasting deficits of some items of its balance of payments and to check chronic unemployment, the Jamaican government has planned measures to improve the balance of payments and to create new jobs by increasing exports, especially through small and medium-sized firms.

The present project is part of this policy. Its aim is to promote exports by various actions, especially:

- general-purpose promotion campaigns, along with experts' missions;
- particular promotion actions for local products;
- supply of advertising material;
- organization of seminars on export development;

— technical and financial assistance to the planned Export Trading House.

## Liberia

1. 4th EDF: Scientific and technological centre, Cape Palmas High School, Harper.

Grant: 450000 EUA — at present about Lib \$ 514350.

The project consists of the construction, finishing and equipping of a scientific and technical centre at Cape Palmas High School, in Maryland.

The centre will not only take students who have completed the first stage of secondary education (currently 494 students) and from the second stage (376 students), but also students from other neighbouring schools. The proposed programme is not intended to train young people for specific jobs, but to give them useful experience and basic practical knowledge with a view to further specialization later. The objective is to make young people who leave school at the end of the first stage of secondary education familiar with fundamental technological principles and with work methods, in order to lay the foundations of further professional and technical training. This early preparation for professional life should lead young Liberians to opt for professional/technical training at the second stage of secondary education or at the level of further education. This corresponds to Liberia's needs at the present stage of its development.

2. 4th EDF: First annual microproject programme.

Grant: 300000 — at present about Lib \$ 342900.

This microproject programme is mainly based on rural and social development; it involves more particularly the construction of wells for drinking water, rural tracks (from farm to market), markets, schools.

This programme will be implemented under the supervision of the department of rural development at the Ministry of the Interior.

The EDF contribution for each sub-project ranges from 1100 to 20000 EUA.

The scale of distribution of the overall financing is as follows: 40% for the EDF, 40% for the Liberian government, 20% for the local communities.

## Malawi

4th EDF: Drainage network at Liwonde.

Grant: 600000 EUA — at present about Kwacha 618000.

The purpose of this Community financing is the construction of a drainage-network in the city of Liwonde, which is an important cross-roads for road, rail and river traffic.

This project is justified for the following reasons:

— social necessity of a better drainage system;

— need for a system with sufficient capacity to meet future requirements resulting from the recent industrial development and housing increase.

The EDF contribution will involve the setting up of a drainage network, a pumping station and processing installations, worth a total of 600000 EUA.

## Nigeria

4th EDF: Technical assistance to the first International Fair of Lagos.

Grant: 151422 EUA — at present about Naira 114926.

The objective is to place the services of qualified professionals at the disposal of Nigerian authorities, and especially the Federal Ministry of Trade and its officials responsible for this first international trade fair in Lagos, to ensure efficient management and promotion of the fair.

The Nigerian authorities are expecting numerous countries of Africa, the Middle East, East Europe, the EEC and other Western countries to participate.

As far as exhibitions are concerned, it will be the boldest and most impressive venture in the history of independent Nigeria.

The fair should promote inter-African and regional trade and open the rapidly-expanding Nigerian market to foreign suppliers (engineering equipment, industrial products, capital equipment, agricultural and technical services).

## Mali

4th EDF: Launching of the Centre for Industrial Surveys and Promotion (CEPI).

Grant: 270000 EUA (approx. 151254000 Mali F). Special loan: 180000 EUA (Mali F 100836000).

This project (subsidy worth 270000 EUA) relates above all to the provision of technical and financial assistance to the CEPI, whose objective is to contribute to the industrialization of this country. For this purpose, the CEPI will be responsible for:

— planning, launching and running new businesses under government initiation;

— supplying technical assistance (identification and study of projects, consulting, supervision and training) and financial aid (contribution to the share capital and guarantee) to small firms in Mali;

— ensuring encouragement of foreign promoters and investors in Mali.

Secondly, the special loan of 180000 EUA is to finance guarantee and share funds. These will enable Malian industrialists, under CEPI supervision, to have access to rediscountable bank credit either through the temporary CEPI contribution to the share capital of the promoted firm, or through a guarantee to raise equipment loans. One of the main obstacles to the access of most qualified and dynamic craftsmen to production and small-scale sale will thus be removed.

The Community contribution accounts for about 15% of the project's total cost. The remainder will be provided from the Malian budget and various external aid sources.

## Rwanda

4th EDF: Completion of the project "development of tea-growing on small plantations and the Mata tea factory".

Loan on special terms: 2564000 EUA. Grant: 936000 EUA — at present about RwF 259459200 and RwF 98560800.

The aim is to provide supplementary Community financing from the 4th EDF for the development of tea-growing on small plantations and for assistance to the ONDT (National Organization for the Development of Tea-growing). In 1972 this organization was financed from the 3rd EDF (7300000 EUA), and the new financing is for the completion of the project.

It involves, in particular, financing of a tea factory, technical assistance for three years and supplementary infrastructure (roads, tree-planting, water supply) for the Mata plantations.

When fully operational, the "development of tea-growing" project will produce (by 1986) 3600 tonnes of tea, 916 tonnes from the Mata project, intended almost totally for export.

Considered in isolation, the Mata project will increase the incomes of approximately 3300 growers by about 50%; it will provide jobs for roughly 700 workers (pickers, labour for plantations and the factory); it will distribute an income of about 366000 EUA per year; tea exports will secure annual net foreign exchange earnings of 808000 EUA.

The EDF contribution amounts to 3500000 EUA, in the form of a loan on special terms (2564000) and a grant (936000).

## STABEX

### What happened to 1975 Stabex grants

By July last year, 19 ACP countries had received compensation for shortfalls in export earnings under the first application of the Stabex system. What did they do with the money?

Apart from Ghana, all these countries had reported back to the EEC Commission by October as required under the Lomé Convention (article 20). The first estimates from these initial reports show that:

- A little over 20% of the Stabex grants was ploughed back into the shortfall export areas to increase production;
- About 20% was set aside for Treasury funds;
- The remainder went into agriculture or infrastructure projects.

Five countries put back only a part of their Stabex grants into the shortfall sectors.

The Commission plans to analyse the effects of this first Stabex exercise on the beneficiary countries' economic development and on their foreign trade. □

## EIB

### Construction of a sugar mill in Kenya

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has provided a loan of 12 million units of account(1) to help to finance the construction of a sugar mill at Awendo in the South Nyanza province in Kenya.

The loan has been made to the South Nyanza Sugar Company Ltd (SNSC) for 15 years at an interest rate of 5.75%, after deduction of a 3% interest rebate drawn from the resources of the European Development Fund, as provided for under the Lomé Convention.

The production capacity of the sugar mill will be 60000 tonnes per year and sugar-cane to be processed will come from a 3400 ha central plantation, which is being developed by the SNSC, and from small-holdings with a total acreage of 9000 ha.

The project should allow substantial foreign exchange savings, as the new production would replace imports. It should also have an effect on employment since, allowing for family farm workers on small-holdings and seasonal labour required at harvest time, the

total number of new jobs created directly or indirectly is put at 8000.

This loan brings the total financing provided by the EIB so far for industrial development in Kenya up to 24 million of units of account, under the terms of the Lomé Convention.

In October 1976 the EIB provided an overall loan of 2 million units of account to the Development Finance Company of Kenya Ltd to carry out various industrial projects across the country. A loan of 3 million units of account was granted to the East African Portland Cement Company Ltd to finance expansion of the Athi River cement works. It was signed in May of this year. In July 1977 the Bank also provided a loan of 5.88 million units of account to the Kenya Furfural Company and agreed to contribute 1.1 million units of account to the company's own share capital.

### Loan for industrial and tourist development in Mauritius

Under the terms of the Lomé Convention, the European Investment Bank has granted a global loan of 3000000 units of to the Development Bank of Mauritius (DBM).

These funds will allow the DBM to finance small and medium-sized ventures in the industrial and tourist sectors. These ventures will be selected by the DBM with the agreement of the EIB.

This loan is granted for 12 years at an interest rate of 5 $\frac{7}{8}$ %, after allowing for a rebate of 3% drawn from the resources of the European Development Fund, as provided for by the Lomé Convention.

The DBM was created in 1963; it is a public institution whose capital is held by the State and the Bank of Mauritius (Central Bank). It has played an essential part in financing industrial and tourist development, thus diversifying the Mauritian economy, which has for a long time been based exclusively on sugar-cane.

The Mauritian Development Plan 1976-1980, which provides for the creation of 76000 new jobs within five years, nearly two-thirds of which will be in industry and tourism, will involve considerable growth of DBM activities.

Besides the EIB, the World Bank, the African Development Bank and the French Central Fund for Economic Cooperation have also made contributions to DBM resources.

(1) 1 EUA = about 9.26 Ken. shillings or 1.134 US\$.

(2) 1 EUA = about 7.40 Maur. rupees.

## FAIRS AND EXHIBITIONS

### Berlin

#### ACP exhibitors must do more than just set up their stands and cross their fingers

"The biggest oriental bazaar in the western world" was how a Berlin newspaper greeted the 1977 version of the "Partners in Progress" Fair on its opening day. No pejorative implication was meant, but it shows the danger which threatens the "Partners in Progress" fair: that of becoming just a place of escape for the people of Berlin, who come here to breathe in the air of open spaces and exotic continents, doubly attractive for a capital like Berlin with a particular geopolitical situation.

It was not what the Berliners bought that made the event so successful, although in three days more than 26000 people visited the two halls out of seven which were open to the general public. The promoters reserved the other five large stands at the fair for professionals, of whom 4000 came to visit the fair, to establish contacts and, if necessary, to place their first orders.

As usual the Community had provided financial aid to its ACP partners (and even to some other participants) so that they could attend the fair. For its part, the AMK Company (Ausstellungen, Messen, Kongresse), the unofficial promoter of Berlin fairs and congresses, paid for interpreting services and granted some other facilities to exhibitors. Under these conditions, 19 ACP countries wanted to participate (two more withdrew at the last minute), most of them African. A special mention should be given to Surinam, a newcomer to the Lomé Convention; the stand team acknowledged that this country was particularly anxious to be put on the map for Europeans, for whom Surinam often means nothing or at best a country somewhere in Africa.

However, business was the main concern of the other exhibitors. First it may be observed that, on the whole, the English-speaking African states displayed more imagination and boldness than the French-speaking countries in their stands. Ghana, the Sudan, Tanzania and Lesotho worked partic-



The Mayor of Berlin, Dietrich Stobbe (left), with the representative of Surinam, which is taking part in the Berlin fair for the first time

ularly hard to attract potential importers. Among the French-speaking countries, the Ivory Coast and Madagascar displayed stands which were centred on some well-selected products and were run very professionally. But even for these countries, it was noticeable that better coordination between the relevant authorities in Berlin and in the respective capitals could have increased sales opportunities. The time is past when it was enough for an office or a department of the Board of Trade to dispatch an all-purpose package to Europe and then to ask the manager of the stand to muddle through.

Moreover, a fair such as "Partners in Progress" stresses almost painfully the rise of other countries of the Third World. The countries of South-East Asia are already known for their commercial aggressiveness and imagination. Now the Latin Americans have also woken up and offer an extremely varied range of products in industrial fields, which are important for Africa: textiles, leather and skins. Participants have to be continually vigilant to maintain their positions, let alone to improve them. The chances of the ACP countries are better in the field of odd-season fruit and vegetables. But exotic agricultural products in particular require a long-term and well-run promotion campaign to get the European customer familiar with such tastes as mango or guava juice. It is not enough to give passers-by a spoonful of mango jelly.

Besides technical problems related to better marketing, this year other matters gave rise to concern at the "Partners in Progress" fair. The economic crisis is a real and obvious fact for all exhibitors. In addition there is the threat to Third World textile exports to Europe; although the ACP states are not directly involved, they are becoming worried. In reply to criticism at the opening of the fair, Klaus Meyer, director-general of development at the EEC Commission, did his best to calm anxieties. Some extracts from his speech may be read below, in which he recalls that free trade is the basic principle of the European Community. However, it has to be admitted that uncertainties about the future predominated in Berlin. In fact they compel the Third World countries to renew and to improve their promotion methods and to diversify their production. The Community can and must support them in this effort; it has the necessary means, especially since the setting-up of the Centre for Industrial Development. □

Louis Joos

\* \*

**Satya Nandan, Fijian ambassador in Brussels and President of the Committee of ACP Ambassadors, attended the opening of the fair, as well as Klaus Meyer, Director-General for Development at the EEC Commission. Ambassador Nandan said:**

"The 15th 'Partners in Progress' fair for imports from overseas once more gives the ACP countries a unique chance to improve their commercial relations with the Community, particularly in the field of marketing and promoting their products. At the same time, this fair gives European importers an opportunity to become more familiar with ACP products and to estimate their chances of success in selling to Europe. More than 20 ACP countries are represented here this year, which is a promising and encouraging sign of the future development of trade relations between the ACP group and the Community."

"I wish the organizers and all the participants the greatest success."

**Mr Meyer, speaking for the European Community, talked about cooperation between the EEC and the Third World.**

*The European Community and its Member States, thanks to their development policy, can claim to have taken the lead in the world. They are linked to more than 50 black African, Pacific and Caribbean countries by important contractual commitments (the Lomé Convention). Nowhere else in the world have industrialized countries signed such important, binding and irrevocable commitments.*

*This action does not imply any trusteeship, either economic—they themselves establish the priorities of their development programmes—or political—Europe has not the slightest influence on their form of State or society. The necessary decisions and measures are examined and laid down by bodies where both sides are equally represented. The Convention, to a certain extent, constitutes the testing ground of a new world economic order.*

*Besides those particular relations of the European Community, there is a complementary action in favour of other states of the developing world. This year agreements have been signed with Arab countries in the Mediterranean basin, relating to financial, tech-*

**Klaus Meyer (left), Director-General of Development at the EEC Commission, visiting the Sudan stand at the "Partners in Progress" Fair in Berlin**



nical and economic cooperation. Since 1968 the Community has provided food aid for the poorest developing countries, which will total 326 million DM this year. It has started extending financial aid to non-associated states, amounting to 53 million DM last year, and 119 million DM this year. Of course these Community actions are not carried out in isolation. On the contrary, a consistent whole should gradually arise from national and Community measures.

In 1971 the Community introduced—ahead of the industrialized countries—a generalized system of preferences for the import of manufactured goods and semi-finished products from developing countries, a system which has been continually improved since then. Those preferences have enabled a volume of import, totalling roughly 17.5 billion DM, to be made available this year. Since 1974 the Community has doubled this volume.

This year the Community has also carried on its programme of trade promotion in favour of developing countries. Furthermore a part of the present exhibition is an example of this. This year more than 60 countries and some 35 exhibitions and fairs will benefit by this action.

We, the European industrialized countries, are as dependent on developing countries as they are on us. In 1976 developing countries accounted for 20% of Community exports, nearly as much as the United States (11%) and the state-trading countries (10%) together. Without the demand from developing countries, over the last few years, (a demand which still increased by 6% in 1975, whereas that of other industrialized countries decreased by 17%), the crisis we were faced with, would have been even more serious. In 1976 nearly 18% of Community imports came from developing countries, that is to say more than the United States (16%). We are very dependent on imports from these countries of various raw materials and foodstuffs. Moreover as far as economic policy is concerned, it is in Europe's interest to encourage, by aid programmes, the recovery process started in developing countries. Why should we not boost still more the potential demand existing in these countries, precisely because we have under-used capacities at home? In the long-term, the key to our own growth lies perhaps in the purchasing power of the masses

in these countries. In this matter, we may witness, on a new world-wide scale, the recurrence of phenomena which have characterized our development."

## Dar es Salaam

This year, for the first time, there was a stand of the European Community at the Dar es Salaam International Trade Fair. This is the new name for what was formerly known as the Saba Saba (seven seven) fair, named after the seventh of July, the day of foundation of the ruling party Tanu. When the party changed its name to Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM) following merger with the Afro-Shirazi party of Zanzibar, the date of the trade fair was also changed (August 1-9 this year).

The stand of the Community was organized by the Information Directorate-General of the Commission and described the Community, its development policies and what the Lomé Convention can do for Tanzania. During the period of the fair a seminar on the Lomé Convention was organized at the Institute of Finance Management in Dar es Salaam, which was addressed by Ndugu Edwin Mtei, Tanzania's finance minister and officials of the EEC's information directorate.

(1) 1 UCE = roughly DM 2.65.

## London

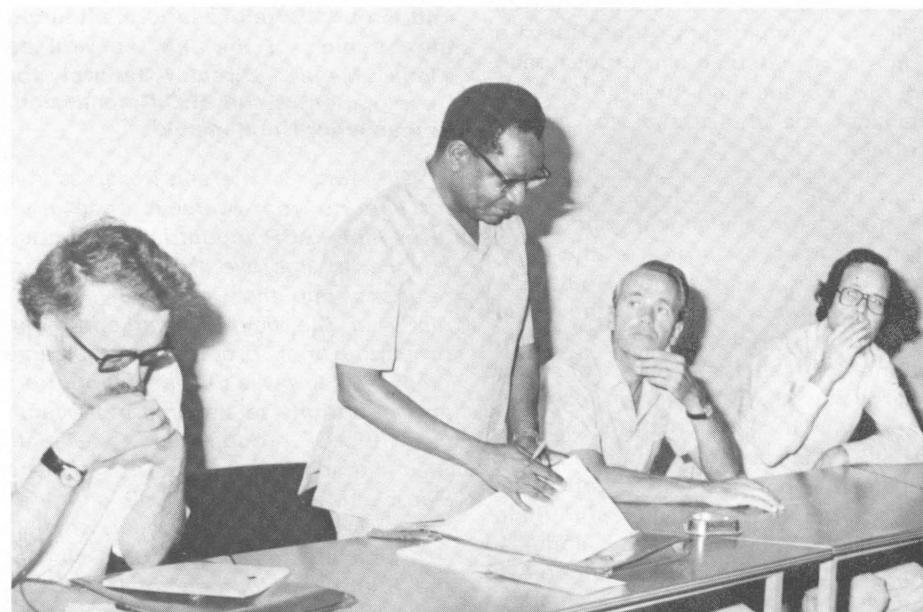
Two ACP states participated in a major trade fair stand in London this August, in a pilot project designed to demonstrate more effective Third World exposure of products in the European market. The project was sponsored by the International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT, and organized by the British company Scott/Stockland who undertake research, advice and management assistance projects specifically for Third World countries.

The stand was the largest single exhibit at the Olympia International Gift Trades Fair, attended by all the main UK importers of home and general giftware articles, as well as hundreds of retailers and other traders from all over Europe. Lesotho and Zambia participated from the ACP countries, and four other Third World countries were also present.

Products were selected with assistance from experts familiar with market requirements. The stand itself was designed around a low cost principle suitable for easy repetition and adaptation by ACP countries exhibiting in other European locations.

## Tech-Transfair '78

From 8 to 12 May 1978 the International Fair for the Transfer of Technology will take place in Utrecht (Netherlands), at the same time as the annual LES Conference (Licensing Executives



Edwin Mtei, Minister of Finance of Tanzania, delivers a speech at the Dar es Salaam Fair (Tanzania) organized with the EEC's cooperation. (From left to right) Mr Kaye Whiteman, Mtei, Bent Pontoppidan (Commission Delegate in Dar es Salaam) and Klaus von Helldorf of the EEC Commission

Society). Sellers of technology which can be marketed will be put in touch with potential buyers of an appropriate technology which is adapted to their needs. An original process, devised as a form of communication game, will allow rapid contact between supply and demand, while maintaining business secrecy: two essential factors for success in this field.

The Dutch government, the CBI (Dutch centre for the promotion of imports from developing countries) and the TNO (Dutch centre for applied scientific research) have given their support to this event. A seminar is planned, preceding the fair itself, organized by UNIDO, if necessary in cooperation with the Centre for Industrial Development. It would be concerned with "transfer of applicable technology and transfer process".

The next edition of the "Courier" will look at the working and the importance of the fair. The organizers intend to extend the existing process of technology transfer from the East-West axis (USA, Japan, West and East Europe) to the North-South axis, by integrating into it a constantly growing potential market, that of the developing countries. There are about a hundred requests for technology from ACP countries now registered at the CID, which endeavours to work out appropriate solutions. This shows clearly the interest in creating concrete possibilities of access to technology and of drawing up transfer processes suitable for these countries.

For practical information, apply to the Royal Dutch Industrial Fair, Jaarbeursplein, Utrecht, Netherlands (Tel. 30-914; telex 47132). □

## CLUB OF DAKAR

The Club of Dakar holds its next full session in Luxembourg on November 21-23, under the chairmanship of Mohamed Diawara, who will report on the Club's activities.

Talking points of particular interest on the programme include:

- a "world solidarity tax";
- Third World agricultural development;
- more effective transfer of technology;
- a structure for industrial development in Africa. □

## ACP Embassies

### Burundi

**Ambassador Jérôme Ntungumburanye presents his credentials.**

Ambassador Ntungumburanye, who is 38, comes to Brussels after a career in the army and in politics. He was educated in Burundi and Zaire up to secondary level, and then attended the Royal Military School in Brussels and the University of Liege. On his return to Burundi he began his career in the army, rising to Chief of the General Staff and second in command of Burundi's armed forces. He was for a period general administrator of security and immigration, and subsequently Minister of Information. He was also on

the managing staff of the Bujumbura Credit Bank. Ambassador Ntungumburanye is married with five children.

### Zaire

**Ambassador Inonga Lokongo L'ome presents his credentials.**

Ambassador Inonga was educated in Zaire taking his degree at Lovanium University. His early career was in the legal departments of his country, and he was for a time a councillor in the Court of Appeal. He subsequently went to the foreign ministry where he was successively director of the cabinet and principal secretary. He then began a career in the diplomatic service with his appointment as Zaire's ambassador to Morocco. Ambassador Inonga, who is 38, holds the National Order of the Leopard. □



**Roy Jenkins, President of the EEC Commission, accepts the credentials of ambassadors Ntungumburanye (top) and Inonga Lokongo**



## DG VIII

### Who's who in the EEC Commission's Directorate-General for Development

Klaus MEYER:  
**Director-General**

Maurice FOLEY:  
Deputy Director-General  
(with special responsibility for coordinating Directorate B and Divisions VIII/1 and VIII/2)

Michel HAUSWIRTH:  
Deputy Director-General  
(with special responsibility for coordinating Directorates C and D, Administrative Unit E and the Secretariat of the Financing Committee)

Jean DURIEUX:  
Deputy Director-General  
(with special responsibility for Directorate A)

Hans SMIDA:  
Assistant to Director-General

...  
Relations with Commission Delegates (VIII/3)

### Directorate A

#### General development policy and international relations covered by that policy in coordination with DG I

...  
1. Basic planning; coordination of Member States' policies

Charles VAN DER VAEREN:  
2. Evaluation of aid operations

Michel CELLERIER:  
3. Aspects of commercial policy and commodities policy concerning developing countries

Alan RUSSEL:  
4. UNCTAD and international relations covered by development policy

Alain LACROIX:  
5. "The Courier" (EEC-ACP)

### Directorate B

#### Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific

Romano LANTINI:  
1. West Africa

Onno PLUG:  
2. East Africa

Emiliano FOSSATI:  
3. Caribbean and Indian and Pacific Oceans

Niels WESTERBY:  
4. General questions concerning the ACP Convention and aid programming and coordination

Directly attached to Deputy Director-General with special responsibility for Directorate B

Heinz ANDRESEN:  
Maghreb, Israel, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria; and coordination with DG I on general matters relating to the Mediterranean area (VIII/1)

Gerhard SCHIFFLER:  
Relations with Community and EEC-ACP institutions and with nongovernmental circles (VIII/2)

### Directorate C

Corrado CORNELLI:  
**Projects**

Günter GRUER:  
1. Agriculture

Henricus OVERZEE:  
2. Livestock and fisheries

Albert BERRENS:  
3. Roads

Daniel VINCENT:  
4. Industry, energy, telecommunications and general infrastructure

John Henry MACE:  
5. Urban works and social infrastructure

Bino BINI-SMAGHI:  
6. Water engineering

### Directorate D

#### Operations

Adam SZARF:  
1. Food aid and exceptional aid

Kenneth BARNES:  
2. Industrial cooperation, trade promotion and regional cooperation

Jean-Claude MULLER:  
3. Stabilization of export earnings

Giovanni LIVI:  
4. Training

### Administrative Unit E

André AUCLERT:  
**Director Finance and administration**

Max DUVAL:  
1. Financing

José HEUSGHEM:  
2. Authorization of payments and accounting

Klaus PRANGE:  
3. Invitations to tender, contracts and disputes

Attached to the Finance and Administration Unit

Marc DELAUCHE:  
European Agency for Cooperation (EAC)

Directly attached to Deputy Director-General with special responsibility for Directorates C and D and Administrative Unit E

Guy SALMON:  
Secretariat of the Financing Committee (VIII/4) □

## ACP

### The Office of the Council of Ministers of the ACP States

#### President:

The Hon. W. Matoka, Minister of the Economy and Technical Cooperation of Zambia

#### Vice-Presidents:

Dr Vasco Cabral, Minister of Development and Economic Planning of Guinea-Bissau

The Hon. A.M. Rulegura, Minister of Trade of Tanzania

Dr F.C. Nduhungirehe, Minister of Planning of Rwanda

The Hon. P.J. Patterson, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Jamaica

The Hon. V.R. Philips, Minister of Finance of Western Samoa

#### Information committee

The ACP group has set up an Information Committee. Mr Ould Abdallah, Ambassador of Mauritania has been appointed chairman of this committee, which will have a double function:

- to inform: Mr Ould Abdallah will be the ACP spokesman;
- to cooperate with the EEC in editing "The Courier EEC-ACP".

