

STUDY SEMINAR ON AFRICA

— Realities and Cooperation —

4th~7th February, 1985

INSTITUTE FOR INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION
JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY

STUDY SEMINAR ON AFRICA

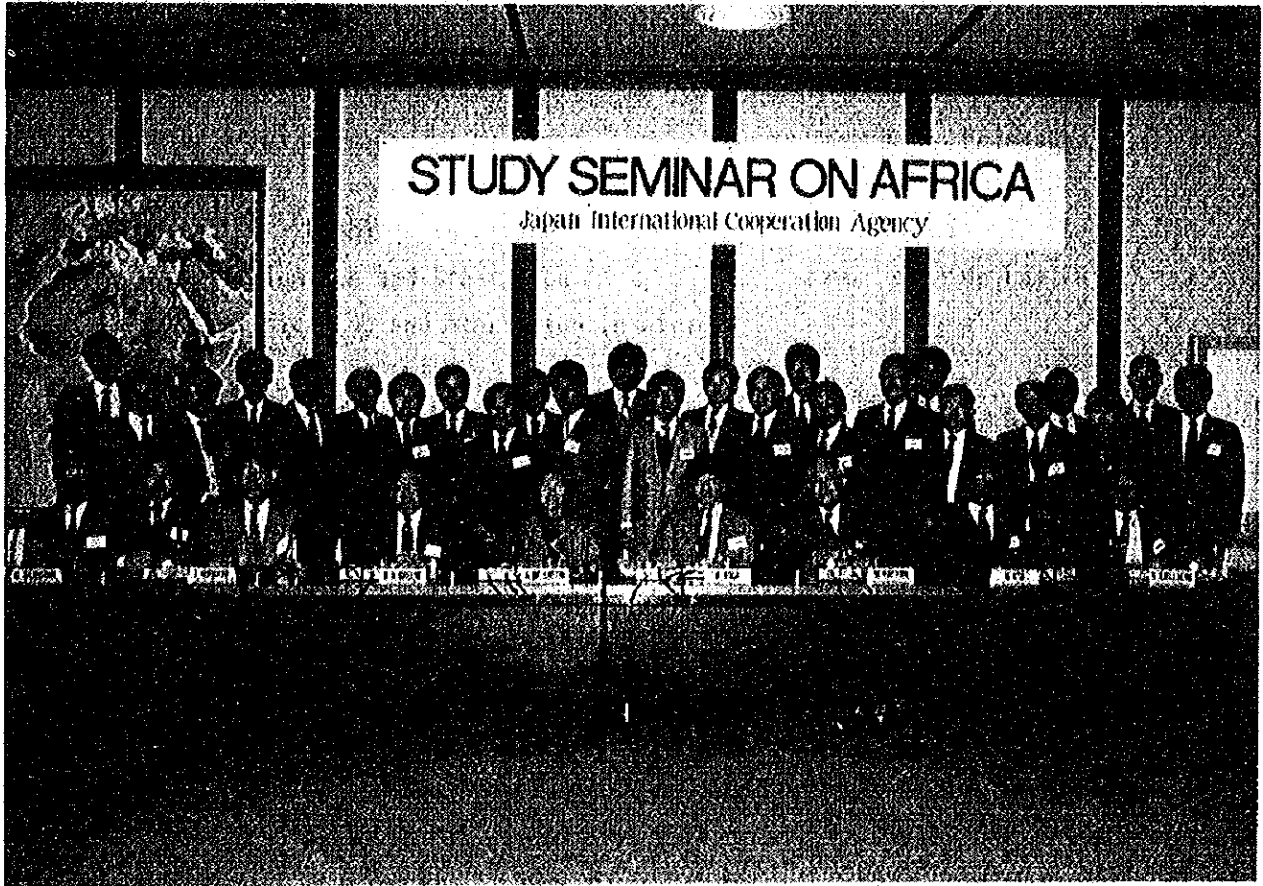
Knowledge and Cooperation

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Resource Persons : Front row, third from left to right

Dr. Horiuchi,	Dr. Greene,	Mme. de Lattre,
Mr. Toda (chairman),	Mr. Hattori,	Mr. Ota,
Mr. Kjellberg		

CONTENTS

	Page
Executive Summary	iii
I Program and Participants	1
II Opening Remarks	Mr. Masao Hasegawa 9
III Session I -- Problems in Africa	15
1. Desertification and Starvation	Mme. Anne de Lattre 17
"Desertification and Starvation in Africa"	
2. Approach to African Development	Dr. David G. Greene
"Introductory Remarks: The African Crisis"	32
"Agriculture and Population: The Roots of Starvation"	40
3. Summary of Discussions	50
IV Session II -- Themes for Development -- A	55
1. Increasing Food Production and Agricultural Development	Prof. Ichiro Inukai 57
"Rural and Agricultural Development in Africa"	
2. Findings of JICA Missions in Africa	Mr. Kozo Tomita 68
3. Summary of Discussions	74
V Session II -- Themes for Development -- B	83
1. One Approach to Human Resources Development in Africa	Mr. Masaya Hattori 85
2. United Nations University's Work in Africa	Mr. Vagn Kjellberg
"UNU Training Programme and its Contribution to Human Resources Development in Africa"	101
"Economic Commission for Africa"	106
3. My Experience in Human Resources Development in Kenya	Miss Chieko Umetsu 145

4. Summary of Discussions		153
VI Session III — Aid Practices in Africa		155
1. The World Bank's Aid to Africa	Dr. David G. Greene	157
— Policy and Realities		
"Aid to Africa: Lessons for the Future"		
2. Japan's Aid to Africa—Policy and Realities	Mr. Hiroshi Ota	167
3. JICA's Experience in Africa		
"JICA Activities in Sub-Saharan Africa"	Dr. Shinsuke Horiuchi	183
4. Summary of Discussions		191
VII Session IV — Desirable Ways and Means of Aid to Africa		195
VIII Closing Remarks	Dr. Shinsuke Horiuchi	209

SEMINAR FOR THE GENERAL PUBLIC

IX Seminar for the General Public		213
1. Starvation in Africa and Ways of Aid	Mme. Anne de Lattre	215
"Problems and Potential of Africa"		
— South of the Sahara —		
2. The World Bank's Aid Policy to Africa	Dr. David G. Greene	
"Introductory Remarks: The African Crisis"		228
"Aid to Africa: Lessons for the Future"		236
3. Approach of Japanese Aid to Africa	Mr. Masaya Hattori	246

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. The Study Seminar on Africa was held in Tokyo on 4, 5 and 6 February 1985.
2. The seminar was attended by 25 regular participants, including 10 resource persons, plus a number of observers. Among the resource persons were Dr. D. Greene, a senior economist of IBRD, Ms. A. de Lattre, director of the Sahel Club, and Mr. M. Hattori, a former vice-president of IBRD. The participants took part not as a representative of respective agency but as an individual.
3. The program was composed of five sessions and each session was divided into two parts, i.e. formal presentations, followed by discussions.
4. The seminar essentially addressed itself to the following four questions:
 - 1) What is the basic problem in Africa?
 - 2) What are the main causes of the problems?
 - 3) What should be done by an African government to meet the problems?
 - 4) In what way should a donor give assistances to the government?
5. As to the answers to the above first three questions, there were general agreements among the participants.
6. Addressing to the first question above, poverty or famine and mal-nutrition were presented as the basic problem. It was, however, stressed that the real problem should be defined as the poor performance of food production in relation to population increase. This is a problem of a long-term nature and which in turn demands long-term solutions.
7. As the main causes of the problem, the following factors were identified;
 - 1) recent droughts,
 - 2) insufficient attentions given by the government to the agricultural sector,
 - 3) inadequacies or deficiencies of the governments' domestic policies,
 - 4) constraints inherited from colonialism,
 - 5) external economic and financial involvement.

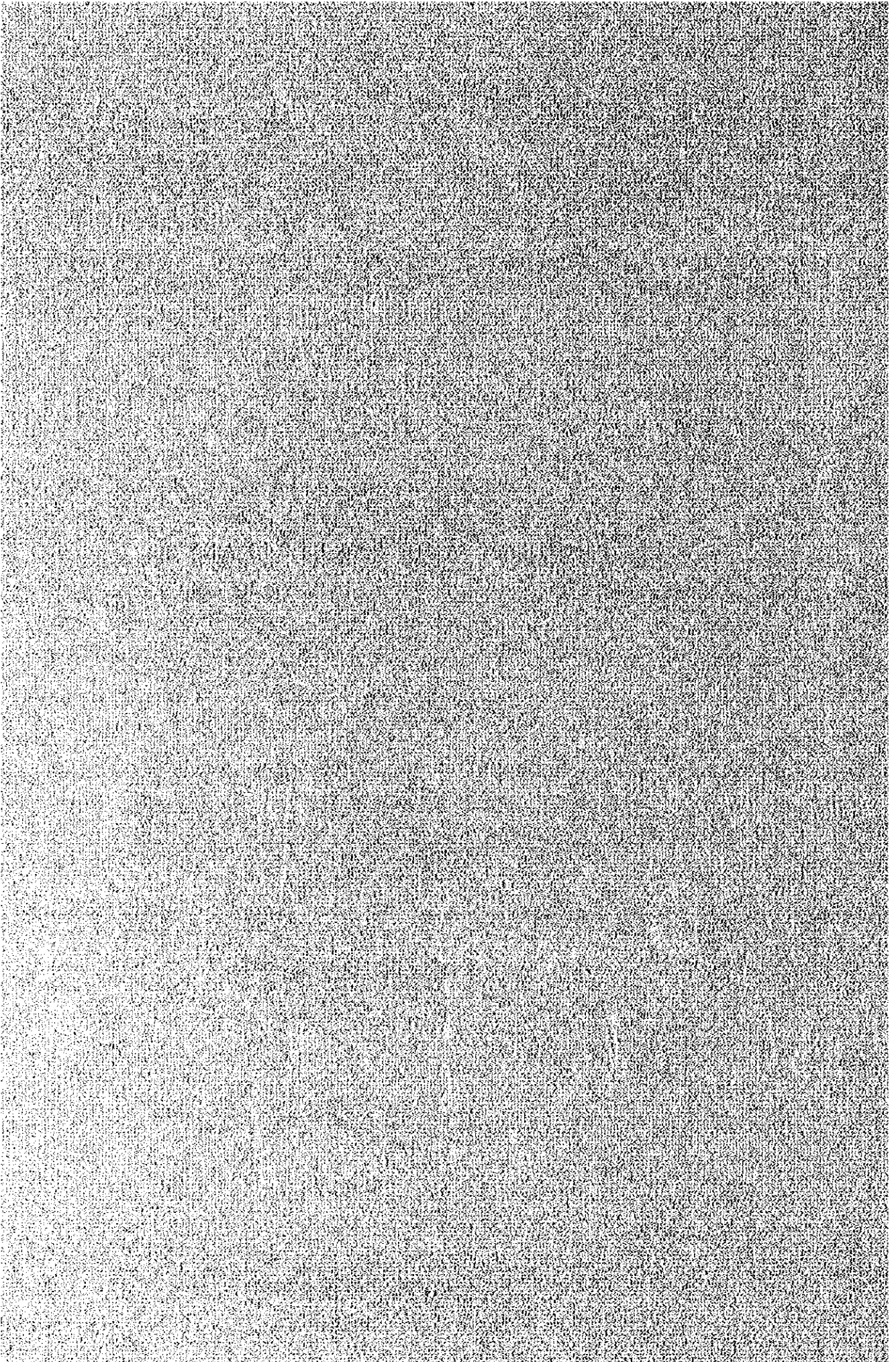
It was understood that the recent droughts were very influential but still one of many causes.
8. While recognizing a long-term need for research work and man-power development, the factor of domestic policy deficiencies was singled out as the priority area to be immediately tackled by the government. The discussions were centered around the following policy deficiencies areas;

- 1) land tenure system,
- 2) pricing policy,
- 3) post-harvest food system,
- 4) foreign exchange rate,

These deficiencies should be remedied so as to generate the incentives of farmers, especially of small-holders, towards higher productivity and higher production, and this should be the main occupation of the government.

9. On the role of a donor, there seems to be a difference of nuance between Japan and the rest of the western donors which include both bilateral and multi-lateral agencies. Having learnt lessons from the past experience, the western donors have a general tendency of linking their financial and other forms of assistance to the government's policy reforms through a sort of contractual agreements with a recipient country.
10. The Japanese participants, on the other hand, took somewhat a different stand. They emphasized more the importance of understanding the values and customs of local people so as to generate or promote their active participation in development projects and programs.
11. The necessity for emergency food supplies was well taken, but its counter-productive effects must be recognized and controlled in a future.
12. Through the active exchanges of views and opinions during the three-day period, the seminar ended with the participants' satisfaction of having widened their scope of view on the problems and possible approaches in Africa.

I PROGRAM AND PARTICIPANTS



1. Program

- Objectives:**
1. To understand the realities and causes of starvation and poverty in Africa
 2. To discuss and consider how to approach the development problems in Africa
 3. To learn from the experiences of aid organizations in Africa

Duration: From 4th February to 7th February, 1985

Place: International Conference Hall
Economic Cooperation Centre 9th Floor
42 Honmura-cho, Shinjuku-ku,
Tokyo 162 Japan
Tel. 355-0017

Seminar Organizer: Institute for International Cooperation, IFIC
Japan International Cooperation Agency

Discussion Leaders: Mr. Atsuyoshi Toda (4th, Feb. - 6th, Feb.)
Development Planning Specialist
Institute for International Cooperation, JICA

Mr. Koichiro Katsurai (7th, Feb.)
Agricultural Development Specialist
Institute for International Cooperation, JICA

Program:

Day 1
Monday, 4 February

- 09:30 - 09:45 Opening Remarks by Mr. Masao Hasegawa
- 09:45 - 12:00 Session I - Problems in Africa
"Desertification and Starvation" by Ms. Anne de Lattre
"Approach to African Development" by Dr. David G. Greene
Discussion (11:00-11:15 Coffee Break)
- 12:00 - 14:00 Lunch Break
(13:20 - 13:50 Optional program; Film-"Agriculture in Africa, East Africa")
- 14:00 - 17:00 Session II - Themes for Development - A
"Increasing Food Production and Agricultural Development"
by Prof. Ichiro Inukai
"Findings of JICA Missions in Africa" by Mr. Kozo Tomita
Discussion (15:00-15:15 Coffee Break)
Film - "Small Scale Industry Development in Kilimanjaro"
- 17:30 - 19:30 Reception
Hosted by Mr. Masao Hasegawa (at room 706)

Day 2
Tuesday, 5 February

- 09:30 - 12:30 Session II - Themes for Development - B
"One Approach to Human Resources Development in Africa"
by Mr. Masaya Hattori
"United Nations University's Work in Africa"
by Dr. Hossam Issa and Mr. Vagn Kjellberg
"My Experience in Human Resources Development in Kenya"
by Ms. Chieko Umetsu
Discussion (10:45-11:00 Coffee Break)
- 12:30 - 14:00 Lunch Break
- 14:00 - 17:00 Session III - Aid Practices in Africa
"The World Bank's Aid to Africa--Policy and Realities"
by Dr. David G. Greene
"Japan's Aid to Africa--Policy and Realities"
by Mr. Hiroshi Ohta
"JICA's Experience in Africa" by Dr. Shinsuke Horiuchi
Discussion (15:00-15:15 Coffee Break)

Day 3

Wednesday, 6 February

- 09:30 - 11:30 Session IV - Desirable Ways and Means of Aid to Africa
Discussion (10:30-10:45 Coffe Break)
- 11:30 - 11:45 Closing Remarks by Dr. Shinsuke Horiuchi
- 11:45 - 12:15 Move to Kayu Kaikan
- 12:15 - 14:15 Farewell Luncheon
Hosted by Mr. Keisuke Arita, President of JICA
(At Kayu Kaikan)
- 14:15 - Free

Day 4

Thursday, 7 February

- 09:30 - 14:00 Free
- 14:00 - 17:00 Seminar for the General Public
"Starvation in Africa and Ways of Aid"
by Ms. Anne de Lattre
"The World Bank's Aid Policy to Africa"
by Dr. David G. Greene
Film - "Small Scale Industry Development in Kilimanjaro"
"Approach of Japanese Aid to Africa"
by Mr. Masaya Hattori

Day 5

Friday, 8 February

Free

2. Participants

*Resource Persons

International

- Ms. Anne de Lattre Director of the Club du Sahel Secretariat, OECD
- Dr. David G. Greene Senior Economist,
Country Program I, Eastern Africa
The World Bank
- Dr. Hossam Issa Senior Program Officer,
The United Nations University
- Mr. Vagn Kjellberg Governmental and Institutional Relations Officer,
The United Nations University

Japan

- Mr. Masaya Hattori Former Vice President of The World Bank
- Mr. Hiroshi Ohta Deputy Director General, Economic Cooperation Bureau,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- Prof. Ichiro Inukai International University
- Ms. Chieko Umetsu Former Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteer
- Dr. Shinsuke Horiuchi Director, Planning Department,
Japan International Cooperation Agency
- Mr. Kozo Tomita Area Specialist (Africa), Planning Department,
Japan International Cooperation Agency

*Regular Participants

- Mr. Akira Kono Official,
Aid Policy Division, Economic Cooperation Bureau,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- Mr. Nobuhito Hobo Official,
Research and Programming Division, Economic Coopera-
tion Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mr. Naotsugu Nakano Official,
 Technical Cooperation Division, Economic Cooperation
 Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mr. Yoichiro Yoshitake Official,
 Development Cooperation Division, Economic Cooperation
 Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mr. Yoshiaki Ito Official,
 Grant Aid Division, Economic Cooperation Bureau,
 Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mr. Shozo Ohira Official,
 Grant Aid Division, Economic Cooperation Bureau,
 Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Mr. Shigemi Kayanuma Deputy Director, International Cooperation Division,
 International Affairs Department,
 Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries

Dr. Masao Yoshida Senior Research Officer, Area Studies Department,
 Institute of Developing Economies

Mr. Shinya Hosomi Senior Research Officer, Area Studies Department,
 Institute of Developing Economies

Dr. Chujiro Ozaki Research Advisor,
 International Development Center of Japan

Dr. Konosuke Marusugi Technical Advisor
 Association for International Cooperation
 of Agriculture and Forestry

Dr. Toshio Sugi Technical Advisor
 Association for International Cooperation
 of Agriculture and Forestry

Mr. Hiroshi Matsumoto Executive Director,
 Association for Promotion of International Cooperation

Mr. Hitoaki Yamaguchi Managing Director,
 Engineering Consulting Firms Association

Mr. Eiji Fukunaga Managing Director,
 Africa Society of Japan

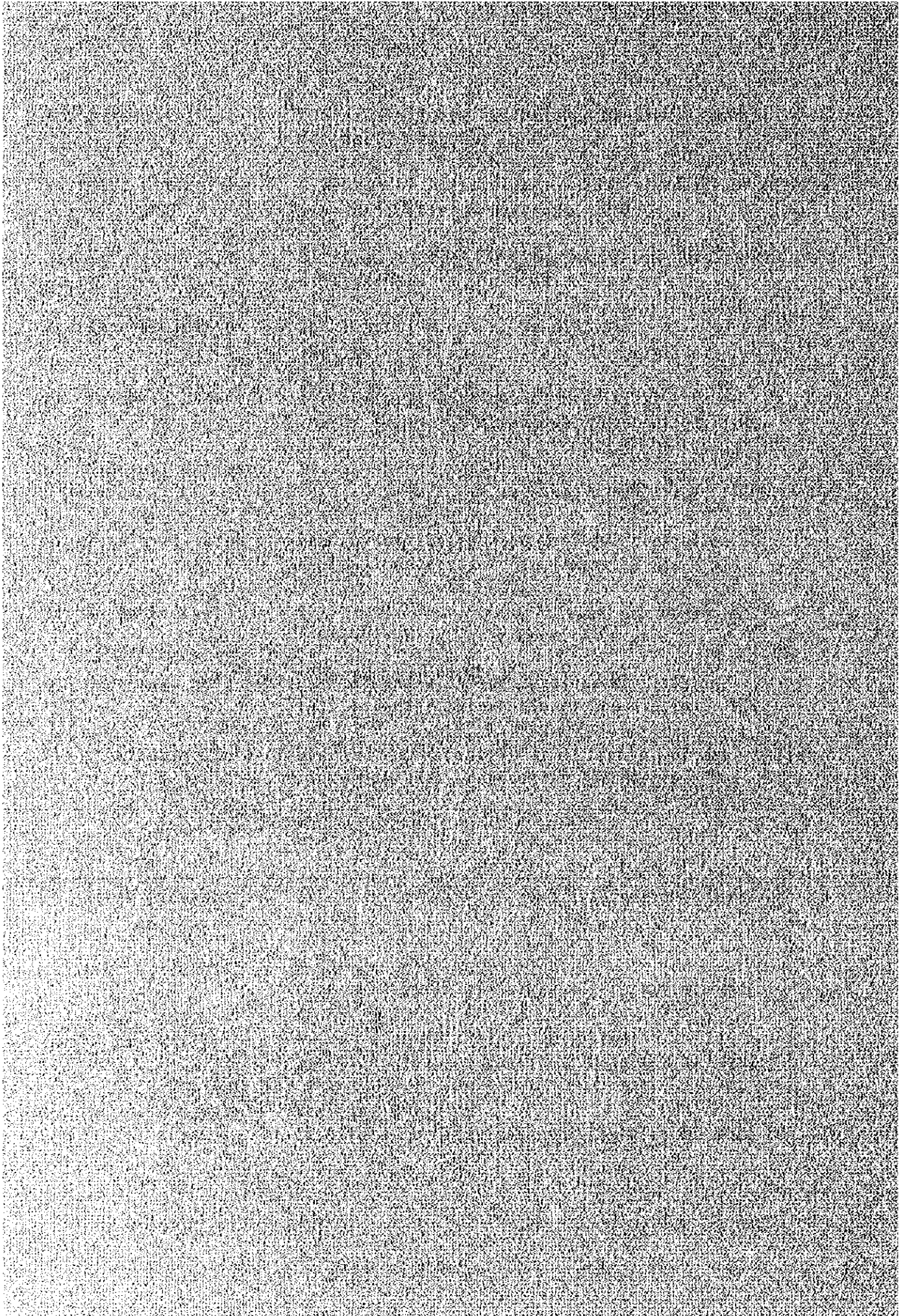
Mr. Hiroyuki Ishi	Senior Staff Writer, Science Section, The Asahi Shimbun
Mr. Haruo Tsuchiya	Director of Agricultural Forestry and Fisheries Plan- ning and Survey Department, JICA
Mr. Katsura Watanabe	Director of Forestry and Fisheries Development Coop- eration Department, JICA
Mr. Atsuyoshi Toda	Development Planning Specialist, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Koichiro Katsurai	Agricultural Development Specialist, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Hideyuki Kanamori	Irrigation Engineer, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Toshio Murakoshi	Head of Office for the Medical Cooperation, Medical Cooperation Department, JICA
Mr. Kazuo Nakagawa	Acting Head of Regional Study and Coordination Divi- sion, Planning Department, JICA
Mr. Ryonosuke Goto	Head of Research and Development Division, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Shinichiro Omote	Special Assistant to the Director of Secretariat of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers

Secretariat

Mr. Masao Hasegawa	Director of Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Ken Fujimura	Head of Training Division, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Hiromi Fujita	Acting Head of Training Division, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA
Mr. Masaru Todoroki	Training Division, Institute for International Cooperation, JICA

II OPENING REMARKS

Mr. Masao Hasegawa



Opening Remarks

Masao Hasegawa

Mme. de Lattre, Dr. Greene, Mr. Hattori, distinguished guest speakers, ladies and gentlemen,

It gives me great pleasure to say a few words of welcome on behalf of JICA, Japan International Cooperation Agency, at the opening of the study seminar on Africa.

First of all, I would like to express my sincere welcome and deepest appreciation to all the participants in the seminar, particularly, my sincere thanks to Mme. de Lattre, Director of Club du Sahel of OECD, and Dr. Greene, Senior Economist of the World Bank who have kindly accepted our invitations and traveled a great distance, sacrificing their valuable time, to tell us about Africa.

Ladies and gentlemen, as you are already aware, the present desertification and starvation in Africa have inflicted tremendous sufferings on hundreds of millions of people and begun to undermine the developing economies in the region. According to the latest report 150 millions people do not have enough to eat. The grain produced in 21 African countries in 1984 was 22.7 million tons which are 13% less than that of 1983. That aggravated the starvation. Yet, the food aid which reached the region was less than half of the committed amount.

Africa is very far from Japan. The relationship in the past between Africa and Japan was rather remote. Many Japanese people know very little about Africa. Even now, some people associate Africa with Taarzan, and the lions of Africa. As the same human-beings on the earth, we Japanese cannot be indifferent to the massive sufferings of African people. Africa and Japan are very much inter-dependent, particularly in economic sense. Our daily life is very much dependent on Africa, though we do not fully realize it. In this respect, we may go as far as to say that African's sufferings are our sufferings, too. We should be willing to help them to reduce their burdens and difficulties to achieve their self-reliance and development.

It seems to me that the starvation problems in Africa make us reconsider the fundamental relationship between nature and human-beings. Every country may encounter the same kind of problem on a different scale sooner or later. It was only last year in this country that the campaign to help Africa started to penetrate the heart of the Japanese. Various programs to help Africa have been further increased since then in both public and private sectors. The Japanese Government appealed to the world to commence emergency programs to help Africa. It committed 163 Million Dollars amount of grant aid in 1984 for providing food and increasing agricultural production as a short-run program or measure.

However, as you can see, the emergency programs cannot be the fundamental solutions to the problems. It is urgent and necessary for us to consider the ways and means to develop Africa in the long-run. For this purpose, JICA sent two missions to east and west Africa last December in order to identify the possible cooperation needed. We have to admit that

our experiences of technical cooperation in Africa are still limited. We should know much more about Africa in order to make our future cooperation programs more effective and efficient. We also need to know much more about how to approach solving the starvation problem. This is exactly the reason that this seminar is being held.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, I would like to invite and welcome your open discussions and your personal feelings here in this seminar. I am sure the guest speakers will make very informative and provocative presentations for us. With this seminar we may be able to move in the direction of discovering the most effective way of tackling with the problems that Africans are facing right now.

Finally, I do hope the study seminar today will be constructive and fruitful to all the participants.

Thank you.

III SESSION I --PROBLEMS IN AFRICA

1. Desertification and Starvation

"Desertification and Starvation in Africa"

Mme. Anne de Lattre

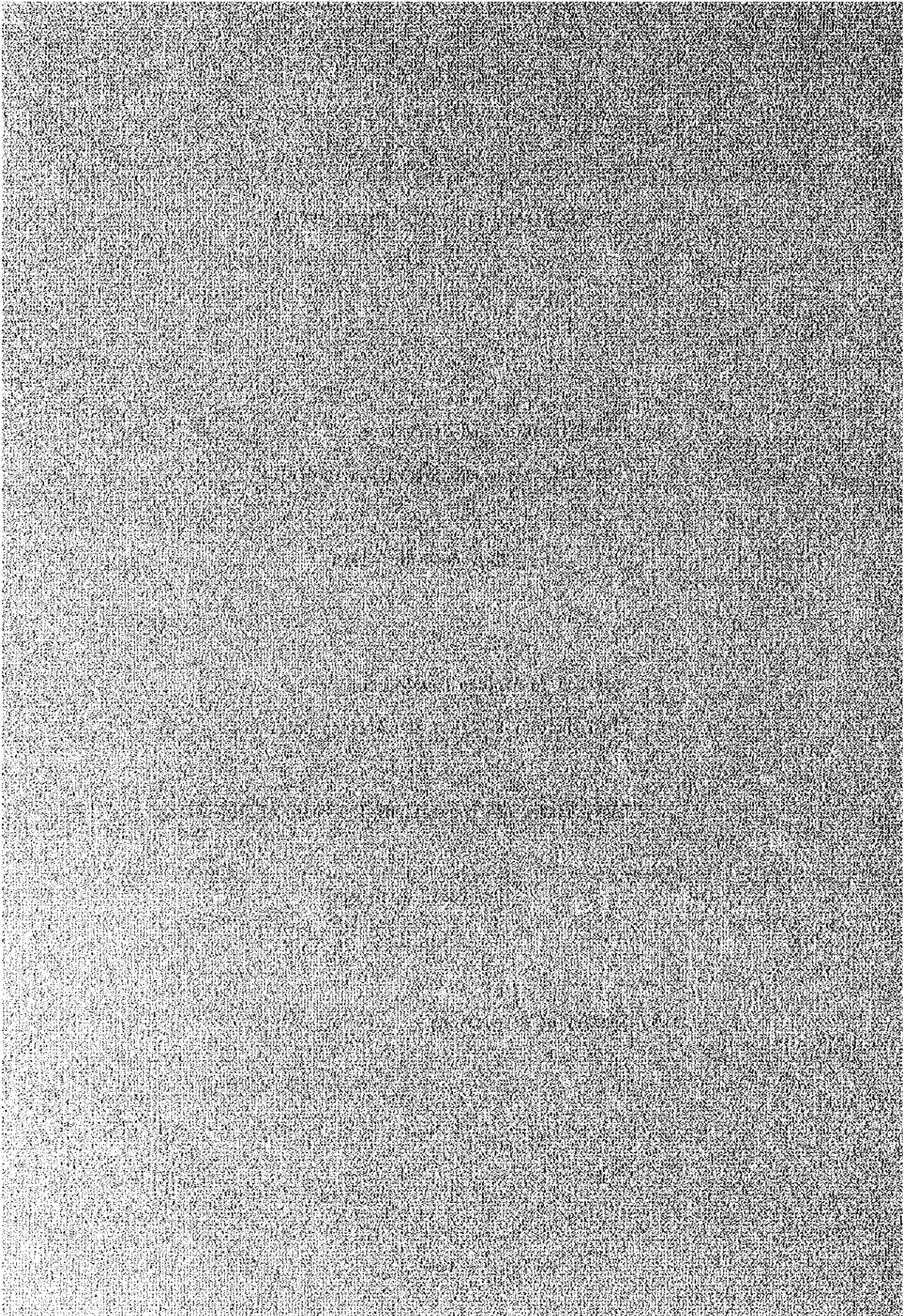
2. Approach to African Development

"Introductory Remarks; The African Crisis"

"Agriculture and Population: The Roots of Starvation"

Dr. David G. Greene

3. Summary of Discussions



DESERTIFICATION AND STARVATION IN AFRICA

Anne de Lattre

In recent weeks, newspaper articles and television screens have widely disseminated ghastly pictures and data on starvation in the Horn of Africa, principally Ethiopia, and famine in some areas of the Sahel. Public opinion has been very moved in OECD countries. Private monies have been raised in substantial amounts to help starving mothers and children. Governments have been required to act with more generosity. The pressure of private citizens has been so strong that governments have been compelled to provide additional amounts of food aid speedily.

Of course, we cannot be indifferent to human suffering. The death of people from starvation and malnutrition is a scandal of our modern and prosperous times. But, as administrators, as professionals having a permanent interest in the development process, we must try to understand the causes of starvation and to solve them. We must also endeavour to maintain a permanent and enlightened interest in development among the citizens of our countries. It is not enough to push governments to action in times of starvation; persevering actions must be understood and supported by public opinion. In OECD countries, public opinion must be made to understand that development is very difficult and will be a long-term process.

To try and make these points clear, I shall deal with the situation in the West African Sahel, i.e. 8 countries including Cape Verde Islands, Chad, Senegal, Mauritania, The Gambia, Mali, Niger and Burkina-Faso. Many of the characteristics which apply to the situation of these countries can be extended to the East African Sahel (Sudan, Ethiopia, Somalia, Djibouti) with a major additional problem which exists also in Chad: international and civil war.

Famine situations in Africa and especially the Sahel

Sahel means border of the desert, a place where life becomes again possible for man, beyond the sterile sands of the Sahara. Countries having a Sahelian territory have always been submitted to cyclical droughts and as far as we know, these droughts will always take place from time to time.

There was a major drought in the West African Sahel between 1969 and 1972 which deeply perturbed the whole area. Subsequently, the rains came back but rainfall was never very abundant or well distributed between 1973 and 1983 although there were, of course, wide variations between countries, regions and years. In 1984, there was again a major rain shortfall especially in Niger, Chad and Mauritania. In those three countries as well as in Northern Mali and Northern Burkina, there are serious situations of famine and malnutrition.

During the past 10 years, however, we have been able to delve quite deeply in the economic and social situation of the West African Sahel and we have come to understand the causes of the recurring crisis which does not mean that we can solve them over the short or even the medium term.

Does famine occur because of insufficient resources?

One of the first questions we tried to answer, when we started our work was: does famine occur because there are insufficient resources to support the population? We came to the conclusion that this is not the case. The Sahel has land, water and an active population which could, as has been done elsewhere, be trained to exploit and manage the existing resources.

There is a fair abundance of land for rainfed agriculture which can be put into production either around existing villages especially in the

better watered areas of the south (this is where the production of cotton has progressed considerably); there are also untouched new lands which can be developed for instance in burkina-Faso where they are being cleared of onchocerciasis in Eastern Senegal and in some parts of Mali. Furthermore, techniques of production, farm systems are so primitive that a great deal is possible to increase productivity.

There are enormous quantities of land available for irrigation in the Senegal and Niger river valleys, in The Gambia and in other areas. Irrigable lands have been estimated at 2 million hectares, the greatest expanses being in Mali. Yet, at the present time only about 100,000 hectares are cultivated under total water control and about 150,000 hectares under partial water control. Furthermore, small irrigated gardens around wells are just being started in a larger scale in some sahel countries. In the large irrigation perimeters, the management, maintenance and the policies are so poor that after three or four years, they often have to be rehabilitated.

There is a great deal of livestock in the Sahel which represents a potential resource for local consumption and for export to the coastal countries in Africa. Yet the management of livestock is still so traditional and inefficient that the animals tend to be decimated in times of drought, re-stocked in times of better reinfall and destroyed again if rain does not come.

Fisheries are also a potential resource especially in Senegal and Mauritania and indeed are being developed to a certain extent in Senegal. But coastal countries have tended to sell their fishing rights at a very low price to foreign companies who skim the seas and they have not yet taken advantage of the important possible contribution to feeding their population.

The vegetal cover, forests in the south, brush in the north used to be

a major resource for construction wood, firewood, food for animals, house cover and to support the agricultural system but, in many areas, desertification is spreading fast. Desertification is not, as many people believe, at the Sahara spreading southwards. It is a much more complex process involving poor management of agriculture, of livestock, of water, of energy as well as poor education and information of the people and poorly conceived government policy. Desertification is a very complex system which cannot be changed easily.

Nevertheless, if the Sahel has resources which can be put to good use, why do we have recurrent or endemic situations of malnutrition and famine? Why is economic and social progress so slow? Why is the Sahel becoming more and more dependent on foreign food - a trend which stretches much further beyond the Sahel, extending into many countries in Africa? Is drought the principal factor of the present situation? This, we will see, would be much too simple an answer. Drought is a factor but only one among many and it is a factor which could be overcome.

1. The population factor

One factor which stands out among the many factors causing slow progress and rising dependancy on food aid from outside is the growth of population and its poor distribution.

Demographic data are very unreliable everywhere in Africa but it would seem that in the West Africa, Sahel, it has exceeded 2.7% per year over the last decade, except in Burkina-Faso where emigration to coastal countries is strong and in Cape Verde Islands where emigration is also high and where government population policy more articulate and organized.

The distribution of population over the Sahel is quite uneven mainly due to climatic constraints. The density of population is almost nil in

the desert and sub-desert zones and increases on average as one moves south to increasingly watered regions. However, neither climatic data nor agricultural resources alone explain the present distribution pattern. In Burkina, the Mossi Plateau is more densely populated than the South West of the country which is better endowed by nature. The eastern part of Senegal is almost empty, whereas the groundnut basin which is dryer is heavily populated. There is constant movement and internal migrations in the Sahel and the map of the population undergoes perpetual change.

One of the most disturbing factors in population distribution is the growth of cities. In 1960, urban population in the Sahel was about 7% of the total; today, almost 20% of the population lives in urban areas. A simple extrapolation of present trends gives a 30% urbanized population by year 2000 about 1 out of 3 persons will live in a town.

At the end of 1984, the population of the Sahel was estimated at some 35 million. If current trends continue, the population will reach 54 million in 2000 and 70 million in 2010 of which 40% in cities. During the first decade of the next century, the population might increase by 16 million: this increase represents the equivalent of the total population of the region at the end of the 1950s, in the period preceding national independence.

An accelerating population growth rate is a unique feature of the Sahel and other countries south of the Sahara. Elsewhere, in the Third World, starting at the end of the 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s, high growth rate trends slowed or were even reversed.

Today each farmer must feed 2.8 persons. In year 2000, each farmer will have to feed four persons.

The population growth rate has had a tremendous influence on economic

and social trends; on the destruction of traditional social patterns, on the departure of young people to cities and abroad, leaving farming to older men and women. It has had a tremendous influence on the consumption of energy which, in the Sahel, is represented by firewood up to 80% to 90% of total needs. It has also influenced consumption patterns: city people want bread (while wheat cannot be produced in West Africa) and rice which is mostly imported from abroad.

2. Insufficient priority for the agricultural sector

Another reason for famine, malnutrition growing food dependency in the Sahel - and elsewhere in Africa is the insufficient priority given by governments to the agricultural sector.

It is difficult to find reliable statistics for quantities of cereals produced: it may be around 4 to 5 million tons in the eight Sahel countries we are considering, depending on the year but the most important factor is that productivity is increasing at a much slower pace than population growth although it would be risky to give any figures on this discrepancy. What we have specific information about are food imports, either through direct purchase or food aid and this information offers dramatic proof of growing food dependence. At the beginning of the 1960s, no more than 200,000 tons of grain per year entered the region. Towards 1970, this volume amounted to around 400,000 tons with a peak of 1 million during the drought. In more recent years, food imports have amounted to over 800,000 tons - probably 1.3 million tons in 1984 and 1.5 million will come in in 1985. There have been major fluctuations from year to year but the trend has been on the increase so that in the period 1983-85, the Sahelians' daily food supply will have depended upon foreign farmers - mainly American and European - for close to three months out of the year and foreign contributions have not prevented occasional acute shortages. If present trends are

extrapolated the 8 Sahel countries would need close to 4 million tons in year 2010.

Why has this happened?

Drought has been a factor but only one among others, perhaps not the most important. What other factors can we identify?

Firstly, the lack of interest on the part of governments for the agricultural sector and for the restoration of the ecological balance although about 80% of the people still live in the agricultural sector.

If you examine development plans, for instance, you will see that the introductory chapters dealing with objectives are quite what they should be: priority for the agricultural sector, increasing food production and improvement of the ecology but if you then look at the programmes and projects which are expected to help meet these objectives, you will not see clear priorities for productive projects in agriculture, training programmes for farmers and technicians, research and all the inputs which could help the progress of all the agricultural sector as compared with priorities for other projects. Given the absence of clear priorities, the donors have tended to choose the easier projects in economic and social infrastructure or the projects which were pushed by strong Ministers - which is never the case of the Rural Development Minister. Between 1975 and 1983, about 4% of ODA has gone directly to rainfed agriculture projects, 1.5% of ODA to ecology and reforestation and 8% of ODA to irrigated agriculture.

If one delves into agricultural policies which represent a complex system, involving prices, trade in cereals, storage, input prices and distribution systems, articulation of the system with food aid, training and research systems etc.. One must come to the conclusion that policies in the

Sahel and often elsewhere in Africa have not been geared to increasing food production and productivity, often they have been counterproductive.

Although some changes in the right direction are taking place, food prices to farmers have tended to be kept low so that city consumers could buy food cheaply; trading systems, up to very recent times, have been the monopoly of inefficient government cereal boards; they have discouraged transfers from surplus to deficit areas, nationally and regionally; on-farm storage has not been encouraged. Large parastatals have been set up to manage big projects: they have not demonstrated their capability to deliver inputs to farmers, who have not received seed, fertilizers, tools, pesticides in sufficient quantities or at appropriate periods of the year. As a consequence, farmers have, in general, taken little interest in government policies. They have kept to their traditions, avoiding undue risks and have produced essentially for their own consumption. They have not responded to opening and growing markets in the cities whose needs, as a rule, were met with food aid and commercial imports. Commercial imports of rice, for instance, have been in direct competition with locally produced rice because they were imported and sold at a much lower price. In other words, government agricultural policies in Africa have been fraught with contradictions. Unfortunately the donors have tended to accept these contradictions by responding more than generously to food aid requests whatever the annual crop may have been and by financing investment projects regardless of the economic and social environment in which they were expected to operate.

I would like to say a special word about research, particularly on farming systems and on locally produced food crops such as sorghum, millet and corn. There is growing evidence that a dominant cause of lack of agricultural progress is the fact that 60 to 80% of the agricultural labour force works at very low levels of productivity. While yields in Asia and Latin America have increased since 1965, those of Africa have remained

stagnant. The Green Revolution Technology has hardly touched Africa. For example, hybrid sorghum varieties from India have not been successful in Burkina, Niger and Mali because of unforeseen problems such as disease, variability of rainfall and poor soils. Knowledgeable observers now agree that African farming systems are very complex and that the development of suitable technical packages requires location-specific research by multi-disciplinary research teams which are supported by strong national research programmes on the staple food of each country but this effort is yet to come, largely because government support has been very weak.

3. Insufficient interest in ecology and reforestation

Another major factor in the endemic and sometimes acute situations of malnutrition and famine is the degradation of the environment: soil degradation, cutting of trees and of the vegetation cover, over-grazing of the livestock, disappearance of traditional fallow-land practices, etc... As one observer has observed correctly: the Sahelians live on their land - and this feature extends throughout Africa - as if space and resources were forever renewable and infinite which is no longer the case.

The biological equilibrium that existed between man and nature in the Sahel is no more than a memory. A host of indicators show that stability no longer exists and that the environment is deteriorating under the pressure of irregular rainfall, deteriorated pastureland, impoverished soil and accelerated deforestation.

All indicators point to a single problem: the extraction of natural resources from the environment by herds, crops and woodcutting, in order to satisfy the needs of a growing population, has outstripped replenishment. Furthermore in the regions with the most delicate balance, the water deficit is an added impediment to the rehabilitation of the natural environment. Every year, the Sahel and many other African countries consume part of their

natural patrimony for subsistence, although in order to support a growing population, the region should consolidate its natural resources, as is being done in other parts of the world.

Ecological degradation contributes considerably to malnutrition and famine. Populations can no longer use plants, leaves, fauna which improved their diets. Animals are without fodder, soil fertility which is closely linked to the presence of trees, declines; and populations flee to cities where they swell the shanty towns on the outskirts.

What can be done?

I have painted a bleak picture yet I would not like to leave you with the idea that nothing can be done; that the Sahel of West Africa and of East Africa and many parts of Africa is condemned to food dependence, to deforestation, with deteriorated farm and pasture land, with vast semi-desertic zones which will be less hospitable to man than ever before. This vision of the future is not acceptable. So what can be done?

Firstly, I believe that we must all understand that Africa's current food and ecological crisis is long term in nature. It has been building up for two decades and it will take two decades or perhaps longer to be reversed. We must all understand that the causes of this situation are complex and inter-related and that they cannot be attributed to either one factor or a set of factors. The present crisis cannot be solved by crash food aid programmes, crash food production or reforestation projects or a doubling of foreign aid. Since the food and hunger crisis has been in the making for 10 to 20 years, viable solutions to the crisis cannot be found without facing up to a number of difficult political, structural and technical problems over the next several decades.

While the several well-known recent reports on Africa's food and

economic problems agree on the severity of the food and hunger crisis, each of these assessments underemphasizes the mistakes of African states (and donors), and overstress the need for more foreign aid. The human and other costs of solving Africa's problems can be alleviated with foreign aid including food aid but the solutions must be found by the Africans themselves. Only their changes in attitudes and policies can make foreign assistance effective in whatever form. The probability of change is now greater than it has ever been in West Africa. What changes are most urgent?

1) The first goal of a new African development strategy should be to ensure that the men and women of the Sahel regain control of their own growth and land use and, once again, play an active role in their own development.

Population increase which is such a disrupting factor should gradually be controlled, but that can only be done over the long-term although some governments are becoming more open to change in population policies. But other measures can be introduced more quickly. There is, as yet, and for many reasons very little popular participation in development. The tendency has been to give central administrators and technicians the responsibility for all development activities. This can be changed. Henceforth, African governments should abandon many activities. They should help populations exercise personal initiative and develop an attitude of service towards them. Providing information to people, providing training to change production systems, improving living conditions particularly health care, water supply and housing should become clear priorities. This implies a reversal of governments' dominant and technocratic policies which the present crisis may encourage.

2) The second goal of a new African strategy should be to rebuild a sound economic bases which will make it possible to reverse current trends towards a deteriorating food situation and increased dependence. I am alluding

specifically to correcting the growing trade imbalance, reducing the growing cost of financing the public sector and stimulating national saving.

A sound economic base is absolutely necessary to the progress of the agricultural sector but there are also many specific measures which can accelerate such progress which Africans have been slow to conceive and implement, for instance giving farmers more initiative, creating good socio-economic conditions which will help them sell their production and acquire necessary inputs, support of farmer organizations, efficient and useful research policies and credit policies. All these changes are yet to be carried out. Changed specific sector policies (rainfed agriculture, irrigation, livestock, forestry etc.) must also be implemented: their components are now much better known than they used to be.

3) The third goal of a new African strategy should be given priority to reviewing the trend towards degradation of the ecological balance.

Neither governments nor foreign aid can unilaterally develop a new ecological balance. Only the herder can save his pasture land, only the farmer can save his field and they alone can save the trees that produce wood. Rural populations must receive the support of national authorities or else efforts will fail.

Encouraging and helping rural populations should also be coupled with many other measures some of which will be measures of protection which have to be understood and enforced, research, saving resources particularly conventional energy sources, creating an appropriate economic and legal framework, particularly a new land tenure system, and all policies should, of course, have a long-term horizon.

If strategic guidelines are implemented, that is, if government administrations begin to regard their role more as one of soliciting individual

initiative, and supplying advantageous models and frameworks, for example, rather than participating directly in development, the relative size of national structures should decrease. In any case, slowed growth in public spending (which had become disproportionate with respect to the productive base) and development of domestic savings, in order to obtain a higher ratio of investment to national production are conditions for reestablishing a sound economic base.

4.5.2 - Foreign aid to meet the needs of the Sahel

Considering the amplitude of problems facing the Sahel, it is vital for both the region and the international community to maintain the efforts they have undertaken over the past ten years. Clearly, given the problems of climatic conditions, demographic growth, ecological imbalance, among others, the state of crisis prevalent in the Sahel countries will worsen without broad, efficient support through foreign aid.

Implementing a new development strategy will require capital to accompany the broadening of the productive base. As long as the economy of the region does not rest upon a solid foundation, increasing amount of foreign capital will be needed to keep the region afloat, and to allow for development in the medium-term future and preparation for long-term future. Financial aid from abroad will be all the more important as the international context continues to work against the Sahel (worsening trade conditions, variations in exchange rates, with their adverse effects on foreign debt service, etc.). More than before, foreign financial assistance should be incorporated into long-term planning, taking into account the limitations related to each source of financing.

Redirecting aid

If foreign aid is needed to counterbalance the weak economies of the

Sahel countries, in its present form, foreign aid is not adequate to enable those countries to rebuild their economies on a sound base. Foreign aid should be redirected.

Analyses have shown that a significant percentage of foreign aid money (35%) has been spent on ensuring the survival of the Sahel, including food aid, assistance for balance of payments, and aid for operation of the public sector. Clearly, there must be no interruption in this aid, part of which is vital, yet in the future, more care should be given to its efficient use. Another percentage of aid money goes to investment, some of which are not directly productive. Figures show that only a small part of aid is devoted to the development of food crop production, particularly rainfed crops, and the search for a new ecological balance.

In the future, a greater percentage of foreign aid should be channeled to the three strategic goals proposed: making man the driving force behind development, reconstructing the economy of the region on a more solid foundation, and determining a new ecological balance and developing the land base accordingly (discussed in the following part of the present document). Certain decisions fall under the direct responsibility of the governments of the Sahel and foreign aid donors should support those decisions.

Some studies on recurrent costs and the effects of foreign aid, including food aid, highlight the destabilizing effects of relationships fostered by aid and cooperation. Joint studies by the Sahelians and donors (as have already been carried out on the subject of food aid) should help improve aid relationships in such a way as to increase the effectiveness of aid while minimizing future dependence.

Reestablishing a sound economic base requires a certain number of adjustments. These include improvements in the purchasing power of rural groups in order to increase production, creating markets for manufactured

goods, curbing the flight to the cities, slowing public spending, and increasing domestic savings in order to increase investment while at the same time protecting national assets and not sacrificing the future, particularly where personnel training for future needs is concerned.

Foreign aid should contribute to these adjustments and redirect itself towards the highest priority sectors. It should be offered on a contractual basis, whereby the responsibilities of each of the parties are determined over a period of several years and this must, of course, include food aid.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS: THE AFRICAN CRISIS

DAVID G. GREENE

I am very pleased to be with you here and would like to thank the Japan International Cooperation Agency and the Institute for International Cooperation for your kind invitation. I believe that this seminar is particularly opportune. In view of the decision by the Government of Japan to increase its assistance to Africa it is very important that Japan, which is now a major source of assistance to developing countries, also increase its understanding of the problems faced by the nations of the African continent in order that the aid so generously offered has the maximum possible positive impact. In recent months there has been increasing attention worldwide to Africa because of the human suffering resulting from the famine in Ethiopia. This tragic situation has brought forth a massive program to provide immediate relief.

This emergency aid is vitally important in the short term in order to save lives. However, Sub-Saharan Africa is in the midst of a long-term crisis, of which the tragedy in Ethiopia is only one very visible symptom. Urgent action is needed to meet this long-term crisis if future tragedies are to be forestalled. Africa needs the support of the international community on a long-term action program to revive growth of per capita income and eliminate poverty. In this respect, it was very gratifying to hear of the Paris conference in establishing a special Fund for Africa.

Let me now say a few words about the dimensions of Africa's problems and their causes, as we in the World Bank see them.

Africa's Long-term Economic Crisis

Africa's economic situation and social indicators began to deteriorate in the 1970's and continue to do so. Only in Africa has there been a generation of declining per capita income. The average annual rate of growth of domestic product for all of Africa was 3.6% between 1970 and 1980, but domestic product has declined every year since then. With population growing at about 3% per year, per capita income in 1984 was below its 1970 level. Agricultural output per capita has continued to decline and food imports have increased. Food imports now provide about a fifth of the region's cereal requirements. This means that the equivalent of the entire urban population of the region is being fed by imports. Today, even if all the food available in Africa, including imports, were divided equally, it would not be enough to meet minimum per capita caloric requirements. Much of industrial capacity lies idle because of falling domestic demand, poor investment choices and inadequate foreign exchange for materials and spare parts. Much of the continent's economic and social infrastructure is deteriorating and the efficiency of key institutions is being undermined.

Causes for worry show up in virtually all major economic data: per capita incomes continue to decline, fiscal and balance of payments positions continue to weaken, debt, low by comparison to some countries in Latin America, has become unsustainable by many poor African nations, as

evidenced by the large-scale rescheduling of recent months; foreign exchange reserves are dwindling and import of materials to maintain food production and complete projects necessary for generating the capital needed to revitalize the economies are in short supply.

Putting all this in more human terms, the average per capita income of about US\$400 for Sub-Saharan Africa translates into one-half to three-fourths of the population living in absolute poverty, that is too poor to obtain a calorie-adequate diet. Death rates are the highest in the world and life expectancy at birth is 49 years, compared to 75 years in the world's industrial countries. There is only one nurse for every 3,000 Africans and one doctor for every 21,000, compared to one nurse for every 140 people and one doctor for every 520 people in the United States. Fifteen to twenty per cent of the children die before their first birthday. Children under 15 already constitute almost 50% of the total population, placing tremendous pressures on educational facilities and future employment creation. Yet twenty percent of school age children in Africa are not enrolled in school.