### The Office of the Committee of Ambassadors of the ACP States

#### President:

Mr S. Nandan, Ambassador of Fiji

#### Members:

Mr O. Coleman, Ambassador of Liberia

Mr I. Djel, Ambassador of Chad

Mrs E.B. Mathe, Ambassador of Botswana

Mr R. Chasle, Ambassador of Mauritius

Mr D.B. Rainford, Ambassador of Jamaica

#### Chairmen of the ACP sub-committees

##### Commercial cooperation

Mr K.B. Asante, Ambassador of Ghana

##### Trade promotion

Mr S. Coulibaly, Ambassador of the Ivory Coast

##### Customs cooperation

Mr J. Muliro, Ambassador of Kenya

##### Stabex

Mr Seydina O. Sy, Ambassador of Senegal

##### Financial cooperation

Mr Traore, Ambassador of Mali

##### Industrial cooperation

Mr G.O. Ijewere, Ambassador of Nigeria

##### Sugar

Mr R. Chasle, Ambassador of Mauritius

##### Bananas

Mr S. Nko'o Etoungou, Ambassador of Cameroon □

## EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

### Food aid cuts sad and scandalous, says commissioner

Deep concern over the attitude of the Council of Ministers was expressed by both Commissioner Cheysson and members of the European Parliament when the Committee on Development and Cooperation held a preliminary discussion under its vice-chairman Giovanni Bersani (Chr. Dem. It.) in Brussels on September 22.

The Council's plan to reduce sharply the Commission's proposals for 1978

spending on food aid and in particular skimmed milk powder, was, said the Commissioner, "sad and scandalous". It indicated a worrying change in policy. Merely to store the milk powder would cost two-thirds more than what it would cost to utilize it as food aid, he pointed out. Discussing financial and technical aid to non-associated developing countries, Mr Cheysson noted that the Council proposals for 1978 commitments would in reality mean a reduction of one third over 1977.

Members of the Committee expressed strong support for the Commissioner: Parliament should aim to reinstate the original Commission proposals. This was an issue on which the Committee and Parliament should speak out quite clearly, said rapporteur Christopher Price (Soc. UK.).

### Chinese and Soviet aid to developing countries

(Reply to question from Mr Bordu)

The Commission's information on this subject comes almost exclusively from the OECD Development Assistance Committee, which has made estimates. These estimates are summarized in the following comparative table.

Net disbursements of development aid(1)

|                               | 1970       | 1971  | 1972  | 1973   | 1974   | 1975   | 1970     | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 |
|-------------------------------|------------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|
|                               | \$ million |       |       |        |        |        | % of GNP |      |      |      |      |      |
| 1. USRR                       | 624        | 578   | 657   | 718    | 671    | 374    | 0.12     | 0.10 | 0.10 | 0.09 | 0.08 | 0.04 |
| 2. China                      | 134        | 194   | 254   | 380    | 426    | 379    | ..       | ..   | 0.13 | 0.17 | 0.19 | 0.16 |
| 3. DAC countries<br>of which: | 6 791      | 7 691 | 8 538 | 9 351  | 11 317 | 13 585 | 0.34     | 0.35 | 0.33 | 0.30 | 0.33 | 0.36 |
| EEC(2)                        | 2 539      | 2 991 | 3 435 | 4 046  | 7 370  | 6 012  | 0.36     | 0.42 | 0.41 | 0.38 | 0.42 | 0.45 |
| United States                 | 3 050      | 3 324 | 3 349 | 2 968  | 3 439  | 4 007  | 0.31     | 0.32 | 0.29 | 0.23 | 0.24 | 0.26 |
| 4. OPEC countries             | 380        | 470   | 420   | 480    | 2 790  | 2 750  | ..       | ..   | 0.69 | 0.52 | 1.36 | 1.35 |
| 5. Total 1 to 4               | 7 929      | 8 933 | 9 869 | 10 929 | 15 204 | —      | —        | —    | —    | —    | —    | —    |

(1) Public aid to development (according to the DAC definition) for DAC countries, comparable flows for other countries.

(2) Except Ireland and Luxembourg.

## GENERAL INFORMATION

### United Nations

At the 32<sup>nd</sup> session of the UN General Assembly, Belgian foreign minister Henri Simonet, current chairman of the EEC Council of Ministers, spoke on EEC foreign policy. Extracts of his speech follow:

Under the Lomé Convention, the Nine have already set up balanced structures of cooperation and initiated a dialogue with numerous African, Caribbean and Pacific countries, on a new basis; much remains to be done, but

we are determined to go on this way with a view to reaching equitable solutions.

Besides this regional approach, the EEC's objective is to cooperate with all

the developing countries, within the framework of a more global policy. The system of generalized preferences constitutes the first step in this direction.

We reaffirm our will to achieve a structural improvement in the situation of developing countries in the world economy.

The Community is well aware of its particular obligations. Wherever there is a question of providing assistance to the poorest countries and to peoples hit by armed conflicts or by natural disasters it will continue to provide food and other supplies as far as it is able. Its Member States reaffirm their willingness to step up effectively and substantially their public aid to development and to make more balanced efforts in this respect.

They are determined, in cooperation with the developing countries, to make more efforts to meet essential human needs. They have also agreed to consider the scale and allocation of development aid with a view to increasing its volume and efficiency in the context of a greater international effort, so that all developing countries may benefit from this new approach.

Now I would like to raise some topical questions which deserve particular attention from our assembly.

### Apartheid

We remain firmly opposed to any kind of racial discrimination wherever it exists. During the Conference of Lagos, I had the opportunity to express the attitude of the Nine towards the policy of apartheid. The Nine condemn and reject it as an insult to human dignity and as a kind of institutionalized racism depriving the majority of the population of the full exercise of their civil and political rights.

The events of last year are evidence of the growing frustration of the black population and the intransigence of the South African government.

As I also said in Lagos, the Nine consider that the Bantustan policy, far from being a way to solve the problems caused by apartheid, as the South African government claims, is only a means of perpetuating them.

Finally, it is worth recalling that the Nine have recently decided to examine actively a range of initiatives with a

view to using the collective weight of the Community to induce South Africa to give up its apartheid policy.

Thus the Nine have just adopted a code of conduct meant for all their companies with subsidiaries, branches or agencies in South Africa. The publication of this code is the first among other measures which are still being worked out.

We will do our best to promote a non-racial regime, which allows the whole population to participate fully in the life of the country.

## Namibia

At the conference which took place in Maputo and in the message delivered on the occasion of Namibia Day, we declared that we uphold the right of the Rhodesian and Namibian peoples to self-determination and independence and to the exercise of fundamental rights, as defined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

As far as Namibia is concerned, we consider that the Namibians must be able to exercise fully those rights through a democratic process under the supervision of the United Nations, in which all political groups, including more particularly Swapo, should participate. Any settlement of the Namibian problem should be based on resolution 335 of the Security Council.

The Nine express the firm hope that their efforts will meet with success.

Substantial progress has already been achieved. This may be the only opportunity to ensure a rapid and peaceful transition to independence and the Nine are ready to encourage this development by every available means.

## Zimbabwe

It is more urgent than ever to solve the problem of Rhodesia. It seems essential to use all possible means to put an end to a conflict which might have repercussions throughout Africa and to secure independence based on majority rule for Zimbabwe by 1978 by a peaceful transition process.

We approve of the efforts which are now being made to reach a rapid settlement on this basis, while continuing to comply strictly with the obligations set out in the charter on sanctions.

Normal development in Zimbabwe will require economic assistance, which will contribute to solving basic problems which the new state will be faced with, after the disappearance of the illegal minority regime.

Members of the Community intend to discuss thoroughly and favourably the proposals which have already been made for setting up a development fund for Zimbabwe.

## Africa as a whole

The African continent is searching for stability. It needs to find both its equilibrium and its own identity. We know that this is the objective of all African peoples. I want to repeat the attitude of the Nine towards Africa. They strongly reject any intervention by states whose aim is to establish a zone of influence on this continent. It rests with the African states to find a solution to their own problems.

Recent events in the Horn of Africa show to what extent it is essential to stick to the principle which I have just set out.

The assistance which can be given to Africa must be wanted by the African states themselves and must develop in the way they would like. □

## SOUTH AFRICA

### Code of conduct for European companies with subsidiaries, branches or representation in South Africa

This code of conduct, adopted by the EEC Council of Ministers, is put forward as a series of recommendations and has no legally binding power.

#### 1. Relations within the undertaking

a) Companies should ensure that all their employees irrespective of racial or other distinction are allowed to choose freely and without any hindrance the type of organization to represent them.

b) Employers should regularly and unequivocally inform their employees that consultations and collective bargaining with organizations which are freely elected and representative of employees are part of company policy.

c) Should black African employees decide that their representative body should be in the form of a trade union, the company should accept this decision. Trade unions for black Africans are not illegal, and companies are free to recognize them, and to negotiate and conclude agreements with them.

d) Consequently, the companies should allow collective bargaining with organizations freely chosen by the workers to develop in accordance with internationally accepted principles.

e) Employers should do everything possible to ensure that black African employees are free to form or to join a trade union. Steps should be taken in particular to permit trade union officials to explain to employees the aims of trade unions and the advantages of membership, to distribute trade union documentation and display trade union notices on the company's premises, to have reasonable time off to carry out their union duties without loss of pay and to organize meetings.

f) Where works or liaison committees already operate, trade union officials should have representative status on these bodies if employees so wish. However, the existence of these types of committee should not prejudice the development or status of trade unions or of their representatives.

#### 2. Migrant labour

a) The system of migrant labour is, in South Africa, an instrument of the policy of apartheid which has the effect of preventing the individual from seeking and obtaining a job of his choice: it also causes grave social and family problems.

b) Employers have the social responsibility to contribute towards ensuring freedom of movement for black African workers and their families.

c) In the meantime employers should make it their concern to alleviate as much as possible the effects of the existing system.

### **3. Pay**

Companies should assume a special responsibility as regards the pay and conditions of employment of their black African employees. They should formulate specific policies aimed at improving their terms of employment. Pay based on the absolute minimum necessary for a family to survive cannot be considered as being sufficient. The minimum wage should initially exceed by at least 50 per cent the minimum level required to satisfy the basic needs of an employee and his family.

### **4. Wage structure and black African advancement**

a) The principle of "equal pay for equal work" means that all jobs should be open to any worker who possesses suitable qualifications, irrespective of racial or other distinction, and that wages should be based on a qualitative job evaluation.

b) The same pay scales should be applied to the same work. The adoption of the principle of equal pay would, however, be meaningless if black African employees were kept in inferior jobs. Employers should therefore draw up an appropriate range of training schemes of a suitable standard to provide training for their black African employees, and should reduce their dependence on immigrant white labour.

### **5. Fringe benefits**

a) In view of their social responsibilities, undertakings should concern themselves with the living conditions of their employees and families.

b) For this purpose company funds could be set aside for use

— in the housing of black African personnel and their families; in transport from place of residence to place of work and back;

— in providing leisure and health service facilities;

— in providing their employees with assistance in problems they encounter with the authorities over their movement from one place to another, their choice of residence and their employment;

- in pension matters;
- in educational matters;
- in improving medical services, in adopting programmes of insurance against industrial accidents and unemployment, and in other measures of social welfare.

### **6. Desegregation at places of work**

In so far as it lies within their own competence, employers should do everything possible to abolish any practice of segregation, notably at the workplace and in canteens, sports activities, education and training. They should also ensure equal working conditions for all their staff.

### **7. Reports on the implementation of the code of conduct**

a) Parent companies to which this code is addressed should publish each year a detailed and fully documented report on the progress made in applying this code.

b) The number of black Africans employed in the undertaking should be specified in the report, and progress in each of the six areas indicated above should be fully covered.

c) The governments of the Nine will review annually progress made in implementing this code. To this end a copy of each company's report should be submitted to their national government. □

## **AID UP IN 1977**

### **Still only half 0.7 % target**

Official development aid from the 17 countries of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) rose slightly this year, after falling in 1976.

The DAC announced at its annual meeting in October that official development aid this year was worth about 0.35 % of these countries' GNPs, as against 0.33 % last year.

This is equivalent to approximately US\$ 16000 million as against \$ 13700 million, or an increase of 16.8 %. □

The 1977 level is still only half the target of 0.7 % of GNP to which the DAC countries have committed themselves. Only Sweden, Norway and the Netherlands reached the 0.7 % target last year. France was in fourth place, largely due to aid to its overseas possessions.

The DAC called for a bigger effort, especially from countries with strong economies such as West Germany, Japan and the United States. The aid is necessary merely to satisfy "basic needs", the Committee said. □

## **North-South Dialogue**

### **Willy Brandt heads team to ginger up talks**

New York — As World Bank president Robert McNamara recommended some months ago, the President of the Socialist International, Willy Brandt (former Chancellor of West Germany), will conduct the work of an independent, non-governmental commission with a view to giving a new impetus to the study of development problems and to the North-South dialogue.

Mr Brandt himself confirmed the announcement during a press conference held at the United Nations. The commission will consist of 15 members and will meet for the first time in December next, in the Federal Republic of Germany. The Eastern countries will be represented. The work of this commission will not encroach on the negotiations which are being carried on by UN Commission N° 2. A report will be drawn up within 18 months and sent both to the Secretary-General of the United Nations and to the parties involved.

Mr Brandt has stressed the importance of the presence on this commission of Eastern countries and possibly China. He pointed out that, in any case, these countries will have a constantly increasing influence on international economic affairs.

The budget of the Brandt Commission is financed by voluntary contributions. The head office of the Commission will either be in Geneva or in Vienna. □

## BENIN

### Mr. Tévoedjré

Mr Virgile Octave Tévoedjré, formerly Benin's ambassador to the EEC, has been appointed to UNCTAD in Geneva, where he will have the task of consultant in negotiation with African governments for setting up a Common Fund for the integrated commodities programme.

## ACP SUGAR

The EEC has replied to the requests of the ACP sugar producers by proposing:

— a definition of the concept of "force majeure" justifying the non-delivery of certain quantities of sugar with reference to the quotas provided for under Lomé Protocol No 3.

— a procedure for joint discussion, between the European Commission and the ACP exporting states, on actual cases of non-delivery, in order to assess the possibility of force majeure.

A divergence emerged between the EEC and the ACP states in this matter when the European Commission found that four sugar-producing countries (Kenya, Uganda, Congo-Brazzaville and Surinam) had failed to meet their delivery commitments, without any jus-

tification of force majeure. The Commission then decided to reduce the guaranteed quotas for these countries, according to the rule of reciprocal commitment (commitment to purchase by the EEC in return for commitment to deliver by the ACP). The EEC Council of Ministers later agreed, as an exceptional favour, to restore quotas to their initial level, without questioning the validity of the decisions taken by the European Commission.

Having settled the special cases, the general problem was not yet solved. The ACP countries asked for a clear definition of force majeure cases, and especially for the possibility of participating in assessments and decisions. The EEC has agreed to these demands and has informed the ACP group of its suggestions, which are now to be jointly discussed within the EEC-ACP sugar sub-committee.

The suggestions of the Community are as follows:

A. *Definition of the concept of "force majeure".* The non-delivery of agreed amounts of sugar, or of certain quantities, are considered to be justified for reason of force majeure if: the exporting country found it impossible to meet its delivery commitments without being obliged to make unreasonable sacrifices; or if the circumstances were unavoidable and due to unforeseeable causes beyond the control of the exporting country (and not the result of its own action).

B. *Procedure for consultations between the European Commission and the ACP sugar-exporting countries.* Protocol No 3 annexed to the Lomé Convention has already provided

for consultations about the implementation of the protocol itself. It is a general procedure which is not particularly concerned with deliveries and does not make any reference to particular cases of individual countries. The new procedure proposed would have a specific character and would be implemented before the Commission defines its guidelines on the delivery position for the current year and on the possibility of a case of force majeure justifying non-delivery.

The EEC suggests the following procedure:

— Each year, during the month of April, the Commission and each ACP sugar-exporting country should jointly examine the delivery position for the present crop-year and the prospects until 30 June. This meeting would allow non-delivery cases, reasons and possible delays to be revealed. ACP countries which run the risk of failing to meet their delivery commitments give the Commission a written report about sugar production, stocks, domestic consumption, exports (to EEC and other destinations) and reasons for non-delivery as soon as possible and in any case before 1st July.

The Commission examines the communication within 20 days and then discusses with the country concerned (if necessary in two phases) the necessity of additional information.

— the Commission would only take decisions after completion of this procedure, in respect of the criteria mentioned in point A. Afterwards any ACP country would be able to ask for consultations under the provisions of Protocol No 3. □



### Kenya at the Frankfurt International Fair

Kenya's highly successful stand at the Frankfurt International Autumn Fair (28-31 August 1977). This event, which is of particular interest to large-scale ACP producers of handicrafts, is open to the trade. Direct sale on stands is not allowed.

## ZAIRE

### Opening in Brussels of a centre for foreign trade

On 4 October, in the Zaïre Embassy, Mr Mboladinga Katako, Zaïre Chargé d'Affaires in Brussels, gave a cocktail party for the inauguration of the Zaïre Centre for Foreign Trade (CEZAC) in Brussels. Also present was CEZAC general representative Mboso Kiampatu. The Zaïre officials explained that:

As far as foreign trade is concerned, Zaïre trade policy is based on the open-door theory and on economic independence.

Zaïre trade policy aims at reorientating Zaïre foreign trade by growth and diversification, both sectorial and geographical, of its exports. Zaïre trade policy intends to rid the country of its present over-dependence on mining products and especially on copper.

That is the reason why the Zaïre Centre for Foreign Trade was created in January 1973.

In order to achieve its aims, the Executive Council has thought it advisable to open a CEZAC office in Brussels, thus extending the scope of its activities to all EEC countries.

### Permanent contact

This office will act as a permanent contact agency between Zaïre and the EEC market. In this respect, its function will be more particularly:

— To investigate the market for all Zaïre products which can be marketed in the area, to extend the contacts already set up in Zaïre.

— To convey systematically to Zaïre economic operators, through CEZAC, any documentation or information which may be useful on the market; to search actively for this information and to indicate to Zaïre professionals any new outlet which may be exploited by Zaïre, including through the promotion of new products.

— To pay attention, through permanent contact with importers, to any problem which might arise in the marketing of Zaïre products: quality, respecting of contracts, delivery dates.

— To answer requests for information from the European market on the production and marketing of Zaïre products.

— To launch sales campaign for Zaïre exportable products and to encourage European financial circles to invest in export-orientated sectors.

— Finally, to arrange visits by EEC businessmen to Zaïre through the head office in Kinshasa.

The address of the office is: 10, Place Stéphanie, 1050 Brussels. It is run by Mr Nappa Usatu. □

### CORRECTION

The British Council has asked us to point out that their aid work is financed by the Ministry of Overseas Development and not, as stated in our article "European cultural centres in Kenya" (issue no. 44), by the Department of Education. We apologize for this error.

### "Treaty of Rome"



Note: the first voyage around the world began in 1519, commanded by the Portuguese Magellan. Three years later, 18 out of the original complement of 265 returned. Magellan was among those lost. The second circumnavigation, successfully completed by Sir Francis Drake, was launched 400 years ago, in 1577.

### "Joseph Bech" Prize for Cheysson

The Jury for the "Joseph Bech" prize has decided to award the 1978 prize to Mr Claude Cheysson, who has been a member of the European Commission since 1972 and has been responsible, in particular, for development aid policy.

The prize, for a sum of 20000 DM, was established by the "Fondation Freiherr van Stein de Hambourg". It was awarded for the first time in 1976 and is intended to honour eminent people employed in the services of the European Commission. The jury is presided over by Mr Gaston Thorn, the President of the Luxembourg government. Joseph Bech, who died two years ago, was for many years President of the Luxembourg government and in this capacity he signed the ECSC Treaty. He is considered as being one of the "Fathers of Community Europe".

At the end of August a flotilla of sailing ships set off from Portsmouth in southern England on the first leg of the Whitbread round-the-world sailing race. Throughout September the craft made their way steadily down the Atlantic coast of Africa on a journey which will not end until early April next year. Among the craft was a boat named "Treaty of Rome", manned by a crew of young Europeans representing the European Community, carrying the registration "EUR 1" and racing against ships flying national flags. Whatever the final placing of the boat in the race, it has already attracted a good deal of publicity, and as it passed Senegal and the Gambia, Claude Cheysson, the European development commissioner, sent a message to the crew and the people of Africa. "It is a great adventure," he said, "a symbol for all the youth of the world whose thoughts transcend our old conflicts between nations, for all those young people in the world who believe that our future will be built on cooperation between neighbours ... the boat is called the "Treaty of Rome". She represents Europe. It is only natural that the "Treaty of Rome" should reach our partners in the Lomé Convention ... give a thought to these young people and follow with sympathy the challenge they are making to the old and outmoded forms of nationalism."

## HUSBANDRY COURSES

The eighth series of international courses in pig and poultry husbandry will be held at Barneveld College, the Netherlands, from September 13, 1978 to March 16, 1979. They are primarily intended for students from developing countries who perform teaching or advisory functions. Details from: The Director, Barneveld College, P.O. Box 64, Barneveld, The Netherlands.

## ARTS

### African music and theatre at Paris Autumn Festival

The Paris autumn festival has aimed for six years at showing and comparing various facets and disciplines of contemporary art. This year it will be particularly concerned with black Africa.

From 22 September to 11 December, in about 20 different parts of the capital, this "77" Festival will offer an impressive variety of events; some 250 concerts, choreographic and theatrical performances, two film cycles and six exhibitions, of which three are devoted to photography, stands and meetings.

Zaire will delegate a women's group, "Ekonda", who will present a sort of total spectacle, the "Bobongo", while two singers, Botuli and Lokwa, will sing "Sukutu" songs, a style which emerged in the '60s at the time when chief Pierre Mulele rebelled.

### Court songs

From Rwanda, court songs could be heard by musicians living in exile in Burundi since the fall of the monarchy, and from Madagascar there will be the "Hira Gasy" which presents a courteous song contest between two groups.

Performances of the Niger and the Mali delegations will make greater use of instruments with the "kora é malienne" (a kind of gourd-like harp) to accompany griots, and with the Nigerian "alghaita" (a kind of oboe used to praise the chief's merits).

Finally, the Nigerian "Duro Lapido National Theatre" will illustrate the synthesis performed in this country between various rhythms of the Yoruba ethnic groups.

"The Richard Smallwood Singers" (Gospel), "The Charles Tyler Quartet"

(free music) and "The Last Poet" will show transformations of traditional African music in Europe, America and Africa itself. Those groups have revived the griot tradition belonging to African villages, in the streets of New York.

The Ghanaian "Papa Oyeah Mackenzie" and the South African "Dollar Brand" will illustrate the richness of the possible mixture of all present musical trends in Europe, America and Africa.

An exhibition of African puppets from the Museum of Mankind, another one devoted to "Influences of African art on European art from 1905 to 1925" and a film cycle, "A Look at the Black World", will complete this programme.

### 1977 FIFEF Grand Prix

"Omar Gatlato", Marzak Allouache's Algerian film, won the 1977 FIFEF Grand Prix (International Festival of French-language films and cultural exchanges), which took place in Cabourg from 22 to 28 August.