Causes of Economic Deterioration

Now let me say a few words about the causes of these problems. Let me start by saying that they are a complex combination of basic constraints which existed at the time of independence, external factors and

problems of economic policy and development administration. Let me also remind you that Africa is not homogeneous. The approximately 380 million people of Sub-Saharan Africa live in 40 countries ranging in size from fewer than a million inhabitants to about 91 million in Nigeria and in size from 2000 square kilometres (Mauritius) to 2.5 million (Sudan). Some are oil and mineral rich, some entirely agricultural. Some have dense rain forests, others are semi-arid; some are landlocked, others coastal. They encompass a wide variety of political and economic systems.

Nevertheless, they share some important characteristics. Their economies are small, specialized and open. Usually 70% of the population is engaged in land intensive agriculture. They are diverse ethnically. They have become independent fairly recently. They have very high rates of population growth and they share certain common policy problems, especially those concerning rural development, industrialization and trade.

Looking at the basic constraints to development, we find: first, a weak human resource base, lack of technical, managerial and entrepreneurial skills due to neglect of education during colonial times. Second, political fragility resulting from newness of independence and diverse cultures and languages and a lack of national integration. Third, a heritage of uneven, dualistic development, weak infrastructure and subsistence agriculture. Fourth, generally unfavorable climate and

geographical factors: tropical soils which are fragile and deficient in organic materials, only one fourth is well watered. Finally, a problem about which I will have more to say later, extremely rapid population growth.

The external economic and financial environment has been, and remains, hostile. Beginning in 1973, African oil importing countries experienced a pronounced worsening of their balance of payments. The situation worsened with the second oil price shock and the ensuing economic recession in industrialized countries. This recession resulted in declines for the demand for and prices of Africa's exports, especially minerals and primary products. Between 1973 and 1982 low-income Africa lost as much as 21% of the purchasing power of its exports. Access to credit and private investment was reduced and that which was unavoidable was short-term and high real interest rates. Debt and debt service has mounted. At the same time, the available volume of concessional aid has fallen, partly as a response to unemployment in the donor countries and partly as a result of growing dissatisfaction with the results that aid has achieved - so-called aid fatigue. On a net basis the fall has been greater as repayments have increased. Moreover, as recovery began to get underway in industrialized countries, the benefits have eluded most African countries. Demand for their products has not picked up significantly, prices remain low, interest rates remain high and aid continues to stagnate.

There is a growing realization that domestic policy deficiencies have been important factors in Africa's slow growth. In general, inadequate attention has been paid to efficiency of resource use. Policies have not provided producers with incentives for efficiency; they have eroded incentives for agriculture; they have encouraged building of inefficient and import-dependent industry; they have made exporting much less profitable than producing for the domestic market, they have allowed public enterprises to grow irrespective of their ability to manage effectively or make good use of the scarce resources entrusted. Public investment programs have been allowed to grow too large and investments have been poorly screened and monitored. Maintenance has been neglected and there has been a reluctance to stimulate traditional community activities (small farming, informal production and trade) and the private sector. Most important, and a point to which I will return later in the seminar, is inattention to agriculture as a primary sector for growth.

Hope for the Future

What are the prospects? Without a more supportive external environment, including increased concessional assistance, and domestic policy change, Africa's future is bleak. The World Bank's recent World Development Report projected scenarios which showed continued declines in per capita income through 1995. By 1995 the average African would be poorer than he was at the time of independence. Yet this is not the

essential message I want to convey. While Africa is undoubtedly in a crisis, it would be wrong to conclude that today's problems are also tomorrow's prospects. We must not lose perspective. We must remember how recent the development process is to Africa, how young the states, how fragile the institutional structure and how limited.

In some respects, the prospects for much Asia, viewed from the end of the 1950's, were as bleak as those of Africa. In the 1960's, India and its neighbors were forced to import massive amounts of food. There was every reason to believe that population growth would continue to outstrip food production. Yet most of South Asia has achieved food security. Economic growth has at least kept pace with population growth and many cases far exceeded it. Many countries have been able to expand exports and establish strong industrial sectors. A combination of strong policy reform programs and appropriate external support has turned the situation around. It can also in Africa, although the difference between the two situations is large and our expectations as to the time required must be more modest.

The economic performance of Africa has been poor, but not uniformly so. There have been bright spots. Many countries, both middle-income (e.g. Ivory Coast, Cameroon, Botswana) as well as some of the poorest (Rwanda and Malawi) have performed well for some time, achieving real average annual growth rates ranging from about 5% to over 12% between 1970 and 1982. This success has been achieved by a combination of factors,

including implementation of sound investment programs, maintenance of appropriate economic incentives and timely corrective action when economies are subjected to external shocks.

The promising performance of countries such as these serves to illustrate that in spite of daunting external and domestic constraints, marked progress can be achieved when sound domestic policies are supported by a timely supply of coordinated external assistance.

The question in Africa is how this pragmatic approach to development - the flexible management of the economy, the realistic alignment of objectives with available resources can become the hallmark of more governments. There is some reason to be optimistic about this; country after country is trying to implement programs of adjustment and recovery. A consensus on the nature of the problems and the essence of solutions is emerging. We in the World Bank are grateful to find that our analysis and call for action toward sustained growth in Sub-Saharan Africa finds itself in an emerging mainstream of African thinking.

AGRICULTURE AND POPULATION: THE ROOTS OF STARVATION

DAVID G. GREENE

The malaise affecting African development is predominantly a symptom of the poor agricultural performance of the sector since the mid-1970's. Agriculture is at the heart of African economies. Most of the population earns its livelihood from agriculture. Exports are predominantly agricultural and the well-being of other sectors - transport, processing and trade - depend on agricultural production. Thus agricultural output is the single most important determinant of economic growth. Yet the growth rate of agricultural production began to decline in the 1970's and has been less than the rate of population growth almost everywhere. Food production per capita was at best stagnant in the 1960's and has fallen through the 1970's and 1980's. Commercial imports of foodgrains have grown more than three times as fast as population, and food aid has increased substantially. Food imports, including annual food aid now exceed US\$5 billion per year. Commercial imports increased by close to 9% annually over the 20-year period since independence, with an alarming acceleration in the late 1970's and early 1980's. The rise is not attributable to a small number of countries; countries for which the rate of growth of cereals imports remained below that of population over the last decade are the exception.

Of course the slow growth of agricultural production is only half the reason for the surge of food imports. The other half (and in many respects more than half) of the problem is rapid population growth. First let me say a few words about Africa's population problems and then

something about the causes of slow agricultural growth.

Sub-Saharan Africa has the fastest population growth and highest fertility in the world. Population growth has been accelerating over the past 20 years, from 2.5% in the 1960's, to 2.7% in the 1970's and 2.9% in the early 1980's. In a few East African countries population is growing at 4% or more a year.

Africa is often thought of as an underpopulated region with vast areas of untapped land. It is true that its average population density is low - less than one fifth of Asia's. But considering soil and climatic conditions and levels of farm technology, some countries are already becoming crowded, at least in the sense of limited food production potential. Of forty Sub-Saharan countries (excluding smaller island countries), fourteen do not have enough land, at current levels of technology, to support on a sustainable basis populations as large as they already had in 1975 (and this includes Ethiopia). These countries account for about one third of the land area of Sub-Saharan Africa and about half the population.

In some areas of these countries, parts of Kenya, Ethiopia and Nigeria, and much of Rwanda and Burundi, more people are now being supported using higher levels of inputs. But these countries will face

increasing difficulties as populations double again in the next 20-30 years.

Nevertheless, there are eleven countries - largely in Central Africa, still processing extensive areas of underused land. Together these countries account for 30% of the region's land, but account for only one-fifth of its population.

As populations increase further in land scarce countries, the pressure to migrate to land abundant countries will mount, particularly where they have a common border. However, the opportunities for accommodating population growth through international migration do have limits; political and social factors introduce uncertainty even where economic benefits for both sending and receiving countries could be great.

Throughout Africa, traditional methods of farming require more land per capita than in regions such as Asia, where irrigation and double-cropping are more common. To avoid a fall in agricultural output per worker, land-scarce countries will require new technologies - fertilizers, improved seed, and different farming techniques - supported by pricing policies to encourage production. But such measures alone might not be enough. According to FAO's calculations, seven sub-Saharan countries - Burundi, Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda and Somalia - would not achieve self-sufficiency in food in the year 2000 (when their

combined population is expected to reach almost 80 million) even if their agricultural techniques were to match those now found on commercial farms in Asia and Latin America.

Expansion of food production has largely come about by expanding land under cultivation. But expansion of the land frontier is constrained by such diseases as river blindness, and sleeping sickness. The latter renders livestock production virtually impossible on 45% of the land of sub-Saharan Africa. Another constraint on agricultural production is lack of water. In many countries of sub-Saharan Africa rainfall is sparse and irregular and there is little experience with irrigation.

Growth of the human population also carries with it the threat, and indeed reality, of serious, possibly permanent ecological damage. In Africa about 90% of the population use fuelwood for cooking, in the equivalent of roughly 1.5 tons of oil per family. Consumption of fuelwood for energy by households is typically ten times the consumption of commercial energy for all purposes. The annual rate of consumption has now reached the point where it is estimated to exceed the annual rate of additions to supply through the growth of trees by 30% in Sahelian countries, 200% in Niger, 75% in Northern Nigeria, 150% in Ethiopia and 70% in Sudan. Furthermore, tree stocks are declining at an accelerating rate. Moreover, while not as dramatic, deforestation is a serious problem in many other semi-arid countries of Africa.

The rapid depletion of these stocks is causing unprecedented and, without remedial action, irreversible changes in the ecology of rural areas, principally in the carrying capacity or fertility of soils. The depletion of the stocks itself causes a break in the nutrient cycles in the affected areas, though this is perhaps less serious than the loss of protection they once provided against erosion of soil by wind and rain. Overgrazing by growing cattle herds, also associated with increasing human populations is another source of erosion. In addition, spread of traditional agricultural cultivation to marginal areas caused by increasing pressure of population on land is accelerating the process of environmental deterioration.

There is growing opinion in the Bank that desertification is caused primarily by human abuse of environmental resources and that this is associated with growth of population. Desertification is not a problem limited to the desert fringe of the Sudanian and Sahelian zone, but is more a threat to the main farming areas of the heartland. Thus, in an important respect the growth of human population may be leading to a reduction in the capacity of the land to feed it.

It is sometimes assumed that poor natural resources are the principal cause of Africa's agricultural problems and the slow growth of food production. While this is certainly an important factor, particularly in the Sahel, which is so much in the news, it is not, we believe the only,

or even the basic cause. The Sahel represents only 20% of Africa's land area and less than 8% of its people. The Sahel is not the image of Africa for anyone who knows the continent. More realistically, the cause of low agricultural productivity is inattention to the sector as the engine of growth for African economies. It is now widely agreed that insufficient price incentives to farmers are an important problem. Export crop production has been heavily taxed and prices of foodcrops have been systematically set below market levels - to ensure "affordable" prices for consumers. Marketing and input supply has become uncertain and expensive because too large a set of responsibilities has been given to public sector institutions and too few to individual traders, private companies and farmer cooperatives. Research has been inadequately focused and has suffered from funding difficulties and effective technical packages are scarce. Research on new seed varieties as well as on water conservation and afforestation has been inadequate. However, it is worth emphasizing that resources devoted to agricultural research in Africa have been relatively large in comparison with those in Asia and Latin America. It is the efficiency of research efforts and the pace of dissemination that have been the main problems. Extension services are short of operating funds and are understaffed. The impact of irrigation on total agricultural production has remained modest. Schemes have tended to be high cost and insufficient attention has been given to maintenance of existing schemes and small scale projects.

In the face of these massive problems, what is to be done? Action is called for on three fronts: first, reducing the rate of population growth; second, taking action to prevent further ecological damage; and third, improving the policy environment for agriculture.

The first is perhaps the most difficult. In Africa there are deep seated socio-cultural factors placing high value on large family size and high fertility. The recent World Bank Development Report has emphasized that lower fertility rates follow as women become more educated, as more children survive childhood, or children become less valuable as workers and sources of security and as information about the possibility of birth control spreads. Education (particularly for girls) is important as is primary health care for mothers and children. There is a need to act now to reduce mortality and improve women's opportunities so that a sustained decline in fertility can be realized. No African country is doing all it might to promote later marriage or to provide financial incentives to encourage lower fertility. A public policy to provide family planning information and services is also badly needed.

In the area of prevention of ecological damage, programs are required which are based on popular participation. Research should be focused on drought-resistant, high-yielding millet and sorghum and fast-growing drought-resistant trees. Programs and training should be focused on actions adopted to local conditions. Demand must be reduced by

reducing population growth. Demand for wood must be reduced by introducing permit fees and improving the efficiency of fuelwood use and charcoal manufacture. Investments must be made in forestry and agro-forestry.

Unlike traditional farmers, who are aware of the effects of production-related measures on all aspects of their environment, project interventions have often not been mindful of the agro-silvo-pastoral interrelationships and therefore met with poor response. There is the need for full participation of the population directly concerned in designing conservation measures and deciding on management systems requiring some degree of enforcement of discipline among community members. Finally, it is desirable to rely to the largest extent possible on soil, pasture and forestry management practices already applied in traditional production systems.

In the area of the policy environment, special attention should be given to providing adequate incentives for increasing food production. The policy of attempting to control prices and supplies of foodstuffs has, by and large, succeeded in securing only a limited supply of low-priced (and often low-quality) foodstuffs for a relatively small group of urban consumers. It has increased farmers', and traders', risks in producing and marketing food surpluses. It has failed to stabilize and indeed has actually destabilized supplies over the course of the year. Further, through its effects on farmers' supply response, it has probably resulted

in a higher overall level of food prices than would have pertained without government attempts to control supplies.

More flexibility should be allowed in agricultural marketing and in the supply of agricultural inputs. In a large number of African countries, food markets continue to operate effectively and impressively. The role of the private sector in input procurement and distribution should also be enlarged. The private sector should contribute to the distribution of inputs down to the farm level, and to their importation and wholesale distribution.

In the area of agricultural research, because the development of research institutions will take time, given the general scarcity of skilled manpower, a systematic build-up should begin now. Attention must be paid to strengthening and reorientating national research systems and establishing closer supportive linkages with appropriate regional and international programs. It is also crucial that the extent to which present research programs are directed toward high priority regional and national production requirements be evaluated. African governments should review and rationalize the existing extension services. Among other things this should include testing the relevance and sharpening the focus of existing extension messages, making broader use of demonstration plots, giving more weight to pest and disease control, training staff more systematically, developing feedback from farmers to researchers, and

experimenting with alternate information delivery systems, for example, through the media, input suppliers, and unpaid rural community leaders.

In the area of irrigation, priority should be given to rehabilitation of existing perimeters and to irrigation management and maintenance training. Improvements should be made in cost recovery once irrigation services have been improved. Small-scale irrigation, which has proven more successful, should be promoted, keeping in mind the need to mobilize as much as possible direct farmer participation in decision-making operation, and maintenance.

Finally, let me conclude by saying that the World Bank remains committed to agriculturally based development strategies in Africa. Within this framework, the Bank is committed to a smallholder based strategy, since smallholder farming will, given appropriate technical packages, make more use of domestic resources, land and labor, and promotion of a more equitable distribution of income and will result in more significant reductions in rural poverty.

3. Summary of Discussions

(After de Lattre's presentation)

TODA:

Your presentation has addressed three major questions: What are the problems? What are the basic causes of these problems? What should be done to meet these problems?

(After Greene's presentation)

TODA:

It seems to me that there is great convergence between two speakers on the identification of the problems, particularly on the causes of the problems. Dr. Greene mentioned three factors which have caused the problems of poverty; 1) constraint at the time of colonization, 2) external economic and financial involvement, and 3) domestic policy deficiencies. This last factor has also been singled out as the most important factor by Madam de Lattre. They are not short-term but long-term problems to be solved.

NASU:

I understand there is a desertification problem in North Africa such as Algeria and Tunisia which are working on reforestation. Recently, Niger also announced its interest in reforestation. I would like to know how effective this project is to prevent desertification, for it is very costly, and can be a big burden to a country.

DE LATTRE:

I can only speak reforestation activities in eight countries of Sub-Saharan Africa where my experience lies. They started in 1975 through 1976, and although the programs increased from \$3 million to \$40 million in 1983, it amounts only 1.5% of the total official development assistance. Moreover, lack of experience in reforestation in an arid area has put a restraint on the financial volume of these programs.

1. One of the programs is a large plantation program around cities which is

not so successful. Because; 1) the species selected were less productive than the ones which had been used in Sahel, 2) it cost tremendously, which varied between \$5,000 and \$10,000 per hectare, and 3) we made a wrong decision in locating these plantations whereas we could have had enough rainfall.

2. Village plantation programs are not successful with a few exceptions.

Since; 1) popular participation did not arise among the people, which we think stems from a land tenure pattern, -- in Sahel nobody knows who owns the land, b) villagers did not water the trees, and c) there is a competition between agricultural and forest land in Sahel and the farmers tend to plant trees on the poorest land.

3. The third type of project is to protect natural forests. To prevent people from cutting wood for sale in the cities, you would need the forestry and the police services on the roads to control these acts, but these do not exist.

Recently we have launched a new strategy in cooperation with the World Bank to fight against desertification in Sahel. We are trying to map out and study some conditions under which projects are most likely to succeed. In doing this, we considered the following items:

- 1) To seek the area where trees have a better chance to grow. In this respect, the southern area of Sudan has a little hope;
- 2) To change the over-all government policies, that is, a land tenure and popular participation;
- 3) To further researches on the species.

GREENE:

The World Bank would support this important forestry project in any African countries where natural forests are greatly diminishing. But forestry and planting is not a panacea to the desertification problems. They involves such as the participation of local citizens and training them to take care of their own land, and changing the governmental policies, especially land tenure patterns. But the general association of desertification with cutting trees is something oversimplified. Problems are much more complicated.

TODA:

Madam de Lattre summarized four important solutions for the problems of

reforestation: 1) Selection of the areas; 2) Improving land tenure system; 3) Population participation of people; and 4) furtherance of research works to find new species. Then Dr. Greene mentioned the linkage between forestry and desertification which does not exactly correspond each other.

ISHI:

As a newspaper writer I feel some responsibility for the fact that the articles on our paper about the African famine brought up nearly one billion yen contribution from the people throughout Japan. Your presentations helped us understand well about the ecological and economic situation. But I would like to know the political situation. For instance, nearly 40% of its national budget goes to military purpose in Ethiopia whereas the political turmoil covers all over Ethiopia, and maybe the same with Chad. Our people are worried with where the donations or blankets went.

DE LATTRE:

Do you want to know whether all the donations have reached or not?

ISHI:

We sometimes are ignorant of the political background. I would like to know whether our goodwill might be fulfilled in Africa or not. And at the same time, we have to watch what African countries try to do in reestablishing the ecological evolution and in making self-sufficient efforts.

DE LATTRE:

I entirely agree with you. Most African countries can do a great deal more to help themselves, but some countries have found themselves in a situation of outright war - such as Ethiopia, Somalia and Chad. It varies case by case. Both war and drought have created traumatic situations for people who have been dying because of hunger, malnutrition, drought, both natural and political turmoils. In Niger, its government is doing its utmost to reach the people wherever situation needs. Food, blankets, pharmaceutical products or whatever coming in are going to the people who are in a disastrous situation. The situations seem pretty much under control for both the bilateral donors, World Food Programs and the United Nations. Ethiopia, however, seems much more complicated because of the political situation. But that should not prevent us from being helpful.

ISHI:

In Ethiopia, starvation is caused not only by the natural disaster but also by the political turmoil.

DE LATTRE:

I really don't know since I haven't been to Ethiopia but it is probably true.

GREENE:

I would say that the situation in Ethiopia is a combination of natural and man-made disasters and this is something that people have been seeing coming for many years and should not have been a surprise when it arrived. The rate of population increase in Ethiopia is very high and policies have not been conducive to a rapid agricultural growth. Similar is to the Sahelian region in general.

There is a concern about the military expenditure in Ethiopia and Chad, but on the whole, African countries devote very small proportion of their GNP to the military expenditure. It is very rare to exceed 3 to 5% of GNP.

On a more general basis there is a tendency that the donor community links the assistance to policy reform. For example, the special fund for Africa which has been recently established by industrialized countries to support Africa, has been specifically designated to help the nations that are engaged actively in the programs of economic reform. The World Bank and the donors are watching the policy environment and intending to direct the aid to those countries who are engaged in policy reform because that is where communities are mostly good.

YOSHIDA:

There are some arguments going on that the export crops are promoted so much while the food crops are neglected in Africa, for example, ground nuts in Senegal. In the meantime, some say there are still enough land and labour surplus so that both the export crops and food crops can be promoted without disturbing each other. I would like to ask you on this matter.

GREENE:

This is another complicated question. The answer varies country to country. The competition between the export crops and food crops is not an essential cause for the problems of domestic production of food crops. This issue

involves two factors:

1. The problem is that insufficient attention has been devoted to production of food for the domestic market partly due to the pricing policies which are in favor of urban consumers at the expense of farmers. In most countries there is no need of competition between the export crops and food crops. Farmers produce both crops and use the money obtained from export crops to increase food crops as well as to make general investments in the agricultural holding.
2. In my point of view, there is another over-simplification of the issue. African countries have to meet their balance of payments and requirements in some way. There is no essential reason why a country has to be totally self-sufficient in food stuff. If you have, for example, a comparative advantage in the production of export crops, you can export and purchase additional supply of food crops with the foreign exchange earnings. Food security can be achieved not only by being self-sufficient in domestic production but also by having a storage, by having a purchase contract sufficient to ensure that the food is available.

TODA:

Dr. Greene presented another important phase, i.e. the issue of food security and self-sufficiency.

(Session I ends)

IV SESSION II --THEMES FOR DEVELOPMENT-- A

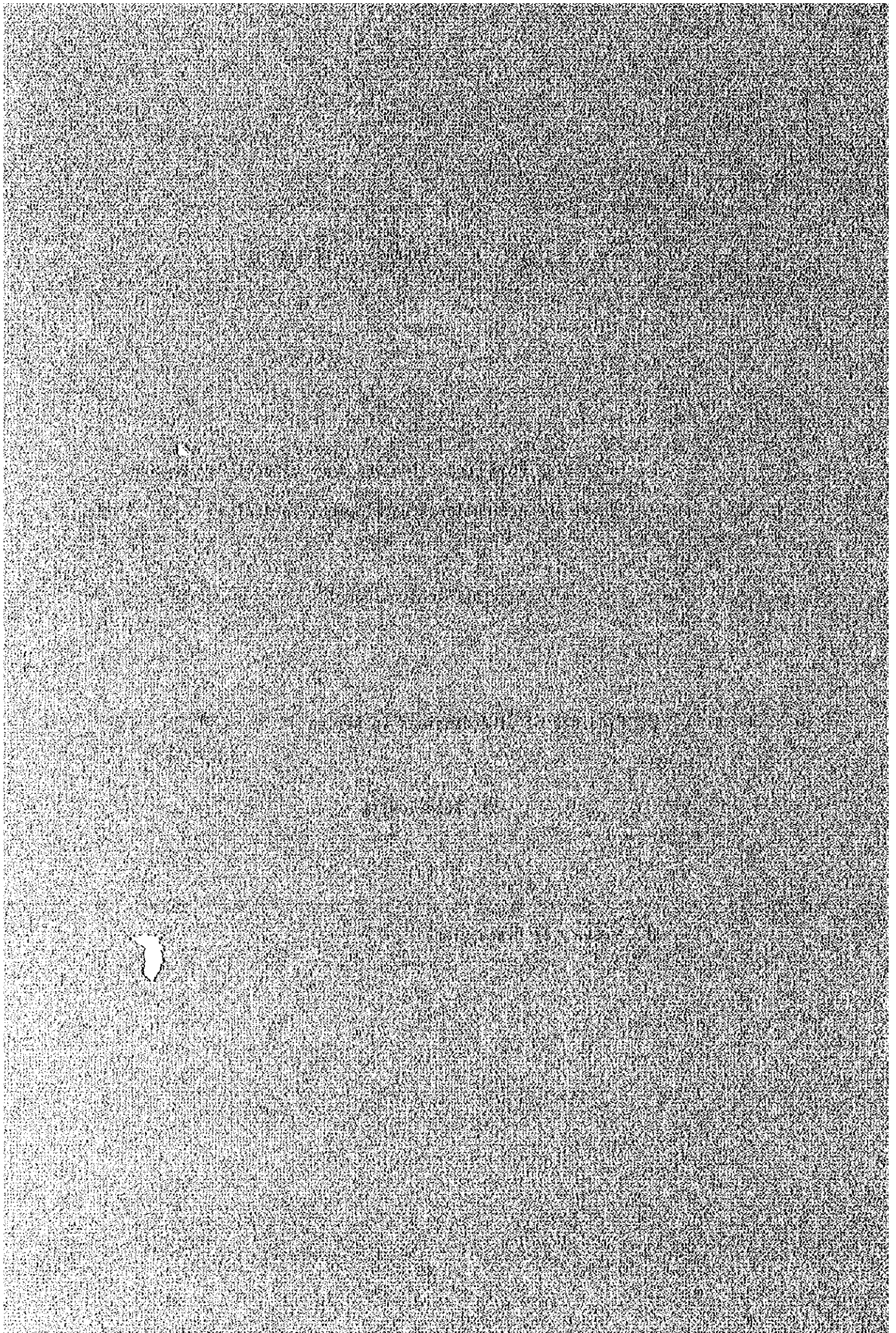
1. Increasing Food Production and Agricultural Development
"Rural and Agricultural Development in Africa"

Prof. Ichiro Inukai

2. Findings of JICA Missions in Africa

Mr. Kozo Tomita

3. Summary of Discussions



RURAL AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA :

TWELVE POINTS FOR DISCUSSION

Ichiro Inukai

Professor of Economics

**Graduate School of International Relations
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Nearly two decades ago, René Dumon published L'Afrique Noire est Mal Partie. The anxiety he expressed for the future of Africa in his book has sadly become the reality in most of the countries of sub-Saharan Africa. The region which was once self-sufficient in food production at the time of independence has turned into a land of famine and refugees. The poorest developing region of the world is now facing the worst food crisis in its history: millions of the impoverished masses are starving to death and an even larger number of people, particularly children, are suffering from life-threatening malnutrition. Mounting international relief operations can save some of them, but these do not solve the problem. Solutions must be found in the reconstruction and development of the rural and agricultural sectors in the sub-Saharan African countries. Otherwise, the region may continue to survive at the mercy of international charity.