"Omar Gatlato", already shown in Cannes and Moscow, tells the story of a young commuter living in the Algiers district of Bab El Oued, who has fallen in love with a girl thanks to a cassette tape.

In a style similar to Godard's, "Omar Gatlato" is considered as the classical film of the new Algerian cinema, following urban life whereas until now the cinema has been mostly concerned with agrarian reform.

A special prize was awarded to "Sunshine of the Hyenas", a Tunisian film by Ridha Behi on the ravages of tourism in the sunny countries.

Tayed Louchiachi, a Tunisian, was awarded a special prize for his film "Metayer". He also won the press prize.

FIFEF was created 25 years ago and takes place in a different city each year. This year 15 African, American and European countries gathered in Cabourg.

### Ballet

The Senegal National Ballet, in Paris for the first time, opened the Bobino season on 5 September. The troupe consists of 40 artistes including 12 ballerinas. According to the wishes of the Senegalese government, the troupe has an international focus, "in order", as its director Maurice Senghor explains, "to show its willingness to contribute to a better understanding between peoples by enabling our

artistes to take an active part in the influence of black culture throughout the world".

### Ipi Tombi

From 7 to 25 September, after 2 years in London, the Zulu show "Ipi Tombi" (Where are the girls?) was mounted in the Théâtre des Champs-Elysées. Created in South Africa in 1974 on the initiative of swing pianist Bertha Egnus, "Ipi Tombi" has nothing in common with a traditional folk dancing revue. Its choreographers aimed to stage "a highly-coloured show, full of rhythm and vitality, a black revue of a very high standard".

For nearly 2 hours, 25 dancers and singers revive a story which starts in a bush village and ends in Johannesburg. □

## SPORT

### OAU's sports council meets

The 7th General Assembly of the Supreme Council for Sport in Africa (CSSA) will meet in Rabat (Morocco) on 21, 22 and 23 of November. It will be preceded by the session of the Executive Committee on 17-19 November.

About 25 items are included on the agenda of this Assembly, which will formally admit half a dozen new members. This will raise the membership to include almost all independent African states, i.e. 49 countries.

Besides administrative problems, the Rabat Assembly will discuss the material organization of the Third African Games in Algiers (13-18 July 1978). It will examine:

- The progress of the organization committee's work (COJA).
- The registration of participating countries (5000 athletes are expected in Algiers, representing 46 countries).
- The general and technical regulations of the various sporting disciplines involved.

A strategy for developing sport in Africa will be another talking point. At Kinshasa in 1975 the CSSA devoted its second decade to this, aiming to reach all forms of sport across the continent in a general promotion drive.

The meeting will also be officially notified of the decision at Libreville in July by the African summit of heads of state and government to make the CSSA a special institution of the OAU. It will equally be notified of OAU resolutions on racial discrimination in sport. □

## OAU

**The Brussels OAU Group considers the scope of the code of conduct proposed to European firms operating in South Africa to be "very inadequate".**

In a communiqué, the OAU Group said:

The heads of diplomatic missions in Brussels representing OAU countries met to resume activities at ACP House in Brussels on 13 September.

The meeting agreed on the necessity to activate the OAU group in Brussels and for this purpose a flexible structure was set up, with the interim appointments of Togolese ambassador Kodjovi Dagabou as chairman of the group and Algerian ambassador Aït Chalaal as vice-chairman.

An action programme will shortly be worked out, aiming at a firmer consolidation of relations between Belgium (and the EEC) and the OAU.

On the eve of the direct elections to the European Parliament, on the eve of the negotiations for the Lomé Convention II, at a time when Africa is experiencing upheavals and tensions, the OAU Group in Brussels hopes to take an active and positive part in putting across the African point of view by the decisions, resolutions and recommendations taken at the summit of heads of state and of OAU governments and by those taken at the Council of ministers.

### **The attitude of the Federation of German Industry**

The OAU Group in Brussels has studied with interest the code of conduct for firms with subsidiaries, branches or agencies in South Africa, adopted by the EEC Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs on 20 September 1977.

The OAU Group has pointed out that, thanks to its economic power and its commercial capacity, the EEC, one of the main partners of South Africa, can effectively induce South African leaders to give up their iniquitous apartheid policy.

That is why, though it expresses its satisfaction at this step forward taken by the European Community, an attempt nevertheless considered very inadequate, the OAU Group in Brussels cannot help being rather sceptical as to the real scope of this "code".

The Group, certain of expressing the deepest feelings of fighting Africa,

hopes that beyond wishes and desires, however generous they may be, the EEC will take resolute measures and action against the South African regime.

It considers that in other fields and especially in its relations with Africa, such as the Lomé Convention, the EEC has often shown bold initiative and creativity.

In this respect, the OAU Group deeply regrets the negative and altogether strange attitude of the Federation of West German Industry (BDI) towards this code.

To give more credibility to its intentions and its contribution to the international community's efforts towards the total elimination of apartheid, the EEC should take clear, positive and applicable measures against South Africa.

If this were not the case, it would be justifiable to wonder whether this code is not just a bluff meant to reassure world opinion.

### **The European Trade Union Confederation approves the "code of conduct" for South Africa**

The Executive Committee of the European Trade Union Confederation met in Geneva on 28 and 29 September, and in particular, it expressed its appreciation of the "code of conduct" adopted by the foreign ministers of the Nine for European subsidiaries in South Africa. The Executive Committee notably adopted a position on:

— the "code of conduct". The trade unions regard this position as "positive", particularly appreciating the fact that the code demands that African workers be guaranteed the freedom to form or join a union of their choice and that employers recognize these unions and negotiate collective agreements with them. ETUC demands, therefore, that the firms of the EEC and EFTA countries at least apply the code without restriction in their subsidiaries in South Africa. It denies that recognition of black trade unions is prohibited in South Africa and calls upon its organizations to apply pressure aimed at the implementation of the code, which should be kept "under permanent control". Finally, the European trade unions ask that "binding legislative regulations be introduced in the European countries" and they expect the governments of the other industrialized countries in the world to take similar measures with respect to companies' South African subsidiaries. □

## UNITED NATIONS

### **Claude Cheysson: The Lomé Convention and European integration, the role of agriculture in development**

Mr Cheysson recently became the first EEC Commissioner to address the second Commission of the United Nations, when he outlined EEC policy towards the Third World and especially the ACP countries. He stressed the correlation between cooperation and European integration and emphasized the role of agriculture in development. Mr Cheysson said:

"The topics on the agenda of this session are also those which the Community deals with in implementing a policy for development cooperation. This has gradually been drawn up as a complement to the policies of the EEC Member States and it represents a new contribution to international relations.

### **Community policy towards the Third World**

This policy fits into a network of agreements:

- which are international treaties and therefore constitute irrevocable commitments for all parties. Thus we change from unilateral concessions by each industrialized country to a legally binding pact resulting from a freely negotiated contract between industrialized and developing countries. The security which results is essential for the construction of development;
- which applies to groups of countries, without any possible reference to the political options and economic regimes of individual countries. We thus irreversibly affirm our desire not to interfere in domestic affairs; we lay the foundations of a permanent dialogue between regional groups, therefore between equal partners;
- which combines all instruments of cooperation; financial cooperation (some 4800 million dollars over 4-5 years), sophisticated technical cooperation (including trade promotion and industrial cooperation), guaranteed preferential access to the biggest commercial market in the world, institutional cooperation. This way of doing things leaves to our partners and to them alone the choice of instruments. It shows clearly that it rests with them to choose their patterns of development. It illustrates respect for their cultural identity. The wide range of means available for cooperation also allows adjustment to exceptional circumstances, as illustrated by the

various Community contributions for independent countries in southern Africa, threatened with racism.

In short, the policy of the Lomé Convention implements in a concrete way the fundamental principles often proclaimed here but never yet enforced so clearly: cultural identity, non-interference, global nature of development, search for security. Of course this policy is imbued with other equally essential principles: priority to the least favoured countries, cooperation between developing countries (special arrangements related to regional cooperation), stabilization of export earnings (sugar protocol and Stabex).

## Development cooperation and European integration

The Community's policy for development cooperation is closely linked with the process of European integration; as a matter of fact this policy derives from it. This is perhaps why the Community, a particularly structured regional group, has gone further than any other institution in the dialogue with regional groupings.

Nevertheless it does not mean to confine its activity to the nearest countries. According to the recommendations of the United Nations, it has been the first to set up a generalized system of preferences which offers to developing countries free or preferential access to its market, worth about 7000 million dollars per year, and thus gives them an exemption from duty of between 350 and 400 million dollars per year, which is primarily meant for the least favoured developing countries.

The Community also takes part, at world level, in the discussion of problems which could not be solved at regional level (commodities, Common Fund, indebtedness, official development aid ...)

It had a seat and was spokesman for its 9 Member States at the North-South Conference in Paris. It thus contributed to a conference which had the great merit of allowing the constraints, requirements and issues of a new international economic order to be studied jointly, thoroughly and in depth.

But it is essential and urgent to go further and to speed up the process. This is becoming obvious to the people and countries of Europe, who are faced with a serious structural crisis and who are directly affected by economic changes inside and outside, who hope to change their growing dependence upon the Third World into a structured and organized interdependence.



Claude Cheysson

**"Community development cooperation policy is closely linked to the process of European integration"**

In this great upheaval, the small European countries with limited resources have numerous common interests with the Third World. Like them, they want more security in trade, more stability in raw materials prices after the monetary disorder...

The Community will therefore continue on this track. It has to and wants to: it will improve its original cooperation policy by trying to structure and enrich relations between regional groups, by carrying on the implementation of new approaches which it has devised, such as Stabex, the incentive to regional cooperation, industrial cooperation...

At world level, the Community is determined, despite the crisis, to maintain and improve the conditions of access to its market. However, it is anxious that the opening of its market should be really advantageous to developing countries and should not be diverted for speculation which lines the pocket of groups which do not belong to the Third World. The necessary concerted reflection in the process of a selective and rational liberalism, however, in no way reduces our commitment to reject any form of protectionism.

The Community bears some responsibility in answering the food challenge, because food is the fundamental need of mankind and because the experience accumulated throughout

this century shows us that higher agricultural yields are the prerequisite to any process of industrialization and to autonomous development...

The Community wants to contribute to the economic take-off of developing countries in sight of that goal, in the knowledge that this will help considerably towards the indispensable recovery of world economic growth. In this context, the Commission of the European Communities would like to urge you to examine actions for the future following the recommendations on transport and communications in Africa.

## The fundamental principle

In our action, our fundamental guideline will be to ensure a greater security in relations and trade between the people and economies of the northern and southern hemispheres. Security is the basic point of the Lomé policy; security must be the aim of the Common Fund we are pledged to set up; security is the idea which must induce us to fight against international monetary disorder; security is the justification for carrying on the efforts to free people from the fear of starvation.

The new international economic order is thus taking shape. Like other countries, on an equal footing with them, the nations of the Third World

will be active and responsible partners in this order. Faith in this development will find its best succour in the framework of the United Nations. But regular progress will also involve cooperation with organizations such as the OECD, the EEC and others which deal with the same problems, following the guidelines laid down at the 6th and 7th extraordinary sessions.

We will be guided by conviction and realism. On both these grounds, we should involve all the economic, social and political forces of our countries in the definition and the implementation of this new international order, which must be deep-rooted in our societies. The improvement in the international division of labour will involve an effort of consultation and discussion with elected members of parliament, worker representatives, professional organizations. It will also involve the setting in motion of internal means allowing the necessary restructurations, changes and compensations in our economies. The Community has these means at its disposal. It should use them to good purpose.

The gradual setting-up of this new international economic order implies domestic changes, the difficulty and cost of which should not be underestimated, especially in the difficult period we are experiencing. The Community is aware of it. It will find in its human resources and its own dynamism the will to keep open the paths of progress towards greater justice, and greater security at world level." □

## TANZANIA

### Food aid

In reply to a request from the Tanzanian government, supported by the FAO, the EEC Commission has proposed to the Council the allocation of aid amounting to 5000 tonnes of cereals, in addition to the supply of 5000 tonnes already planned for this country under the 1977 programme.

This supplementary aid is intended for a strategic reserve of cereals under a national programme for food security laid down by the Tanzanian government in order to overcome occasional scarcities.

The objective is to build up a reserve of 100000 tonnes of cereals from commercial imports and food aid gradually over a period of three years. The quantities deducted from the reserve will be sold on the market and the proceeds of the sale will allow stocks to be replenished.

Though it would have been desirable to have a triennial commitment, paral-

lel with the building up of the reserve, the Commission can only propose an allocation of aid for 1977. However, it reserves the right to put forward supplementary proposals within the framework of subsequent programmes. □

## EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

### Erosion of trade preferences granted to the ACP countries.

The ACP countries observe that the advantages of their preferential trade relations with the Community have been reduced owing to the fact that generalized preferences are also applied to other developing countries. They have often said so in meetings of the EEC-ACP Joint Commission and the Consultative Assembly.

With reference to this criticism, it may be noted that the generalized system of preferences has opened new markets to partner countries in the industrialized countries which apply this system and the system of exclusive preferences reserved for these countries involves greater advantages than the generalized system of preferences. A report by UNCTAD concludes that the application of the GSP is not prejudicial to ACP countries, the advantages being more or less offset by the disadvantages.

Even though certain advantages granted to ACP countries have been reduced, the Community should continue to implement the generalized system of preferences, the Parliament feels. It has invited the Commission to put forward statistics in the next few months which will show whether generalized preferences have had negative repercussions for a certain number of ACP countries or for certain products and, if so, to what extent it should also supply information which will make it possible to determine whether discrimination has been created between the groups of ACP countries and other countries of Asia and Latin America acceding to various preferential regimes. □

## ACP BEEF

The European Parliament's agriculture committee, at its meeting at the end of September, considered the proposal to continue the system of reduced levies on imports of beef and veal from ACP countries. As in previous years it is proposed to carry over into

the next year the special provisions for beef contained in the Lomé Convention for certain ACP beef exporters. Some 27000 tonnes of beef and veal can be exported to the Community next year under these provisions.

Although the safeguard clause for beef produce was rescinded in April 1977, special provisions for ACP beef exports remain necessary in order to maintain the traditional level of exports between Botswana and Britain in particular, the two countries most affected, and to stabilize the income of Botswana beef producers. □

## ACP SUGAR

During his visit to Surinam, Guyana, Trinidad and Tobago and Jamaica, Mr Cheysson made a general assessment of the international sugar situation, of the competition from new sugar substitutes and the low yields per hectare of cane production by comparison with other crops (bananas, rice, fruit, market garden produce).

He was pessimistic about the prospects of cane if the latter is not drastically modernized by irrigation and systematic mechanisation of cutting, while acknowledging that development would have to be slow to avoid creating insoluble unemployment problems.

He also encouraged ACP producers to promote the use of sugar by-products for cattlefeed, a sector which is in deficit in the Caribbean region and allows the consumption of large quantities of molasses at a low price.

In Surinam, the Minister of Economic Affairs recalled the traditional character of sugar production and its importance for the standard of living of farm workers. Mr Cheysson spoke of the exceptional character of measures taken for cases of force majeure at the EEC-ACP Council of Ministers meeting in Fiji. This serious derogation should in no way be repeated, he said both publicly and privately.

Mr Cheysson also alluded to the exceptional interpretation of cases of force majeure given in Fiji, during an important meeting with five ministers in Guyana. Faced with the cane-cutters' strike for increased wages, which began two weeks before Mr Cheysson's arrival (the strike coincided with the beginning of the second annual crop—the most important—and thus gave more bargaining power to the cane-cutters' union), the Guyanese ministers pointed out that such events cause production losses. On this point, Mr Cheysson stressed the restrictive

nature of reasons of *force majeure*, but outlined the political aspect of the decision which may be taken in cases of a reduction in the quantities due to be delivered. For this reason, he recommended that an over-precise definition of the concept of *force majeure* should not be attempted.

During this meeting, Mr King, Minister of Trade, brought up the question of the International Sugar Agreement.

Stressing how well the ACP countries had understood the importance for them of the Community's decision to import 1300000 tonnes of sugar annually, Mr King indicated that the ACP group should, in his opinion, support the Community's position at the Geneva sugar talks to act at its own discretion in its export policy, within an agreed context. However, the ACP countries expect that the Community will help developing countries to raise the minimum price above the 10 cents (\$) proposed by the chairman of the conference, he said.

In Trinidad there was praise for the Community's action on ACP sugar, since the Lomé Convention allows Trinidad and Tobago to sell sugar at a price much higher than the world price, and interest in better consultations with the Community, especially as far as negotiations for the International Sugar Agreement are concerned.

Mr Cheysson again emphasized the real interest of negotiating prices with the EEC for the ACP producers, facing the slump in world prices, and stressed that Community and ACP sugar were up against the same problems—overtaken by new techniques of isoglucose production, not supported by the Community, as Mr Cheysson recalled, beet and cane are two crops faced with stagnant world consumption and very irregular prices on the world sugar market.

As he did later at Kingston, during his meeting with foreign minister P.J. Patterson, Mr Cheysson stressed that cane sugar is seriously threatened by competition and needs to achieve better profitability, particularly through irrigation and mechanical cutting; and that the previous and present market situation could only be improved through discipline. He strongly urged that the ACP producers support the Community's position in Geneva in favour of a regulating stock.

Mr Patterson gave the EEC Commissioner a memorandum on behalf of the CEPPLACEA group of Latin-American and Caribbean sugar-exporting countries. He made it clear that he was given a mandate to take this step, which was not part of the Lomé Convention and its protocol on sugar. □



## GERMANY

**ANUGA 77 — A number of ACP countries participated in the Anuga food fair in Cologne in August.**

Jamaica and Cameroon (stand pictured above) were among the ACP exhibitors this year. Jamaica, which participated for the first time, displayed a number of products including some processed spices which whetted the appetite of many visitors, including agriculture minister Joseph Ertl (see below).



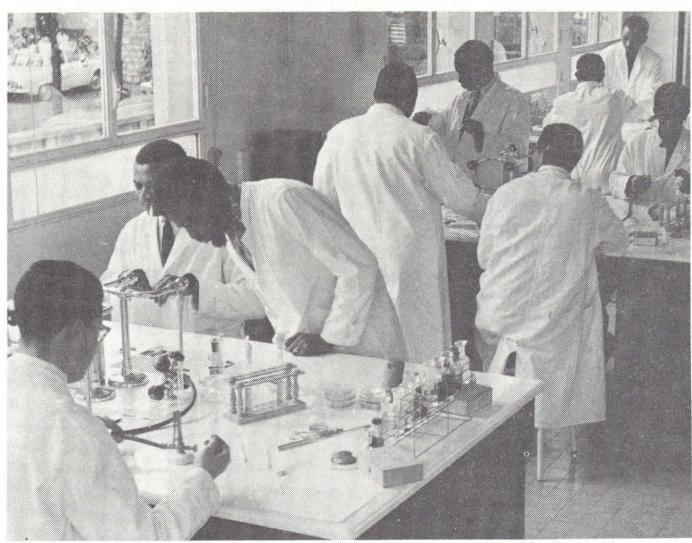
## Education: a preparation for life



VIVANTE AFRIQUE

*In the nursery**In the workshop*

FED

*In the home**In crafts**In languages**And in science*

## JAMAICA

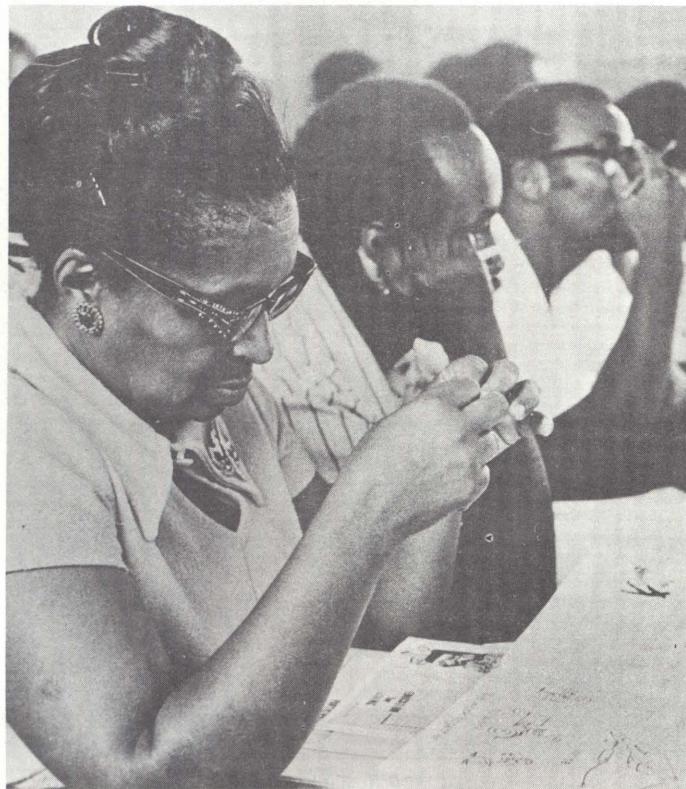
### The JAMAL approach

The preceding articles have emphasized the inadequacy of the formal school system in most developing countries. The basic criticism is that the existing kinds of education, mainly inherited from before independence, are not adapted to the real needs. They are too expensive, elitist and unable to cope with the demand. Alternative approaches, termed "non-formal education", are increasingly being adopted, with various degrees of success. One successful example is the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy, JAMAL.

Compulsory elementary education in Jamaica was recommended as early as 1865; and 80 years ago a special commission reported that the school curriculum was not suited to the needs of the people—exactly the criticism that is being made now about Third World schooling in general. Despite this early attention to education, a 1970 study reported that 40-50% of the population aged 15 and over were functionally illiterate, i.e. unable to benefit from a rudimentary literacy in any practical way. 1974 marked a new milestone, with the Prime Minister's announcement that free education was to be available to all Jamaicans and the start of JAMAL.

JAMAL is the latest form of an adult literacy programme that has been under way since 1943. Thirty years of expe-

#### JAMAL for everyone



rience and experiment, on a very modest budget, certainly taught the teachers a great deal, whatever it taught the pupils, and the JAMAL approach is based on lessons derived from that trial period. Perhaps the main ones are:

- that voluntary teachers are willing and able to teach adult illiterates, but need training;
- that the motivation for learning must come from the pupils themselves (this can, of course, be encouraged);
- that reading and writing should not be presented as an end in themselves but related to the daily lives of the pupils;
- that teacher-pupil relationships should be maintained on a friendly, continuous and preferably local basis;
- that teaching material should be devised as practically as possible;
- that the attainment of literacy should be followed up to prevent lapses once pupils have completed the programme.

#### Practical points

One of the striking characteristics of the Jamaican approach is its attention to practical detail. No amount of theory will work if it fails to take into account such considerations as the fact that a farm worker, used to handling a machete, may find it difficult to hold a pen, or that he may not be able to read simply because of bad eyesight. Pupils are easily discouraged, particularly if they are tired after a day's work, and such practical details may be major stumbling-blocks. To take these two instances, JAMAL tests eyesight at the beginning of the course and the copybooks give model letters that are deliberately printed in a wobbly form so that pupils will not feel dismayed by their own first efforts. These are the lessons of experience, and JAMAL has been adapted from the observation of many other countries' literacy programmes and with the help of UNESCO.

The backbone of the JAMAL programme is the voluntary work done by some 9000 teachers and 6000 helpers, in their own time and wherever premises can be found. The programme's paid staff number less than 1000. Kingsley Ridley, JAMAL's assistant director of special projects, said: "We reach 160000 out of about 500000 adult illiterates, but we are up against a population explosion and we still need a big recruitment drive to train more teachers and to reach the people who are still too shy to come to classes."

The government last year provided J\$6 million for JAMAL—twice as much as two years ago, but not so much compared with the J\$186 million allocated to formal schooling. More money comes from various sources—singer Roberta Flack held a benevolent concert for JAMAL in May, the EDF is contributing, local committees hold fund-raising ventures—but of course there is not enough. What it goes on, apart from the modest administration bill, is mainly the teaching material, books and audio-visual aids designed by JAMAL's own staff, and transport and maintenance costs.

The programme is organized on fairly simple lines, basically involving local committees reporting back through field officers whose job includes recruiting teachers, enrolling students, finding classroom space—it may only be a carport in someone's drive—and generally mobilizing the local community to participate. Classes are held in a variety of places, from private houses to church halls, and mainly in the evenings. About half the JAMAL students are under 25, but the programme covers all ages and 9% are over 50. The organizers would like to reach more women, although many

do stay on for literacy classes after a child care session and some come to JAMAL so they can help their children with the homework; and they have been encouraged by the cooperative attitude of firms willing to give workers time off for in-house classes. A network of adult education centres has been started, in various premises, where classes run during the day and are timed to fit in with the shift-workers' schedules.