The scale of the tragedy is so vast that no country can cope with it alone. International cooperation is vital to arrest the worsening trends in the agricultural sectors and in the impoverished rural sector in the region. Meaningful and constructive international cooperation can be possible only when donors on the one hand understand the factors contributing to the current crisis of recipient countries and when both donors and recipients cooperate for their common objectives of the reconstruction and development of the rural and agricultural sectors. This short note aims to clarify the basic factors of the current food crisis in Africa with a view to facilitating our discussion concerning the issue.

The Socio-Economic Nature of the Food Crisis

Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced two devastating droughts in the last two decades. Before the drought of the early 1970s, however, the region had been struck by repeated droughts in its history. Nevertheless, famine to the extent that we see now had never occurred there before. Although climatic conditions should never be overlooked, it would also be wrong to blame the climate alone. In the hard core of the current food crisis in the region, we cannot fail to observe the cumulative results of false starts in many African nations. In fact, the consequences of "revolutions" in Africa appear to be the reverse of those experienced in developed countries. That is to say, medical revolutions took place prior to agricultural and industrial revolutions in Africa. This observation has to be kept in mind when we discuss the past two decades of African development.

The population explosion in Africa has been accelerated. The growth rate of population was 2.1 % in the early 1950s, but it rose to 2.7 % per annum in the 1970s, and will still rise to 3 % per annum in the rest of the century. Urbanization in Africa is still low; it is 18 % in low income countries and 28 % in middle income countries. But, the growth rate of the urban population is extremely high, and accelerating also; from 5.3 % per annum in the 1960s to 5.9 % per annum in the 1970s. These population dynamics lead us to consider two sources of impact on the rural and agricultural sectors in Africa. First, the abundant land in Africa has been rapidly dissipating in the rural areas. Second, the abundant labour force in rural areas is also quickly disappearing in the agricultural sector.

The vast expanses of land in African countries tend to make us believe that the man-land ratio is quite favourable. However, the area of land suitable for settled farming is not necessarily large, and most land with a high potential for agricultural production has already been overpopulated due to the population explosion in the rural areas. An increasingly large number of the rural population, therefore, have been seeking land in other areas where soil conditions and rainfall are barely suited for cultivation. In the semi-arid dry areas, the people who have migrated to the marginal lands are prone to the risk of poor harvests, and are suffering from impoverishment. In the wet tropical forest areas, people move to virgin forests, reducing the size of water catchment areas and causing land erosion. Once the top soil of tropical forests is removed, the land will remain increasingly unproductive. Therefore, we have to take into account the impact of rural migration on the rural and agricultural development of sub-Saharan Africa.

It is widely believed that no labour shortage exists in rural Africa. Even a casual observer, however, will find that in village after village aged people and children with their mothers are the main inhabitants. At the time of critical operations in farming, for example, at planting and/or harvesting time, labour shortage is a common problem in many African countries. The reality of African agriculture is a labour shortage, not an abundant labour supply. It should be mentioned here the traditional division of labour in farming between males and females in Africa can be maintained only when a balance between the two sexes is retained. Farming constitutes a series of operations.

If any part of the operations is not available, for example male labour for preparing land for cultivation, the rest of the series of farming operations will be seriously constrained.

The third point concerning African agriculture is a widespread belief about traditional technology. African peasants still rely exclusively on hand tools, and in limited areas they employ animal power. Irrigation seems to be lacking and dependency on natural rainfall is overwhelmingly predominant. Yet, there is much wisdom acquired from tradition. Shallow ploughing with hand hoes protects the fragile top soil in semi-arid areas. Mixed cropping on a plot prevents the total failure of harvests. Drought resistance is different among different crops. If rainfall is inadequate for maize, sorghum or millet can still survive. It is crucial for African farming to make distinctions between positive and negative aspects of traditional technology, and to try to improve the former and reduce the latter. One of the false starts in the development of the agricultural sector in Africa seems to be an attitude which regards traditional technology as primitive, thus resulting in its complete abandonment.

The fourth is concerned with the choice of technology. Even though the African agricultural sector is primarily based upon peasant small-scale farming, many governments in the region have encouraged mechanization as a means of agricultural development. The disastrous failure of the East African Groundnut Scheme in the 1950s and miserable performance of many state farms in the 1960s and 1970s did not serve as warning signals concerning the choice of technology. The application of chemical fertilizers has been encouraged, but little effort has been made to improve the use of green manure. Agricultural technology consists of biological (B), chemical (C), and mechanical (M) technologies. A proper

combination of BCM technologies is crucial for making peasant farming more productive.

The fifth is directly related to the current famine. Between 1960 and 1980, the aggregate production of agriculture grew by 1.8 % per annum, which is far below the growth rate of population in the region. Thus, the index of food production per capita dropped to a considerable extent; from 100 in the early 1960s to 80 by the end of the 1970s, and this trend will continue in the near future. Nevertheless, this does not mean that everybody will suffer from a shortage of food. The victims are the poor; the rich can still afford plenty of food. The widening gap between the rates of growth of food production and population is surely serious indeed. Yet, the widening gap of access to food between the impoverished masses and the privileged few must be considered more serious.

The sixth is concerned with food aid. Humanitarian food aid for the famine refugees is urgently needed, and should be strengthened by all efforts. Yet, the balance sheet of food aid to African countries tends to demonstrate a mixed blessing. First, it has caused a change in preference for staple foods. The rapid rise in imports of rice and wheat, for example, is related to the provision of these as part of food aid. The more rice was available in the form of food aid, the more people switched to rice from their traditional staple foods. Second, the availability of relatively cheap foods in the form of aid, one can argue, has tended to induce the recipient countries to move away from endeavoring seriously to improve agricultural development and food production in particular.

The seventh is related to the concept of subsistence farming:

African peasants are engaged in subsistence farming and produce little surplus for markets. This behaviour is no longer true in reality. Even in a remote village, the monetary economy has already penetrated and there are many demands for cash among peasant families. Apart from tax payments, demonstration effects of manufactured commodities have been widespread in Africa. Education and medical services might be provided free. Yet what is free is simply the tuition fees. Children have to wear school uniforms and they have to buy pencils and books. The utility of money has thus made African peasants highly responsive to prices of their products. It is the failure of price policies by African governments which has driven African peasants back to traditional subsistence farming. As human beings, they are quite rational in the sense that they would not work harder to produce a surplus when they knew well that additional inputs of labour would not pay them.

The eighth is related to the marketing channels for agricultural produce. Many African states use state marketing boards as the main marketing institutions, and discourage private channels. However, mismanagement and inefficiency in the operation of those marketing boards are quite apparent. If a peasant delivers his produce and has to be paid half a year later by the marketing board when he knows that private traders will exchange the produce for cash on the spot, his choice is the latter. The smuggling of cocoa from Ghana to the Ivory Coast could serve as a typical example of this case. African women are born traders and their activities as market mamie should be considered as evidence of the effectiveness of the private marketing mechanism.

There is a ninth point about gap between the volume of production and consumption, particularly in staple foods. If all of the crops produced could be retained for consumption, the available volume of staple food would be much higher. Quite a considerable part of harvested produce is lost in storage due to poor storage facilities for crops. Improving storage facilities alone could enhance the quantity of food for consumption by at least 10 %. Little research has been done on this matter. We conceive, however, that research and development of improved storage facilities with locally available construction materials would generate a high return on its expenditure. Considerable investment has been made for urban housing and office building. Now it should be the time for investing in the construction of improved storage facilities in rural areas.

The tenth concerns irrigation. Investment in irrigation in African countries is generally producing poor returns. The large irrigation schemes in Africa were designed to bypass the lengthy process of improving small-scale farms within the existing village structure. The major ingredients of this irrigation investment were infusion of capital intensive technologies such as large irrigation pumps, tractor mechanization and central management. However, most of those irrigation schemes are in serious trouble. In Kenya, for example, a large scale irrigation scheme fell into repeated crop failures, high running costs, and poor management. We can cite similar failures in large scale irrigation schemes in Senegal and in Ghana. The priority in investment in irrigation thus has to be changed to improvements in small-scale irrigation in Africa. Even though irrigation technology is not widely used in the traditional farming system in Africa, there is considerable evidence that traditional irrigation was successfully employed in certain parts of Africa. We should draw some lessons from these experiences.

The eleventh arises from the investment in human resources in African countries. Most African countries spend nearly a quarter of current central government expenditure on education alone. Nevertheless, diffusion of education into rural areas and accelerated schooling there have resulted in a disequilibrium between expectation and reality for rural youth. Most of them do not find farm work attractive nor is it able to meet their expectations, so they migrate to the towns in search of jobs. The rural-urban migration of the labour force has created serious problems of labour shortage for traditional food production farming in Africa. This problem is apparently being perpetuated in all African countries. The re-orientation of education in rural areas is an essential element which African countries must achieve. Most primary school leavers in rural areas are ill-taught and in danger of becoming illiterate once more since there are no books to read at home. Yet they have to be the core of the labour force in agriculture.

The problems of human capital investment are not confined to primary and secondary education. Africa lacks competent agricultural scientists who can devote themselves to research and development of the agricultural sector in their own country. Although it is crucial for Africa to expand the intake of students to the departments of agricultural science, including livestock, at the university level, the reality remains to be improved. It appears that the potential candidates for university education tend to choose agricultural science as the last resort. Therefore, departments of agriculture can attract only the least motivated students for their studies.

The twelfth in African development is the gap between slogan and practice with regard to the strategies and policies of African governments. The above mentioned points are problems well understood by the leaders of African states. However, their inertia in coping with these problems is so conspicuous that outsiders like us cannot help but wonder if there is any political will to deal honestly with these problems. All development plans contain a lengthy part concerning rural and agricultural development in the respective countries. Yet, their actual performance is so poor and the agricultural sector has been deteriorating after a plan-by-plan implementation. External assistance to carry out these plans may be insufficient or inadequate; donors tend to choose shortsighted projects which can demonstrate quick achievements; they bargain with recipients to contribute a smaller amount of resource transfer, and give tied aid to African governments. Nonetheless, we wonder whether or not African governments and their leaders are committed to the development of the rural and agricultural sectors in their respective nations. They can afford to spend 2 - 3 % of their GDP/GNP on defence. Is there any country in Africa which is willing to spend the same amount of resources on the rural and agricultural development of their own country? The cry of colonial heritage appears to be a joke now. After twenty years of independence, the living standard of the masses has consistently declined while an elite class has all the privileges.

Conclusion

The twelve points we have discussed above lead us to conclude that the African peasants have been demoralized and deprived not because of the adverse weather but because of the neglect and discouragement by their own governments which are supposed to be their partners in the socio-economic development of the rural and agricultural sectors. It is time to learn earnestly from the failures so that the same mistakes and false starts should not be repeated again in the future.

For the reconstruction and development of the rural and agricultural sectors, the concept of social capability for development seems to be very useful. As shown in a growth accounting model, $GY = aGL + bGK + GR$, residual growth is the one which the African countries can develop by themselves. In attempting to create residual growth, appropriate institutions and technologies have simultaneously to be introduced and these must be properly managed by human resources.

Donors and recipients at the same time should be aware of the fact that agriculture is in its essence location specific. Diversity is the basic characteristic of sub-Saharan Africa, even within countries in the region. No general standardized solution may be applicable and could even be harmful in some cases. In this sense, the designing and implementation of development cooperation in the rural and agricultural sectors do require careful in-depth studies. This is particularly important for Japan since her experience in development cooperation in Africa is extremely limited. And, last but not least important, Japan should commit herself to a long term, say 10 to 20 years, of development projects since it is the essential characteristic of agriculture that substantial changes and improvements require lengthy periods of time.

- (2) Low Returns (in short run) from Capital Investments in Infrastructures
e.g. trunk roads and main communication networks

2. Some Fundamental Issues

- (1) The Development of the Mionbo Forest taking into account such problems as ;
- the hazzards from Tze tze flies
 - spotty rainfalls

(2) How to Deal with the Existence of Pastral Tribes

- the existence of traditional culture and values
- the difficult natural environment, especially due to recent droughts

(3) The Maintenance of Traditional Shelters

- e.g. little change on housing in contrast to improvements on clothing, etc.

Findings of JICA Missions in Africa

Kozo Tomita

I. JICA's Assistance Strategies

(1) Priority on Food Crops Production

population / food production race

(2) Cooperative Efforts at the Subsistent Production Level

i.e. functional relationships of village / sub center / center

the provision of other technical and social services

(e.g. health services, veterinary services, etc.)

II. Some Issues and Constraints

1. Main Barriers against Development in Africa

(1) Poor Administrative Capacity

e.g. a lack of qualified administrators and professional cadres

FINDINGS OF JICA MISSIONS IN AFRICA

KOZO TOMITA

We have sent a mission to Africa for the purpose of agricultural and rural development. We did that for the following factors.

1. Average population growth in Sub-Saharan Africa has been 2.9% between 1975 and 1980, whereas average growth rate of agricultural production was 0.9% for the area for the same period.
2. About 80% of the total population are engaged in one form or another in agriculture.
3. The part of the population below the age of 14 and above 65 amounts to about 48% of the total population in the area. This means that non-productive population occupies the large proportion of the total population, especially among the young and that the people in Africa would have to spend a lot of money for education of their younger population. For these reasons, we think it is important to place emphasis on rural development.

In choosing the areas to be surveyed, we took the following factors into account:

1. The area should have the average annual rainfall of over 500 millimeters but below 1,000 millimeters. Areas with annual rainfall below 500 millimeters usually are the areas for livestock feeding and the areas with over 1,000 millimeters of rainfall can be managed with existing technology.
2. Small-scale irrigation should not disturb the down-stream area of the river.
3. Also it was necessary to choose areas where some cooperation with the people in community should be possible, without reference to the country-level or state-level administrative organs.

We are trying to give guidance to pioneer villages by providing agricultural calendars and other agricultural techniques. We had to choose about 5 to 6 villages with 30 to 50 households within each of those places, which would be sub-centers where repair-shops for automobiles and farm machinery as well as veterinarians, dietitians, and nurses as well as accounting advisors should be located. So that we could move from the project-oriented toward the program-

oriented cooperation. In order to integrate 4 or 5 sub-centers, we should also have center proper to have a distribution center covering a wider area. And some states have been designated as zonal areas in the area so that the zonal area at the center would integrate 4 or 5 sub-centers. This, therefore, is a new form of programming cooperation that we have in our minds about which I solicit your views and opinions.

I joined this JICA mission and I have come out of this mission with the following impressions.

1. In the temperate zone, we have taken a nation-state as a locomotive for development. The nation was supported by the bureaucracy which in turn was supported by education. In tropical African countries, the concept of nation-state should be for the same reason important around which development efforts should be carried out. However, the problem is that there is not sufficient development of administrative organs or bureaucracies.
2. There is another factor which is that many of the infrastructure facilities was not used very efficiently. In Japan, the first toll road was planned to charge fees for 8 years, but within 5 years they were able to make the use of the road free of charge. In eastern Africa, you drive on a beautiful highway without seeing many cars coming into your direction. When you have to reap the returns on your investment, nobody would invest. There is no credit forthcoming in the private capital market. That is one of the issues that came upon my mind while I was surveying in Africa.
3. The area with less than 500 millimeters of rainfall is usually used by pastoral people, and these arid areas are destined with a great instability in climatic conditions. In northern Kenya, Ethiopia, Uganda or Sudan, Turkana tribes have experienced such a thing. In 1980, because of a severe drought, those people who owned less than 150 cattle all perished. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs provided assistances of powder milk in 1980. I believe that this was the first attempt on the Ministry to provide assistance to the regions in Africa. Usually water is given to the cattle once a day. However, in Turkana, this frequency was lowered to once a week, yet the milking was continued, for milk was the main staple food of the people. When cows could no longer be milked, they are slaughtered so that people can eat the meat. In other words, cows or cattle to them are actually a means of production as well as the

livelihood itself. And those people who could no longer own food had to become beggars in turn, and to become refugees. It is quite surprising that there is no cattle market which is an effective means of distribution of cattle or cows. Governments of Kenya, Sudan, Uganda, and Ethiopia are not interested in nomad at all. The only method for them to gain new herd of cattle or cows is to exercise traditional youth sport that is to steal cattle from someone else. I would like to ask your opinion on how to prepare the grounds for the future of nomads in Africa.

4. One quarter of vegetation in Africa is called Miombo Forest. 80% of vegetation in southern Africa is occupied by Miombo forest which is usually called an "open forest" or "wood land." Reasons why this open forest was retained are as follows:

- 1) Existence of famous tse-tse fly.
- 2) A thundershower or a thunderstorm during the rainy season.

In the southern Africa, Zambia is a country where Miombo forest is situated in the middle. However, in Zambia, there is no pastoral tribes. If you go to the forest region, rainfall takes a form of thunderstorm during the rainy season. It actually means a rainfall of 120 - 130 millimeters per hour during the rainy season. There is no prediction as to where water runs so that selection of land for cultivation becomes extremely limited. And in these forest region, there are grass species or rice family and the surface of the earth is covered by humid soils, because it was in the middle of the forest. And in open forests there live farming tribes of Bantu family who are agriculturists, and antelopes which these people hunt. It is extremely important for them to protect these forests, because hunting is a hobby as well as a proof of livelihood. And fruits of Miombo is very nutritious with 480 calories compared to 430 calories of soy beans. However, these fruits of Miombo are not used and they go stale. What do we need to do in order to have agricultural development of Miombo forest without destroying ecological balance of that area?

5. Last December I visited Tanzania after 15 years. In villages of Tanzania, there was a plan called "Ujamma" which is a government project to develop cooperative-like organizations. I understand that most cases ended in failure, but I was surprised to see that "Ujamma" was not totally unsuccessful. Farmers didn't want to rely on the government and villages. They thought the village affairs should be left to the hands of those who live in the village, and they have developed a sense of community. I could see such facilities as primary

schools and dispensaries or airstrips constructed in this village and many villages had a weekly call of flying doctors. Those people are dressed like people in the West, yet the housing did not change at all. It remained exactly the same since 15 years ago. And I was just wondering why this was the case. Why is it that people did not want to change the housing patterns or housing conditions?

6. There are many questions that need to be asked. First of all, you have to think about the value systems of the African people - both the mental as well as the cultural background of the people. To illustrate my idea more clearly, let us now think back on India for example. When the Islums(whose culture is based on that of a nomad) invaded India, the Hindustans protected their identities(selves) by maintaining their vegetarian diet. In other words, by not eating meat, the vegetarian diet rejected the meat diet, and this is no other than the self-preservation mechanism to protect and maintain the traditions, the mechanism which does not allow for the changes to occur and sticks to its own culture. So I am extremely interested in why certain elements in a given society do not change. Because it seems that there is a system in a given country which seems to act as a wall or barrier for foreign or external stimuli or external civilization. I think it is very important that we work hand in hand with those people. Therefore we need a lot of time, financial resources, as well as active cooperation of Africans.

3. Summary of Discussions

(After Inukai's presentation)

TODA:

Prof. Inukai is in the same line with the previous speakers. The governmental policy on the agricultural sectors is one of the basic causes of the problems in Africa and we have to give long-term supports as well as a short-term aid. He also mentioned the importance of storage and the choice of technology.

(After Tomita's presentation)

TODA:

Mr. Tomita added new dimensions. The fundamental issue of the development for Miombo Forest, that is, how to deal with the pastoral tribes and to find out the basic values and cultures of local people before we go into any mass scale assistance. He also pointed out the conceptual problem of short-term returns on capital investment in the infrastructure and the problem of poor administrative capacity.

HOSOMI:

Mr. Tomita emphasized the importance of understanding the values and viewpoints of the African people when we assist them in the development projects. Will you supplement the issue more specifically?

TOMITA:

We cannot talk about the African countries as a whole since there are a variety of races, tribes, languages, geographies and climates etc. Then let me take examples of East and West Africa.

In East Africa, people act with their own motivation without being forced by official guidance. Thus you would need something else other than monetary incentives when you manage the people. On the other hand, the people in West Africa appreciate money more than the people in the East. They need official guidance to act. They have some type of traditional syndicate of financial mechanism among them as means of mutual support. In other words, when we have different cultural and historical backgrounds, our conception or value system

is different as well. For example, for us a stork is supposed to bring us a baby, but in Africa a stork means an infertile woman. I think if you are confident in yourself as a human or as a Japanese, it will be a good start to understand or to face other cultures, i.e. African value system.

KJELLBERG:

I would like to mention two points. One of them is related to the value system as we have just discussed.

We can have many ideas about alternative energy sources to cook food. But you would agree that firewood is a very important source for cooking in Africa where firewood is scarce and thus more expensive than food itself in certain places. Moreover, there are, for example, what we call the male and female trees. If development planners ignore this fact and plant male trees, women won't touch them. Or if any development program plans a bio-gas generator using human waste, it is a mere waste of time and labor, since nobody in Africa will touch it. The third example is an extended family system -- an element of African society we admire -- which also has negative implications. If you come from such a family and get a job in the formalized sector, your income has to be distributed to the family members with no extra money to be put aside. This doesn't mean that they don't save, but that they cannot afford to save.

The other point is a highly technical one. During my stay in Europe, I was confronted with this problem or the idea that if only they could stop population increase, everything would go well. There is, however, no population explosion as far as I am concerned. They can not even get agricultural sector moving properly at the desired level of technology. The dependency ratio is on the increase in Africa because of a high birth rate, an extended life expectancy and a very low level of productivity by the productive age group. Nonetheless, you would agree that there is a big potential of agricultural production increase in Africa, provided that appropriate methods were applied.

TODA:

Mr. Kjellberg suggested that we bear in mind the importance of traditional values in Africa and he also expressed his view on the population increase.

INUKAI:

Although I agree with Mr. Kjellberg partly, I am still concerned about the

future situation in Africa should the current population increase rate continue.

DE LATTRE:

I am interested in the importance that Japanese seems to attach to the understanding of the social issues in African countries which bothered me quite a long time. While we study economics, we are becoming sophisticated in understanding the economies and very unsophisticated in understanding the social problems and its effects on progress. We have to find out what are the dynamic factors facilitating or blocking any social change.

The population density depends on education and training of population with Hong Kong as a good example. Djibuti seems to me a potential center for the services both the Middle East and Africa. For the moment in Africa, people are not very skilled, but if they ever become skilled, high rate of population increase might not be so dangerous. Today, however, the potential explosion of population is dangerous.

HOSOMI:

Madam de Lattre said that Africans are not skillful. I learned the fact that the farmers in Savanna of Ghana had survived through centuries of little rainfall, then they must have some skills or capacity developed for years. I would like to ask your view on this.

DE LATTRE:

I don't say they are not skillful. They are skillful like nomad surviving in hostile environment for centuries, but not in the meaning of modern skills which are necessary for them to survive in a rapidly changing society.

Since the balance between population and environment has been destroyed, we have to recreate new balance and find new ways and new skills to cope with the situation. In my view, what happened in Asia has not happened yet in Africa. But it does not mean that it will not or may not happen. Our effort is made to help Africa completely adapt to a new situation.

TODA:

You meant that it has been enough feedback from the physical environmental change to reestablish new balance in Africa.

GREENE:

The survival skill of African farmers in hostile environment is great. For example, their shifting cultivation to allow the land for fallowing and practicing shallow ploughing. If you can show them the proof that they will get an adequate return by adopting new technology with minimum risk, they will do it. Let me show you an example of highland people in Kenya. They adopted the hybrid maize, and it spread faster than in the mid-west of U.S.A. On the other hand they did not use fertilizer because of unpredictable rainfall which washed it out and did not pay off for them.

We need a technology package enabling us to show people how new technology works, but it has not been developed yet. Besides they need adequate extension services, marketing mechanism and pricing policy which encourage the farmers.

TODA:

You mentioned the need for a new technology package which accompanies policy reforms, storage and research works.

KANAMORI:

I understand that food aid have been discouraging the production of the traditional crops in Africa, then why rice consumption is increasing in Africa?

DE LATRE:

In West Africa, consumption of wheat and rice is related to their urbanization where traditional crops cooking is impossible due to the time needed or their becoming stale fast. In Senegal they import 4,000 tons of rice every year and spend a half of its national budget.

There has been a big demand to increase rice production and the irrigation system to be developed, but not enough to fill the need. Contrary to this need, Senegal sells the rice -- imported at the cost of 80 francs per kilogram -- at 100 francs per kilogram in Dakar. The domestic rice production costs 250 francs per kilogram and the farmers are decreasing in number due to urbanization.

GOFO:

At my visit to the coastal area of Somalia, the fishermen told me that they never catch fishes which cost more than buying from others. There is a pricing

policy involved. What action would the World Bank take in such a case?

GREENE: The fishery is a general and extended case of agricultural products in the whole Africa. We have negotiated with the government to change their pricing policy so that the producers can get an adequate rate of returns. Otherwise, assistance to such projects would be stopped.

TODA:

This pricing policy is related to the issue of food crops versus export crops.

YOSHIDA:

There is a controversy that the imported cereals have saved the people and brought them new diet, but they also discouraged local crop production in Africa.

Japan grants 50,000 tons of rice every year to Tanzania. But the distribution through the National Milling Corporation is not efficient. It may be the time when we should shift the type of aid to such that would help them equip storage and transportation facilities.

TODA:

Mr. Yoshida mentioned the possibilities of competition between import crops and domestic crops and of shifting the commodities aid from rice to some other items which they need more.

IHI:

You can get Japanese rice in black markets in Africa. Therefore, I am afraid if there is a keen competition between Japanese rice and local crops.

GREENE:

The referred Tanzanian National Milling Corp. is a bad example in point and we are negotiating with the government on grain marketing and storage project. Also we made the redefinition on the role of the Milling Corp.

The big problems in Tanzania are:

- 1) Fragmentation of domestic food market;

- 2) No channel from food surplus area to deficit areas, especially among rural areas;
- 3) Poor marketing system which varies the price area to area and discourages the producer to produce.

I fully understand that Japan is in a dilemma that she intends to encourage these new changes and at the same time she does not want to appear insensitive to the cause for food aid either.

DE LATTRE:

There is no doubt that food aid is meant for emergency assistance and yet some countries such as Mauritania and Cape Verde need food aid for some more time. For other African countries, however, food aid has negative effect on the local production of crops and government's policy change. They use food aid as indirect budget support. Food aid sometimes arrives after the harvest or even at the time of a good harvest. We need to examine the question - how to use food aid constructively.

TODA:

Both Dr. Greene and Madam de Lattre exemplified the negative aspects of food aid and expressed the need for finding a better way.

KJELLBERG:

In Europe the food aid started to stimulate food production and a fair distribution among the regions, for example, maize in Africa. The imported food to African countries introduced wheat and rice to the modernized sector. There has been a need for an appropriate food technology in order to utilize food sources most effectively, e.g. bread making in a pilot plant in Senegal.

We had better accept their life style as it is, and assist them to cater to the modernized sector as well as to the unmodernized sector in developing economies.

HATTORI:

Madam de Lattre mentioned the rice production in Senegal. Do you count this as an investment in a wrong priority?

DE LATTRE:

I am not sure because I cannot predict 20 years ahead.

When Senegal started the rice production by building the irrigation system and the Senegal Valley, I myself doubted if it was the right choice as a site. Nevertheless we have started and there is no other way but to do our best.

GREENE:

The fact that the imported crops cost less than the domestic crops is due to the over-valued African exchange rate. If they had the adequate exchange rate, domestic production could be competitive and the investment in the production in Senegal might pay off. The link between the trade and exchange rate policy and agricultural policy is important factor for the issue.

HATTORI:

The economists from the developing countries have once discussed that the exchange rate with the respective country is inadequate, but there is nothing we can do to change the exchange rate. As you know well these African countries of franc zone had untold benefits through the monetary union.

Considering only the development program, I agree with the change of exchange rate. There are other factors involved for the issue. The stability of West Africa is depending on the monetary zone, i.e. the monetary union.

GREENE:

In most of African countries the exchange rate is not important when it comes to the question of the import limitation of crops. The exchange rate policy is important for the development of agricultural sectors. There is a substitute for the exchange rate policy. The taxes and subsidies policy can be used to correct the inadequate exchange rate policy.

As the general preposition, we should look at the exchange rate policy, and at the same time we should look at the management of balance of payments and the structure of industrial centers in order to understand what is going on the agricultural sector in African countries.

TODA:

We have touched on the agricultural issues such as pricing policy, trading system, storage system, parastatal organizations and import and domestic production issues.

TOMITA:

This is the supplementary answer to Mr. Hosomi's question.

When I first read the phrase "a tribal people dies happily ..." by Max Weber, I wondered what it meant. After that I met and learned of African people whose senior members exchange their information about their ancestors, even 20 generations back, with the villagers at the wedding parties. When they had some questions to which nobody could answer, he would start travelling, seeking for the answers. If he could not get the answer in this world, he anticipated to go to the other world. Thus, he has no desires unfulfilled in this world when he dies. Then I understood years later what the phrase meant.

The other point I want to tell is when specialization takes place in a society which is already different from other type of society, there exists a special inherent wisdom in each tribe, serving as a protection of the traditional values.

KJELLBERG:

The traditional values in Africa are not the problem but the great assets for the development. The problem in the modernized sector is that people have been frustrated, which is due to the fact that the development process in Africa has not delivered such goods and services as they expected. As these political and economic elites work as a locomotive to pull the economy forward, they are so frustrated about the lack of many modernized things that they tend to keep the exchange rate which would bring them extra dollars. The solutions would be:

- 1) To use its resources at full extent;
- 2) To increase the productivity in various sectors;
- 3) To encourage the agricultural sector with a hope of real growth.

While the modernized sector has been steadfast through frustration, people in agriculture are not so frustrated.

TODA:

We could not touch the issues of:

- 1) insufficient priority to the agricultural sector;
- 2) importance of generating the incentives of farmers.

They will be discussed in depth tomorrow.

(Session II-A ends)

V SESSION II -THEMES FOR DEVELOPMENT--B

1. One Approach to Human Resources Development in Africa

Mr. Masaya Hattori

2. United Nations University's Work in Africa

"UNU Training Programme and its Contribution
to Human Resources Development in Africa"

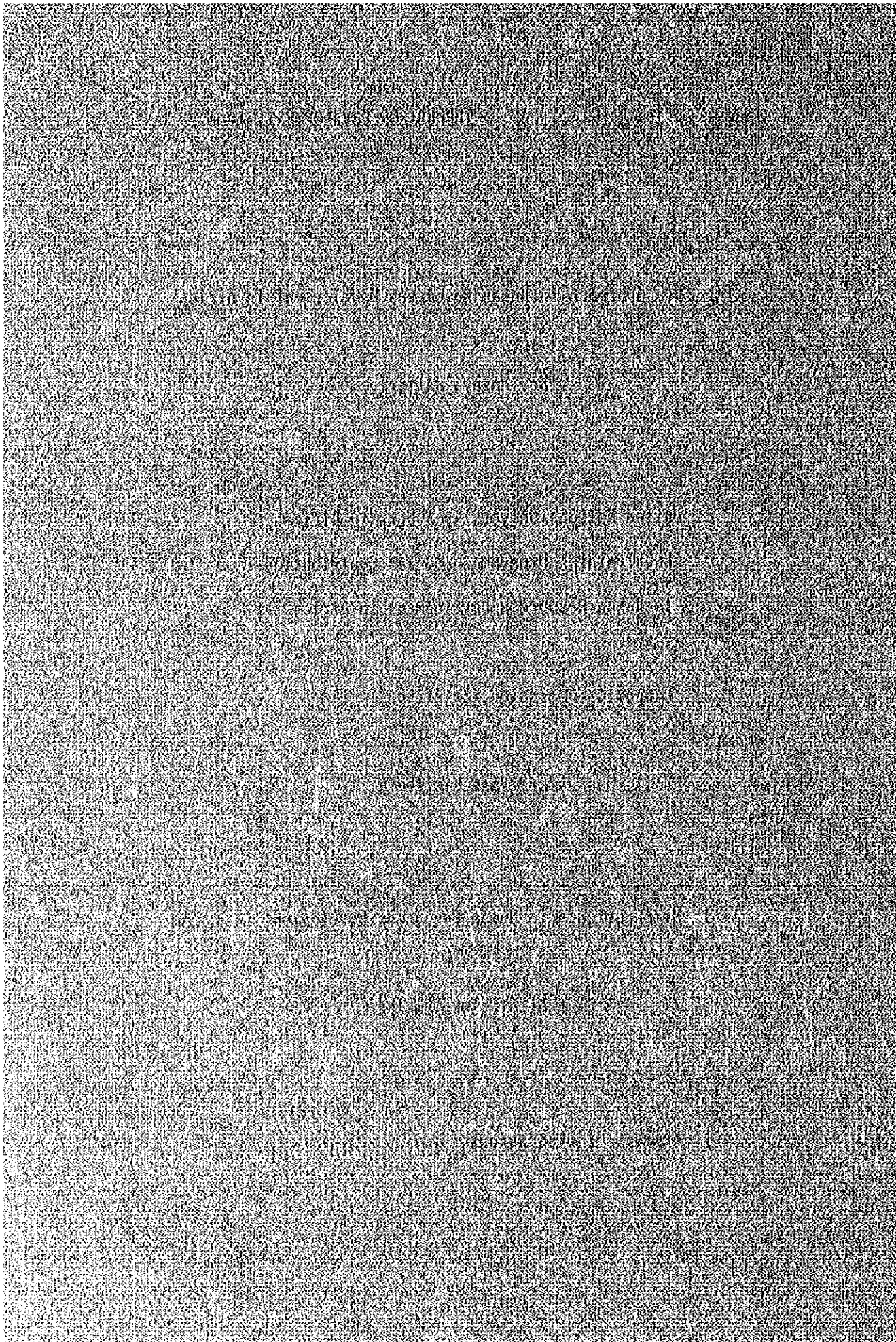
"Economic Commission for Africa"

Mr. Vagn Kjellberg

3. My Experience in Human Resources Development in Kenya

Miss Chieko Umetsu

4. Summary of Discussions



ONE APPROACH TO HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

MASAYA HATTORI

(INTRODUCTION)

1. Yesterday, the three speakers have already covered the causes of food shortages in Africa, and the general approaches to solve the problem. Since I agree very much with those statements, I shall today try to give some cases that illustrate in more concrete terms, what was said yesterday, and show how the problems were successfully attacked in a particular country. Quite often the difficulty is in translating valid general theories into concrete terms, and in choosing the right policy action for a particular country. The cases that I shall present will be principally from my six years service in Rwanda as the Governor of the National Bank, under the Central Bank Technical Assistance Program of the International Monetary Fund, and to a lesser extent, from my twelve years in the World Bank.
2. The main theme of my presentation will be that the Rwandan experience confirms what the previous speakers said in their various ways, that the integration of the African subsistence farmers into the national economy is essential for development of the Sub-Saharan countries. I take this to mean the transformation of the subsistence farmers into entrepreneurs in the national economy. This, in other words means that the national economy should be expanded to fully include the subsistence farms, on which the predominant part of the population live, and which must be the providers of the major part of food in these countries.

As was mentioned yesterday, this requires appropriate policy action to

prepare the basic conditions for the transformation of subsistence farmers into entrepreneurs. Above all, those policy actions must include measures to improve the market structure, such as measures to ensure that the price mechanism works, and to remove market imperfections, especially obstacles to entry and competition. Implied also is a fundamental change in the policy direction and attitude in technical assistance, where African farming families should be conceived as enterprises, rather than the producers of certain predetermined crops.

3. There was some discussion yesterday about the difficulty arising from different social values. I found it interesting, but I also fear that it could be an alibi for doing nothing, or, even an excuse for failure, in which case nothing will be learned. Mr. Kjellberg expressed his opinion yesterday that cultural differences need not be an obstacle to transfer of technology, a statement confirmed by Mr. Greene, who stated examples in World Bank projects, where there has been prompt acceptance of new technical packages by African subsistence farmers in remote areas, if they were appropriate packages.

After all, what is development? If it means closing the gap between the "North" and the "South", I doubt very much whether the subsistence farmers in Africa would find that objective relevant to them. If, however, development is defined as a better tomorrow than yesterday, and a better future for your children than your own life, I am sure that it is a value shared by almost all mankind, including the African subsistence farmer. Therefore, if new policies fail to provoke farmer response, or if new technical packages are not adopted by farmers, we should first consider whether the policies or packages were appropriate or not, rather than attribute the failure to cultural factors.

Usually, when cultural difficulties are mentioned, it simply is a case where policies or technical packages have been imposed without adequate study of the local conditions. In such cases, the policies or packages

usually are bound to be inappropriate.

(WHY RWANDA?)

4. Rwanda is a small, densely populated and land-locked country, with a per capita Gross National Product in 1982 of \$ 260, which makes it one of the poorest of the poor countries in the world. It is insignificant in terms of political influence, natural resources or wealth. Perhaps for this reason, it has attracted little attention, even among development experts, although I was pleasantly surprised yesterday to hear Mr. Greene mention it as one of the two countries that had a relatively good development performance. What was not mentioned however, was the fact that in 1965, and even in 1969, when development was taking off, there was not a single development expert who would admit that the country had even the slightest chance of development. It seems useful to see why things turned out to be wrong for development experts, if only to acquire a much-needed sense of humility. More importantly, the Rwandan case is worth examining, because we can see why the policies, now accepted as valid by development experts, were adopted, and how they were translated into concrete action. As mentioned before, the translation of appropriate policies into appropriate action is often the most difficult part.

Much was said about the complexities of the African problems, and the long time needed to solve them. I agree and support the plea for patience. However, the statement could cause frustration and resignation, even despair in the effectiveness of aid. The Rwandan case will show that what is needed is the belief in shared values in development, the faith in the universality of human rationality, patience and persistence in fact-finding, and imagination in translating appropriate policies into appropriate actions; once those conditions satisfied, development will start and progress fairly rapidly. The Rwandan case will show we need not despair, on the contrary, that development assistance is a rewarding challenge.

(THE RECORD)

5. In the attached table there are some figures drawn from the World Bank publications. In 1982, Rwanda had a population density of 212.7 inhabitants per square kilometre, the highest among the twenty-two low-income countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. This is a density double that of France and equal to the United Kingdom. Between 1970 and 1982, population increased by 53.8%. Yet, during that period, Gross Domestic Product increased by an average rate of 5.3% annually in real terms, a rate surpassed only by Kenya (5.5%) among the countries of the group. The index of per capita Gross National Product in 1982 was 433 with 1970 as the base period (100). More importantly, in today's context, the index of per capita food production was 105 in 1982, (1970 = 100), again the highest in the group. It should be noted that other than Rwanda, only two countries, Central African Republic (104) and Benin (100) had per capita food production equal to or higher in 1982 than in 1970. Surely this is an impressive record. And it should be mentioned that the policy actions for the domestic economy which formed the basis for this achievement were taken by the Rwandan Government between 1966 and 1970, long before development experts started to recognize the importance of such general economic policy measures.

6. At one time being land-locked was considered to be a constraint on development. The Rwandan experience shows that it can be turned into an advantage. Further, its record shows that population pressure need not be an absolute constraint to development in Africa, a point made yesterday by Mr. Inukai and Mr. Kjellberg. I must mention that I would not go so far as to say it is not and will not become a constraint.

(RWANDA IN 1965)

7. Rwanda in 1965 was in a desperate condition. Coffee exports, which provided about 80% of foreign and government revenue was rapidly declining,

in spite of government and aid efforts to reverse the trend. Government finances and the balance of payments were in increasing deficit, necessitating severe exchange and import controls. As a result, there was a serious shortage of imported goods, even of hoes, practically the only farm implement used in Rwanda at that time. The government deficit and the curtailment of imports caused rampant inflation in the prices of imported goods, and to a lesser extent, in locally produced food. Most worrisome was the shortage and price inflation of imported goods required by the farmers, not only of farm implements, but also of cooking oil, matches, cloth and other consumer goods used by farmers. There was however, little visible starvation, although there were some reports of isolated food shortages.

8. Most of the arable land in Rwanda is hilly. Farmers cultivate small family lots. The crops were bananas, tubers, beans, sorghum, maize and some vegetables. Except for some areas where conditions were unfavorable, coffee was planted on those family farms, constituting the principal source of cash income of the farmers. There were a few foreign owned plantations of pyrethrum of insignificant economic importance. Plantation-type cultivation of tea and rice had just started in the marshlands by "cooperatives" as foreign aid projects.

Coffee and tea, and in insignificant quantity, dried pyrethrum flowers, were exported. The production, collection, cleaning, grading and exportation of these crops were organized. Government assistance was predominantly for coffee, and to a lesser extent for rice and tea. There was practically no government support for local food production.

Local food was grown primarily for home use: family consumption, seed and family food reserve. The excess was sold in small quantities on the local open-air markets.

9. A very large part of the cultivated land was planted with bananas. A

major part of the banana production was used for home-made beer. All of the foreign community in Rwanda at the time, diplomats, traders, agriculture "experts" and missionaries, some of whom had lived in Rwanda for almost twenty years, were of the opinion that bananas were a wasteful use of the best land, and recommended that bananas be cut and more useful crops be planted instead. When their advice went unheeded, the foreigners attributed it to "cultural differences", namely the Rwandan's inordinate preference for alcohol.

Since there was very little evidence of wide-spread alcoholism or drunkenness, and since the foreigners' statements did not sound convincing, I did some independent questioning of the Rwandans. In a short while I found out that under Rwandan customs, a man cannot marry unless he has his own farm lot, his hut and savings in the form of a couple or so of cows. He will first plant bananas, then tubers and then beans. Only after the family food production needs are adequately satisfied with an ample margin, will he plant cash crops, mainly coffee. The Rwandan's diet preference is first beans, then tubers and lastly bananas. The reason planting takes place in reverse order of diet preference is that bananas grow quickly, yield throughout the year, and are resistant to weather unpredictabilities. They also enrich the soil and provide protection from the sun to other plants when they are young. Tubers take longer to produce but are fairly dependable, whereas beans are very much dependent on weather and are vulnerable to diseases. Consumption of the family food production is according to diet preference, which means that bananas are usually in excess. The excess banana production was converted into home-made beer. The excess food production was sold on the local markets.

The remarkable resistance of the Rwandan food situation to weather is due to this food production pattern. The Rwandan farmer, aware of the unreliability of weather, always plants for production in excess of family needs. The actual excess is used for beer, a desirable but not essential

product. If weather fails, and total production falls, beer production is reduced and the bananas are eaten instead. Contrary to the opinion of the foreign old-hands, the Rwandan food production system is a very rational system indeed.

Another factor for the absence of major food shortages at that time was the fact that most wage-earners then still had their family lots which provided them with food. The so-called urbanization factor was still insignificant.

In this connection, the urbanization factor did not become a serious problem in the food situation in Rwanda as it did in other African countries thanks to local customs, and to the rational food production system. In 1965, the immediate environs of Kigali, the capital, were barren rocky wasteland, sparsely covered with some shrubs. By 1970, most of that land was cultivated by government officials and other wage-earners. Because a Rwandan cannot marry without a family lot, young government officials and other wage-earners working in the capital, who were mostly landless, opened up the barren land near Kigali, removed the rocks, enriched the soil by planting bananas, and succeeded in converting the wasteland into productive farmland. It should be mentioned that they, being better informed, availed themselves of the agricultural technical packages, such as improved seeds. This is an example that local customs need not be an obstacle to development, on the contrary, they can be a factor for development.

10. The desperate situation of Rwanda in 1965, described above, required urgent measures to reactivate the economy. Since the economy was mainly agricultural, the action had to be oriented to the farming sector. The first thing to be done was to suppress inflation caused by budgetary deficits and import restrictions. This inflation worsened the terms of trade for the farmers, discouraging them from growing cash crops and driving them back into purely subsistence farming. Further, the impossibility to import farming

implements would soon have serious consequences for food production. Indeed, it was not uncommon to see farmers using hoes that had been worn down to about five centimetres long from their original fifteen-centimetres length. In order to control inflation, the government finances had to be brought into balance, and equilibrium had to be restored in the balance of payments so that imports could be liberalized. For this, the exchange rate had to be changed to a more realistic value. Since the mainstay of government and foreign exchange receipts were derived from exports of coffee, their declining trend had to be arrested and reversed. This meant that the producer price of coffee had to be raised enough to encourage production, but not to the full extent of the devaluation, so that government receipts from the coffee export tax could be increased. In those days the government was so small that there was almost no room to cut expenditures. Therefore, the only immediate way to balance government finances was through the increase in coffee tax receipts, and a salary adjustment lower than the extent of the devaluation.

(DETAILED IMPLEMENTATION)

II. Thus the first elements of the reform were clear enough: Devaluation, restriction of domestic credit creation, particularly to the government, and import liberalization. However, there were several implementation problems that had to be solved. First was how to ensure that devaluation and import liberalization would work out as intended. The second set of problems was how to ensure production would grow and continue to grow.

It was by no means sure that devaluation and import liberalization would result in equilibrium in the balance of payments and stabilization of domestic prices at an appropriate level. At that time external trade was entirely in the hands of a small number of foreign traders, who operated in East Africa and in Burundi as well as in Rwanda. Their principal interest was to maximize profits in their home base, not in Rwanda. Rational behavior would dictate them to undervalue the sales price of coffee that they sold to their customers

abroad and to retain the difference in their home bases, and also to delay as long as possible the repatriation of the proceeds. On the import side, over-invoicing was a common practice, thereby increasing profits in the home base, at the expense of the Rwandan subsidiary (and consequently of the Rwandan government who lost income tax revenue as well as precious foreign exchange). Further, on the domestic front, there was nothing to prevent them from fixing prices of imported goods. As stated before, domestic prices of imported goods were inflated due to their scarcity. Devaluation would provide the importers with a plausible excuse to further raise prices and retain the scarcity profits. Another problem was that it was by no means assured that liberalization of imports would result in the availability of the of the variety of goods desired by the farmer. For instance, only one type of hoes were used by the farmers at that time. This was convenient for the importers because it facilitated ordering, selling and inventory management. Since the importers were all foreigners, and since they had had an easy life in a sellers market, it was unlikely that they suddenly would become interested in meeting farmer needs. Being foreigners, there would be an inevitable delay in discovering what those needs of the Rwandan farmers were. Further, it was possible that the importers would not promptly respond, since it would be easy to agree among their small number to limit the variety of goods imported, a convenient and profitable practice.

12. Since these practices were rational behavior on the part of the foreign traders, government regulation and control were not likely to be effective. The solution was to introduce changes in the system that would induce these traders, acting rationally, to change their practices.

On the export side, the coffee export duty was fixed at an amount per volume rather than on the declared export value. Under this system, the exporter could retain the full amount above the duty and the price he obtained. This would encourage him to actively seek higher prices. On the

other hand, if he under-valued his exports, he would still have to pay the same duty. Generous financing was made available, so that the home base did not have to help with the financing, previously a sore point for the home base. On the other hand, severe financial penalties were imposed if the financing was not repaid on time.

On the import side, import duties were fixed at high levels, but lower than East African duties. All imports to Rwanda had to pass through East Africa, so that importers had the option of paying import duties in Rwanda, or paying East African duties and smuggling the goods into Rwanda. The lower Rwandan duties were designed to induce importers to opt for paying Rwandan duties.

For over-invoicing, the measure taken was to fix the business income tax rate at a level that, together with the high import duties, it would be more profitable to correctly declare the invoice value and pay the income tax. Of course, profit remittances were freely permitted upon proof of tax payment.

13. The most difficult thing was how to avoid domestic price-fixing, and how to ensure that farmer needs would be promptly reflected in the availability of imported goods. Import trade was entirely in the hands of foreigners, who also dominated internal trade. The national market was too small to support a large number of foreign traders, an essential condition for increased competition. The solution, once discovered was simple enough. It was to completely liberalize border trade. Border trade was exempted from the requirement of import licences or export declarations, and from the imposition of custom duties. Further, the holding, the export and import of foreign banknotes as well as their exchange with national money was exempted from exchange control. Smuggling was being conducted in small quantities by Rwandans. The measures were to legalize these activities. Since this border trade would be a part-time activity of Rwandan farmers, they should be more knowledgeable about farmer needs. They would buy in Uganda with cash

the goods needed by the Rwandan farmer. The prices would be high, having paid East African duties, but at least the farmer needs would be met.

Further, if the foreign importer in Rwanda resorted to price-fixing, the border trader would find it profitable to compete with them. These measures would ensure responsiveness to farmer needs and put a competitive ceiling on price-fixing.

(MEASURES FOR DEVELOPMENT)

14. While the measures described above were adequate to ensure the success of the first elements of the reform, namely, stabilization of the economy, further measures were needed to promote development, that is to say, to have production grow and continue to grow.

The first thing to do was how to ensure that farmers would actually receive the new minimum price for their coffee. The government had raised it by 40%, but previously the buyers who were all foreigners, usually bought coffee from the farmer at prices lower than the official minimum price. It was to be expected that they would continue to do so. The second thing was how to ensure that higher prices would be paid to farmers for better quality coffee, so that they would be induced to better tend the trees, and exercise better care in harvesting and depulping. Indeed, introducing the notion of quality to subsistence farmers could be the crucial thing in development, for development is a question, not of increased volume of production, but of increased value of production, which of course can be obtained by volume increase, but more effectively manytimes by quality improvement. Here again the solution once found was simple. The reason Rwandans did not participate in buying coffee and selling it to the cleaning factories was that their cash income from farming or from wages was too low to permit them to save enough to buy a truck. Generous financing was provided to Rwandans to buy small trucks, to be repaid by the profits of the coffee collection. The entry of Rwandans into the coffee collection business would provide the needed

competition for the price mechanism to work.

15. This solved the next problem, how to develop the internal market. Once Rwandans obtained entry into the commercial market, they would expand into the commerce of food, inducing farmers to produce for the market as well as for their own consumption. This expanded food commerce would prevent the isolated food shortages. Further, it was expected that knowing the farmers better, they would gradually increase their share of the retail trade in imported goods as well.

This in turn created a new problem, how to provide finance to Rwandans for commercial purposes, so that the movement could be accelerated. The initial financing of vehicles was done by the government savings bank, which received a special line of credit from the central bank. However, for the expanded credit needs it was necessary to mobilize the commercial banks.

At that time there was only one private bank, majority owned and managed by a foreign banking group. Practically its entire credit operations were extended to foreign firms in Rwanda, and it was little inclined to lend to Rwandans except to some political personages for house construction. Their excess funds were deposited in foreign exchange at no interest with the mother bank. Rules were established that government deficit financing would be handled exclusively by the central bank; that banks would be permitted to hold foreign exchange only if they could obtain interest higher than the central bank (which they could not); and finally that credit could be extended only to productive uses where alternative financing was not available (which made foreign firms ineligible). As a result, the private bank had to keep all its excess funds in interest-free deposits with the central bank. This induced it (and its mother group) to actively seek good credit risks among Rwandans.

It should be mentioned that credit to farmers for their farming activities was considered but not adopted. The reason was that it was considered that

the first thing to do was to increase farmers' income, to induce them to act as entrepreneurs in the national market; only after that should credit be considered. However, as mentioned above, non-farming activities of farmers, such as part-time commerce or food storage or processing, was financed.