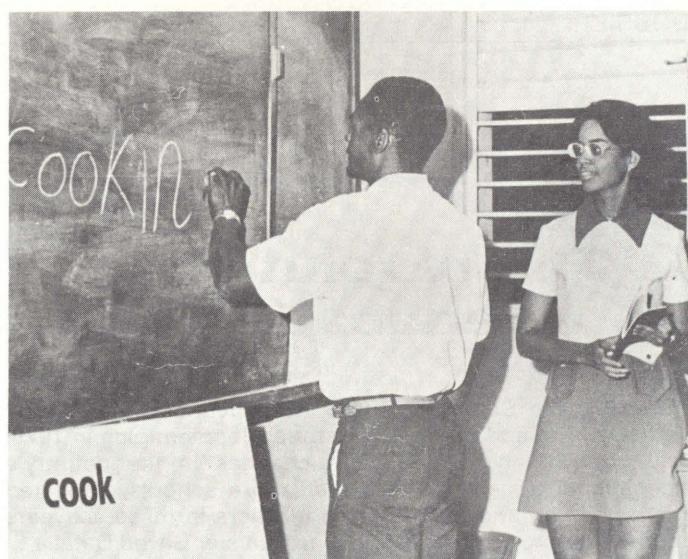
All this depends on the volunteers. JAMAL publicity is conspicuous in Jamaica and has helped to generate the cheerful atmosphere surrounding the programme. The psychological element is important, since "illiterate" tends to be equated with "stupid". But goodwill alone is not enough, and one of the problems is finding volunteer teachers of sufficient quality. Area teacher-trainers are employed to show teachers how to grade adult students, organize the classes and choose the right material. Teaching adults is very different from teaching children.

### Relevant reading

One of the keys to JAMAL's success is the teaching material. The audio-visual side still has a certain glamour—which has its critics—but it is designed to complement, not to replace, face-to-face teaching based on reading primers which are the result of considerable experience. The four levels of book work reflect the familiar conditions of life in Jamaica and use a carefully tailored vocabulary, including local jargon. Titles include "Plan to get married?", "How to register a child" and "What to do when someone dies". Home and the family, work, health and civic and national awareness are among the themes.

### The follow-up

"Our real purpose is to break the attitude among adult illiterates of "I can't get any further in life". We can teach someone to read and write in six months, but six months can't produce a literate person fully absorbed into a literary



**Learning to write — adults are more easily discouraged than children**

society, capable of writing business letters and so on. A whole social education is required for that, which may take five years. So it's very important to have follow-up material," Mr Ridley said.

An example of such follow-up material, and of the sort of cooperation that has greatly contributed to JAMAL's success, is to be found in the "Daily Gleaner" newspaper every Monday. A page is devoted to "new readers" (a positive term, unlike "semi-literates") who can read about national and international affairs in simple language.

A moment of particular pride for JAMAL director Mrs Joyce Robinson was when she read an advertisement from a JAMAL student in the "jobs wanted" section of a newspaper—he, at least, clearly thought he could get further in life. □

B.T.

**Playing bingo with letters — literacy classes can be fun**



## SUDAN

### The revolution in education

In 1970 the Sudan launched its 'educational revolution' which, by the end of the five-year development plan in 1976, had brought about significant changes in the country's educational system. "We opened more schools, educated more children and trained more teachers in these six years than in the previous 70" education minister Sayed Dafalla El Hag Yousif told the "Courier".

From 1970 to 1976 school enrolments increased from 822601 to 1472540 and the number of schools rose from 4320 to 6139. Over the same period, the number of teachers more than doubled, from 21397 to 44810. The Sudan's education budget is among the highest in Africa: from its 1970/71 level it more than doubled to reach almost 70 million Sudanese pounds(1) by 1975/76. Nonetheless, certain disparities remain to be tackled during the new 1977-83 development plan.

#### "Equitable distribution of education opportunities"

The main disparities are the geographical concentration of education opportunities in the north and the difference in school enrolment between boys and girls. In 1976 twice as many boys enroled as girls. Under the new 1977-83 development plan, special efforts will be made to reach "an equitable distribution of education opportunities throughout the country". Complete enrolment for both sexes will, according to the six-year plan, have to be reached by 1990, although the minister considers this "a very conservative estimate". He believes "that we can reach universal primary education within 10 years, and in some provinces, which already have about 80% school enrolment, in two to three years".

Apart from the financial constraints on the feasibility of establishing schools in scattered villages in rural areas, there is also an important social aspect: "even if you provide schools in rural areas it may take people quite some time before they send their children to school, as they have usually had to work with their parents," Mr El Hag Yousif said.

#### A 40% switch

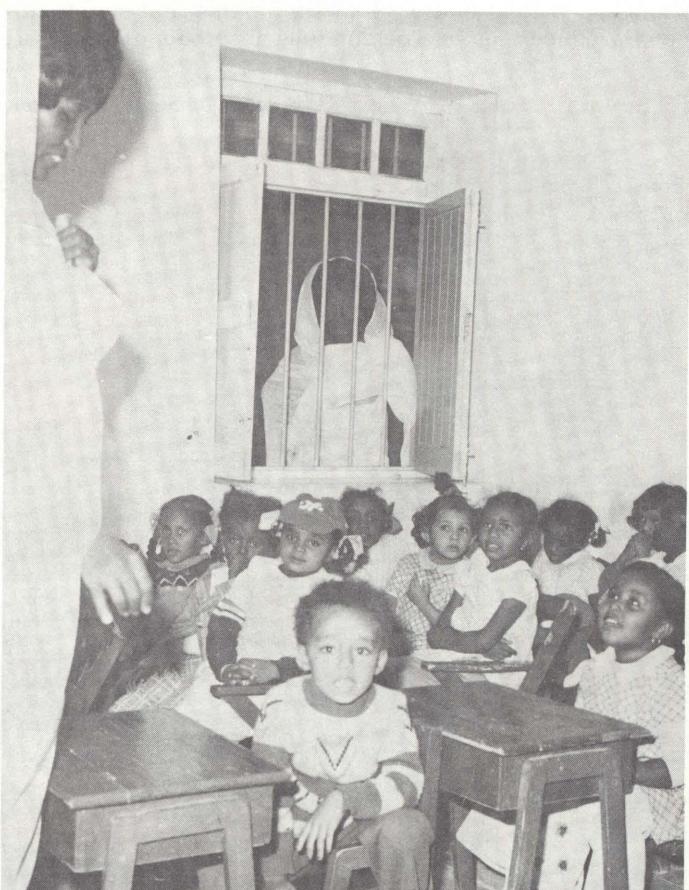
According to the education minister, "the Sudan's manpower requirements have been thoroughly studied in two major surveys, one by the ILO and the other by the Sudanese government itself with the help of foreign experts, in order to prepare the six-year plan, and projections of the required manpower have been made for the next 15 or 20 years". The Sudan has very high needs for trained cadres and skilled labour, given the number of development proj-

ects in preparation or being implemented. More foreign aid will be required, the present facilities and the funds allotted under the new development plan being insufficient. Certain innovations, such as the introduction of multi-disciplined secondary schools and a shift system for schools, will be introduced.

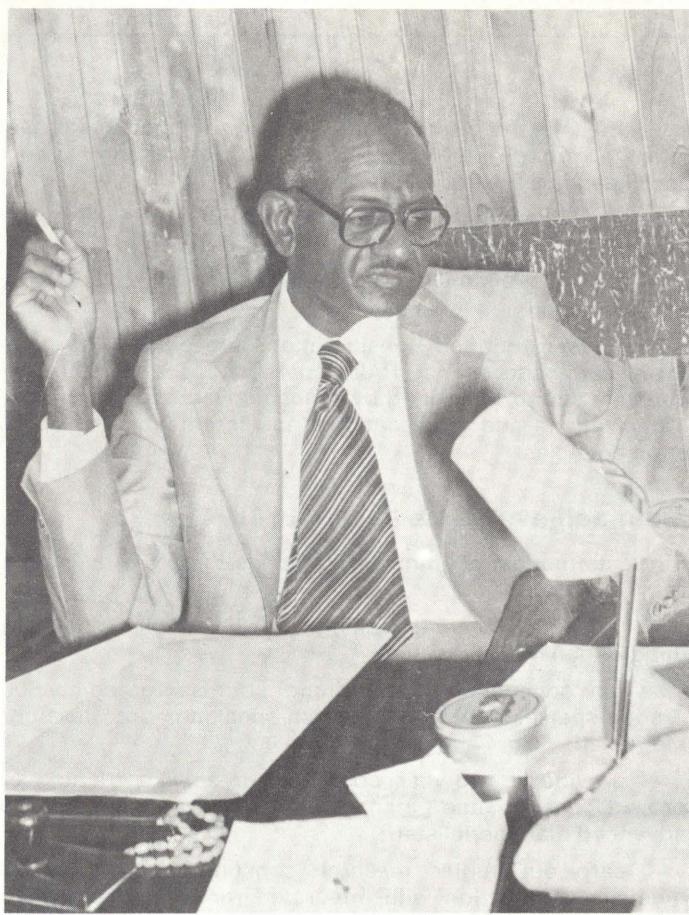
Teacher training could be another bottleneck, but the education sector review provided for this in particular. "We do not anticipate any problem in the training of teachers because we are now using the new method of in-service training. There are now 39 centres spread all over the country for this, and we will be establishing 6 to 10 more," Mr El Hag Yousif said.

Technical and vocational training will receive special attention in the next six years. "We have decided to convert 40% of our academic schools into technical schools," the minister said. This will be carried out after thorough study and research with the help of Egypt, some individual EEC countries and the EEC itself. Cooperation with Egypt in the education field is both long-standing and close. The Sudanese government will also give special incentives for field work. As in all developing countries, the Sudan has a problem in encouraging trained personnel to stay on the land rather than taking a desk job, but as the minister pointed out, "the problem here is less acute because technical and vocational training go back 50 or 60 years, and technical and vocational graduates can earn more money than people working in offices. They also find better opportunities when they go to work in neighbouring Arab countries".

*Primary schooling for all boys and girls by 1990 under the six-year plan*



(1) Approx. 155 million EUA.



**Education minister Sayed Dafalla El Hag Yousif:** "indigenous highly trained people are much more capable of accelerating the process of the transfer and adaptation of the technology we require"

The outflow of skilled labour to neighbouring oil-producing states "will not reach the level of a real brain drain". As the minister said, "the Sudan has a closely-knit society and even those who go away tend to come back after a few years, most with more experience. Another reason is that although they are not as high as in oil-exporting countries, local salaries are relatively good and Sudanese labour law is quite advanced. Also many people believe there will be an economic miracle in the next six years and they expect to see improving standards of life and conditions of work."

### A regional approach

Bordering on eight other African countries and being close to the rest of the Arab world, the Sudan, with its long educational tradition, also takes into consideration the regional requirements of its neighbours in its education planning. At the moment the number of Sudanese students studying abroad is more or less equal to the number of students studying in the Sudan. "To deal with this we decided to open two new universities, in Gezira and Juba, in addition to two new agricultural institutes and two more colleges, one in El Fasher for arid area studies, and the other in Port Sudan for petroleum and mining studies. In addition, contacts with multilateral and bilateral aid donors are being intensified in order to obtain more scholarships and to provide more technical aid," the minister said. This emphasis on higher education is necessary to carry out the gigantic development plans in all sectors of the Sudanese economy and "is not dictated by prestige but practical needs". He added, "an indigenous people, highly trained, are much more capable of accelerating the process of transfer and adaptation of the technology we require".

### Combined experience

As a result of the negotiations between the Sudan and the EEC on an indicative development programme, almost a quarter of the EEC's aid will go to education. This reflects the high level of priority given by the Sudanese authorities to education. "I am very happy with the contribution of the EEC, which has not been restricted to general education but has been extended to higher and technical education," the minister said. Juba university, for instance, has already been allocated two million EUA. This university, together with that in Gezira, is based on a new concept linking the institutions closely with their particular environments and they should be responsive to the overall development needs of their regions. "I must point out that Juba university is not a regional university in the strict sense of the word, but a national university aimed at forging national unity and coherence to accelerate the development of the southern region and to serve neighbouring countries as well," the minister said. He argued that the combination of the Sudan's own long educational experience together with the experience and technical ability of the nine EEC countries should lead to concrete cooperation between the two: "as we really are the link between the Middle East and the African countries, whatever contribution is made to the Sudan, its use is not restricted to the Sudan only. In one way or another it affects both groups of countries, and both rich and poor," he concluded. □ R.D.B.

**The education minister visits a youth camp at which young Sudanese learn about the environment**



## An international organization working for Africa

### The Panafrican Institute For Development

The Panafrican Institute for Development (PAID) is an international non-profit making association, founded in 1964. Although its headquarters are in Geneva, all its activities are run, with the cooperation of the 35 countries (French-speaking, English-speaking and now Portuguese-speaking) involved, in Africa south of the Sahara. It also caters for students put forward by the South African, Namibian and Zimbabwe liberation movements.

The PAID currently employs 40, mainly African, cadres, dealing with research and training in a wide range of subjects, plus a number of part-time consultants.

#### Aims of the PAID

The PAID was set up and has been developed in the light of the following considerations:

- the vital importance in developing countries of encouraging local rural development as a basis for both overall social development and national growth;
- the fact that governments have often neglected the needs and wishes of the rural population and projects have tended to be planned at the top without any real idea of the needs and possibilities at grass-roots level. This has stood in the way of motivation and genuine participation;

— the shortage of middle management staff (often under-qualified) who are able to design and carry out small projects involving the use and demonstration of intermediate technologies, who are familiar with local problems and situations and willing to work with peasant farmers;

— the fact that women and children are not integrated into the rural development process and that economic and social aspects are not coordinated;

— the inadequacy of applied research and systems of programme assessment;

— lack of genuine coordination of the various levels of administration and local schemes.

These well-founded considerations are behind the relatively early success of PAID operations and explain the constant support provided by African governments, regional organizations and most national and international cooperation agencies.

#### Main achievements (1965-1976)

Since its modest beginnings, PAID has therefore been able to:

- train 550 French-speaking and 280 English-speaking middle-management staff;
- run seminars and retraining courses for some 600 French-speaking and 140 English-speaking rural development staff;
- provide a two-year course of in-service training in project design and management for more than 100 advanced managerial staff;
- carry out studies, research, consultations and assessments in connection with integrated rural development in various African countries.

#### Obstacles and constraints

Internal and external assessment has revealed certain gaps in PAID systems.

— At national level, rural development has remained either closely tied up with government action (which still tends to be organized within planning sectors rather than integrated at local level) or over-dependent on the sort of production that is related to the needs and vagaries of the developed economies.

*Education and rural development: EDF-backed school at Toumousiné (Upper Volta)*



— Local authorities tend not to be brought into macroeconomic planning, which is settled at the top, and local development staff and the peasant farmers themselves tend to be looked upon as executors of policies they are unable to help formulate.

The prime interest of public and private capital from home and abroad is to develop the modern industrial and export crops sectors, often to the detriment of food crops and, in spite of its weight of numbers, the rural sector is often neglected. And even within that sector, women and young people, who do most of the work, get a very poor share of the fruits of the growth that they have been instrumental in bringing about.

As the training the PAID provides is based on participation, i.e. on work carried out with the local people and in answer to their needs, the above situations sometimes result in PAID-trained staff being under-employed or feeling ill at ease in the rigidly hierarchical structures in which they have to work.

Last year, therefore, the PAID's governing council took account of recommendations and decided to bring in some changes, as follows:

Two PAID regional institutes would be reorganized and two new ones founded, to broaden the range of activities and facilitate their direct application to development projects. The institutes in question were:

— The Regional Institute for Central Africa (French-speaking), which replaced the Douala school of management on 1 September 1976.

— The Regional Institute for West Africa (English-speaking), which replaced the Collège du Sautoy on the same date.

— The Institute for the countries of the Sahel and West Africa (French-speaking).

— The Regional Institute for East and Southern Africa (English-speaking).

The opening of these last two depended on the results of studies and thorough analyses both of the stated needs of the countries concerned and of any existing means in the way of training, research and project support, of meeting them. Studies on the Sahel have been under way for several months now and others, on eastern and southern Africa, will be started as soon as possible.

## New guidelines for long training courses

Pending opening of the two new institutes, the regional institute for central Africa will continue collaborating with all the countries of French-speaking Africa.

Generally speaking, students will now be recruited under a contract with the organizations and departments employing them, rather than by competitive examination. Training will be based on a series (which may or may not be continuous) of 3-6 month course units, ultimately leading to the PAID diploma.

Alongside these general training units, there are plans to introduce specialized units covering such things as the environment, the role of women and young people in the development process, rural water-engineering, small industry, craft and so on.

In both cases the tendency will be towards collective recruitment and discontinuous training, although continuous, long-term courses will be maintained if the individual countries so desire and the PAID's human and financial resources are adequate.

Training will still be provided in the form of in-service courses or other schemes in the various parts of the zones covered by the regional institutes.

In all cases, the wishes of the governments involved will decide how far the reform is implemented and the PAID will, as far as possible, call in national specialists in addition, if necessary, to its own consultants.

The new Sahel/West Africa institute, which was scheduled to open in Ouagadougou on 1 September 1977, is an original conception in that it has the following priorities:

— better integration at regional level by tailoring some schemes to the realities of semi-arid regions (water, stock-rearing, nomadism, etc.);

— encouragement with setting up a network of training/research establishments whose staff can collaborate and concentrate on finding joint solutions to problems that crop up in the field. This involves training development instructors and research workers, introducing the necessary teaching methods and organization, running seminars and exchanges of staff, etc.;

— the opening of a new institute with a 100% African team, in close collaboration with the institutes in the region (joint activities);

— exploitation, from the outset, of the three-dimensional nature of PAID activities on the basis of pilot areas in various countries in the region.

## Research and support in the field

The general theme of research over the 1977-1979 period is the policies and processes of integrated rural development. A survey of practical experience in the field is currently being carried out.

Specific projects will be carried out in the regional institute zones, to coincide with the training unit programmes, and both students and teachers will be called upon to collaborate with research workers in the field.

Work in the field will primarily be backed up by encouraging farmers to group together as far as possible and by helping these groups to develop their own projects.

The PAID will act as supervisor, instructor and consultant here, but will never take over the responsibility or management of an operational project.

## Conclusions

Both conclusive and inconclusive experiments carried out by the PAID have revealed a number of internal and external constraints to the achievement of the aim shared by the governments and the PAID—to promote the integrated rural development of the populations concerned.

Integrated development implies changing administrative structures and planning systems. Above all, it involves changing the outlook and attitude of civil servants and experts to the peasant classes and to their real needs and achievements. The first thing is to gradually bring about genuine cooperation in everyday affairs between the various public (or private) services, between the various subjects and between everyone involved in the field.

But, more important than this, the rural masses must be accepted as permanent, valid participants in a dialogue. They must be heard and they must be offered, rather than have meted out, at various levels, the right sort of information, advice, means of training and support for their needs, wishes and capacities. □

## The Declaration of Dar es Salaam

Last June 500 educators and development specialists from around the world gathered in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, to identify the role of adult education in the changing world order. The delegates from the 80 countries represented at the International Conference on Adult Education and Development agreed on an Action Work Plan calling for decentralization and wider participation in planning of education, and replacement of the present youth-oriented educational structures by education meant for all.

The delegates agreed a main goal of education should be to instill people with confidence that they can participate in and cause changes in their society, a theme echoed in the speech of Tanzanian President Julius Nyerere which was adopted as the Declaration of Dar es Salaam—the conference's basic statement. The Declaration, based on the inaugural address to the conference by President Nyerere, excerpts of which follow, was unanimously adopted by the conference delegates.

"... Development has a purpose; that purpose is the liberation of Man..."

But Man can only liberate himself or develop himself. He cannot be liberated or developed by another. For Man makes himself. It is his ability to act deliberately, for a self-determined purpose, which distinguishes him from the other animals. The expansion of his own consciousness, and therefore of his power over himself, his environment, and his society, must therefore ultimately be what we mean by development.

### **Education is liberation**

So development is for Man, by Man, and of Man. The same is true of education. Its purpose is the liberation of Man from the restraints and limitations of ignorance and dependency...

This means that adult education has to be directed at helping men to develop themselves. It has to contribute to an enlargement of Man's ability in every way. In particular it has to help men to decide for themselves—in cooperation—what development is. It must help men to think clearly; it must enable them to examine the possible alternative courses of action; to make a choice between those alternatives in keeping with their own purposes; and it must equip them with the ability to translate their decisions into reality.

The personal and physical aspects of development cannot be separated. It is in the process of deciding for himself what is development, and deciding in what direction it should take his society, and in implementing those decisions, that Man develops himself. For man does not develop himself in a vacuum, in isolation from his society and his environment; and he certainly cannot be developed by others. Man's consciousness is developed in the process of thinking, and deciding and of acting. His capacity is developed in the process of doing things.

### **Education for cooperation**

But doing things means cooperating with others, for in isolation Man is virtually helpless physically, and stulti-

fied mentally. Education for liberation is therefore also education for cooperation among men, because it is in cooperation with others that Man liberates himself from the constraints of nature, and also those imposed upon him by his fellow-men. Education is thus intensely personal in the sense that it has to be a personal experience—no one can have his consciousness developed by proxy. But it is also an activity of great social significance, because the man whom education liberates is a man in society, and his society will be affected by the change which education creates in him.

There is another aspect to this. A man learns because he wants to do something. And once he has started along this road of developing his capacity he also learns because he wants to be; to be a more conscious and understanding person...

So if adult education is to contribute to development, it must be a part of life—integrated with life and inseparable from it. It is not something which can be put into a box and taken out for certain periods of the day or week—or certain periods of a life. And it cannot be imposed: every learner is ultimately a volunteer, because, however much teaching he is given, only he can learn.

Further, adult education is not something which can deal with just 'agriculture', or 'health' or 'literacy', or 'mechanical skill', etc. All these separate branches of education are related to the total life a man is living, and to the man he is and will become. Learning how best to grow soybeans is of little use to a man if it is not combined with learning about nutrition and, or, the existence of a market for the beans.

### **Promoting change**

This means, therefore, that adult education will promote changes in men, and in society. And it means that adult education should promote change, at the same time as it assists men to control both the change which they induce, and that which is forced upon them by the decisions of other men or the cataclysms of nature. Further, it means that adult education encompasses the whole of life, and must build upon what already exists.

In that case, the first function of adult education is to inspire both a desire for change, and an understanding that change is possible. For a belief that poverty or suffering is 'the will of God' and that man's only task is to endure, is the most fundamental of all the enemies of freedom. Yet dissatisfaction with what is must be combined with a conviction that it can be changed: otherwise it is simply destructive. Men living in poverty or sickness or under tyranny or exploitation must be enabled to recognize both that the life they lead is miserable, and that they can change it by their own action, either individually or in cooperation with others...

The second stage of adult education... is, helping people to work out what kind of change they want, and how to create it.

... There is a saying that nothing which is easy is worth doing, and it could never be said that adult education is not worth doing! For it is the key to the development of free men and free societies. Its function is to help men to think for themselves, to make their own decisions, and to execute those decisions for themselves." Julius Nyerere

# EEC aid for education

## Providing the infrastructure

Meeting the need for more and better education is primarily a question of supplying the right sort of classrooms, materials and teachers. This means that buildings must be built, furniture installed, teaching materials supplied and instructors or training for them (colleges and grants) provided at primary, secondary, vocational and higher levels of education. However, although the EDF has done all this at various times, its priorities have changed over the years. At first it concentrated on quantity, building new schools for the various levels(1), replacing old classrooms, supplying materials to tide over etc. But this soon gave way to a focus on quality—build schools by all means, but build them with a particular type of teaching in mind. And, with primary schools above all, avoid increasing the disparity between town and country or between regions. If possible, improve the situation. The example of two successive projects in primary education in the Cameroon is a significant one, as, at a different level, is Mogadishu University, to which the EDF has given considerable support in spite of the fact its standards of teaching (e.g. doctors trained in four years) differ greatly from European ones.