16. Again these measures provided a partial solution to the most serious handicap to development, the severe seasonality of the economy. Previously, economic activity was hectic in the coffee harvesting and exporting season, which lasted for three months. It was almost dead for the remaining nine months. This meant all the annual depreciation costs of vehicles, storage facilities and infrastructure has to be borne entirely by coffee during the three month operations in the coffee exporting season, increasing the unit cost. More importantly, the most important resource, manpower, was under-employed for nine months. Inducing the farmers to engage in non-farm activities, especially in transport and commercial activities would reduce the seasonality of the economy.

(THE RESULTS)

17. The response of the Rwandan economy to these measures was most gratifying. The achievements of the twelve years mentioned earlier speak for themselves. Some other developments not expected at the time shall be mentioned here.

Farmers who previously were contemptuous of agricultural advice, began to actively seek new technical packages and information.

The private banks (a new foreign group established a second bank after the reform) now lend almost exclusively to Rwandan businesses, whose number has increased dramatically. An important development from that is the fact that "Africanization" of the banks' management has progressed very rapidly, at the banks' own initiative. Obviously it made sense to do so, if the major part of the business is with Africans.

Border trade has flourished beyond expectations. It has benefitted from

the import restrictions imposed by the neighboring countries, whose traders now come to Rwanda for imported goods not available in their countries.

Rwandan businesses have been extremely successful: they own the petrol stations, and some own foreign vehicle dealerships.

Much foreign capital has come into the country, as foreigners operating in the neighboring countries shifted their operations to Rwanda.

Deforestation of the original woodland has occurred, but has been compensated by a new cover, in the form of bananas. Indeed, much of the previously barren land is now fertile thanks to the bananas. It might be of interest to note that the largest organized deforestation took place under a foreign assisted pyrethrum project that eventually failed. On the other hand a modest reforestation project on the hill behind the capital, that at the time I thought was bound to fail, has been a success due to communal management.

(THE LESSONS)

17. It is not my intention to say that all of the measures adopted in Rwanda should be applied elsewhere. That must depend on conditions in the individual countries. The lessons to be learned from the Rwandan experience are that:

Density and growth of population, although possibly constraints, are not unsurmountable ones;

Landlockedness can be an advantage as well as a constraint;

Traditional ways often contain a lot of wisdom; they can serve as a sound basis upon which development can be achieved;

Once the foundations of a free market system, namely, freedom of prices, removal of restraints to entry and competition, and availability of information are achieved, the subsistence farmer will rapidly start acting as a businessman, even as an entrepreneur;

A free and competitive market system may be a more effective way for

African development, since the efforts of the masses would be mobilized through the profit motive, reducing the need for large administrative structures when trained personnel is in short supply; The subsistence farmer has to be seen as a potential businessman and his farm as an enterprise, rather than the producer of certain predetermined crops. He will undertake non-farm activities if he finds them profitable.

18. All this underlines the importance of policy measures, a point made by the previous speakers. It also shows the need for a new approach to human resource development, which seeks to develop the present generation of the subsistence farmer into entrepreneurs, rather than to waste resources by putting the cart before the horse, in trying to impart partial skills to the farmer before he is convinced of their profitability or in going into massive general education without parent and community agreement on its usefulness.

For the policy measures and the new approach to human development, what is needed above all is the belief in the commonality of development as a value, the patience and humility in finding out local customs and wisdom, the imagination in devising appropriate technical measures to translate the policies into action, and above all the faith in the universality of human rationality.

END

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

POPULATION DENSITY, GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT,

FOOD PRODUCTION AND OFFICIAL AID

COUNTRY	POPULATION DENSITY 1982	GNP PER CAPITA 1982	GDP GROWTH RATE 1970-1982	1982 INDEX: 1970 = 100 POPULATION	1982 INDEX: 1970 = 100 GNP PER CAPITA	1982 INDEX: 1970 = 100 FOOD PER CAPITA	AID PER HEAD US\$
LOW-INCOME ECONOMIES							
CHAD	3.8	80.	-2.8	127.7	100.	95.	14.0
MALI	5.7	170.	4.3	141.0	243.	83.	27.4
BURKINA	23.7	210.	3.4	120.6	350.	95.	32.8
SOMALIA	7.1	290.	3.8	159.7	414.	60.	102.7
NIGER	4.6	300.	3.4	146.2	333.	88.	42.7
GAMBIA	62.0	360.	4.5	189.4	300.	74.	79.5
ETHIOPIA	27.0	140.	2.2	133.7	175.	82.	6.1
GUINEA BISS.	23.6	220.	3.1	151.6	88.	88.	85.1
ZAIRE	13.1	180.	-0.2	163.2	200.	87.	11.3
MALAWI	54.7	210.	5.1	145.3	263.	99.	18.7
UGANDA	57.0	240.	-1.5	137.1	185.	86.	9.9
RWANDA	212.7	260.	5.3	153.8	433.	105.	27.4
BURUNDI	155.2	240.	3.5	122.6	400.	96.	29.5
TANZANIA	20.9	270.	4.0	148.9	270.	88.	36.0
BENIN	33.7	330.	3.3	140.7	367.	100.	21.7
CENT. AFR. R.	3.9	310.	1.4	155.2	221.	104.	37.5
GUINEA	23.2	300.	3.8	143.3	250.	89.	11.5
MADAGASCAR	15.7	320.	0.2	125.8	246.	94.	26.5
TOGO	48.3	350.	3.0	140.8	250.	89.	27.6
GHANA	50.9	340.	-0.5	140.8	110.	72.	11.6
KENYA	31.1	390.	5.5	160.1	260.	88.	26.8
SIERRA LEONE	44.4	390.	2.0	125.0	205.	81.	22.2
MOZAMBIQUE	16.1	-	-	167.0	-	68.	15.9
MIDDLE-INCOME OIL IMPORTERS							
SUDAN	8.0	430.	6.3	128.5	358.	87.	37.4
MAURITANIA	1.6	480.	2.0	136.6	343.	73.	110.4
LIBERIA	18.1	490.	0.9	132.5	204.	88.	54.6
SENEGAL	30.7	490.	2.9	155.7	213.	93.	46.8
LESOTHO	46.8	510.	6.6	152.1	567.	84.	64.1
ZAMBIA	8.0	640.	0.9	146.2	160.	87.	40.1
ZIMBABWE	19.2	850.	2.2	141.2	304.	87.	28.8
BOTSWANA	1.6	890.	12.6	158.1	809.	73.	101.4
SWAZILAND	39.1	930.	4.4	157.0	517.	107.	40.3
IVORY COAST	27.8	910.	5.7	180.9	294.	107.	15.5
MAURITIUS	492.5	1230.	5.8	117.8	513.	110.	47.8
MIDDLE-INCOME OIL EXPORTERS							
NIGERIA	98.0	850.	3.8	164.5	708.	92.	0.4
CAMEROON	19.5	880.	7.0	158.8	489.	102.	24.1
CONGO	5.0	1370.	6.8	190.4	457.	81.	54.9
GABON	2.5	4840.	2.0	139.5	768.	93.	89.1
ANGOLA	6.4	-	-	145.3	-	77.	7.5

SOURCE: WORLD BANK

UNU training programme and its contribution to

human resources development in Africa

Vagn Kjellberg

Introduction

The United Nations University (UNU) seeks to help solve the pressing global problems of human survival, development and welfare that are the concern of the United Nations. The UNU does not have a central campus with students pursuing degree courses in traditional disciplines, but carries out its programmes of research, post-graduate training and dissemination of knowledge through a network of institutions all over the world. It therefore constitutes a significant departure from the conventional concept of a university.

The ongoing work of the UNU global networks is carried out within the following five areas of major concern: 1) peace, security, conflict resolution and global transformation; 2) the global economy; 3) hunger, poverty, resources and the environment; 4) human and social development and the co-existence of peoples, cultures and social systems; 5) science and technology and their social and ethical implications.

The University's programme networks currently extend to more than 60 countries. Its 37 associated institutions constitute the backbone of its global network. The University also has co-operative arrangements for specific research and training activities with many other institutions. In Africa, the University has four associated institutions - one each in Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria and Sudan - and has, also, established working relations with more than 15 other co-operating institutions throughout the continent.

Moreover, the UNU is proceeding with the establishment of three new training and research centres to meet major needs which the University so far has not been able to fully respond to. These new centres are a World Institute for Development Economics Research (WIDER) located in Helsinki, Finland, an Institute for Natural Resources in Africa (INRA), and an institute for advanced studies in Japan.

UNU Fellowships

The aim of the University's fellowship activities is to develop analytical skills, understanding of complex problems in their global context, and the ability to conduct and direct research. The fellowship training is also intended to help alleviate the intellectual isolation of scholars in third world scientific and academic communities. Fellows are expected during their training to work on problems of importance to their countries and, on their return home, to make significant contributions to the work and development of their own national institutions.

The University's 426 past and present fellows now studying and working around the world have become a distinctive part of the UNU community. Most fellowships have been in the field of food and nutrition (270), with others in resource policy and management (90), energy systems and policy (62), and food-energy relationships (4). The University's training programme is being

extended to include such areas as biotechnology, microelectronics, development economics, communications, and conflict and security studies.

Since the major thrust of the fellowship activities is to strengthen third-world institutions, emphasis is placed on the training of institution-builders, high-level researchers and leaders in human resources development, but opportunities are also provided for the training of young scholars. The goal is, however, the same in both cases - to stimulate endogenous development for increasing self-reliance. Another, complementary aim, that of contributing to the current trend towards co-operation amongst developing countries, is achieved by providing a large part of the training at high-calibre institutions in the developing world. This approach facilitates "twinning" arrangements between well-established third world institutions and newer ones as a means of hastening the growth of the latter.

In the University's view, the boundaries between research, training, and dissemination of knowledge overlap considerably. Training itself is a form of dissemination, and many researchers are involved in training workshops. While in training, the fellows undertake research related closely to UNU programme areas, and by reporting their findings also contribute to the University's research and dissemination activities. The University's functions can, therefore, be seen as interrelated, interdependent and mutually reinforcing. Ultimately, all three aspects involve a learning experience.

The UNU currently provides two types of fellowships:

1. Fellowships for post-graduate, preferably post-doctoral, training and research programmes of from six months' to a maximum of two years' duration;
2. Special fellowships, for senior members of training or policy-making institutions to undertake short periods of study and observation (up to three months) of the research and training programmes of other institutions and how they are managed.

An important factor in the success of UNU fellowships is the rigorous selection process. Fellows are carefully chosen from amongst scholars and policy-makers in government, the universities, the private sector, trade unions and voluntary organizations. Eligibility is dependent upon possession of adequate basic qualifications, a commitment of service to the institution from which the candidate comes, assurance of a position of responsibility on their return and compatibility between the proposed training and UNU priorities. The needs and facilities of the institutes from which the potential candidates will come are evaluated on-site by senior staff from the UNU or an associated institution or by designated scholars. The candidates themselves are also interviewed before a final application is made.

As a matter of course, the UNU looks for leaders, for those who can multiply the effects of their own training. The fact that a number of former UNU Fellows have become heads or deputy heads of institutions or co-ordinators of research, and are thus in a position to influence the direction of research

and human resources development in their own countries, suggests that a measure of success in this respect has already been achieved.

UNU Research and Training in Africa

UNU research activities in Africa on food and nutrition, resource policy and management, and energy systems have all involved a training component. By the end of 1984, 103 African scientists from 22 countries had received training under UNU fellowships and 6 are currently in training. Other research and training projects currently being developed for Africa include: studies on regional peace and security; the interaction between climate, vegetation and people in the humid tropics; the relationship between the demand for food and energy; the conflicts between the process of nation-building and trends towards the transnationalization of African economies; and the use of microprocessors and microcomputers in scientific research.

In addition to these ongoing activities, two new major developments are expected to greatly strengthen the role of the UNU in research and training in Africa. These are the African Regional Food and Nutrition Project, and the establishment of a UNU research and training centre, the Institute for Natural Resources in Africa.

Institute for Natural Resources in Africa (INRA)

The establishment of a UNU research and training centre in Africa was approved after extensive consultation throughout the continent in order to respond to the needs expressed in the Lagos Plan of Action for Economic Development in Africa. The Lagos Plan emphasizes the importance of systematic and independent use and management of natural resources by the countries and peoples of Africa to accelerate their self-reliant development process. INRA is designed as a first-class regional research and training institute which will provide a critical mass of scientific and technological expertise to undertake research and development work in such areas as land use, water resources, plant and animal resources, mineral resources development, and energy. The Institute will also carry out an extensive programme of post-graduate training, and dissemination of knowledge. Part of its role will be to function as the co-ordinating centre for research and training at universities and other institutions throughout Africa in order to help stimulate and strengthen their research and training programmes.

The Government of the Ivory Coast has agreed to host INRA by providing buildings, land and other facilities as well as a financial contribution towards the endowment fund. A number of other African governments, including those of Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, which also initially considered hosting the Institute, have continued to assure the UN University of their support for the Institute and their readiness to co-operate. The University is in the process of mobilizing the

bulk of the financial resources required for the establishment of the Institute from a number of major bilateral and multilateral agencies.

African Regional Food and Nutrition Project

Over the years a number of multilateral and bilateral agencies have participated in the various efforts for accomplishing food self-sufficiency in Africa. A major requirement is to build the capacities of scientific technological institutions for research and development work, planning, training, and related consultancy services in the fields of food and nutrition. To help achieve this, the UNU, in collaboration with the Association of African Universities, decided to prepare a major regional food and nutrition project for Africa in co-operation with universities and other R&D institutions in the various countries.

The European Economic Commission has all along expressed great interest in the project and is now prepared, at the request of a number of African Members States of the Lomé Convention, to allocate the first tranche of the US\$7 million budget requested in total for the implementation of the project over a period of five years.

The project is expected to start in 1985 and is designed to help strengthen the overall food system (the food chain), which includes the production, post-harvest handling, conservation, processing, distribution, marketing and utilization of food for better nutrition. Any break in the chain which constitutes the system, or inadequate development of any one of its links, can hold back the development of the whole system. The project will help build those linkages of the food chain which are weak and to assist in building scientific and technological capacities to overcome problems leading to hunger and malnutrition. Experience has shown that such capacities should be designed to provide well proven, viable technologies and production know-how to reduce the capital risk of food processors and distributors, particularly for smaller entrepreneurs who would otherwise not be able to undertake industrial production and marketing of much needed food products. In the development of these technologies within the project, special emphasis will be given to upgrading and modernization of traditional technologies that have in the past contributed to providing nutritious food acceptable to the people. Simultaneously, efforts will be made for better application of emerging technologies. These approaches will require multidisciplinary research and development work and advanced training efforts to meet the regional requirements of Africa and maximize the use of the capacities in the continent.



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Second Conference of Ministers Responsible
for Human Resources Planning, Development
and Utilization

Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), 15-16 October 1984

DRAFT REPORT

I. Organization

1. The Second Conference of African Ministers responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization was held from 15 to 16 October 1984, in Africa Hall, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. It was preceded by the meeting of the Technical Preparatory Committee of Officials which met from 9 to 14 October 1984 and the meeting of the Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Nine which met on 13 October 1984, both in the same venue.

II. Attendance

2. The Conference of Ministers was attended by delegates from Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Central African Republic, Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Lesotho, Libya, Malawi, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

3. Observers representing UN Specialized Agencies were from the International Labour Organization (ILO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations University (UNU), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and World Food Programme (WFP).

4. International, regional and intergovernmental organizations and institutions represented at the meeting were: African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM), Organization of African Unity (OAU), African Training and Research Center in Administration for Development (CAFRAD), Commonwealth Secretariat, International Committee for Migration (ICM).

III. Overall Objectives of the Conference

5. The overall objectives of the Conference were:

(a) To review progress in the implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action, the decisions of the First Conference held in Monrovia in 1981 and the ECA Conference of Ministers resolution 444(XVII) of April 1982 with regard to the development of institutional machineries for effective human

resources management;

(b) To review and provide policy guidelines on the ECA programme of work in the areas of Public Administration and Management, Public Financial Management, Education and Training, Manpower and Employment Planning; and the productive utilization of the region's human resources;

(c) To review the various factors that have an impact on the development of human resources and to determine the strategy for integrating these factors into the human resources planning, development and productive utilization processes;

(d) To consider and approve the terms of reference and rules of procedure which determine the operational modalities of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization in Africa.

IV. Opening of the Conference

Outgoing Chairman's Remarks

6. The Conference of Ministers was opened by the Head of the Delegation of the Republic of Liberia, in his capacity as Chairman of the first Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization. In welcoming participants the outgoing Chairman expressed his profound appreciation for the impressive attendance, even though the notice of the change of venue was short. He noted that his country was honoured to have presided over the Conference in its first three years of existence and contributed to laying the foundations for a noble endeavour, i.e. the promotion of effective planning, development and utilization of Africa's human resources.

Executive Secretary's Address

7. In his address Prof. Adebayo Adedeji, Executive Secretary of ECA, noted that this Conference would serve as a forum for reviewing issues, problems, policies and programmes for the establishment of institutional machineries. Simultaneously, it had to examine the various factor inputs that would enhance the quality of human resources in Africa. In so doing, it would help in the determination and promotion of coherence and complementarity of the various programmes that enhance the high quality of human resources in Africa. In so

doing, it would help in the determination and promotion of coherence and complementarity of the various programmes that enhance the high quality aspect in the human resources development.

8. He reminded participants that the African continent was passing through a social and economic crisis of unprecedented proportions. It was a crisis that threatened not only to degrade the high quality of our human resources but did actually undermine the foundations of intellectual and physical capability. The immediate aggravating factor of the current African crisis was the unusually severe, widespread and prolonged drought. The drought has resulted, among other things, in severe shortage of food, water and energy, in addition to displacement of human and animal populations; thus undermining the foundation of inputs that enhance the quality of our human resources. The drought conditions have, however, merely made worse the situation that was already fragile and deteriorating. Because of the nature of their economies, African countries have suffered more than most developing countries from the effects of the world economic recession of the past few years. The collapse of commodity prices on the world market has hit African economies hardest because of their reliance on one or two export products. It was the gravity of the crisis and the viability of African Governments and people to cope with it unaided that led the distinguished Secretary-General of the United Nations, launch an invitation aimed at focussing the attention of the international community on the plight of Africa and of mobilising external support to supplement African effort.

9. The Executive Secretary pointed out that the beginning of any action to remove the weaknesses in our economic systems must be directed to the area of human resources. Man with his abilities, capabilities and ingenuity, was the single most important catalyst available for the exploitation and transformation of natural resources, the creation of industry, the production of food and the provision of all material needs of his society. His skills, knowledge, attitudes, resourcefulness and powers of inventiveness and innovation, make of him the most formidable resource available to any economy. He noted that the level of development of any society was directly correlated with the level of development of the human resources available to it. Africa is quantitatively grossly deficient in skills for development. The region can draw on no more than one third of a million persons to provide

high level skills required for the socio-economic transformation of African and for the achievement of real economic independence. This, today, was the size of the middle and high-level human resource base, a weak base for producing scientists and researchers, entrepreneurs and managers, agronomists, hydrologists and the ecologists whom Africa has been searching for to turn the deserts into green pastures. There were chronic shortages of engineers, entrepreneurs, managers and middle-level technicians for all productive sectors of African economies while there was an over-abundance of liberal arts graduates, the demand for whom was not as critical today as it was in the years before independence. One other characteristic feature of the type of human resource base available was its orientation mainly towards the management of distribution, rather than the production of goods and services.

10. The Executive Secretary warned that if Africa is to lift itself from the present economic morass in which it has been plunged, its human resources must be developed to the highest quality possible and be equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes required for Africa's self-reliant and self-sustaining development. This called for the strengthening, expansion and reorientation of education and training systems so that they respond more directly to Africa's dire need for productive men and women in general and in particular scientists, technologists, technicians, engineers, managers and so on and so forth. For this, there must be clarity in vision of the future and in requirements for fulfilling hopes. It was not sufficient to merely establish units and structures for planning human resources, though these are a necessary condition. More important was the need to develop the capability of these structures and mechanisms so that the planning function was undertaken realistically and objectively. Planning for the development of human resources must fulfil a purpose; and that purpose was the supply to the economy of all the manpower needed to grease the wheels of economic and social progress. In Africa, we have witnessed continued failures to depart from generalities in respect of our manpower forecasts, projections and plans. The tendency to be very general when it comes to our future requirements in skill and knowledge left us unsure as to the quantities of specific skills which may be the critical ones for our present development needs.

11. Finally, Professor Adedeji noted that the need to develop human resources for the continent's present and future requirements was just one

side of Africa's human resources problems. A very real and serious part of the problem concerned the way human resources are used and managed. More than fourteen million able-bodied men and women were today, throughout the continent, looking for work and failing in their search for it. These were the openly unemployed whose numbers would surely grow to alarming proportions by the turn of the century unless policies were evolved and programmes developed to forestall that eventuality. Their brothers and sisters in rural areas were underemployed mainly because the facilities available to them for work and production severely limited the amounts they can produce while lengthening the time they required to produce it. This reality had a serious impact on national and regional productivity not to talk of its implications for poverty and suffering.

V. Election of Officers

12. Uganda was elected Chairman. Togo, Egypt and Chad were elected First, Second, and Third Vice-Chairmen. Malawi was elected Rapporteur.

VI. Adoption of the Agenda

13. The following agenda was adopted by the Conference:

Agenda

Meetings of Heads of Delegation	
Opening ceremonies	Agenda Item 1
Election of officers	Agenda Item 2
Adoption of agenda and organization of work	Agenda Item 3
General debate	Agenda Item 4
Consideration of the report of the Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Nine	Agenda Item 5
Consideration of the report of the Technical Committee of Officials	Agenda Item 6
Data and venue of next meeting	Agenda Item 7
Any other business	Agenda Item 8
Adoption of report	Agenda Item 9
Vote of thanks	Agenda Item 10

VII. General Debate

14. Delegates of eighteen countries made statements to the Conference. A summary essential points in each statement is given hereunder.

ZIMBABWE

15. The Honourable Minister informed the Conference that since Monrovia, the Zimbabwean government, through the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare, and other related ministries and departments, had continued the important task of mobilising and developing the country's human resources as a means of accelerating the process of socialist transformation and development. Several noteworthy developments that should be brought to the attention of the Conference were:

- (i) a necessary base for formulating future plans for the effective utilization of the country's human resources had been laid through the recently completed national manpower survey;
- (ii) the democratisation of the educational system at primary, secondary, tertiary and university levels had continuously been intensified;
- (iii) more vocational and technical training institutions had been opened up in various centres of the country;
- (iv) more comprehensive programmes of staff development in tertiary institutions and the university had been undertaken in order to achieve self-sufficiency in this important area;
- (v) the provision of skills and improvement of the material and social condition of the peasants, workers and other disadvantaged social groups (e.g. women and the ex-combatants) had been vigorously pursued;
- (vi) institutional machineries for management training and development had continuously been consolidated and expanded, both in the public and private sectors;
- (vii) Zimbabwe had continued to support all programmes geared towards the harmonization and development of Africa's human resources through:
 - (a) participation in the Regional Training Council of SADCC;
 - (b) participation in sub-regional and regional seminars, meetings,

conferences and formal training programmes in various areas relating to human resources planning, development and utilization.

16. Details on all of these and other means by which inherited programmes and institutions were being adapted to enable the new national obtain maximum mileage from its available human resources, in the interest of socialist development, were to be found in the country progress report submitted to the Technical Committee of Officials.

ZAMBIA

17. The Honourable Minister pointed out that Zambia did not attend the First Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resource Planning, Development and Utilization held in Monrovia, Liberia in 1981. However, he gave an account of the problems of human resource development and efforts taken by the Zambian Government in an effort to implement some of the conclusions of the Conference. The colonial government did very little in terms of training and education for the Africans. With the result that on the eve of independence, there were very few educated and professionally trained Zambians to run the country.

18. The first problem, therefore, which confronted the Independent Government was that of the development of its human resources. To this end, therefore, the Government:

- (i) decided on a policy of free education for all from primary to university level;
- (ii) aware of the importance of physical and mental fitness of its citizens provided free medical services;
- (iii) created appropriate institutions and administrative arrangements to plan and co-ordinate human resource development and utilization;
- (iv) designed a curriculum with emphasis on mathematics and science subjects which form the basis of technical and professional education;
- (v) decentralized the administrative machinery to ensure that people at various levels were involved in the processes of decision-making in all activities of the nation including human resource development;

- (vi) developed programmes for the eradication of illiteracy among the adult population both in the rural and urban areas. The literacy campaign was two-fold. The first was to teach the people to read and write, and the second was functional literacy which combined reading and writing with practical activities or occupations such as agriculture, health and nutrition, child-care, home economics, etc.;
- (vii) diversified its economic activities and established small scale and village industries aimed at providing employment in the localities where people live;
- (viii) introduced occupational education with emphasis on subjects which prepared people for self-employment and self-reliance.

19. In its efforts to develop quality human resources, the Government had experienced a number of serious constraints:

- (i) the development of an economy which emphasized the exploitation of copper to the exclusion of agriculture and industries meant that when there was a slump in the copper industry, the Government's ability to develop and expand human resource development was considerably reduced;
- (ii) the problems of population growth and the drift of people from rural to urban areas created problems of rational utilization of human resources;
- (iii) the problem of early drop-outs and school-leavers added to the problem of rational utilization of human resources.

20. The Minister concluded by saying that the Government, through measures mentioned above, had addressed itself to the constraints inhibiting human resources development in Zambia.

LESOTHO

21. The delegate of Lesotho pointed out that since the Monrovia meeting Lesotho had continued to implement the resolutions passed there, despite persistent problems. With the help of ECA a workshop was held in October 1984 on Manpower Planning. The intention was to equip staff involved in

Manpower planning, development and utilization with skills necessary for preparing manpower development plans for inclusion in the national socio-economic development plan. The Ministry of Economic Planning, Labour Statistics and Manpower, in an effort to strengthen further the country's efforts in manpower planning and improve its quality was planning practical attachments for its personnel.