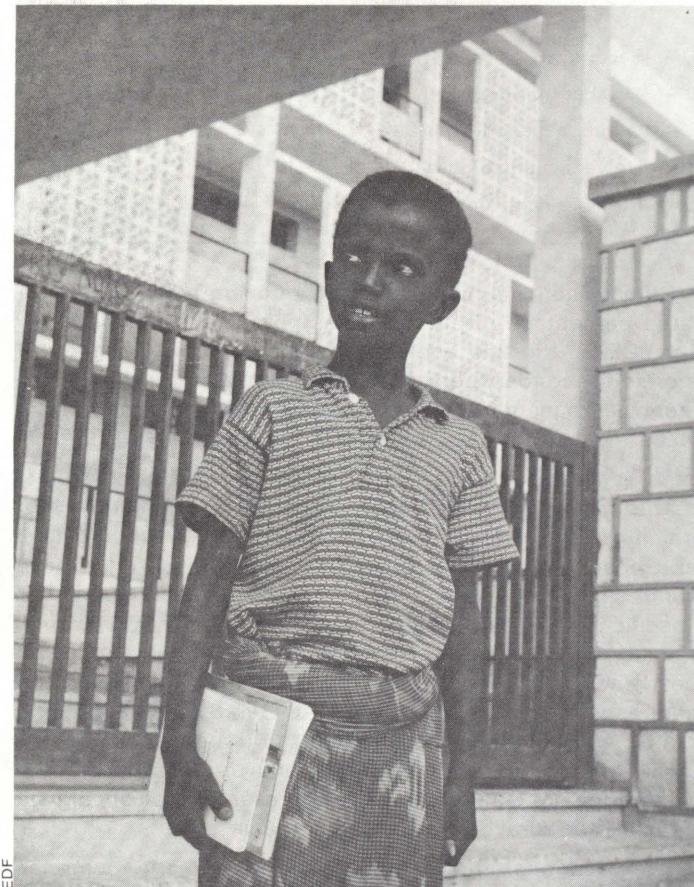
Alongside this, the EDF has stepped up its university infrastructure projects, in line with the individual governments' policies and with an eye to local requirements.

One thing to notice is that, with its infrastructure and grants programme, the EDF has endeavoured to support inter-state and regional establishments, such as the UDEAC inter-state customs school in the Central African Empire and the inter-state school for hydraulic technicians in Upper Volta. However, this has, on occasion, been thwarted when regional organizations have broken up and governments have wanted to have as many institutes of higher education on their territories as possible.

Whatever the type of school, the overall coherence of the aid project is still a problem, particularly as far as dormitories and teachers' housing are concerned. These are costly investments but can be vital if the school is to be used properly.

In a fundamental field like school infrastructure, there is no point in just meeting a need. The socio-economic impact of each school building must be assessed; it must be designed with local conditions in mind and its place in the educational system of the country in question must be known.

(1) This sometimes involved building a whole school (as with the teaching colleges in Zaire) and sometimes only part, sets of classrooms, dormitories, etc. (as with the extensions to Port-Louis University on Mauritius, where extra buildings were put up to house the school of agriculture and the library).



**New secondary school buildings in Mogadishu (Somalia) financed by the EDF**

When the answer to an educational problem is being sought, teacher and architect must collaborate closely on designing functional buildings that meet the socio-economic demands of the community where they are destined to become a focus of work and activity. Can African children really be prepared to play an active, creative part in the socio-economic development of their country if they are suddenly taken away from their rural village community and thrust into a European-style school which is inward-looking and foreign to the society around it?

The nature and content of the training provided very much depend on the establishment in which young people are educated and taught to think and take on adult responsibilities. The site, structure, and technical aspects of the school and the way it is managed have a considerable influence on the life of the pupil, which must not be neglected. For example, the design of dormitories or teachers' accommodation—the way desks are set out, and contact between the school and the community involve both the teacher and the architect. The EDF has always tried to give the socio-economic aspects of education the consideration they deserve.

\*  
\* \*

## Results by end 1975, before 4th EDF aid began

|   | Number of schools    | Number of pupils |
|---|----------------------|------------------|
| — Primary including schools in the brush and for nomads | 3 176<br>2 501<br>20 | 95 280           |
| — Accommodation for primary teachers                    | 1 393                |                  |
| — Secondary   | 99                   | 20 465           |
| — Teacher training                                      | 11                   | 3 688            |
| — Vocational and technical                              | 77                   | 11 466           |
| — University and higher                                 | 18                   | 6 355            |
| — Rural training centres                                | 491                  | —                |

Primary education, especially in outlying areas(1), took a large percentage of aid. This was particularly so under the 1st EDF(2), the 2nd and, above all, the 3rd, concentrating more on secondary education, with emphasis on training the technical management staff who are in such demand at the stage most African countries have reached in their Africanization policies.

The rural training centres are a fairly original way of training certain categories of the population in such places as Upper Volta and the Ivory Coast. In Upper Volta, these centres aim to prepare young people in rural areas for specific jobs. They concentrate on settling their pupils, once trained, into their own environment and on promoting the best among them in that environment. In the Ivory Coast, the centres train skilled workers (at Ferkessédougou) and craftsmen and rural extension staff (at Katiola) to meet the local, or even national, requirements outlined in a plan drafted in collaboration with representatives of private industry and rural development companies.

The vocational and technical schools primarily comprise rural leadership training institutes (Senegal and Mali), agricultural and agronomical colleges (Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, CAE, Madagascar and Togo), technical schools (Chad, Gabon, Upper Volta, et. al.), stockbreeding schools (CAE, Niger), a road maintenance centre (Togo) and a women's craft training centre (Upper Volta), not counting the schools of nursing (in Dahomey, Niger and Togo) included in various public health projects.

As far as higher education is concerned, the EDF has built a whole university (in Somalia) and financed various buildings on existing campuses, a number of national schools of administration (in Zaire, the Ivory Coast, CAE, Upper Volta, Niger and Burundi), advanced training schools (Burundi, Cameroon, Congo, Ivory Coast and Senegal), a school for statisticians (Cameroon), an institute of zootechny (Chad) and an inter-state school for customs officers (CAE).

Throughout the education sector, as elsewhere, the EDF operations have involved replacing old, overcrowded or temporary installations or providing new ones.

(1) The nomadic classes were in Mauritania.

(2) It was also primarily under the 1st EDF that primary teachers' housing was built, this being considered vital, particularly in the brush, if the schools were to operate properly.

In 1975 there were two educational infrastructure projects, in Burundi and Rwanda.

In Burundi, a 3.5 million EUA grant meant that a science faculty and a student hostel could be built and fitted out. The aim here was to provide much-needed lecture rooms and laboratories for practicals and research ( $5456 m^2$ ) and satisfactory living and working conditions (a  $4608 m^2$  hostel for 208 people) for the science students who are essential to the country's economic development.

In Rwanda, Community aid of 1520 million EUA covered building and equipping the Butare faculty of medicine which can now train Rwandese doctors in view of the country's public health situation.

This project has helped make the government's medical training policy a success. It has improved the working conditions of both students and teachers, who have only had old, unsuitable facilities so far and been particularly short of laboratories for practicals and research.

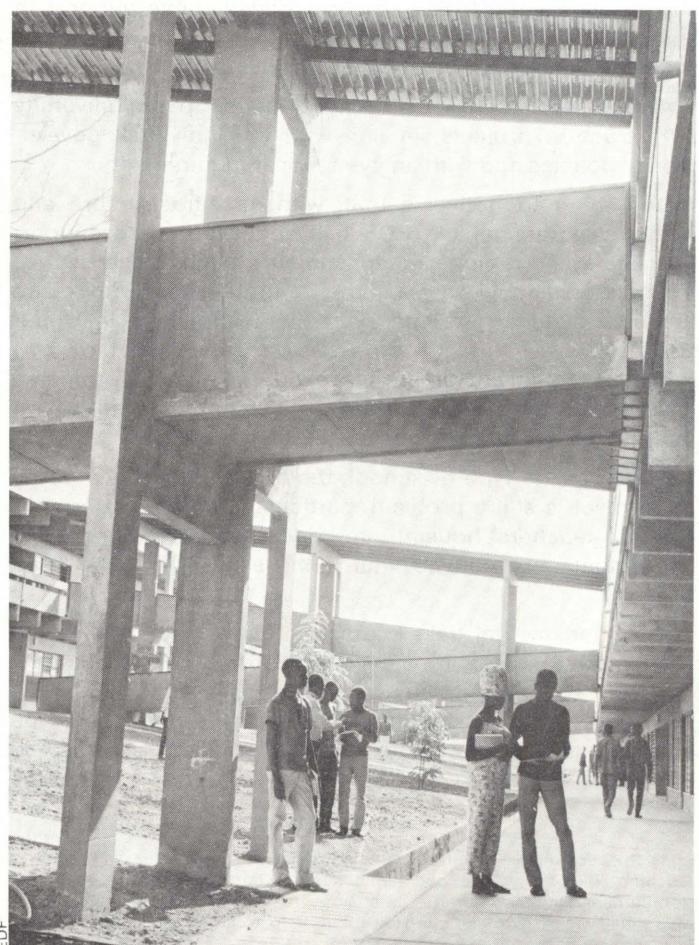
*The EDF Committee has further financed two educational infrastructure projects this year in Botswana and the Sudan.*

### Botswana: Ranch Management Centre

This is part of the national tribal pastureland preservation policy, aimed at rationalizing traditional stock-rearing by improving land utilization.

The main job of the ranch management centre will be to train the people in charge of policy implementation, service

**School built by the EDF in Bamako (Mali)**



companies and financial affairs. A 12-month training course (150 over 5 years) is planned for future ranch managers.

The renovation of existing facilities will be covered by the EDF, as will the cost of the school and agricultural equipment and the transport facilities in the training part of the project. The centre staff will be paid by the government of Botswana and the director will be answerable to the country's agricultural authorities.

It is difficult to judge exactly what the effects of the project will be, since it is part of the whole plan to improve traditional agriculture. The training of qualified staff is one of the conditions of the success of this and of the modernization of a key sector of Botswana's economy.

The Community is providing 1045000 EUA and the government of Botswana 486330 EUA for this project.

#### *Sudan: Juba University.*

The aim of this new university is to associate technical knowledge with practical experience. It will be very largely

geared to meeting the development needs of Southern Sudan.

Some courses were scheduled to begin in September 1977 and a second campus will be built later on. This project is to enable the Sudan to complete the facilities for the first group of students.

It includes a staff housing construction programme, which is vital if teachers are to be attracted from other parts of the country and from abroad, since there is no adequate accommodation in Juba. The project also completes what the Sudan has begun, by providing extra classrooms etc. for education and vocational training. In addition, the necessary equipment will be provided for all existing buildings which have been renovated under a major government financed modernization plan. Infrastructure works to improve water and electricity will also be included.

The Community is providing a 2 million EUA grant for this project. □

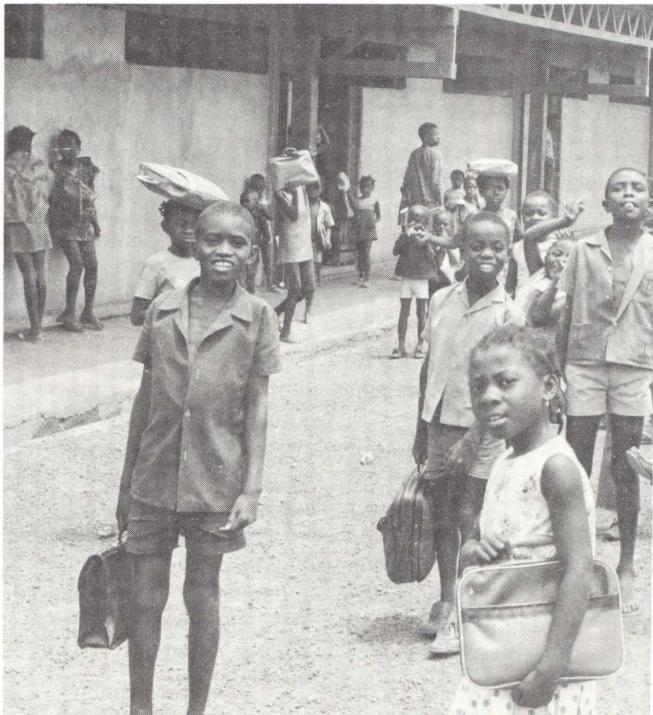
## Better teaching from better school design

### Two EDF examples

**Primary classrooms in North Cameroon.** Three hundred primary classrooms, and one hundred teachers' houses, spread over a large area, were required. From the start it was seen that a "European" approach was inappropriate. It was decided to use traditional designs, traditional materials, and local contractors—the tender documents being deliberately fragmented so as to enable small local builders to bid. At the same time a team of technical assistants and supervisors was deployed to train and help these builders, not only in their purely technical activities, but also in their administration, ordering, transporting, accounting, etc. As to the classroom furniture and equipment, this was carefully studied with a view to providing simple, robust, multipurpose items which were produced locally.

The government had already embarked on educational reform and this technical approach has ensured some success for the reform, by involving the local population, and by placing the teaching process and the teachers firmly in the local environment. The construction is now nearing its close and already we find that the rural population is attached to its schools; we are entitled to hope that these schools will as a result be well maintained with the same materials, and with the same enthusiasm, as went into their construction. It is also not impossible that the experiment has furthered the process of decentralization in the country.

Another EDF project we can quote in illustration of the effect of well-aimed technical intervention on the educational process is the **young farmers' training centres in Upper Volta**. Here again we have selected a simple local design, with a minimum of covered space. Each centre



*Cameroon primary school*

occupies a rectangular area bounded by a low wall. Inside the area is a classroom, workshop, the instructor's house, a small shaded area for informal gathering and a small granary. An important feature is the low wall, which serves to delineate the Centre but allows the villagers to see what goes on inside. The fact that the centre is situated in the village, near the local well, strengthens its link with the community. Like the Cameroon classrooms, the centres are conceived as structures familiar to and welcomed by the community. In many cases the workshop is the only one in the village, and hence its use is guaranteed; this has the inevitable effect of injecting practical work into the teaching content.

# Multiannual training programmes for the ACP countries

by Giovanni LIVI(\*)

Some 2500 cadres from the ACP are now benefiting from study grants and courses financed by the 4th EDF. These, together with the people already studying on 3rd EDF resources, mean that there are now 3500 ACP nationals following technical, graduate and post-graduate courses and vocational programmes under the training schemes drawn up by the Community in collaboration with the recipient states, as laid down in the Lomé Convention. Then there are the 40 instructors who have already taken up posts in various ACP countries to work on technical assistance, training and teaching schemes. Provision has been made for many more instructors to carry out a variety of tasks before the end of the Convention.

The Commission has so far approved 30 or so multiannual training programmes for ACP countries in 1977 for financing from the 4th EDF(1). More than 50 million EUA is involved, to which should be added the amounts allocated for a variety of specific training projects (intended to cope with one-off situations), technical assistance and regional training schemes.

Programmes for 10 more ACPs are due to be approved in the coming months. They have been drawn up at the ACP countries' request, with close collaboration between the authorities of the individual countries and the Commission delegation on the spot. In other cases, details of the training schemes for EDF financing have yet to be produced. Generally speaking, a training programme includes a certain number of study grants and courses linked to the country's priority needs and/or firm EDF projects. A constant aim is to guarantee maximum utilization of EDF-financed infrastructure or other projects by making sure there are qualified staff at all levels.

Some programmes also provide for technical assistants to be sent out. These people have to provide teaching and technical assistance, including training schemes, so that national staff are fully able to take over the jobs of technical assistance officers from abroad as soon as possible.

Seminars and short training sessions are also included. The aim here is to help managerial staff, particularly those in

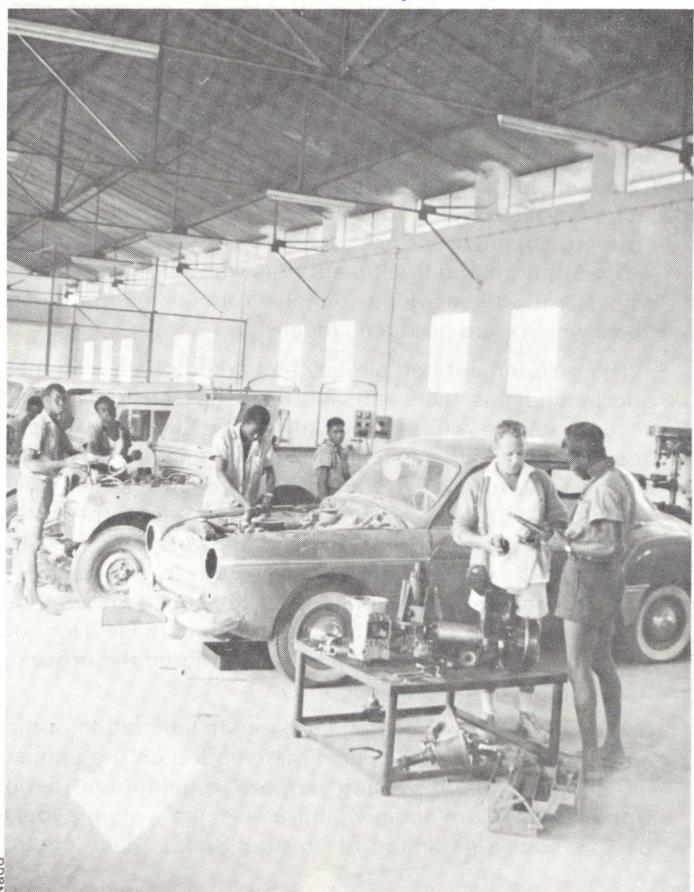
administration and the public services. Programmes may also provide for the purchase of the teaching and/or demonstration materials required for a given course.

Development commissioner Cheysson met the ambassadors from the ACP countries involved in the first 10 multiannual programmes on 29 March 1977. He stressed that these programmes, which were multiannual in that they covered the 1976-80 period (the Convention expires on 1 March 1980), would enable the ACPs to draw up a year-by-year programme of trainees and to link their training to prospects in sectors of activity which were in full expansion or expected to develop. The programmes were aimed at contributing to the vocational training of ACP nationals who could then play a proper part in the drive for the economic and social development of their countries.

The EEC-ACP Council of Ministers in Fiji in April 1977 adopted a resolution setting out guidelines for financial and technical cooperation. They stressed the importance of vocational and managerial training, recommending paying particular attention to this field so that the ACP countries would find it easier to replace technical assistance officers from abroad and ensure that investments are properly managed. The ACP states emphasized the following principles:

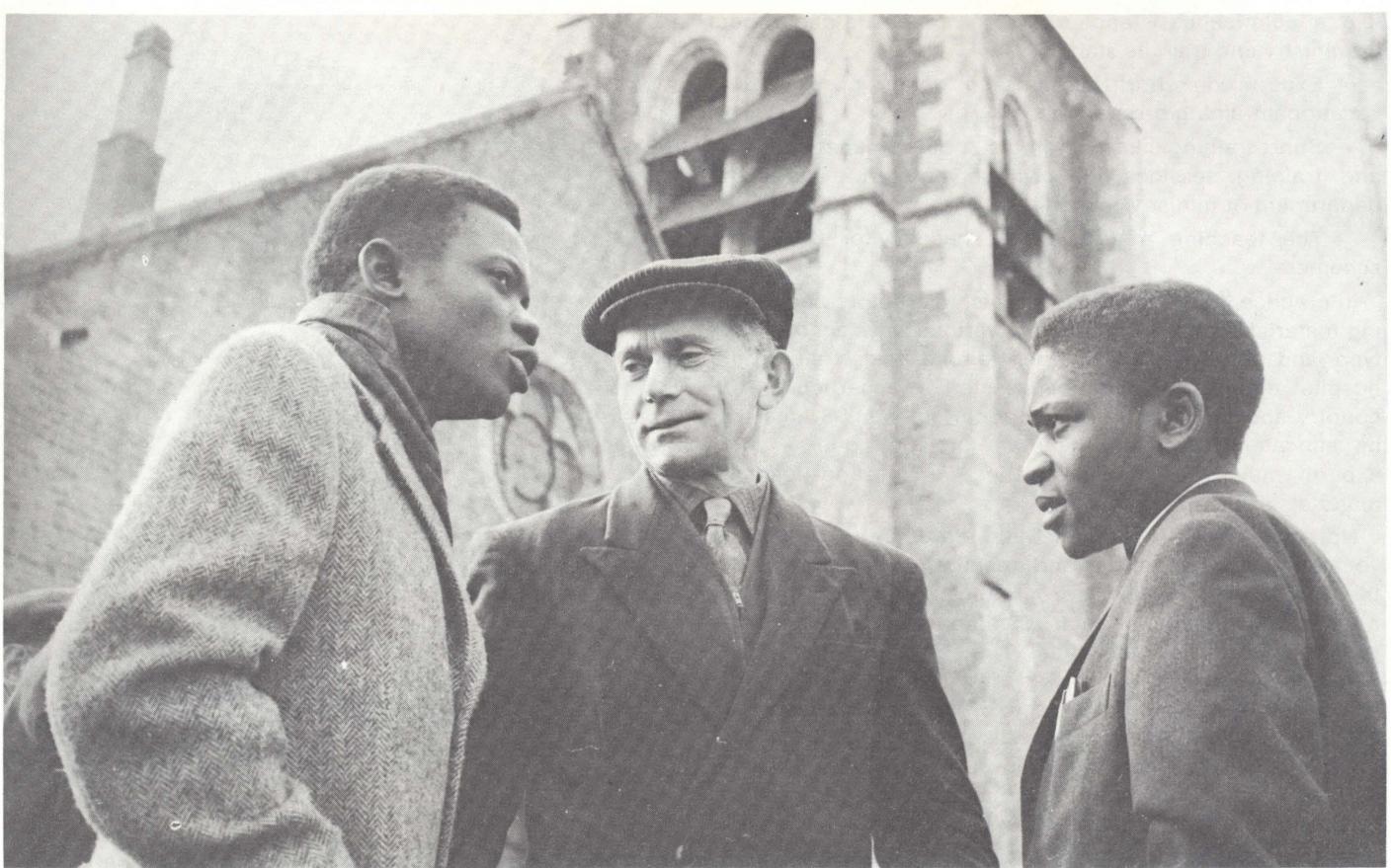
- Training must be part of general and specific programmes drafted by themselves.
- ACP programmes should be financed by the EEC in the light of the priorities listed by the ACP themselves.

**Technical school in N'Djamena (Chad)**



(\*) Head of training in the Directorate-General for Development, EEC Commission.

(1) Barbados (200000 EUA) Benin (1809000 EUA), Burundi (3300000 EUA), Guyana (545000 EUA), Upper Volta (2532000 EUA), Jamaica (2790000 EUA), Malawi (3200000 EUA), Rwanda (1300000 EUA), Sierra Leone (1800000 EUA), Trinidad and Tobago (2082000 EUA), Ghana (2250000 EUA), Guinea Bissau (980000 EUA), Liberia (1100000 EUA), Botswana (1200000 EUA), Kenya (2000000 EUA), Ivory Coast (3000000 EUA), Gabon (410000 EUA), Gambia (404000 EUA), Cameroon (2230000 EUA), Mali (2132000 EUA), Congo (1100000 EUA), Ethiopia (1631000 EUA), Madagascar (1900000 EUA), Senegal (3527000 EUA), Chad (1900000 EUA) and Togo (4924000 EUA). Programmes for Zaire, Niger, Mauritius and others should be financed by the end of 1977.



**ACP students are welcomed in Europe under the EEC bursary scheme**

— Programmes must always be implemented in a flexible manner.

— Managerial training (particularly for administration and the public services) and vocational training must be stepped up and more closely linked to EEC-financed development projects, with a view to ACP nationals gradually taking over full responsibility for these projects.

All aspects and all levels of training are emphasized in the Lomé Convention, which provides various possible methods of financing under its provisions for financial and technical cooperation.

The Convention gives a wide range of possibilities for training connected with projects and action programmes. These can make an essential contribution to the economic and social development outlined in the ACPs' development plans. Community aid in this as in other fields being intended to complement national efforts. When the indicative programmes of Community aid were drawn up, a large number of ACPs discussed with the programming missions what the EEC might usefully do in the sphere of education and vocational training and the multiannual training programmes were then drawn up with the close collaboration of the authorities of the ACPs concerned.

### **Outline multiannual training programme (1976-1980)**

The Lomé Convention pays particular attention to training at all levels. It provides various possibilities of financing training schemes as part of financial and technical cooperation, primarily by awarding study and training grants, sending out experts and running ordinary and advanced training sessions and seminars for ACP nationals (Article 6 of Protocol No. 2).

A training programme should achieve various aims, in line with the demands of the individual ACP country. Some countries concentrate on specific fields, while others ask for the programme to include project-linked training and others still want aid to cover as wide a range as possible. This means providing the appropriate means and administrative facilities so that the training is suited to practical needs, is educationally effective and financially sound.

All this seems necessary for any project submitted for EDF financing but it is particularly appropriate in the case of training because of the economic impact of such programmes.

**Content of a multiannual training programme.** The essential point of the programme is that it should have an overall approach to the training which both EEC and ACP authorities feel to be desirable for the country in question. Programmes may contain some or all of the four kinds of action below.

**Multiannual training and study grant programme (1976-1980).** These grants may be provided for training in connection with an EDF or other project or to supply the trained managers and other staff required by national development planning.

**Sending out instructors and technical assistants.** This involves sending out experts for not more than three years to set up schemes to train ACP nationals to take over various ongoing projects.

Experts fall into three categories:

- Teachers (e.g. a technical assistance officer to teach in a school, vocational training centre or institute of adult education).
- Technical assistance officers whose main job is to provide in-service training for ACP nationals at all levels

(e.g. a technical assistance officer to organize a department or ministry and train its staff).

— Experts on short missions to define or prepare a vocational training programme.

— Short training sessions on the spot for managerial staff and training sessions for civil servants in a particular department or ministry.

— The teaching materials etc., needed for the above schemes.

In practice, the provision of grants, instructors and teaching materials can be combined in various ways according to type and requirements of the training (e.g. training for hospital equipment maintenance staff in a particular ACP country and planning of labour requirements). Grants may be allocated for traineeships on the spot, one or more experts may be sent out and equipment and teaching materials may be bought.

Note that social investments like the building of schools, vocational training centres and hospitals are not covered by the multiannual training programmes, but are financed under independent projects in line with the indicative programmes of the individual ACPs. The close interdependence between social projects and training programmes leads the Commission to discuss with the relevant ACP authorities what trained staff are likely to be needed to man the investments in education and public health, so that the multiannual training programme can take this into account. This should involve making maximum use of the investments or the plan of operation and maintenance by ensuring that there are local staff with the right training and requirements.

The multiannual training programme is not the only way of helping with training. At the request of the country concerned, specific training programmes may be set up to meet particular needs such as training for technical assistance in hospitals, for maintenance staff or for technical staff at a port, to send people to a public works technical training centre or for training instructors specialized in technical subjects, or vocational training for middle management staff. In some cases, agricultural schemes for example, in-service training is an integral part of the project. In others, any higher-level training linked to the investment is covered by the multiannual programme, since staff must be ready before the project actually starts and it takes time to acquire the relevant technical knowledge and the appropriate professional experience. Moreover, training sessions on development topics will be organized, under regional schemes, for ACP civil servants and management staff in office and ACP students (EDF grant-holders and others) in Europe.

### Features of the training programmes

They are multiannual. As already mentioned, this has the advantage of enabling the ACP countries to plan their



**Training for a profession**

training requirements, in the light of the contributions they themselves can make and those from other international aid bodies, for the whole period of the Lomé Convention and to ensure that training is more in keeping with actual needs. It also means that the work of experts and technical assistance officers can be spaced out as needed and according to whether there are any national staff able to do their job. An annual examination by the government services, the local Commission delegate and the Commission in Brussels provides control over the smooth running of the programme itself and of the ongoing studies and traineeships.

### Financial commitments are made for the whole period of study.

Money is granted for the full course of study even if it extends beyond 1 March 1980, when the Lomé Convention expires. The same goes for the expatriate instructors. All EDF grant-holders are therefore sure of being able to complete their chosen courses.

### Training is provided in the ACP countries

Both the Convention and the Fiji resolution state that grants are awarded for study in the ACP countries, except where particular courses are not available there, in which case students can go to the EEC. As we mentioned in the "Courier" No. 43 (page 10), shortly after the Lomé Conven-

### Study grants awarded under the Lomé Convention

(as of the end of June 1977)

|  | Economics | Agriculture | Science and Technology | Medicine | Teaching | Others | Total |
|--|-----------|-------------|------------------------|----------|----------|--------|-------|
| All ACP countries and overseas territories (OCT) | 376       | 553         | 606                    | 170      | 245      | 135    | 2 085 |
| %  | 18        | 26.5        | 29                     | 8.2      | 11.8     | 6.5    |       |

tion took effect, on 1 April 1976, the Community provided an overall commitment of 8000000 EUA to enable all the ACP countries to finance training and study grants over the 1976/77 academic year, without needing to wait for individual programmes to be finalized and submitted for financing.

#### Training for what?

The multiannual programmes include financing for training schemes that are linked to EDF investments or priority requirements in the respective countries. These tend to be concentrated in economics (including statistics), equipment, industry, tourism, trade, agriculture, health, education (mainly training for teachers of technical and scientific subjects) and social schemes.

#### Priority to technical training

A look at the programmes submitted by the authorities in the various countries shows that an increasing amount of attention is being paid to the range of vocational training schemes and that many countries are making an effort to adapt their educational/vocational training system to the real situation and the economic resources of their countries.

Many ACP states stress the need to develop technical and vocational training when reforming their education systems, by cutting down on arts and academic subjects proper and providing more intermediate-level technical training courses which can better answer the needs of many ACP countries and are basic requirements if some costly investments are to be fully effective.

*The EDF provided this science library at the University of Lovanium in Kinshasa (Zaire)*



#### A flexible programme

The multiannual training programme is a framework for the training considered necessary by each ACP country. Nonetheless, there has to be some flexibility since changes may be made to the development planning, which may affect training projects, and indeed this is allowed for in programming and project appraisal. Further problems may come up as projects are carried out, due to unexpected factors or inadequate assessment, and nobody would claim that the programming drawn up last year covers all eventualities as far as the Lomé Convention is concerned.

The important thing is to keep an overall view of a country's development when the training programme is started, so that the EEC's contribution can be effective throughout the different areas of development policy, including those covered by other foreign aid donors as well as national initiatives.

A major problem facing a number of ACP countries is employment, particularly the lack of jobs for young people (often because their education is ill-suited to both the country's development possibilities and existing economic activities). The International Labour Organization estimated that, in 1976, 43% of the working population was under- or unemployed and that sustained economic growth was unsustainable without trained, educated people and productive investments. In September this year, at the ILO regional conference in Abidjan, it was reckoned that 60 million people were jobless or under-employed out of a total African working population of 140 million—10 million in the towns and 50 million in the country. To reach full employment, 150 million new jobs would have to be created in Africa by the year 2000. It is an appalling prospect, and the training programmes arranged under the Lomé Convention may help a little in concentrating on economic development and the real necessities.

A number of countries are working, in the agricultural sector, to expand education for the rural masses and, in the health sector, to provide the medical staff to man the existing health infrastructure and the infrastructure planned with EDF or other bilateral or international aid. It is often not just a question of having doctors available. A full team of ancillary staff and technicians to maintain equipment is needed to ensure the development of a health policy which reaches as much of the population as possible.

A good many ACP countries are developing small businesses, to use local raw materials, as a move towards industrialization, and these firms need trained technicians. Some 29% of EDF grants go to training in science and technology, putting this sector ahead of agriculture (26.5%), economics (18%) and medicine (8.2%), the other main areas of study sponsored by the EEC development fund.

Special attention is paid in the training sector to cooperation with bilateral aid, because this is a field where combined efforts and initiative make it possible to avoid duplication and to better match training to the countries' needs.

Some EEC countries have particularly strong contact with one or other of the African or Caribbean states and their experience here can be valuable for both the Commission and local authorities. Training programmes are, by their nature, flexible and this should allow them, within the agreed guidelines, to meet known training needs more effectively. Smooth implementation of the programme demands that there be collaboration between the ACP

authorities, the Commission delegate and the Commission in Brussels, so that the ACP country in question gets constant progress reports and an idea of what needs to be done to achieve its stated aims.

The Commission will therefore do its best, with ACP collaboration, to assess the results and the conditions under which trainees (particularly those trained abroad) can fit into economic life of the country when they go home.

The brain drain has been a matter for concern for years. According to the UN, about 300 000 research workers, scholars, doctors, engineers and so on from the developing countries took jobs in the industrial world over the 1961/71 period, thereby depriving their own countries of the trained people so essential to economic and social progress. This

problem was brought up at the North-South dialogue in Paris and participants promised to encourage a study of the best ways of restricting the brain drain from the developing countries. The transfer of technology and the development of the technical capacity of these countries demand that qualified technical and management staff be present in the ACP countries.

By taking the country's demands and the individual's hopes, work and culture into account, the training programme will, over and above the purely technical considerations, be able to encourage the forging of links of collaboration and confidence between the EEC and the ACP countries. The programme is also a means of bringing a new approach to that collaboration. □

## Multiannual study grants programme 1976-1980

Thirty such programmes, involving more than 1500 grants and a total outlay of something like 50 million EUA, have already been financed by the 4th EDF.

The Community has been financing study programmes for people from the former associated states of Africa and Madagascar since 1960. In 1972, it was felt that the time had come to collaborate with the countries concerned and adopt a multiannual programme of grants for courses of study and training for the period 1972-75. The 30914000 EUA allocated brought total commitments in this sphere under the 3rd EDF alone to 37864900. The multiannual programme provided for each course of training to be paid for in full, a principle which was maintained in the 4th EDF programme.

*A gourd for an inkwell at this Koranic school in Nigeria*



Study grants cover complete courses (of 2-5 years plus any language course needed for training in Europe). Training course grants are for advanced or specialized training in a firm, an administrative department or a specialized institute or for particular part-time courses. This type of grant can be made at any stage of the academic year.

**Why multiannual?** The programmes cover the period up to 1 March 1980, when the Lomé Convention expires. The idea is to enable the ACPs to plan what training they need in the light of prospects in sectors that are in full expansion or expected to expand.

**Commitments are made for the whole period of training.** Courses are paid for in full, even if they last beyond 1 March 1980.

**Training is provided in the ACP countries.** Grants are made for study in the ACP for preference and in Europe where particular courses are not available in those countries.

**Sectors covered.** The programme covers vocational, intermediate and advanced training in economics (including statistics), industry, tourism, commerce, agriculture, health, education (teacher training in scientific and technical subjects), labour and social action, etc.

**Priority to technical training.** The need to expand technical and vocational training should lead to a country-by-country check on the advisability of cutting down on purely academic courses and paying more attention to the middle range technical courses, which better fulfil needs that are becoming increasingly apparent in the ACP countries and on which the full effectiveness of certain EDF investments depends.

The serious employment problems in several ACP countries could be improved by a wider adoption of labour-intensive techniques. Greater emphasis should therefore be laid on providing vocational training for young people on the spot.

**Number of grant-holders.** At the end of June 1977 there were 3517 ACP grant-holders, about 62% of them in their own countries, 10% in other ACPs and 28% in Europe.

Scientific and technical subjects were in the lead, with 29% of grants, followed by agriculture (26.5%), economics (18%), education (11.8%) and health (8.2%).

# Training courses

The Lomé Convention (Article 6(3e) of Protocol 2) makes provision for the organization of:

- short training courses, also called colloquiums, for students (EDF grant-holders and others) and civil servants from the ACP countries. Sessions are run in the institutions of the European Community, universities and training institutes in Europe;
- further training courses for ACP civil servants. These are run in the Community or the ACP in coordination with specialized institutes and should provide advanced training in a specialist field (development planning, training, rural policy, etc.).

The aims of these courses are to provide a general understanding of the development of relations between the EEC and the ACP, particularly the prospects for cooperation which the Lomé Convention opens up; give the people running training programmes some idea of the value of participants' studies or training programmes and how far they can help EEG-ACP relations; and more generally, contribute to reaching the targets of the training policy laid down in the Lomé Convention.

## Training sessions in 1976

During 1976 some 2850 EDF grant-holders from the ACP studied in universities or other institutes in Europe. The colloquiums have helped explain and deepen both the relationship between the EEC and the ACP countries under the Lomé Convention and the prospects for future development. It should be remembered that many people attending the sessions, even EDF grant-holders, have a very fragmentary knowledge of European integration and the historical events leading up to Yaoundé and Lomé.

Contact with non-grant-holding ACP nationals at the sessions was geared to providing an overall view of activities under the Convention and reminding them that the Commission is willing to provide information and documentation, and organize contacts, etc., for any ACP national.

There were two sessions for English-speaking students, one for African and the other for Caribbean students. On both occasions, they expressed their interest in the Convention and in the new prospects of cooperation.

The sessions have tended to be in Brussels, although one or two were run by Community offices in other European university towns (Amsterdam, London and Luxembourg).

In 1975/76, the following 16 sessions were run:

- 7 for EDF grant-holders;
- 2 for nationals from English-speaking ACP countries;
- 4 for ACP students without EDF grants;
- 3 in Brussels, one for the Paris-based further training centre for development and economic and technical training, the other for the Munich statistical training centre (one of them for English-speaking ACP statisticians).

## Greater diversity in the future

Since the Lomé Convention has come into force (1 April 1976), each state has completed its indicative programme

and a regional programme has been established. A more varied programme of training session has now been started.

## Training courses in the Community

This involves about 15 courses for ACP nationals every year. Priority goes to EDF grant-holders studying or specializing in Europe; the courses are in the form of seminars on European topics, with particular emphasis on EEC-ACP relations and the problems of training young managers in Europe and the ACP countries. One day is usually set aside for participants to talk about the individual problems that crop up during their studies.

Other sessions are run for ACP students without EDF grants training in specialized centres in Europe. And a colloquium is held on questions connected with their relations with the Community. Finally, three other short seminars are to be run, two for trainees at the statistical training centre in Munich where a number of EEC grant-holders are studying.

Experience has shown that 30 is the maximum number of participants who can reasonably be catered for at any one time.

Sessions are fixed to last three days, plus lectures on how the Lomé Convention fits in with EEC development policy, visits to industrial centres, ports and so on, and contact with people working in the places visited. During the colloquiums for EDF grant-holders, special attention is paid to assessing the training provided by the various educational centres and institutes.

The africanization of training programmes in 1976 has made it easier to follow the progress of students in Europe, since they are constantly on the decrease.

## Training in the ACP countries

There are plans to run some sessions, according to local circumstances, in various ACP states. This should mean that African public opinion can be made aware of the prospects of cooperation between the Community and the under-developed countries.

## Advanced training for ACP civil servants

There is also provision for specialized sessions, mainly on subjects connected with trade, management, training, health and agriculture. The aim here is to provide training for young civil servants who are taking up their posts and for established officers being transferred.

A number of these further training sessions have been or are to be run. The accent is on the implementation of EDF projects and their effect on the economy of the country in which they are carried out—which is why they may be held in either Europe or the ACP countries. Both European and ACP training institutes have to collaborate closely on planning this programme.

These sessions, taking over from the colloquiums, are especially important in that they show that there is a personal, human side to the Lomé Convention. □

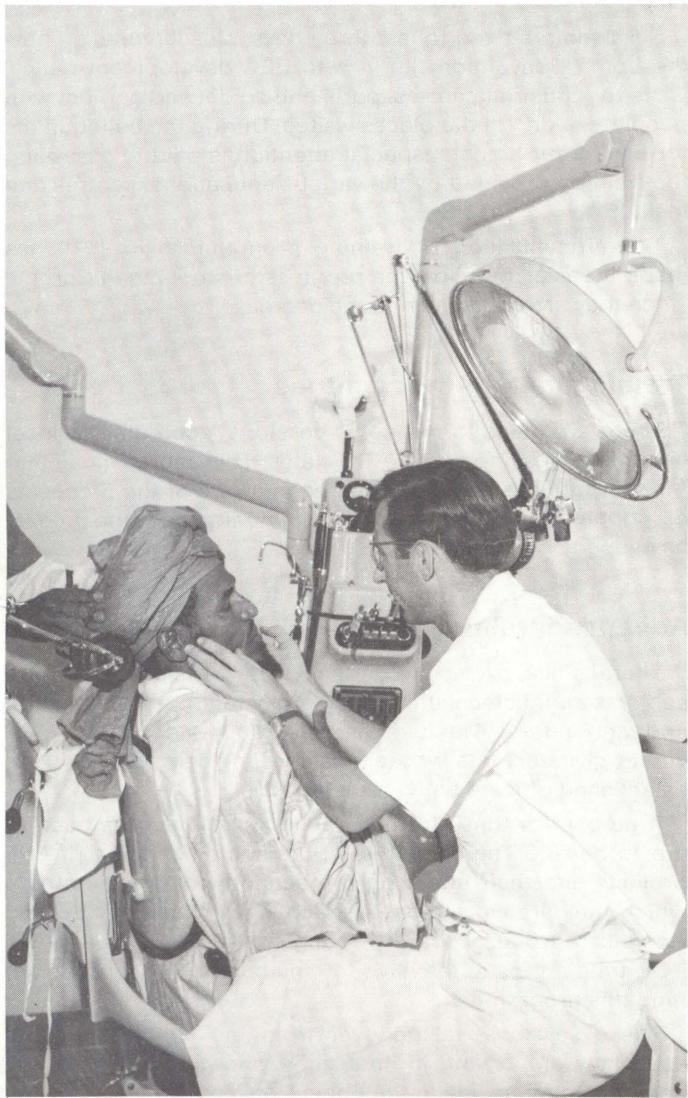
## Project-linked training

It is now clear that any economic project set up by a developed country in a developing one must make provision for the staff needed to guarantee proper maintenance and any further development; it must, in a word, ensure the survival of the project.

However, when economic projects in developing countries have been financed by bilateral or multilateral aid, there has been a tendency to lose sight of the implications for the recipient state. Everyday running costs are not the whole story. There are also loans to repay and project staff to recruit and train.

With the drafting of individual indicative programmes of Community aid for each ACP country, it has become

**Technicians for the Nouakchott hospital were trained with EDF funds**



increasingly apparent that every project in the country's economic programme must include training along more sophisticated lines than simple study grants, which are more a means to an end than ends in themselves.

A training scheme may be complete in itself; it may be intended to ensure maintenance of a type of investment or an EDF-financed project (e.g. training public works technicians in the Ivory Coast and hospital maintenance staff for Nouakchott); or it may be an integral part of a project (e.g. training staff to run and maintain the Somalian telecommunications network or the Ouagadougou slaughterhouse).

The means used have included sending out specialists and instructors (e.g. a refrigeration engineer, a management consultant and a slaughterhouse foreman to train staff for the Ouagadougou slaughterhouse; economists to promote small and medium-sized firms in Zaire); supplying equipment (tools, spare parts, teaching materials, etc.) and vehicles; and sometimes setting up the infrastructure (installing a transformer at the Ferkessédougou regional technical centre in the Ivory Coast, sinking wells for rural education centres in Upper Volta, building and fitting out premises for the Ouando nutritional centre, etc.). They have also included covering board and lodging for students and trainees (for the public works vocational training centre in the CAE, etc.), and paying some running and local staff costs (e.g. training and re-training for extension service officers in the Ivory Coast's rice industry).

It should be noted that the EDF only very occasionally sends out instructors in the field of general education and then for limited periods and for specific purposes. These instructors tend to be sent to schools financed wholly or partly with EDF aid, which take EDF grant-holders or are regional in scope. The fields covered are agronomy, industry, economics and technical studies. The EDF feels that the secondment of teachers is something for bilateral aid and that the Fund is ill-placed to provide this sort of aid (few staff as compared to time needed to administer aid of this type, language problems, non-equivalence of diplomas, a contractual system that provides no job security for overseas staff once their contract runs out, etc.). This brings us to one of the constraints on multilateral aid and one of the few fields in which the EDF is making little headway.

### Technical assistance and training

One last thing to note about training is the way the EDF designs its technical assistance and supervision outside general education and specific training. Supervision, whatever the type of project, involves training—for development—as it is not just aimed at giving the peasant farmer the information he needs to get good results during the current agricultural year. It should also explain why such and such a method yields such and such a result, so that the peasant farmer can understand the processes involved and apply them himself another year. Supervision, which is therefore heavy at the beginning, tends to be degressive and, once the project is functioning normally, it involves no more than the occasional visit, to check up or provide technical support, when the farmer can mention any new or unusual problems. The ultimate aim of foreign technical assistance officers is to train national staff to replace them in their jobs.

## One example: public health

In October 1976, the EEC Commission approved financing for the Lence company for a joint public health project to supply hospital equipment and set up teams to maintain it.

This key project is aimed at improving Sierra Leone's existing public health infrastructure by supplying medical and hospital equipment for hospitals, dispensaries and health centres throughout the country.

One of the reasons for the rapid deterioration of the existing material, in addition to its age, was the fact that, in all but the most elementary cases, there were no maintenance teams to demonstrate the use of equipment or repair it.

To avoid any repetition of what had happened in the past, even if it did mean cutting down on the funds to purchase equipment, the authorities felt that a training scheme (in fact only accounting for a modest 7% of the total) had, at all costs, to be included in the project.

Two mobile teams are therefore being set up, each with its own vehicle, equipment and tools. They will be three-man teams and the study grants and courses are intended to ensure the relevant training. Each team will consist of:

— One advanced technician, specialized in the maintenance and repair of complex medical equipment. The centre for training technicians in the maintenance and repair of medical equipment (for English-speaking countries of Africa) in Murray Town, near Freetown, has been asked to run 15-month training courses for these technicians, whose particular duties will involve the upkeep and repair of radiology, laboratory, operating theatre, etc. equipment.

— One medium-grade technician to maintain and repair more ordinary equipment such as air conditioners, ventilators, ovens, sterilizers, kitchen and laundry equipment.

— One driver-technician to maintain and repair his own vehicle and the vehicles (ambulances mainly) in the various hospitals visited.

There will be one mobile team for every 10 or so hospitals. One team will be based in Freetown and will cover the hospitals in the western area, plus one or two rural hospitals near the capital, and the other will be based in Bo or Kenema (in the east) and will cover the rest of the rural hospitals.

Each hospital will therefore be assured of at least two visits from the team per month and will be able to call on it in case of emergency between visits. This should ensure that the various items of equipment needed for uninterrupted care and treatment of the patients are in good working order.

When the new equipment is installed, the staff who are to use it, the local maintenance staff and the mobile teams themselves must be familiarized with it and taught how to use it properly. Provision has therefore also been made for a technician/instructor to go out for a year to complete the training and ensure its success. He will take up his post at least two months before the new equipment is installed so that he has the time to inventory existing equipment and list necessary repairs. Once he has supervised the installation of the new equipment, he will start training the nursing and maintenance staff and coordinating the duties and activities of the mobile teams. □

# Development education

## EEC-NGO cooperation

Representatives of non-governmental European aid organizations (NGOs) met EEC officials in June to work out how to cooperate on informing public opinion in Europe about development.

Both public and private aid organizations attach growing importance to 'development education' in the Community. The NGO representatives, in a resolution adopted at the meeting, urged the EEC to help them "create better understanding and awareness among the peoples of the Community on:

- the development process in the Third World;
- international development cooperation;
- and the mobilization of the European population towards the problems of the New World Economic Order".

Despite differences of character between the EEC (public) and the NGOs (private), this first get-together was positive. Realistic bases and precise guidelines for cooperation were defined as regards the subjects to be dealt with, the public to be reached and the ways of going about it.

In the short term, the two sides should soon be exchanging ideas and information and cooperating on information campaigns, which might be linked to cofinanced EEC-NGO operations in developing countries. From next year, it should be possible for the EEC directly to cofinance joint development education projects initiated by the NGOs.

For the EEC, cooperation with the NGOs is in line with a general trend to involve non-governmental circles more in the Community's development policy. This policy is evolving in a way which will have greater repercussions than in the past on European industry and consequently will be felt more directly by the working population. It is therefore important that development issues should be more widely understood.

### What is it?

Development education broadly means pointing out to the individual (European, in this case) how and why he is affected by issues that usually seem far from his own experience and on a vast scale which removes them even further. Development education operations may be aimed at different sections of the population through such intermediaries as the education system, the churches, the media, vocational groups—including trade unions—and specific action groups. The issues, like the target audience, need to be identified and broken down into precise situations and practical suggestions rather than presented in doctrinal or academic terms. The means used can include the press, broadcasting, special publications(1), posters, seminars, etc. The main difficulty is perhaps that the biggest instruments of public information—the media—have their own criteria of what to publish and, being the most resistant to propaganda, for however good a cause, are the most difficult to use for development education. The different positions of the EEC and the NGOs should at least provide a wider platform from which to spread the word. □ B.T.

(1) Such as the one you are reading.