22. Lesotho was looking seriously into vocational training, as a measure to encourage self-sufficiency and alleviate unemployment. The establishment, in the office of the Prime Minister, of the Bureau of Youth and Women Affairs, was another attempt to address the question of minority human resources development. Various ministries were seriously looking into the question of human resources development and utilization. The Ministry of Education, with the aid of the National Curriculum Development Board was reviewing the curriculum so as to make it more relevant to the needs of the country. The Ministry of Health had introduced programmes aimed at curtailing the current acute shortage of doctor and nurses. The Government offered free university education, it was giving serious consideration to training in areas most needed in the country such as engineering, medicine and public health. Lesotho was also very active in regional co-operation in human resources development with sister countries in southern Africa in particular.

TANZANIA

23. The delegate of Tanzania addressed himself to the following issues in regard to human resources planning, development and utilization in his country.

Manpower planning and training

24. On the basis of the manpower survey carried out in 1981, a Five-Year Manpower Development Plan (1981/82 - 1985/86) had been prepared and was being implemented simultaneously with and as part of the Five-Year Plan for social and economic development covering the same period. Preliminary manpower projections for the period up to the year 2000 had also been made on the basis of that survey.

25. The government was taking a look at training institutions which had been set up in previous years with a view to enabling them cope with the increasing demands for manpower training. A machinery to minimize discrepancies

in the co-ordination and control of manpower development and utilization was being worked out.

Education review

26. Tanzania had made great strides in the provision of primary, secondary, post secondary and adult education. Enrolment in primary schools now stood at about 80 per cent of the primary school age children. About 80 per cent of the adult population were able to read and write. In 1981, a Presidential Commission was appointed to review the entire education set-up policy, systems curricula and practices and advised the Government on which improvements were necessary and the best ways to effect them. The Commission had completed its work and its report was being studied by the government.

Skill development and maintenance programmes

27. The government had from time to time, been organising specialist skill development and maintenance programmes to meet the needs of various personnel in the public service such as top executive, regional and district commissioners, middle cadres etc. The main objective of these programmes was to enable the intended beneficiaries achieve added dexterity in handling their job demands and responsibilities.

Productive utilization of human resources

28. The Government had consistently endeavoured to ensure that everyone engaged in gainful employment enhanced his standard of living. The latest step in this endeavour had been the promulgation of the Human Resources Development Act in 1983. The National Resources Deployment Scheme has been established by the Act to see to the following:

- Formulation of organised employment-generation projects;
- Making arrangements to ensure that undertakings in these projects occupied residents all year round;
- Give guidance and assistance to the agricultural and other sectors on the proper combination of hard work and skill;
- Make arrangements to cater for the proper allocation and use of skilled and high level manpower and secure the enforcement of their terms of

employment.

A Human Resources Advisory Committee had been established and charged with the responsibility of advising the government upon matters relating to the execution of policy on the full deployment of human resources.

29. In order to effectively co-ordinate and manage the above activities in the field of human resources planning, development and utilization, the Government, in April of this year, merged the former ministries of Manpower Development and Administration, and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare into one Ministry, namely the Ministry of Labour and Manpower Development. This arrangement is expected to expedite efficiency in the treatment of labour and manpower issues.

Regional co-operation

30. Tanzania had participated in regional manpower training programmes such as those organised by the Southern Africa Development Co-ordination Conference the East African Development Bank, the Eastern and Southern African Management Institute. Further afield Tanzania was a member of the Pan African Institute for Development, the African Association for Public Administration and Development (AAPAM) and the African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development. These institutions were important for the dissemination of experience and expertise. It was important to support and expand the scope of their activities for the benefit of more people on the African continent. Last but not least, Tanzania, as a signatory of the Lagos Plan of Action, and the resolutions of the Monrovia Conference in 1981, continued to accord high importance to the issues discussed by the Conference, namely, manpower planning, development and utilization, to realize the full potential for development.

EGYPT

31. The Egyptian delegate stated that Egypt firmly believed that the subject matter of the Conference was one of the greatest challenges facing African countries and that the socio-economic development of Africa was the first challenge that had to be confronted. He indicated that he was, however, convinced that the African the son of civilization, was capable of living up

to the challenge and surmount all difficulties, and positively contribute towards the achievement of development, progress and prosperity of all mankind.

32. The representative reminded the Conference about the Geneva Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) in August in 1984 when resolutions were passed on the promotion of human skills, sources of energy, technology, agricultural development and, in particular, the promotion of co-operation among developing countries in these endeavours. He emphasized that Africa's failure to develop in these areas could be traced to the under-development of manpower resources. Specifically, the causes of this underdevelopment could be linked to the following obstacles:

- (i) Population growth rates that were higher than the rates of economic growth;
- (ii) Concealed unemployment in the agricultural sector leading to low level national productivity;
- (iii) Low level of population quality due to the prevalence of illiteracy and the consequent lack of high technical skills;
- (iv) Relative backwardness of educational and training systems which was incompatible with the current advancement of science and technology;
- (v) Emigration of Africa's highly qualified manpower to the developed countries (the brain drain) which resulted in waste of Africa's investment in its human resources;
- (vi) Lack of basic data on its human resources;
- (vii) Lack of planning and administrative personnel; and
- (viii) Africa's inability to develop technology appropriate to the African situation.

33. In conclusion, the delegate emphasized the necessity for African countries to take concerned and joint effort in the development and establishment of an African common market, institutionalised under one parliament, administered by Africa's own best brains and guided by Africa's own politicians. Where African labour worked outside the region, it should do so under terms that guaranteed reasonable wages and adequate social security. The delegate also called for the free movement of labour within Africa and for

each member State to design its own manpower policies in relation to national development strategies.

MALAWI

34. The Honourable Minister pointed out that when Malawi attained her independence in 1964, like most other developing African countries, she inherited a system of administration the majority of whose servants were expatriates. The Malawi Government recognised and continues to recognise that human resources was a critical input in translating development programmes and plans into reality. It was for that reason that since independence, the capital budget on education and training had steadily grown and stood at about 15% of total Government capital expenditure.

35. Great efforts had been made to produce high and middle level manpower capable of filling posts filled by expatriates and to take on new responsibilities which development administration in the independent nation had posed on the system. Malawi had a University with four constituent colleges which provided education and training in the social sciences, sciences, nursing, engineering, accountancy, law, agriculture, arts, business studies etc. In addition there were a number of technical and vocational training institutions. While Malawi had made substantial progress in the production of quality manpower, she still had shortages in such areas as medicine and allied fields, architecture, quantity surveying and certain disciplines in engineering.

36. One institutional framework the Minister noted that the Department of Personnel Management and Training in the Office of the President and Cabinet was responsible for human resources planning, development and utilization in as far as the public service was concerned. The Ministry of Labour was concerned with human resources development matters for the private sector while the Economic Planning Division, also in the Office of the President and Cabinet, was concerned with overall human resources development issues at the national level. The Ministry of Education was also concerned with manpower planning. There was no central authority to coordinate the activities of all those agencies of Government involved in human resources planning, development and utilization issues. For proper manpower planning, one needed information

as to the manpower requirements of the economy. No comprehensive manpower surveys had been conducted and that information was therefore lacking. As it was costly to mount a nation-wide manpower survey and highly trained and experienced staff needed, it was proposed to begin with sectoral surveys.

37. The Minister stated that Malawi realised that the existing machinery in human resources planning, development and utilization had shortfalls and that a notable move in improving the machinery was the establishment of a Training and Career Development Committee in the Office of the President and Cabinet. Chaired by a Principal Secretary it was responsible for the career development of all officers in the Administrative Common Service. The Department of Personnel Management and Training was represented on that committee. It was expected that such Committees would be formed in the various Ministries and that Common Service Officers posted from the Personnel Management and Training Department would be secretaries to those Committees to facilitate co-ordination by the Department.

38. There were, however, a number of problems to be faced such as unemployment among school leavers, the non-return of some of the students sent overseas for training particularly in medicine, the sharing of human resources responsibilities by different agencies of Government which made it difficult for coordination at the national level, and the lack of proper manpower planning. As a result of some of these problems, some of the manpower produced by the different institutions in the country do not all find gainful employment.

39. In conclusion, the Minister stated that in recognising the problems noted above Government had appointed a Public Service Review Commission to look into the structures and functions of the public service, the conditions of service including the salary structures, human resources planning, development and utilization policies with a view to recommending structural changes where necessary. It was hoped that a number of changes would be implemented as a result of the report due to be submitted to Government during the first half of 1985.

KENYA

40. The Honourable Minister from Kenya said that since the Monrovia Conference the Kenya Government had made considerable progress towards the realization of some of the recommendations agreed upon by the member States. The following are some of the successes Kenya had achieved towards the realization of the Monrovia resolutions and also the constraints it had faced.

41. First the problem of co-ordination of activities in Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization had been given serious attention by the Kenya Government. In this regard the following measures were undertaken:

- (a) Establishment of national manpower development committee in 1983 responsible for overall co-ordination of manpower activities in the country the committee is strategically located in the office of the President.
- (b) Merger of former Ministry of Higher Education and Basic Education into a new Ministry of Education, Science and Technology in October, 1983 to improve co-ordination and efficiency in the education system.

42. In order to make the education system more relevant to the country's socio-economic needs, the Government would with effect from January, 1985, introduce a new education system that will provide 8 years of primary education, 4 years of secondary education and 4 years of University education. In addition, the Government had recently established a second university whose main areas of concentration would be agriculture, forestry, wildlife management and environmental sciences. In order to ensure efficient financial management in the educational system, the Government undertook a study on the financing of higher education.

43. Kenya, like most other African countries was encountering a high rate of unemployment. Efforts to overcome this problem included the following policies and programmes:

- (a) Tripartite agreements between employers, government and workers' unions aimed at increasing employment.
- (b) Kenyanization of high and middle level occupations.

- (c) Generation of employment opportunities in the rural areas through the recently introduced district focus for rural development.
- (d) Promotion of labour-intensive small scale industries through the Kenya industrial estates and Kenya industrial research and development institute.
- (e) A presidential Committee on unemployment was set up in 1982 to recommend measures which would provide a lasting solution to the unemployment problem. The committee completed its work in 1983 and the Government had started implementing some of the Committee's recommendations.
- (f) The Government had from time to time undertaken manpower surveys to determine the stock of its human resources in order to identify areas of imbalances in the labour market with a view to matching supply and demand and also training needs.

44. In order to keep country's population growth in line with the country's resource base and socio-economic performance and potentiality, the Government in 1983 established a national council of population and development which in collaboration with non-governmental agencies, was charged with the responsibility of formulating and implementing appropriate population programmes.

45. In its efforts to improve Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization in the country, the government had faced the following constraints:

- (a) Lack of adequate financial and technical resources to carry out comprehensive manpower surveys on a regular basis.
- (b) The worsening unemployment situation was due to such factors as high growth rate of population, unrealistic expectation of school leavers and the comparatively slower growth of the modern economy. However, existing side by side with growing number of educated unemployed was a shortage of a qualified and specialized manpower to man the various key sectors of the economy.
- (c) Finally, the problem of external and natural factors facing the economy such as unfavourable terms of trade and adverse climatic conditions.

L I B E R I A

46. The Honourable Minister from Liberia said that his Government had pursued a number of measures and strategies aimed at enhancing the quality of human resources since the last meeting in Monrovia. Accordingly, these strategies which included, inter alia, the establishment of administrative and advisory structures as well as the allocation of funds were adopted in the Second-Four-Year National Development Plan (1981 - 85). Emphasis had been placed on the development of primary, technical and vocational education and training and on the improvement of the quality of education at all levels.

47. Liberia's major objective relative to improving the living conditions of the urban and rural dwellers, the low level of manpower efficiency and productivity includes the placement of qualified Liberians in high level of jobs currently occupied by expatriates. In this connection, the Government had begun to pursue such strategies as:

- (a) the promotion of industrial opportunities with preference given to Liberians and industries using local materials;
- (b) the organizing of training programmes for managerial, professional and technical positions;
- (c) the re-orientation of educational strategies and investment giving priority to rural development by making the educational system the primary tool of converting subsistence agriculture to monetary and market type operation and
- (d) the strengthening of vocational and technical training and evolving a long-term programme designed to enhance the productivities of small cash crop farmers and small scale industrial entrepreneurs.

48. As an example of an integrated system for manpower development and employment promotion, a tripartite board, comprising of Government, labour and management, had been constituted to provide the framework for training and employment. Furthermore activities for linking training to employment included the regular collection and publication of statistical data on the growth of the labour force and employment in the formal and informal sectors, the establishment of an employment exchange and labour market information

system, and new programmes for providing on-the-job training for civil servants and those employed by public corporations.

49. Liberia had also underscored the importance of human resources planning, development and utilization in its Development Plan in the following manner:

- (a) to effectively use Liberia's human resources as the most significant input in national development efforts;
- (b) to categorize all skilled personnel and effectively make an assessment of long-ranged needs of the skills;
- (c) to curtail or minimize obstacles to human resources development through further education and training so as to facilitate the achievement of development objectives;
- (d) to fully utilize the existing and planned educational and training institutions in order to produce the much needed manpower;
- (e) to expand adult education programmes to achieve higher literacy levels;
- (f) to enhance employee performance and career development within both the public and private sectors through further education and training;
- (g) to minimize on the dependence of expatriate manpower through the enforcement of Liberianization and
- (h) to encourage and support those Liberians with entrepreneurial talents to become self-reliant in their income-earning activities through a grant which the Government of Liberia has deposited at the National Bank of Liberia and the International Trust Company of Liberia.

50. The Liberian economy had been less than favourable as a consequence of declining revenues due to weak world markets demand for Liberians main exports, mounting debt services, doubling the minimum wage for public sector employees in April of 1980, and widening foreign exchange gap. In view of the financial constraints, Government was instituting a comprehensive and effective financial system designed to facilitate Liberia's scarce resources. In its effort to improve the financial management capability in the public sector, Government, in collaboration with the United States Government, was institutionaliz-

ing a national in-country skills oriented training programme for public and financial management and administration. In view of the acute shortage of middle and high level skilled manpower, the Government had intensified its training efforts by providing training facilities for Liberians both locally and in foreign parts in order to increase the number of trained Liberians.

SIERRA LEONE

51. In his statement, the Minister said that since the Monrovia Declaration of 1979 and the Lagos Plan of Action in 1980, Sierra Leone had intensified her search for the achievement of a national integrated approach to the efficient management of human resources. Studies had highlighted the need for changes in the structure, staffing, data and information systems and co-ordination of human resources management. To that end, a draft national training policy was drawn up and discussed by senior officers in the Civil Service, parastatal bodies and the private sector. Further discussion on the issues that surfaced were planned.

52. The problems existing in Sierra Leone with regard to human resources development were, principally:-

- Fragmented approach and lack of co-ordination;
- Shortage of skilled manpower in the managerial and scientific fields and in the implementation of manpower development policies;
- High unemployment rate;
- Lack of training consciousness and commitment on the part of senior officials managing human resources; and
- Shortage of financial resources necessary for the implementation of training and development programmes for human resources.

53. The Minister said that efforts were being intensified in the provision and development of non-formal education and more relevant primary and secondary education as well as technical and vocational training. The development of educational planning and a comprehensive data bank received their due emphasis. Vocational, technical and agricultural education, notably craft training, technical agricultural as well as commercial education featured in the

curricula of the technical and vocational institutes and some of the secondary schools.

54. Recognising that agriculture was the backbone of the economy and in view of the limited absorptive capacity of the modern sector, encouragement was given to the development of the rural sector using labour-intensive technology and exploiting locational advantages. That would not only reduce the concentration of industries in the urban areas, but it would also reduce the human exodus to the cities and create full-time employment in the rural areas. The Ministry of Labour would play a prominent role in that exercise through:

- the regulation of the employment market and the facilitation of job placement;
- the formulation and implementation of measures aimed at creating jobs;
- the development and improvement of skills through vocational training and management development schemes;
- the better utilization of the labour force including the provision of advisory services to employers and trade unions; and
- the gathering of suitable and relevant data.

55. The role of employers and worker organizations was also envisaged to stress the increase of employment and enhancement of productivity through the use of local materials and labour-intensive techniques, the provision of on-the-job training, apprenticeships and the improvement of working conditions. In this regard, the Minister pointed out that the educational and training programmes of worker organizations, like co-operatives would help remove the problems of resistance to change and negative attitudes to work as well as help to create employment.

56. In his concluding remarks, the Minister stressed that in view of the fundamental importance attached to it, training, including specialised training, should be continuous throughout the careers of workers who should be well remunerated to avoid the flight of highly skilled manpower from the Civil Service to the parastatal bodies and the private sector.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

57. The representative of the Central African Republic opened his statement by congratulating the Chairman and the other officers on their election to direct the work of the Conference. On behalf of the President, the Military Committee of National Reconstruction and the people of the Central African Republic he expressed warm thanks to the Ethiopian Government for agreeing to host the Second Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization as the country in which ECA had its headquarters.

58. Two years after the Monrovia Conference, the ministers were once again assembled to emphasize the importance of human resources in the economic, social and cultural development of African countries, and more importantly, to assess the implementation of the resolutions adopted at different meetings held in Africa.

59. The present Conference, to which his Government attached special importance, should learn from past mistakes in economic, social and cultural development policy so as to derive maximum benefit from the various national policies on human resources management and planning. In the case of his country, which was suffering especially from the crisis vis-a-vis the general run of countries in the region the employment figures were dramatic.

60. Financially, despite the efforts by the Government of the Military Committee of National Reconstruction, the share of the national budget earmarked for productive investment was still too small.

61. Employment problems were intimately related to educational problems. It was not superfluous to point out that teaching was glaringly inappropriate to the needs of the job market.

62. The purpose of development was the liberation of the individual through the harnessing of all the forces of nature, both physical and human, and that implied simultaneous action by the public authorities in all economic, social, political and cultural spheres.

63. The success of an economic and social development programme depended largely on the availability of a trained and properly educated labour force. A country's human resources, therefore, were made up of the population's working capacity in both physical and intellectual terms. In the final analysis, they were the most important resources of all, and vital for exploiting other natural resources. The indigenization process, a dynamic voluntary movement, consisted or involving the maximum number of Central African nationals in the process of production and the creation of wealth, while simultaneously moving them into the decision-taking levels of business. Important structural reforms had been made in the National Labour Office, and a new direction had been taken in labour policy.

64. Between 26 March and 9 April 1983 the Government had held a national seminar on education and training in Bangui, which had put forward solutions and new courses of action to pursue.

65. The World Health Organization had defined health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. Since the Alma-Ata Conference, which had advocated health for all by the year 2000, many countries had buckled down to the task. His own country, under the leadership of the Military Committee of National Reconstruction headed by General Andre Kolingba, had been making praiseworthy efforts in that direction for the past two years. Recognizing the situation, the Government had constructed its health policy around the rural population as the driving force in its development strategy. A radical reorganization of the Ministry of Health had resulted in a dynamic structure comprising five health districts with clearly defined objectives, operating under four major departments; the Department of Curative Medicine; the Department of Maternal and Child Health and Family Planning; the Department of Preventive Medicine and Endemic Disease Control; and the Department of Sanitation and Environmental Health.

66. As regards general planning, sectoral planning units had been set up by the Planning Commissariat in national ministries and bodies.

67. The establishment of structures for the education, planning and utilization of human resources was the first step to be taken, but it was also

important to note action by his Government to streamline its administrative and financial systems.

68. The policy courses being followed by his country as regards human, financial and administrative resource management were entirely germane to the subject of the current meetings and represented a laudable effort and an act of great courage by a country sorely tried by prolonged tragedy.

69. Much, however, remained to be done. Accordingly, the Government of the Military Committee of National Reconstruction, at the instigation of General Andre Kolingba, had taken upon itself the daunting task of putting the nation's human resources to proper use.

RWANDA

70. The representative of Rwanda congratulated the Chairman on his election and the ECA secretariat for organizing the Conference and said that in conformity with the resolutions of the Monrovia Conference, his country was keenly interested in the development and utilization of human resources. The problem of human resources taken as a whole covered population, employment, permanent education, training and health. All these aspects or variables however depended on the population variable. Thus, any plans for jobs, training and health should be closely related to population increase; those various factors should therefore develop in the light of population changes develop. Rwanda had a very high rate of population growth of 3.7 per cent. That high population growth rate affected all national development efforts and influenced the Government's efforts to provide the people with wholesome food.

71. Thus, his Government had established a population policy based on family planning and was doing its utmost to provide the appropriate means for carrying out that policy.

72. The impact of the high population growth rate had begun to be felt especially in the area of jobs. Promoting the better utilization of human resources was the secondary objective of the second five year development plan for 1977-81. It had not been possible to assess statistically how far

that objective had been achieved. It could however be stated that the employment aspect of that objective had only been partly achieved. The establishment of labour intensive industrial, public or private enterprises had been satisfactory.

73. Building firms using labour-intensive techniques were on the increase. Some specific projects had been launched especially the pilot labour-intensive public works programme launched in 1981 and finished in 1983. However, apart from those specific programmes which were implemented, the major public facilities built were built using capital-intensive techniques. That situation was due to the fact that the facilities were built with external funds. With respect to the labour market, the employment bureau had just been restructured. Some of the bureau's activities had been streamlined to ensure greater efficiency and a more rational utilization of available resources. Following the recent restructuring of the administration, a labour statistics department was set up in the Civil Service and Vocational Training Ministry. However those measures were difficult to implement because of a shortage of qualified staff. That was why in that area priority was given to training staff on-the-job in order to familiarize them with the new procedures. In order to rectify the above shortcomings, the second five year plan for 1982-86 considered the creation of remunerative employment as one of its major objectives. Thus employment was a factor for improving living conditions and should form the basis for any investment project options.

74. The results of the August 1978 population census indicated that 94.5 per cent of Rwanda's population was active. Two-thirds of the population, 63 percent, was illiterate. 51 percent of the active male population was illiterate while 74 per cent of the active female population was illiterate. Permanent training centres in the communes were responsible for organizing literacy programmes based on the development activities of the communes where they were set up. In order to strengthen functional literacy programmes, short-term training programmes for literacy monitors would be organized at the same time as appropriate reading materials and basic teaching materials would be supplied.

75. The shortage of qualified manpower among the active population was the

reason why the reform of Rwanda's educational system was undertaken. The main aim of the reform was to make the whole educational system profession-oriented in the light of the requirements of the labour market. The aim of the reform of secondary education was to adapt it to the requirements of the country in terms of graduates from the various branches of the system. Similarly, there were several options in the area of higher education where means of working out programmes suitable to users were planned. In some areas where there was a shortage of specialists, specialization fellowships abroad were offered. In order to rapidly fill in the gaps between manpower qualification requirements and actual training opportunities offered, some employers were organizing informal adult technical training programmes and on-the-job training programmes. The Civil Service and Vocational Training Ministry was responsible for programme policies and co-ordination. With respect to the problem on technology and the shortage of national manpower, a scientific and technological policy had been designed which was made up of two major components, namely, national activities on scientific and technological research and the selection and acquisition of imported technologies.

76. At the sub-regional level, Rwanda was deeply involved in human resources promotion programmes, the exchange of experiences and students in the various institutes and universities both within the framework of the Kagera Basin Organization and the Economic Community of Great Lakes countries and soon within the Free Trade Area and the Economic Community of Central African States. At the regional level, Rwanda was a signatory to the convention on the African Regional Centre for Technology, the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning and so on. In addition to sub-regional co-operation, Rwanda intended to develop bilateral relations with African countries as part of co-operation in the areas of training, employment and health.

SENEGAL

77. The representative of Senegal began by expressing his pleasure at being able to attend the Second Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization, then conveyed his Government's congratulations on the holding of the Conference, which he wished every success in its work. He voiced his thanks to the Government and people of

Socialist Ethiopia for their hospitality and warm welcome to all delegations, and to the Economic Commission for Africa for its efforts to make the Conference a success. Continuing his statement, he said that the Lagos Plan of Action, which called for the implementation of the Monrovia Strategy for the economic development of Africa, sketched out the broad outlines of human resources planning, development and utilization. The Conference had seized on one principal theme of the Lagos Plan, namely that human resources were Africa's best trump card and, once fully mobilized, ought to prove an instrument of cardinal importance for national development and social progress.

78. That vision formed the backdrop to the human resources development strategy pursued in his country, which hinged on the development of education, training and jobs, sectors which had always figured prominently in its successive economic and social development plans. The broad outlines of that strategy generally followed the recommendations of the Monrovia Conference. Education was the most effective means human societies had found of transmitting know-how from one generation to the next and one civilization to another. At the same time, it was a principal factor in development in so far as it could raise professional qualifications to any given level and train the middle- and high-level management staff needed for economic and social progress in African countries.

79. A system of general education, however, would have been insufficient to prepare the pupils of the world properly for the world of work without a system of vocational training to back it up. In the belief that vocational training was an essential factor in the efficient exploitation of human resources, his Government had in 1983 set up a State Secretariat of Technical Education and Vocational Training with clearly defined objectives; end purpose of education; matching of education with employment; co-ordination of training.

80. An appropriate educational policy in the framework of a strategy for human resource development went hand-in-hand with an active policy in the sphere of employment, which needed to be accompanied by moves to steer sectoral policies in the direction of full employment.

81. This had been one of the goals in Senegal's series of plans for economic and social development, and would be pursued all the more vigorously under the seventh plan, now in preparation. In brief, the object was to offer the maximum number of jobs in all sectors of activity (primary, secondary and tertiary) so as to absorb the new arrivals in the cities, while offering enough job opportunities for rural workers to discourage them from migrating towards the urban centres.

82. The State had taken a number of steps to deal with adverse developments in redundancy and underemployment: they could be divided into institutional, general and special-purpose measures.