## The Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique

# A busy year for France's central fund for economic cooperation

by Claude PANOUILLOT(\*)

The partial recovery of the economies of the industrialized countries in 1976 brought about an expansion of trade and a rise in the prices of most commodities.

This had a good effect on the economics of the developing countries, some of which saw their earnings leap due to the sharp rise in coffee and cocoa prices. And in most regions, the weather produced better harvests.

These positive factors encouraged further efforts to implement general development plans and introduce far-reaching investment projects, with the aim of greater self-sufficiency in food and energy. This is why, although some countries have been hit by low copper, iron and phosphate prices, the volume of projects submitted to the CCCE has expanded enormously.

Financing authorized by the CCCE board in 1976 totalled FF 1800 million, 1300 million of which (almost double the 1975 figure) went to 18 countries of Africa and the Indian Ocean. This brought CCCE commitments to more than FF 7500 million by 31 December 1976, of which 2300 million were still to be paid out.

This was only possible because the ceiling for soft term loans ("first window") was raised and because market rate loans ("second window") expanded rapidly, reaching FF 800 million in two years.

The corresponding rise in payments meant that new resources had to be found. The Minister for the Economy and Finance authorized the CCCE to raise seven new loans on French and international financial markets. The state guarantee that went with the loans and the help of the banking organizations that dealt with their investment enabled us to obtain more than FF 1000 million during 1976. This success is proof of our good standing on the financial markets.

Now that our means of action have expanded, we can meet the increasing demands of our customers. We have provided them with means of financing that are better adapted to their needs than bank loans would be. The latter are too short, but many Third World countries have been forced to use them to finance their chronic imbalance of payments, since they have had no access to long-term credit.

For Africa and the Indian Ocean, 1976 was a time when projects were geared to the priority sectors of development. More than 80% of the commitments went to boost production. To existing food programmes were added sugar factories and major dams in Cameroon and the Ivory Coast as well as in Upper Volta, Mali and Chad. And, in Niger, a second uranium mine offered new prospects of public revenue.

The snowball effect of CCCE aid schemes has increased and, in order to handle programmes that are far beyond the scope of its own resources, it has made considerable use of co-financing in major projects.

The completion of complex financing plans, often involving several hundred million francs, was an opportunity for greater collaboration with the authorities in the countries concerned, with the World Bank group and with European, African and Arab bilateral and multilateral aid organizations.

The financing of the Song-Loulou dam in Cameroon is a good example of a combined effort to which the Arabs are making an increasing contribution. At the request of the Cameroon government, the CCCE played the leading financial role. A combination of own funds and medium-term resources plus two CCCE loans (one soft, one standard), one loan from the EIB, one loan from the Islamic Development Bank and the help of the Saudi Arabian, Kuwaiti and Qatar development funds produced FF 1000 million on terms of interest and repayment compatible with the project.

The major clinker plant that Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast have set up

jointly to meet their various needs is also a prime example both of collaboration between bilateral and multilateral funding organizations of very different types and of regional cooperation in Africa (see page 58).

Finally, the CCCE has tried to provide aid for new sectors, where pilot schemes can have an impact on a whole region or encourage new methods of development. In the Ivory Coast and Upper Volta for example, it has helped finance technological innovations and devise experiments which would interest many countries if applied on a large scale.

The external economic situation has produced fewer applications for further financing from the overseas territories. However, Le Nickel company has had a substantial loan for a programme of modernization and extension of their production capacity in New Caledonia.

This was the last year that the CCCE was empowered to give aid to the overseas departments and the fairly good economic situation, resulting in a growth of external trade, helped us break all records for loans granted. However, a desire to assimilate overseas departments into metropolitan France has led the government to call a halt to CCCE aid here. In 1977, the work we have been doing so far will be done by the major metropolitan credit organizations and a new, long-term credit bank, called the SOCREDOM, which we have founded with 50% of the capital. This bank will benefit from our 30 years' experience of working for the development of the ODS and from the network of local credit companies we have built up and which now play such a vital part.

The advantages of CCCE aid are not confined to the finance they provide for the borrowers. Project appraisal and implementation present opportunities to collaborate with the people in charge in seeking the best answers to general development problems.

High quality implementation is vital for success, particularly in rural areas and, from the start of each project, the CCCE has been concerned with the means of implementation and with getting together a team to train staff and ensure sound management. During implementation, the CCCE monitors the work of any firm involved, offering advice and, where necessary, sending out, for varying lengths of time, its engineers, economists, financial analysts and technicians trained in modern management methods. □

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## MALAWI

### The activities of the EEC<sup>(1)</sup>

According to the text and spirit of the Lomé Convention, the different forms of aid granted by the Commission of the European Communities to Malawi are defined in the framework of the Malawi Government Statement of Development Policies 1971-1980. It is, therefore, necessary to define Malawi's development policy, starting with a brief general description of the country.

#### Farmland cut off from the sea

Malawi is a landlocked country with a total population of approximately 5.2 million, growing at an average rate of 2.5%. About 90% of its total population live in rural areas. It is bordered on the east and south by Mozambique, and Zambia and Tanzania on the north-west and north-east respectively. The population is centralised in most productive agricultural areas of the Central and Southern Regions.

Malawi became independent in 1964, after almost 70 years of British rule. From 1953 to 1963 it was part of the then Central African Federation comprising Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia) and Nyasaland (now Malawi). The country broke away from this Federation just before becoming independent in 1964. The Head of State of the Republic is His Excellency the Life President, Ngwazi Dr H. Kamuzu Banda.

#### No mining

Malawi has no mines, and entirely depends on agriculture. It is landlocked geographically and has an agricultural resources base. A combination of these factors to a large extent influences the choice of priorities in the field of development. Steady growth of national income, especially balanced regional growth, therefore, continues to be exercised through agriculture which is the priority sector and also provides scope for a processing industry. Infrastructure generally, transportation in particular, is emphasized, as this is complementary to agricultural development. It also facilitates indus-

trial and tourist development; it provides access to the sea.

In addition, it provides transit facilities to Zambia, which is given a special priority.

There is also scope for projects related to improving social welfare including rural health, education, water supply. The balance of payments constraint is likely, as is the case with most developing countries, to dominate the economic situation for the foreseeable future; greater emphasis is therefore to be given to domestic resource based agriculture and industry and greater economy in the transport sector investment.

#### Development policy

"The Statement of Development Policies 1971-1980" contains a general statement of Malawi's development objectives. It covers:—

##### Agriculture

Malawi's development policy is based on a realistic appraisal of its resources; it is well-endowed with land and labour. Capital and high-level skills are the factors which are in short supply. Malawi's development policy therefore seeks to make maximum use of land and labour and economise on the use of scarce capital and skills. With the majority of the population (approximately 93%) depending solely on agriculture for its livelihood, and without any mines, the importance of developing the agricultural sector cannot be over-emphasized. This is being done by trying to increase agricultural productivity through extension, resettlement, research and the provision of proper inputs. Increased productivity is in turn expected to raise both incomes of people of the land and domestic exports, and therefore, foreign exchange needed to purchase vital capital goods from abroad.

##### Commerce and industry

In commerce and industry, Malawi's development strategy rules out the promotion of highly capital-intensive undertakings that may contribute little to employment and compete with labour-intensive Malawian enterprises, unless their function is clearly essential and there is no choice of technology. The object of tariff policy is to provide a secure domestic market for internationally competitive producers and manufacturers, not to provide shelter for the inefficient or a stimulus to uneconomic investment. This applies to both import-substituting industries

and those processing local raw materials for export and domestic consumption.

It is not government policy to take over foreign-controlled firms but rather to work through the Malawi Development Corporation to secure some degree of local participation and influence, sometimes sponsoring new ventures to operate in competition with existing foreign-controlled enterprises.

#### Income distribution

Incomes and prices policy seeks to reduce the high differentials between urban and rural incomes, and to stabilise the terms of trade between the main sectors. Wages are allowed to increase only in response to increases in productivity and particular attention is paid to ensuring price stability.

As a matter of history, the economy exhibits a skewed distribution of income between the three regions with respect to economic development in favour of the Southern Region. The development policy seeks to remedy the situation by establishing growth centres further north in the form of development schemes in suitable areas and above all, the new capital city at Lilongwe in the Central Region.

#### Infrastructure

Malawi inherited an infrastructure so inadequate that it could not possibly handle the volume of goods which the country was planning to produce. There was need for new and improved roads both for internal communication and external linkage. Now Malawi has two rail links to the sea: one via Beira and the other via Nacala, the latter being a post-independence development and the more economical route. National transport policy seeks to facilitate marketing and distribution through optimum use of the various modes available—rail, road, lake and air. As for power, the nation's hydro-electric potential, especially on the Shire River, continues to be harnessed in a manner consistent with the above-mentioned national goals.

#### Social services

One of the main constraints to economic development is the lack of skilled manpower. This is being overcome by expanding educational and training facilities. Recognising the importance of a healthy population, the government has also embarked upon a campaign against disease, putting extra emphasis on preventive measures which are likely to be more economical in the long run.

(1) From the EEC Delegation in Malawi.

These policies have been followed since independence. The result has been growth in total Gross Domestic Product at current market prices of over 12% per annum.

## The EEC programme of activities in Malawi

Both the particular approach adopted in expressing Malawi's development objectives and plans, and the objectives and strategies themselves, have been retained in the EDF programme, where agriculture and transportation projects claim the lion's share; it also includes involvement in different fields, including self-help schemes which are currently very actively carried out. EEC activities also cover other fields defined in the Lomé Convention.

The following projects will be financed with EDF aid: 70 million EUA have been allocated.

### Approved projects

Upgrading of the Karonga-Chiweta road pavement; Nkula Falls II hydroelectric project; Blantyre-Chikwawa road; Lilongwe water supply; Lakeshore rural development project; training programme.

### Projects under consideration

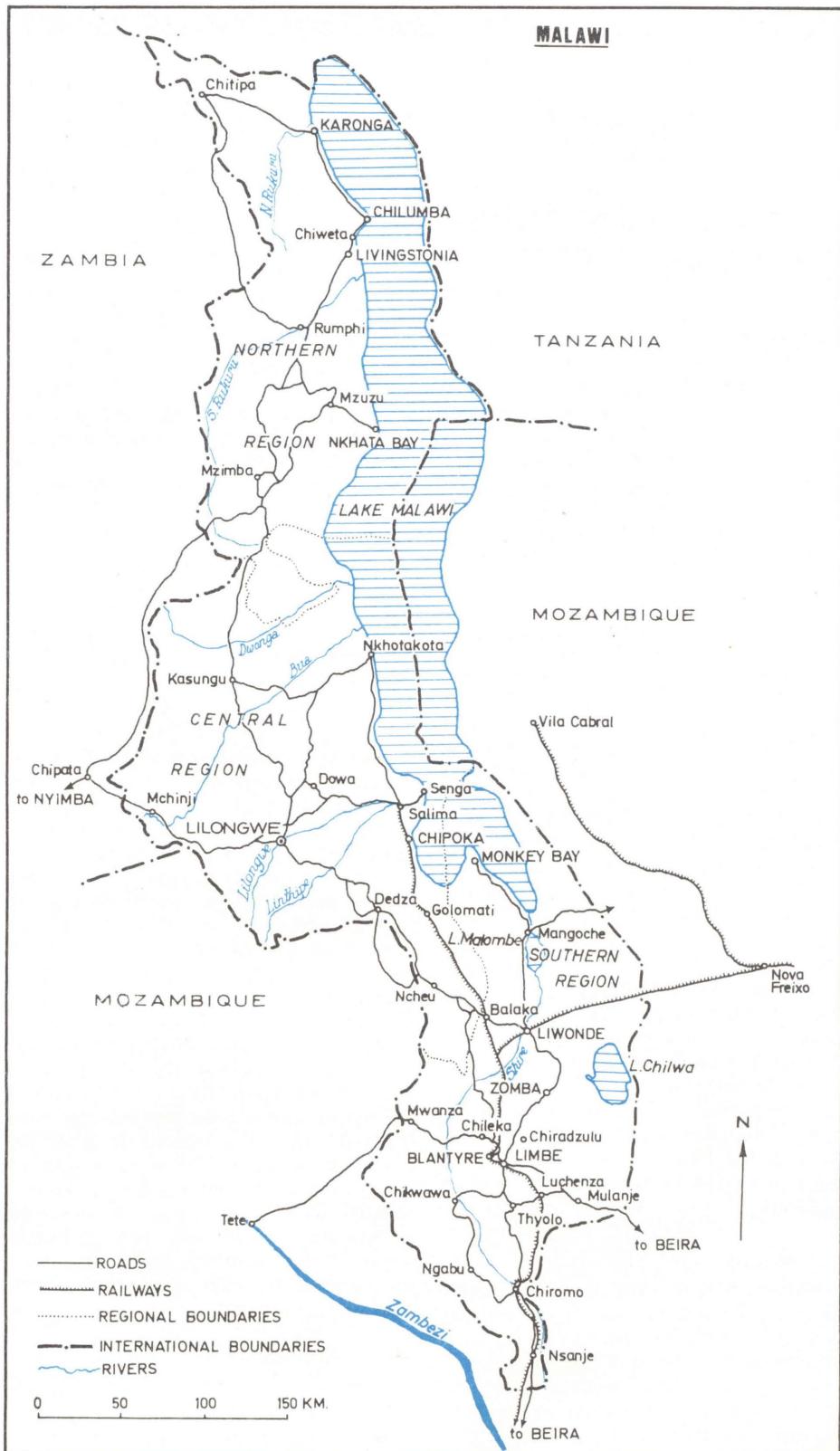
North-west Mzimba flue-cured tobacco project; fisheries development project; new Blantyre dairy project; new Nsange hospital; new Mangochi hospital; Chintheche hospital; Liwonde township sewerage scheme; Blantyre industrial area phase III (Chirimba); small-scale industries; micro-projects.

On 1st June 1977, after one year of activities of the EEC Delegation in Malawi, almost half of the total aid programme had already been committed.

### Other fields of aid

One million EUA have already been allocated to a regional project (telecommunications training centre in Blantyre), which groups Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Malawi. Malawi has also benefited from exceptional aid of 1.5 million EUA following the closure of the Rhodesia-Mozambique border. A technical assistance and general support project (0.5 million EUA) for promotion of exports is under consideration. This project is of great interest to Malawi; it is particularly concerned with exports of tobacco, tea, groundnuts, sugar, cotton, garments, handicrafts, out of season vegetables and manufactured agricultural products.

The Stabex fund has not been used yet, mainly owing to the constant increase in exports of the products included in this scheme (tea, groundnuts, cotton).



The European Investment Bank has provided a loan of 6500000 EUA to the Dwangwa Sugar Corporation in addition to an EDF grant of 900000 EUA for interest repayments during the period of developing the sugar estates at Dwangwa. It has also provided equity subscription (1000000 EUA) from EDF resources. This project is to yield 74000 tons of sugar by 1980 in addition

to the country's present production of 86000 tons.

In accordance with the development policy and the development strategy stated above, it is hoped that future EEC aid to Malawi will aim at developing agricultural production and its industrial processing to increase and diversify exports. □

## **GHANA**

### **An example of international cooperation: the Kpong dam**

"International cooperation" can be more than just a slogan sometimes: it does produce concrete results. An example of international cooperation at work can be seen in the Kpong dam project in Ghana, a vast hydro-electric scheme with financial backing from a wide range of sources.

The European Community has decided to make two loans available for the work at Kpong. The first, a loan of 8.98 million units of account (u.a.) on special terms, is from the EDF.

Five further loans are being provided by the Kuwaiti Fund, the Saudi Fund, the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (ABEDIA), the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and Canada.

When added to the contribution put up by the beneficiary body itself, this cooperation will make it possible to reach the total of 213.09 million u.a. needed for this scheme, one of the main results of which will be to reduce Ghana's soaring oil bill.

#### **Five-part project**

The project will be carried out between 1977 and 1980 and comprises five parts:

- construction of a dam and reservoir on the Volta at Kpong, approximately 24 km downstream from the existing dam at Akosombo;

- construction of a hydro-electric power station incorporated in the dam;

- erection of a 60 km high-tension line linking the power station to the Tema sub-station;

- installation of two condensers, at Prestea and Kumasi; upgrading of the Tema-Achimota line and 80 km of line in the Sefwi-Wiawso-Bibiani region;

- resettlement of the displaced population.

The hydro-electric potential of the lower part of the Volta basin was dis-

covered as early as 1925; hence the construction of the Akosombo dam in 1966.

Studies carried out in 1959 and 1971 then paved the way for the Kpong scheme, and in 1975 a number of analyses confirmed the wisdom of this investment. In 1976, Canada financed the invitation to tender dossiers. The goal here is to produce electricity economically, from a power plant with an installed capacity of 160 MW. By 1981 the energy produced by the Akosombo hydro-electric station will no longer meet Ghana's needs. The 792 MW now available will be unable to cope with a level of consumption which, even after increasing by 6.5% annually between 1968 and 1975, will still be increasing at an annual rate of 5.2% between 1976 and 1986. An additional—and major—consideration is that the scheme will make it possible to improve the irrigated crops in the region.

In 1976 power consumption reached 598 MW, leaving a surplus capacity of 194 MW. The forecast consumption for 1978 is 733 MW, which reduces the surplus to 59 MW and in 1981, consumption will reach 828 MW; that means a deficit of 36 MW.

This shows that from 1981 the extra capacity (a guaranteed 140 MW) provided by the new hydro-electric station will be essential. The figures also show, however, that by 1985 yet another installation will be needed. Once again, perhaps, international cooperation will be needed.

#### **A substitute for oil**

The Kpong dam scheme fits in well with the Ghanaian government's development policy, which is designed to increase production of the country's main resources: cocoa (of which Ghana is the world's largest producer), wood, manganese, gold—and electrici-

ty. Importance is also attached, however, to diversification of the national economy, which is still too narrowly based on a single product: cocoa, which accounts for 60% of Ghana's exports and 30% of public revenue.

But fulfilment of these objectives suffered a setback in 1974, when the full effects of the oil price increases began to make themselves felt. One hundred million dollars were added to the bill for imports of crude alone. The result was a serious balance of payments crisis and a sharp drop in the reserves.

In this situation the importance of additional hydro-electric power capacity is self-evident. But finding a substitute for oil can be costly; hence the need for the international community to cooperate in raising the necessary investment resources.

Ghana with its water resources uses mainly hydro-electric power. Consumption is largely centred in the south of the country, where two-thirds of the population and the bulk of commercial, agricultural, industrial (notably the Volta Aluminium Corporation) and mining activity are concentrated. Two bodies are responsible for electricity distribution: the Volta River Authority (VRA) and the Electricity Corporation of Ghana (ECG).

The VRA supplies power to the mining industry (gold, diamonds, manganese and bauxite are extracted), to the VALCO, the ECG, the Akosombo district, and to Togo and Benin. It was set up in 1961 for the construction of the Akosombo dam, but is also active in other fields, taking responsibility, for example, for research and development work connected with Lake Volta (public health, agriculture and fisheries). The VRA is managed and staffed wholly by Ghanaians.

The ECG supplies electricity to the rest of Ghana's consumers.

The construction and management of the Kpong hydro-electric dam is being undertaken by the VRA, which is able to take all the necessary steps on its own initiative; it has been operating for about ten years now, with consistent efficiency.

The new dam is to be 700 m long and 20 m high and will flood a total area of 3650 ha. The power station to be located on the western part of the dam will be 150 m long, and is to have four

turbines and an installed capacity of 160 MW. Apart from the dam and power station and the development of the necessary supply network, new dwellings will have to be built for the 5500 people now living in the area to be flooded, at an estimated cost of 5 million u.a. Some agricultural land will also be submerged: 170 ha of cotton, 90 ha of rice and 400 ha of sugar cane; on the other hand, up to 6000 ha will come under irrigation for the first time.

The health and hygiene element of the scheme is also considerable. To counter the risk of spreading water-borne diseases, a number of measures (e.g. improvements in the drinking water supply) will be necessary. It seems certain, however, that the dam will play a part in the fight against onchocercosis.

### A new form of financing

The dual purpose of the Kpong scheme, then, is to provide Ghana with the electricity needed to diversify production while mitigating the effects of the oil price rises.

But a project on this massive scale requires a considerable capital outlay: in this case, 213.09 million u.a. Of this, 96.4 million u.a. will be spent on civil engineering, 21.6 million u.a. on pro-

ject study and supervision, and 34.6 million u.a. on the turbo-generator sets and overhead travelling crane.

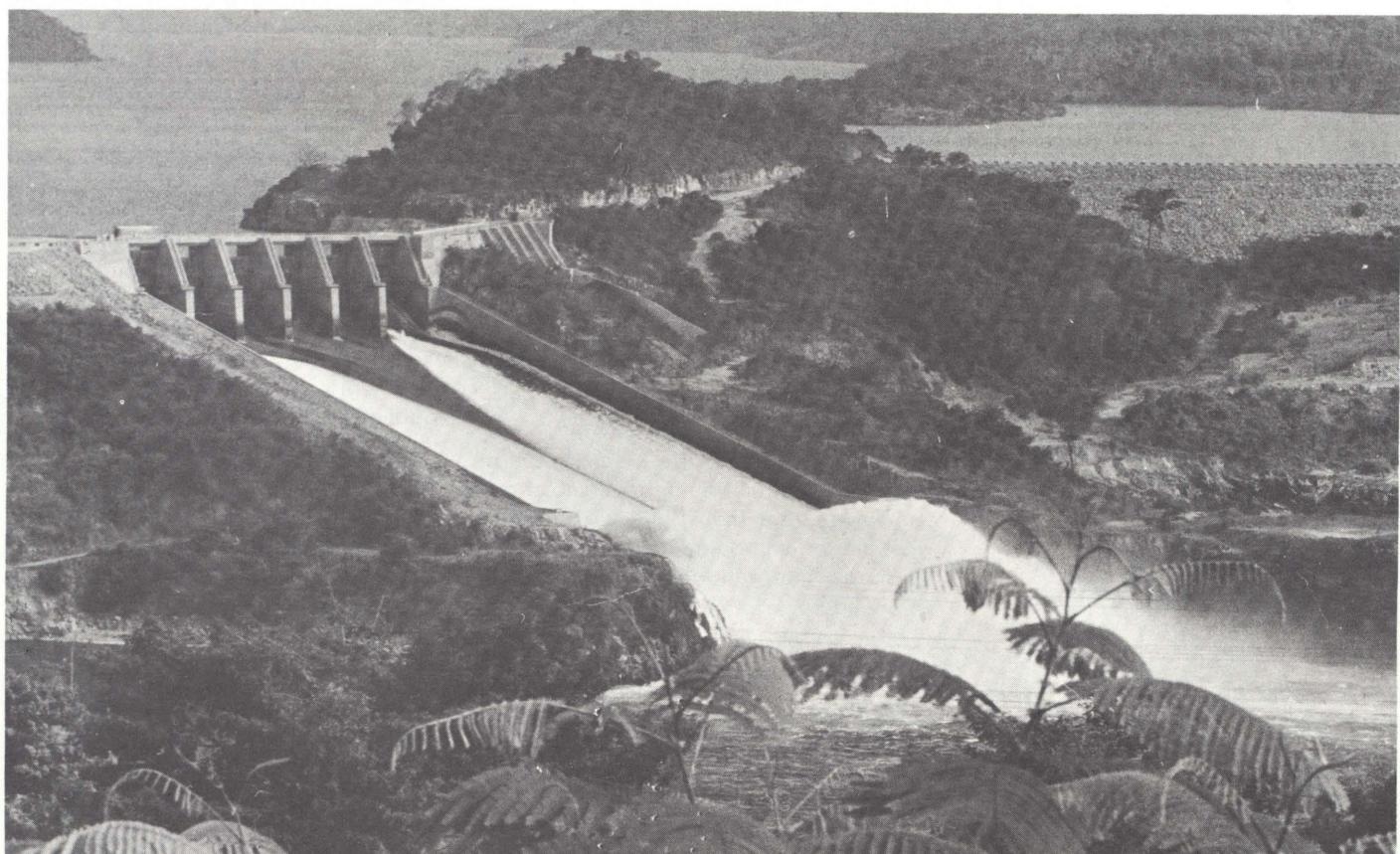
An investment of this size clearly called for a new type of financing; the final arrangements were worked out at a meeting held in Paris in May 1976. Seven bodies, including the EDF and the EIB, agreed to make loans available to the Volta River Authority, which itself decided to contribute 58.75 million u.a.

To improve coordination of their contributions these sources have formed two genuine cofinancing groups:

— the Kuwaiti Fund, the Saudi Fund and the ABEDIA for the civil engineering work on the dam and power station;

— the EDF, the EIB and the IBRD (part only) for the electrical and mechanical equipment.

| Forward financing plan                                |                        |  |
|---|------------------------|--|
| Source  | Amount in million u.a. | Remarks                                    |
| Volta River Authority                                 | 58.75                  |  |
| Kuwaiti Fund for Arab Economic Development            | 27.40                  | 20 years at 6%<br>5-years grace period     |
| Saudi Development Fund                                | 29.20                  | 20 years at 6%<br>5-years grace period     |
| Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa          | 8.97                   | 17 years at 6.5%<br>5-year grace period    |
| Canadian International Development Agency             | 34.76                  | 50 years at 0%<br>10-year grace period     |
| International Bank for Reconstruction and Development | 35.03                  | 20 years at 8.75%<br>4.5-year grace period |
| European Investment Bank                              | 10                     | 15 years at 6%<br>4.5-year grace period    |
| European Development Fund                             | 8.98                   | 40 years at 1%<br>10-year grace period     |
| <b>TOTAL</b>  | <b>213.09</b>          |  |



**The EDF helped finance the Kpong dam, a subsidiary of the Akosombo scheme, one of the biggest man-made lakes for hydro-electricity in the world (see above). The lake covers 275 sq. miles and 85000 people have had to be rehoused.**

## Projects being carried out with joint participation

| Project                                 | Country                             | Arab agencies  | Financing        |       |  |                          |        | Total cost |
|---|-------------------------------------|--|------------------|-------|--|--------------------------|--------|------------|
|   |                                     |  | EDF              | EIB   | Community total<br>EDF + EIB   | Arab agency contribution | Other  |            |
| Extension of the Port of Douala         | Cameroon                            | ABEDIA   | 4.2              | —     | 4.2  | 8.4                      | 82.00  | 94.60      |
| Congo-ocean railway                     | Congo                               | KFAED<br>ABEDIA<br>SDF   | 14.9             | —     | 14.9   | 36.9                     | 75.2   | 127.00     |
| CIMAO clinker plant<br>Regional project | Togo<br>Ivory Coast<br>Ghana        | ABEDIA   | 18.00            | 25.95 | 43.95  | 8.80                     | 219.20 | 271.95     |
| Kpong dam                               | Ghana                               | SDF<br>KFAED<br>ABEDIA   | 9.00             | 10.00 | 19.00  | 65.60                    | 138.50 | 223.10     |
| Selingue dam                            | Mali                                | ADFAED<br>SDF<br>OF<br>KFAED   | 19.20            | —     | 19.20  | 55.00                    | 51.00  | 125.20     |
| Golwein-Gelib road                      | Somalia                             | ADFAED   | 19.00            | —     | 19.60  | 17.60                    | —      | 37.20      |
| Songloulou dam                          | Cameroon                            | KFAED  | —                | 13.5  | 13.5   | 46.00                    | 134.30 | 193.80     |
|   |                                     |  | 84.00            | 49.45 | 134.35   | 238.30                   | 700.20 | 1 072.85   |
| Key:                                    | ABEDIA.<br>SDF:<br>KFAED:<br>ADFAED | Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa<br>Saudi Development Fund<br>Kuwaiti Fund for Arab Economic Development<br>Abu Dhabi Fund for Arab Economic Development | QF<br>ADF<br>EDF |       | Qatar Development Fund<br>Arab Development Fund<br>European Development Fund |                          |        |            |

## TOGO

### Regional cooperation: the CIMAO clinker plant

Regional cooperation is without doubt one of the surest routes to industrialization for developing countries. It was this which led the governments of Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast to go beyond mere declarations of good intentions and take the practical step of devising a vast industrial project: to construct a clinker plant for the CIMAO (Société des Ciments d'Afrique de l'Ouest—West African Cement Company).

This special project required an original method of financing: eight providers of funds agreed to help cover the estimated costs of 249.38 million EUA. One source of finance is the EDF. One of the prime objectives of the EDF is to promote the financing of projects jointly undertaken by a number of ACP States.

The plant, which will have an annual capacity of 1.2 million tonnes, will be situated at Tabligbo in Togo near the Sika Kondji limestone deposits.

(1) Clinker = the product of one of the stages in the manufacture of cement.

The project also includes the relevant infrastructure works: connection to the electricity supply, the construction of an unloading terminal at the port of Lomé, a rail link and an industrial housing estate.

For the governments of Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast—the principal shareholders in CIMAO—this investment is a model for regional industrial cooperation, which will enable local needs to be satisfied from local resources. This aspect of the project conforms perfectly to the aims of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS).

The EDF financial support takes the form of a loan on special terms of 18 million EUA. In addition to the capital provided by the CIMAO and the Togolese government, the necessary funds will be supplied by the European Investment Bank (EIB), the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the African Development Bank (ADB), the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (ABE-

DIA) and in the form of Canadian, French and German bilateral aid.

### Reconciling different national outlooks

This project is the first of its kind and size in West Africa. Its framework was prepared in 1975 by the three Heads of State concerned, the three main features of the agreement being that: when completed, the project should provide all the clinker required by the three countries concerned; other African countries should be free to participate; the plant staff should be recruited from any of the three countries concerned.

This first step was of great significance, since it meant reconciling differences in thinking and custom. In this context, Ghana and the Ivory Coast agreed to allow Togo to profit more than themselves from the project in terms of employment and external trade. However, the main aim of the project is to provide the three countries with a central source of clinker(1) supply: the new plant will meet between 50% and 60% of their needs from 1981 (1.2 million t out of between 2 and 2.3 million t).

The success of an undertaking of this kind depends on two things: the raw materials being close at hand and

a sufficiently high foreseeable level of consumption.

The deposits between Sika Kondji and Tabligbo, 65 north-east of Lomé, contain the three types of raw materials—limestone, clay and sand—needed to manufacture clinker. Quantities are sufficient to supply a 1.2 million t capacity plant for 90 years.

Electrical energy will be supplied by the CEB (Compagnie Electrique du Bénin), a regional body set up in 1968 by Togo and Benin, which buys from the VRA (Volta River Authority) energy produced by the hydro-electric station at Akosombo in Ghana. The VRA will eventually have a further hydro-electric station at its disposal with the construction of the Kpong Dam—a project that is also being financed by the EDF and EIB and by Arab and Canadian providers of funds.

The fuel—i.e. heavy fuel—will account for 50% of production costs and will be supplied by a refinery currently under construction near Lomé.

Outlets: these will be the markets of the three countries concerned, which are at the moment totally dependent on imports—from Norway, the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Spain. At present, local clinker production in the whole of West Africa represents only 1.6 million t (37%) out of a total consumption of some 4.3 million t in 1974. Consumption in Togo, Ghana and the Ivory Coast increased at an annual rate of 5.5% between 1960 and 1975, rising from 650 000 t to 1 464 000 t. Between now and 1981, consumption should grow at an annual rate of between 6% and 8%, so rising to between 2.1 and 2.4 million t.

#### Cement consumption ('000 t)

|             | 1960 | 1975  | 1981          |
|-------------|------|-------|---------------|
| Togo        | 40   | 150   | 194 — 230     |
| Ivory Coast | 150  | 650   | 1 146 — 1 318 |
| Ghana       | 466  | 664   | 725 — 825     |
| Total       | 656  | 1 464 | 2 065 — 2 373 |

#### A two-part project

The new plant will belong to the CIMAO and the accompanying infrastructure to the Togolese State.

The plant will be brought into production at the following rate: 250 000 t in 1979, 900 000 t in 1980 and 1.2 million t in 1981 (the first year of full operation). It will be possible at a later stage to increase this capacity by 50%.

The project is in two parts: the first comprises the construction of the plant and the equipment for exploiting the deposits; the second covers the accompanying infrastructure. As the plant is 65 km from Lomé, the following infrastructure works are necessary:

- connecting electricity supplies;
- the construction of a terminal at the port of Lomé for storing and handling clinker to be sent to the Ivory Coast and Ghana;
- the provision of a rail link and the improvement of the existing network;
- the construction of a housing estate near the plant to house staff who do not come from existing villages.

It should also be noted that measures will be taken to protect the environment and health. In particular, 50 ha of land will be planted with trees. A breakdown of the cost of the whole operation is given below:

#### Investment costs (million EUA)

|                                 |        |
|---------------------------------|--------|
| Plant                           | 193.17 |
| Infrastructure:                 |        |
| Connecting electricity          | 2.19   |
| Railway                         | 18.56  |
| Terminal at port of Lomé        | 13.86  |
| Housing                         | 3.28   |
| Contingency and price increases | 17.09  |
| Interest during construction    | 1.23   |
| Total cost of the project:      | 56.21  |
|                                 | 249.38 |

The project has been so designed that the selling price of the clinker should be 30.6 EUA per tonne in 1979, 1980 and 1981, and 28.7 EUA per tonne thereafter.

#### Self-financing and co-financing

The consortium of financers for the CIMAO project was formed at meetings in Paris in July 1975 and January 1976. The company itself agreed to provide 52.68 million EUA of the capital and the Togolese government 1.23 million EUA (see table below).

The EDF aid will go to finance part of the railway infrastructure and the housing. The EIB, the IBRD and French bilateral aid will together co-finance the plant equipment through loans to the CIMAO. A further interesting and original feature is that these three sources will also provide loans for the three governments to enable them to buy preferential shares in the CIMAO. □

#### PROVISIONAL FINANCING PLAN

| Sources of financing                                  | Million EUA | Remarks  |
|---|-------------|--|
| Togolese government                                   | 1.23        |  |
| CIMAO's own capital                                   | 52.68       |  |
| International Bank for Reconstruction and Development | 52.68       | Loan to CIMAO: 43.46 million EUA at 10% over 15 years with a 5-year grace period<br>Loan to the governments: 9.22 million EUA at 8.85% over 15 years with a 5-year grace period  |
| African Development Bank                              | 13.87       | Loan at 10% over 15 years with a 5-year grace period   |
| Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa          | 8.78        | Loan at 6.75% over 25 years with a 5-year grace period   |
| European Investment Bank                              | 25.93       | Loans to CIMAO:<br>5.93 million EUA at 9.5% over 15 years with a 5-year grace period<br>14 million EUA at 6.75% over 14.5 years with a grace period of 4.5 years<br>Loans to the governments:<br>6 million EUA at 2% and 6% over 20 years with a 14-years grace period |
| Canadian International Development Agency             | 11.71       | Loan at 0% over 50 years with a 10-year grace period   |
| Caisse Centrale de Coopération Economique             | 16.22       | Loan to CIMAO: 8.78 million EUA at 6.5% over 15 years with a 5-year grace period<br>Loan to the governments:<br>7.44 million EUA at market terms   |
| Federal Republic of Germany                           | 20.10       | Loan to governments at 2% over 30 years with a 10-year grace period  |
| European Development Fund                             | 18          | Loan at 1% over 40 years with a 10-year grace period   |
| Credit from suppliers                                 | 28.18       | Loans at between 7.5% and 8.5% over 11 years with a grace period of 3.5 years  |
| Total   | 249.38      |  |

# Kenya's track trio: Boit, Kimobwa, Kipkurgat

The Ivo Van Damme Memorial athletics meeting in Brussels in August attracted 35000 spectators to watch world record-holders, Olympic finalists and champions, like Moses, Stones, Wszola, Walker, Quax, Szewinska, Komar, Ovett, Jenkins, Bresson, and the American team of sprinters, Collins, Riddick, Wiley and Williams, who broke the world  $4 \times 100$  m record in the world athletics cup in Dusseldorf. Three Kenyan athletes, Mike Boit, Samson Kimobwa and Sammy Kipkurgat took up the organizers' invitation to pay posthumous homage to Ivo Van Damme, the young Belgian athlete, winner of two silver medals (800 m and 1500 m) at the Montreal Olympics, who was killed in a car accident in December 1976 at the age of 21.

The Brussels crowds gave a huge welcome to the African athletes. They also saw New Zealand's John Walker attempt to beat the Tanzanian Philbert Bayi's world 1500 m record (3'32.2"). He failed by 5/10 of a second, but his time of 3'32.72", was the best performance of 1977.

The achievements of the three African athletics stars put them in the world class. Mike Boit, Munich bronze medallist, ran the 800 m in 1'44.10" in Dusseldorf, coming in second behind Juantorena (1'44.03"). Sammy Kipkurgat, whose best 800 m time stood at 1'45.8", managed 1'46.2" in 1977 and Samson Kimobwa took the world record in the 10000 m, with a time of 27'30.5".

## Samson Kimobwa: nonchalant newcomer

At 21, Samson Kimobwa has already reached the top. He has established a new world 10000 m record, at 27'30.5", beating Dave Bedford's 27'30.8" which had stood since 1973. Although he is short (1.60 m), he has a long stride and an unusual style. The 10000 m for him is no harder than any other athletics event and he always seems surprisingly fresh after his races. No tactics. No excessive effort. He runs as he pleases.

In Brussels, without even seeming to speed up he lapped the other competitors—including Dick Quax, the world 5000 m record-holder who was making his first, disappointing, attempt at the 10000 m.

In Helsinki, a few months back, Samson Kimobwa was unknown to the international sporting press when he broke the world 10000 m record in 27'30.5" and he himself was extremely surprised at shooting straight to the top. "It was my first competition in Europe", he said, "and I was really only trying to beat the Kenya national record which Richard Chumo set up in 1974. I knew I could manage about 27'40", but when I broke the tape I had broken the world record too!" He had also beaten his previous personal best by 39.8".

Kimobwa began competing in 1972. He has been training for two years now in the USA, where he is studying agricultural economics at Washington State University. He comes from the Rift Department of Kenya, where, as a youngster, he used to run more than six kilometres to and from school every day. Now he does an average 25 km



**Samson Kimobwa**

per day training. For the moment he prefers the 10000 m and hopes to improve on his own world record. "I think I can do better, but it is difficult to see what the future holds." The feeling is that, with the right conditions and the right competitors, he could well run the 10000 m in 27'15" one of these days.

He says he takes little notice of the other competitors, whom he generally does not know, although it goes without saying that he does know the Ethiopian, Yifter, brilliant winner of the 5000 m and 10000 m in the World Cup meeting which Kimobwa did not attend. The world record-holder is unassuming, but has everything going for a great career in sport. The Olympic Games in Moscow in 1980 could well give him an excellent opportunity to become one of the all-time greats.

## Sammy Kipkurgat: encouraging African youngsters to take up sport

Sammy Kipkurgat, 25, also comes from the Rift Department of Kenya. He began competing at the age of 19, in 1970, in the Kenya championships, where he finished fourth in the 800 m. At the beginning of his career he organized his own training, but now he is studying physical education at the University of New Mexico in the USA he uses American methods. Although an 800 m specialist, he has tried other distances as well. "I only managed 46.2" over 400 m, which isn't fast enough. I also did 1500 m in 3'40.1"—I could do well at this distance if I trained properly." Kipkurgat is a great friend of Mike Boit and does not hide the fact that they sometimes partner each other in race tactics.

Kipkurgat feels that the world-famous achievements of Kenyan athletes are a great encouragement for many young Kenyans who are taking an increasing interest in athletics. "We still have a wide choice of potentially good athletes, but they have no idea of training techniques, or else facilities are inadequate", he said. Kipkurgat's contribution to sport in his country will be to coach young athletes.

## **Mike Boit: "a little bit more than the impossible"**

Although Mike Boit had travelled from Tunis, only arrived an hour or two before the Brussels meeting began and was suffering from the accumulated fatigue of the journey and previous competitions in Tunis, he ran the 800 m in 1'45.19". Mike does not like to disappoint his public. "I run against the clock. This time I was hoping to do 1'44", but the journey had taken its toll", he said. "I run even if I'm not on peak form, as the public is entitled to see us race. I never claim I can't be beaten." The Belgian public clearly appreciated his appearance.

Mike Boit was born near Eldoret in Kenya 28 years ago. He began competing at national meetings in 1966 and started his international career in 1972. He used to run 200 m or 400 m, but gradually worked up to the 800 m, which he concentrates on today.

Boit has managed to combine sport and study in the USA. He first got a B.Sc. in P.E. and biology at Eastern New Mexico University and then, in 1976, an M.Sc. in P.E. at Stanford, California, where he is now working for another master's degree, this time in education, which he is due to finish in December 1978.

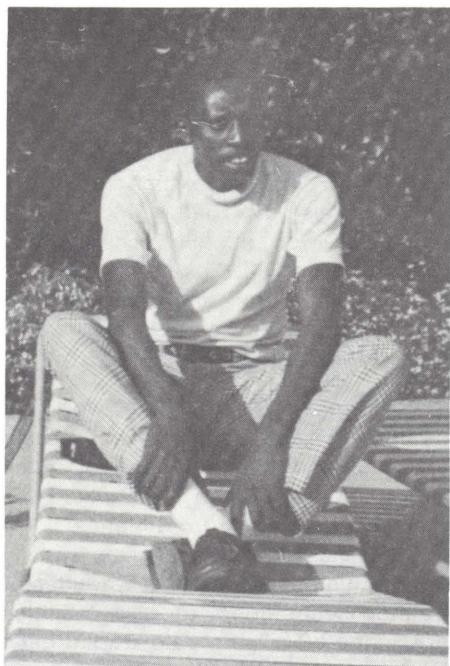
Like Sammy Kipkurgat, Mike Boit could serve Kenyan sport, in his case



**Mike Boit**

by teaching American scientific methods at Kenyatta University in Nairobi.

He gets a grant from the University of Stanford, but is hoping for an extra one soon, from the Kenyan government, for example. The financial situation of many of the African athletes studying abroad does not often bear comparison with the financial and material conditions enjoyed by their American counterparts—or by athletes from Eastern Europe. Material advantages and training are vital to success. But they are not enough. "If you want to make a real success of your studies", Mike Boit says, "you are often short of time for sport. We've got the technical facilities in the States, of course, but you mustn't forget they always look upon us as foreigners and American coaches are sometimes a bit jealous of us. They don't like us winning too many medals in inter-varsity competitions because that stops local athletes from looking good and, as far as the American public is concerned, they are the ones the coaches ought to be bringing out. And don't forget that all the best competitions are in Europe". This psychological side of the life of African athletes in the USA has an obvious influence on their career sport. Mike Boit trains in all weathers and on all types of ground over all distances, including cross-country (10-13 km per day).



**Sammy Kipkurgat**

His one great disappointment was not being able to run in the 800 m at Montreal. "It was a terrific disappointment after so much training and after proving I was willing to push myself to the limits to reach peak form for the Games." He told us how he had thought about dropping his studies before the Olympics to be able to train full time. Now he is glad he didn't. He says the African boycott should be seen from various angles. "Everyone involved made mistakes. First of all, the Olympic Committee discounted the idea of a boycott and attached greater importance to the Taiwan affair. And the African countries were unable to make a unanimous statement of their case with enough force. At the beginning, nobody took the idea of a boycott seriously. Then you mustn't forget that some African countries that were in favour of the boycott had less to lose than others with potential medallists." Boit still wonders how he would have made out. "Who can say how the 800 m final would have gone if I had been running? Every race has to be run, but I was obviously on peak form, both physically and mentally, and in an Olympic final, everyone can always manage a little bit more than the impossible."

Boit feels there are various reasons why East African, particularly Kenyan, athletes tend to be better at athletics. "Apart from the geographical situation, altitude and a climate that is so good for sport, there is the high-protein food we eat and, of course, our general attitude to sport and competitions. Right from childhood, we Kenyans practise competitive sports. At the moment, we have a kind of self-perpetuating situation where very good athletes arouse the interest of a wide public, in turn creating the emulation which gives rise to future athletes." It is this love of sport that makes Mike Boit anxious to continue. "I in fact want to prepare, I hope, for the Moscow Olympics in 1980. I shall be 32, but I shall have greater experience and greater maturity. In any case, I am already concentrating more on speed to make up for advancing age."

Whatever he achieves in the future, Mike Boit is already a great athlete, with a personality to match, who will always be one of the greatest names of African sport and an example for the youth of today. □

R.D.B.

## BOOKS

**Directory of Resources for Training for Agricultural Development in the Commonwealth** — Publications Department of the Commonwealth Secretariat, Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London — 340 pp + 20 pp index — 1976 — Price £3.

This directory lists about 900 institutions and programmes providing training related directly or indirectly to increasing food production in the Commonwealth. It covers all countries in the Commonwealth and includes some international or regional institutions offering training to developing countries.

For each entry, brief details are given of the facilities available, and of the level and kind of training offered. Although the main purpose is to enable those concerned with training at all levels to identify opportunities in neighbouring or distant countries, descriptions are included of less advanced courses, suitable only for nationals of the country concerned, as an indication of how each Commonwealth territory has tried to solve the problem of passing on new technologies to its rural population.

There is a short introductory statement to each national section describing the background and policy for agricultural development training.

The directory covers training for such development in a broad sense, including fishing and forestry, rural skills in processing farm products, technical training closely related to land use such as surveying courses, university courses in relevant subjects and opportunities for research-level training attachments.

**The Third World and Us** (new edition) — Les Cahiers Français no. 167 (la Documentation française), 31 Quai Voltaire, 75340 Paris, Cedex 7 — February 1976 — FF 12.50.

How is the Third World poor? Why is it underdeveloped? What are the industrialized countries and the oil-producers doing about it? What is behind rich/poor relations? This number of *Cahiers Français*, an updated version of a 1974 publication, attempts to find the answers.

After a rundown of the average Frenchman's preconceived ideas about the Third World, part one invites us to take stock, objectively, on the basis of world statistics, of how things really are. A discussion of the inability of these statistics to translate the complexity of underdevelopment adds an extra dimension to the description and leads on to part two, which goes into the origins of underdevelopment.

Various explanations for underdevelopment, from the vicious-circle-of-po-

verty to the unfair-trade theory, are outlined. Two articles defend opposing ideas: Destanne de Bernis claims that some people must be underdeveloped to allow others to develop, suggesting that the origins of underdevelopment are to be found in the economic exploitation of poor countries by rich countries. But P. Bairoch claims that it is modern technological progress and the population explosion in the poor countries which prevent the spread of economic growth in the underdeveloped world.

Part three deals with international aid. It explains the terms 'tied aid', 'development aid', etc., needed for a proper understanding of the figures and outlines for the functioning of the main multilateral aid bodies. The most up-to-date statistical data show the upward trend of aid from the DAC countries and the original role to be played by a new group of donor countries, the oil producers. The acute nature of the problems posed by the distinction between real and false aid and by the increasing indebtedness of the Third World are also emphasized.

Part four answers the reader's questions on French aid: Is there a French aid doctrine? Cooperation, how and with whom? What are the prospects of cooperation in a world where other factors (commodity prices or the possibility of loans from the financial markets) weigh increasingly heavily on development possibilities? What is the trend in French aid?

This edition ends with an analysis of changes in the rich/poor dialogue, since new Third World demands call for new answers from the rich countries. However, the diversity of positions in both North and South is undeniable and it is perhaps this which is behind the slender results of the increasing number of international meetings since 1974.

But some new sort of relationship between us and the Third World has to be forged since, as the African proverb

goes: "When elephants fight, it's the grass which suffers".

**Edmond Jouve. — The international relations of the Third World** (Relations internationales du Tiers Monde). — Tiers Monde en Marche series — Vol. 1 — Editions Berger-Levrault — Paris 1976 — 478 pages.

In this work, Edmond Jouve describes how an increasingly important Third World stands on the international scene. A new ethic is called for in international relations, where the Third World is making its presence increasingly felt, particularly vis-à-vis imperialism, "its common enemy of a thousand faces", which is the "common denominator of all the evils inflicted on the Third World". How can this imperialism be overcome and what direction should be taken afterwards? Some states of the Third World have won their liberty and acquired their own identity. But some have not yet had the good fortune to rid themselves of colonialism and others are faced with a form of neocolonialism which is no less oppressive, though more skilful than the former.

Jouve begins with a detailed description of the Third World and the body of the book is then divided into two parts. The first deals with the fight for liberation and the second the struggle for development. Jouve's analysis of the way the young countries of the Third World first won and then exercised political power reveals his own personal commitment to working for a fairer, more equal and more generous world. The second part covers the development of ideology via organization and trade. Jouve describes a world "on the move" where man is shaping himself. All this makes international relations a fascinating field. The many maps and charts and a lengthy bibliography complete the author's picture of these relations over the last few years, whence emerge certain trends which we must identify, examine and interpret.

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