83. The various steps taken by the State had made it possible to create a significant number of jobs.

84. In view of the peculiar features of the current economic climate and unemployment levels, which affected the various categories of job-hunters differently and unequally, the Emergency Job Creation Plan gave priority to young graduates from higher educational institutions, secondary-school and college leavers, junior technicians, non-graduate workers, young people in rural areas and, finally, Senegalese emigre workers opting to return home. It should be mentioned that a ministry had been designated to take charge of the immigrant question.

85. One of the goals of the sixth plan for economic and social development (1981-1985), as of previous plans, had been to reduce unemployment among graduates of higher educational establishments. That goal had been more or less attained. The recent National Emergency Plan now aimed at creating as many job opportunities as there were unemployed graduates of higher education.

86. Obviously, human resource planning, development and utilization in Africa could not attain its stated objectives without active co-operation between the States of the continent. His country would, therefore, continue to open the doors of its university and training institutions to African students wishing to improve their education. His country was convinced that occasions such as the present Conference could not but enhance the moves

towards co-operation already being made by African States.

C H A D

87. The Secretary of State for Planning of Chad thanked ECA for inviting his country to participate in the second Conference of African Ministers responsible for Human Resource Planning, Development and Utilization; he also thanked the secretariat for the warm welcome accorded to his delegation on its arrival in Addis Ababa.

88. His Government regretted not being able to participate in the first conference held in Monrovia in October 1981. That Conference which was part of the strategy for the implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action was of crucial importance to Chad.

89. The Government of the Third Republic, aware of Chad's backwardness in the field of socio-economic development, had made remarkable efforts to improve the lot of the people who had been affected by nearly 20 years of civil war and external aggression.

90. One of the Government's priorities was the development of human resources. Government policy in that respect could not be understood without a firm grasp of the country's economic situation which was characterized by poor finances, a shattered educational system, educational facilities in disarray, a brain drain, a shortage of high level manpower, unemployment and underemployment.

91. His Government's policy consisted of trying to remedy as much as possible that disastrous situation by restoring the economic situation in general and laying down appropriate priorities.

92. There were a number of constraints in implementing the human resources management policy; the shortage of funds, shortage of manpower and qualified staff, the almost total lack of infrastructure and a lack of management data and machineries.

93. The activities that had been implemented so far were carried out through the assistance of friendly countries and international organizations especially the partial release of funds totaling 10,275 billion CFA francs pledged by the Conference of International Assistance to Chad held in Geneva in November 1982. Although that effort by the international community was laudable, it remained inadequate in view of the enormous requirements in that sector.

94. It was therefore impossible for the Government to undertake a coherent policy on human resources planning, development and utilization. Current policy consisted of sight flying. After that phase of reconstruction, there were plans for drawing up an interim development plan and then a genuine economic development plan.

95. He reiterated his Government's appeal to the international community and ECA in particular to provide Chad with financial and technical assistance to enable it to develop its human resources.

G A B O N

96. On behalf of his delegation, the Gaboness Minister congratulated the Chairman of the Conference for being elected to steer the proceedings of the meeting.

97. His delegation's contribution to the discussions on human resources planning, and development was quite small because the Ministry of Human Resources, for which he was responsible, had only just been established.

98. His Ministry which was also responsible for the construction of facilities was considering ways of defining what impact its activities would have on the economic and social life of the country. He was happy to note that his concerns with respect to human resources management were exactly the same as those voiced by other representatives at the meeting.

99. His country considered man as the principal factor of development, that was why everything possible should be done to provide man with intellectual

and moral training to make him fully responsible for his future and put him firmly in control of development.

100. To do that, man should be associated with the development programmes laid down and be given the appropriate intellectual and professional training.

101. Managers should know how to manage their affairs before they could manage the affairs of others; African countries seemed to be facing management problems which often led to the collapse of some projects.

102. Human resources management was therefore a pre-requisite to financial resources management even if on the strength of evidence, financial constraints were often a serious obstacle to the development of any given country.

103. The proof was that no country could attempt to initiate any promotion drive without quantitative and qualitative human capital. That was why the most profitable investment was to concentrate on man and develop all his potential.

104. As man was the potential sources of peace and could ensure that development would be uniform everywhere he should be trained and given responsibilities.

Z A I R E

105. The representative of Zaire said that he was glad to be attending the Conference and thus contributing, in his small way, to the effort to solve the problems that all across Africa were hampering the planning, development and full use of the continent's human resources.

106. Some time previously his country had taken the decision to put people at the centre of its social and economic development.

107. Zaire was experiencing rapid population growth, with a natural rate of increase of around 2.8 per cent. Population forecasts by the Department (ministry) of Planning established that the country's population had grown

from 13 million in 1956 to 30 million in 1984. In 1984 rural dwellers accounted for 62 per cent of the total. The working population was put at 12 million, 80 per cent of whom were employed in the farming and rural sectors. The rate of growth of the working population, currently around 2.1 per cent, was expected to increase between 1985 and 1990.

108. To bring human resource planning firmly and genuinely within its over-all planning process, his country had taken its first ever general census of the population from 1 to 15 July 1984; provisional findings would be published incontinently.

109. The need to reform the country's educational system had been spelt out by President Mobutu Sese Seko in a speech delivered on 4 February 1980 to the people's elected representatives. The reforms announced in June 1981 entailed the refinement and professionalization of primary and secondary education.

110. The June 1981 reform of higher education consisted of:

(a) The introduction of machinery for unblocking infrastructural bottleneck through policies of construction and strategy design;

(b) The decentralization of higher education and university management and the establishment throughout the country of other institutions in the light of actual requirements for each type of education, under a policy that would make it possible to bring centres of learning closer to their consumers.

111. In addition to these moves on the school and academic fronts, Zaire had set up a National Vocational Training Institute to make the necessary educational arrangements for increasing the professional qualifications of the country's working population.

112. In the same context, the young people's arm of the Mouvement populaire de la révolution was organizing professional apprenticeship courses to combat inactivity among young people without an education, provide a safety net for those turned away from classical educational establishments, put the brakes on rural exodus by making it easier for young people in the countryside to

settle into their environment, and provide the growing agricultural and handicraft sectors with additional manpower.

113. In parallel with economic growth, it was the Government's intention to emphasize employment problems.

114. The need for administrative reform had been recognized at the highest levels of Zaire's political leadership, which had laid down the guidelines for all the administrative reforms undertaken since 1981.

115. In July 1981 the President of the Republic had promulgated an act establishing a career civil service structure for the State's public services. The appointments of all the career staff in the State public services had been made public in July 1983.

116. At the same time as those appointments, a new statutory wage scale had been signed and had come into effect as of October 1983.

117. The purpose of all the reforms and other measures was to make better of the nation's human resources through more rational deployment and a general improvement of the legal and financial conditions in which they went about their professional duties.

118. The various steps would be tirelessly pursued, backed up and improved upon by the Government throughout its forthcoming five-year plan for 1986-1990; the Government hoped to have the support of the international community in general and the specialized agencies of the United Nations in particular in its endeavours.

B E N I N

119. The representative of the People's Republic of Benin said that for a number of years now his country had been carrying out an experiment designed to liberate it in the political, economic and socio-cultural spheres. The fundamental reform of the educational system initiated nearly $1\frac{1}{4}$ years ago and which was being vigorously pursued was the key element of the new strategy

of human resources development. The reform was meant on the one hand to better adapt the educational system to national, social, cultural and economic conditions and, on the other hand, to make the educational system a tool of development. The current difficulties encountered in the implementation of those noble objectives were brought to light following the assessment of the system in 1981. The difficulties were: a shortage of teaching staff and inspectors at all levels of the educational system, the low level of qualification of teachers, the shortage of teaching materials, and a shortage of facilities. Such factors contributed, to some extent, to the currently developed general deterioration in teaching standards.

120. Moreover, Benin was encountering several problems in training and employment. It devoted enormous human and financial resources to training and education. It also had difficulties in using trained manpower optimally. The manpower trained had problems in terms of quantity, qualitative discrepancies between trained manpower and jobs offered; there were also problems pertaining to the low productivity of qualified manpower and a shortage of statistics on jobs and training.

121. In the light of those difficulties, efforts were made to try and find solutions through the establishment of institutions and implementation of studies and surveys during the period under review.

122. In June 1984, a national human resources committee was established as a think tank on the co-ordination of inter-ministerial policies on human resources planning.

123. Apart from the activities actually implemented by the Government, other measures had been planned namely: the holding of a national seminar on employment which define a general employment training and retraining strategy in Benin; the need to finance and set up the new project on human resources planning in order to carry out studies and surveys on jobs both in the modern and traditional urban and rural sectors; the need to develop the rural sector by defining a genuine rural employment and income policy; the need to improve the living conditions of the rural masses by generally establishing and promoting labour-intensive projects.

124. The above strategy could not be implemented without training and gradually setting up permanent national teams responsible for studies, statistics, planning and the management of human resources and by strengthening all the structures involved in human resources planning, development and utilization.

G U I N E A

125. On behalf of the Guinean Government and Head of State, Colonel Sansouma Conte, the Guinean Minister of Planning and Statistics expressed deep thanks to the Ethiopian Government and people for their hospitality and to Mr. Adebayo Adedeji for the constant support that he personally had always extended to Guinea in its development efforts.

126. He stressed the problems that his Government had inherited from the former regime in the planning, development and utilization of human resources.

127. Being aware of how things stood, the Government, in response to the important decisions that had ensued from earlier gatherings, had set up institutional frameworks sector by sector through a series of national conferences and seminars in sectors such as education, agriculture and health care.

Education The national conference had adopted a three-year interim plan to: specify the language for teaching and resolve the associated problems; enhance the quality of the teaching body; improve the level of pupils and students; prepare teaching materials; and establish suitable teaching facilities.

Agriculture The priority measures called for by the conference included specialization by higher-level management and the training of farm workers and liberalization of private enterprise with due regard for different climatic zones.

Health care There were plans to revitalize and reorganize this sector particularly in such areas as material child support, occupational medicine and primary health care services.

128. Refresher courses for staff already embarked upon their careers were also planned.

129. All the steps he referred to were integral parts of the three-year national development plan to be launched in January 1985 and carried into effect with the help of friendly countries and some international institutions.

130. In other words, his country needed the full and whole-hearted support of ECA and all the agencies in developing and utilizing its human resources if it was to be able to attend the meeting in the year 2000.

U G A N D A

131. In his address to the Conference of Ministers responsible for Human Resources Planning Development and Utilization, the Honourable Minister of Public Service and Cabinet Affairs stated that after Monrovia, the Government of Uganda introduced a package of monetary and fiscal reforms. These measures were designed to revive production and ensure effective control of public expenditure. The main elements of the package included:

- Adjustment of the exchange rate of the Uganda Shilling
- Increase of producer prices for export crops
- Removal of price controls
- Introduction of tax reforms to broaden government revenue base and to reduce loopholes in the system and
- Introduction of a more remunerative and flexible structure of interest rates.

132. The results of these measures had begun to emerge. Production had appreciably increased and the country had been able to reverse the economic decline of the seventies.

133. The second development in Uganda was the adoption of the Recovery Programme in May 1982. These were strategies and projects Government had adopted to increase production and were being revised/reviewed from time to time. Uganda, the Minister went on, had had to undertake rehabilitation and restructuring of the economy simultaneously. The primary objective of the

Programme was the improvement of the quality of life of the people through better education, water supply, food production and security. He noted that high quality human resources yielded higher productivity and thus leading to faster rehabilitation and development. One of the major constraints inhibiting the implementation of the Programme was human resources; lack of professional managerial and artisan manpower. This situation was realized through carrying out periodic manpower surveys. The Government of Uganda had conducted seminars, workshops and meetings of both middle and top level manpower with the principle aim of taking stock and appraising status, effectiveness and adequacy of existing machinery in promoting integrated approach to human resources planning, development and utilization. The outputs of these workshops, seminars and meetings had been the subjects of further discussion by the Permanent Secretaries and Cabinet.

134. The Government had also decided to bring development planning to micro levels by the establishment of planning units in every ministry. Such units had been formed or were in the process of being established. The major problem was, however, lack of qualified and experienced personnel to man the units but every effort was being made to train these planning staff with assistance from World Bank. It was hoped that each ministry would undertake on a continuous basis, planning activities including manpower employment and productivity planning.

135. The formation of a number of Commissions/Committees were being considered. National Planning Commission was being established so as to attend to long-term aspects of social economic planning and to replace the existing Committee on Mobilization of External Resources for development. In the area of education both the Central Scholarships and Independent Scholarships Committees had been revived to enable the training of Ugandans both at home and abroad in a bid to reduce manpower gaps in key technical, professional and managerial levels, and to lessen dependence on technical assistance personnel. A National Education Commission would be established in due course to review the present educational systems and practices and with the aim to recommend improvements as well as rationalization of education for development.

136. The Minister reiterated that Government's policy regarding employment was based on the understanding that labour was a major factor of production and that since labour means people, the policy was thus geared towards continually improving the quality of life of the producers of wealth, mainly the peasants and the workers. Within the limited resources and in view of the massive rehabilitation and reconstruction needs of the economy, Government had tried to satisfy the needs of the workers by dramatically increasing producer prices for export crops and by paying greatly enhanced wages and salaries to its workers averaging a magnitude of 450%.

137. Efforts were also being made to enhance industrial management skills. Through accelerated training programme, Vocational Training Institutions which undertook training in skills such as carpentry, joinery, bricklaying, brickmaking, building, welding, motormechanics, etc. were being strengthened. The graduates from these institutions were provided with tool kits to enable them become self-employed, preferably in rural areas.

138. In conclusion the Minister stated that Uganda fully supported the recommendations of Monrovia and as such Makerere University had left its door open to students from other parts of Africa and that the country subscribed to the African regional and sub-regional institutions like ESAMI, African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research and East African Statistical Training Centre. He called for closer African regional, sub-regional co-operation in an endeavour to eradicate from the face of Africa poverty, ignorance and disease. Appeal was also made to the international community to respond productively with magnitude and coordinated programmes to support continental policies and strategies aimed at improving the quality of life of the people.

Report of the Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Nine

139. The Chairman of the Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Nine presented document E/ECA/HRP/MC/84/1/Rev. 1 "Report of the First and Second Meetings of the Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Nine". Following presentation, the report - including the Terms of Reference and the Rules of Procedure - was discussed and adopted as amended by the Conference.

Report of the Technical Committee of Officials

140. The Chairman of the Technical Committee of Officials introduced document E/ECA/HRP/TC/84/15, "Report of the Second Technical Preparatory Committee of the Second Conference of Ministers responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization". The Conference, after thorough discussion, adopted the report as amended.

Date and Venue of the Next Meeting

141. The Honourable Minister of the Republic of Gabon informed the meeting that Gabon would like to host the Third Conference of Ministers in 1987. The Chairman, on behalf of the Conference, expressed his gratitude to the Government of Gabon, through the Honourable Minister, for this offer which the Conference accepted.

MY EXPERIENCE IN HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA

UMETSU CHIEKO

1. SCIENCE & MATHS VOLUNTEER TEACHERS IN AFRICA

Since three volunteers were dispatched to Kenya in 1965, the number of J.O.C.V. (JAPAN OVERSEAS COOPERATION VOLUNTEERS; hereafter J.O.C.V.) volunteers in Africa increased gradually with some fluctuations during the past 20 years. (Fig.1, Table 1)

The total number reached 2,044 up to the present, out of which 297 (14.5%) were Sci.& Maths teachers. At the beginning, 19 teachers were sent to Tanzania in 1968 and later 3 to Kenya in 1973. After that, 95 teachers were sent to Kenya up to 1 Jan, 1985. At present 24 out of 97 volunteers at work in Kenya are Sci.& Maths teachers (24.7%). In addition to this 15 teachers are under training before dispatch and 18 are planning to be sent in the first group of the fiscal year 1985.

The general trend of this rapid increase in number of Sci.& Maths teachers indicates that the volunteer work in the field of maths and science education is a big demand and becoming the largest sector of Japanese volunteers in Kenya.

2. KENYAN SCHOOL SYSTEM & HARAMBEE SCHOOLS

After independence in 1964, there was a great need to provide equal educational opportunities for all. This created the establishment of a large number of Harambee

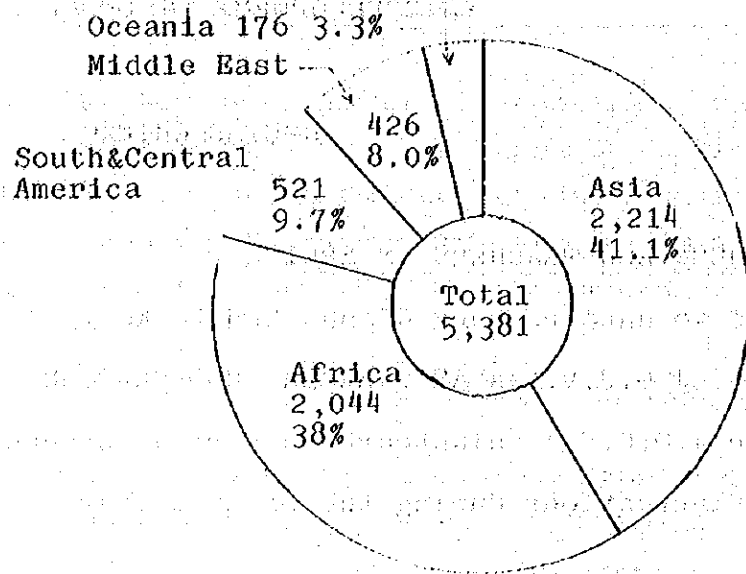


Fig. 1. Total number of volunteers dispatched up to 1 Jan. 1985

FISCAL YEAR	TANZANIA	KENYA	MALAWI	GHANA	ZAMBIA	LIBERIA	NIGER	TOTAL (Sci.T.)	TOTAL (Africa)
1965									3
66									41
67									16
68	19							19	49
69	2							2	67
70	1							1	52
71	0							0	70
72	1							1	113
73		3						3	68
74		1	3					4	80
75		8	7					15	93
76		1	7					8	96
77		8	3	7				18	103
78		7	7	9				23	141
79		13	11	11				35	168
80		17	20	7				44	175
81		14	14	10	2	3		43	198
82		12	8	7	0	8		35	205
83		8	12	7	1	1		29	191
84		3	5	6	0	2	1	17	115
TOTAL	23	95	97	64	3	14	1	297	2,044

Table 1. Number of Science & Maths Teachers dispatched to Africa. (1 Jan. 1985)

Secondary Schools in the local areas by the fund raising of the local community. "Harambee" means "Cooperate!" in Kiswahili and is a slogan of the self-help movement for the development of the country after independence. The number of secondary schools increased from 151 in 1963 to 1,901 in 1981 of which 1,053 were Harambee Schools. Also, the number of students increased from 31,000 to 465,000 in 19 years. (Fig.2, Fig.3)

Kenyan Government has introduced 8 years' primary education starting this year in order to extend the period of free education from 7 to 8 years. Also, in order to increase the opportunity for the employment after leaving primary school, technical subjects are being taught at this level. As a result of this reformation of the educational system, the 7-4-2-3 system will be converted completely into the 8-4-4 new system by 1993. (Fig.4)

3. THE GENERAL SITUATIONS OF HARAMBEE SCHOOLS

As mentioned before, the Harambee Schools are in the fore-front of education for developing human resources in the local areas. However, it would be worth while mentioning some of the main problems of Harambee Schools.

a) Shortage of teachers

Most of the Harambee Secondary Schools are suffering from a shortage of teachers, especially qualified teachers. To a large extent they rely on the untrained 'A' level (Form VI) leavers due to a lack of qualified teachers in Kenya and insufficient budget to employ enough

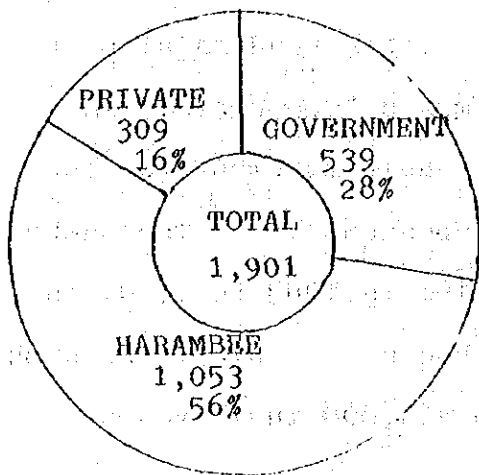


Fig.2. Number of Secondary Schools in 1981
(Figures from T. Toyoda '83)

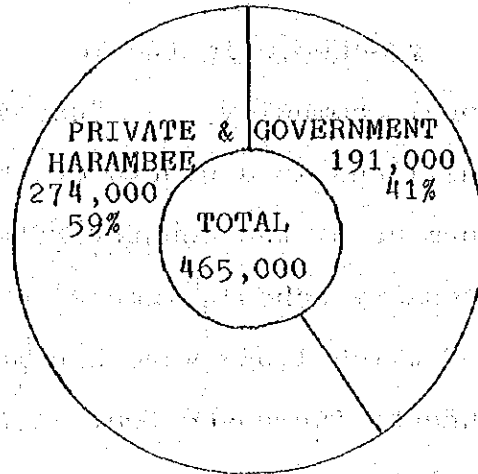


Fig.3. Number of Secondary School students in 1981
(Figures from T. Toyoda '83)

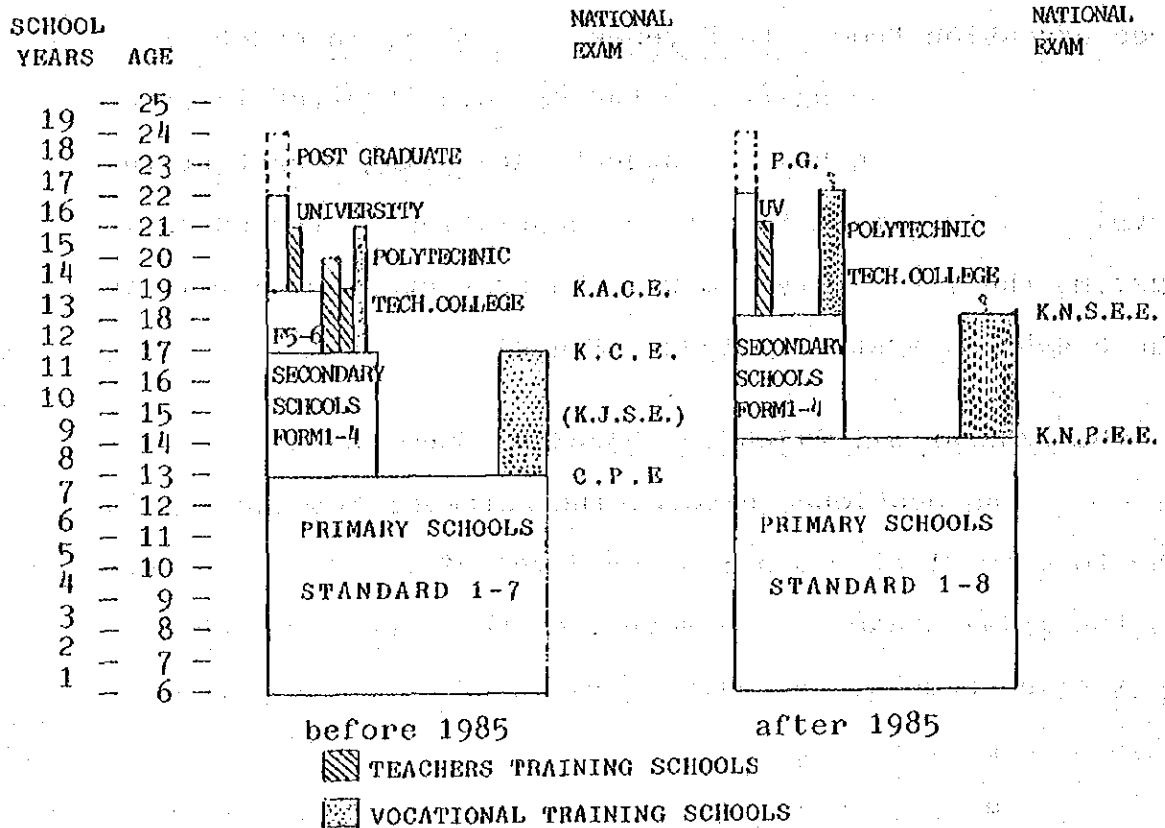


Fig.4. Reformation of Educational System in Kenya

C.P.E. ; CERTIFICATE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION
 K.C.E. ; KENYA CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION
 K.A.C.E.; KENYA ADVANCED CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION
 (K.J.S.E.);KENYA JUNIOR SECONDARY EXAMINATION
 K.N.P.E.E.; KENYA NATIONAL, PRIMARY EDUCATION EXAMINATION
 K.N.S.E.E.; KENYA NATIONAL, SECONDARY EDUCATION EXAMINATION

qualified teachers. Of the 26 Harambee Schools surveyed in 1981, only 35.7% of the teachers were qualified local T.S.C. (TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION) teachers.

Transfer of teachers happens very often in such schools and this causes incomplete, "patch work" teaching. After 2 years of my contract, I found myself being one of the senior staff members of the school.

In Harambee Schools especially, where they have frequent financial problems, the volunteer teachers play a very important role in assisting the school.

b) Shortage of facilities

Harambee Schools are usually located in areas where no electricity and sometimes no water supply is available. Facilities such as classrooms, science laboratory, teaching materials and textbooks are far from sufficient. Shortage of school food and water sometimes results in the school closing down for weeks. In 1981 some Harambee Schools which J.O.C.V. assists changed their status into Government-Harambee Schools which meant that at least one stream was taken by the government. This indicates that the efforts of the volunteers in teaching and installing school equipment possibly contributed in up-grading the school status to some extent.

c) Academic background

Generally mathematics is one of the weak points of the Kenyan students (Fig.5). It is supposed this is partly due to the social background of the students, inadequate textbooks and poor teaching methods.

Change towards an appropriate maths syllabus suitable for local students and an appropriate teaching method would be very necessary.

Consequently in January 1981, suddenly with one month's notice, teachers had to start teaching old maths to new Form I students instead of the present new maths. New maths contains Topology, Sets and so forth, which are interesting to know but is not considered to be useful for the future life of students.

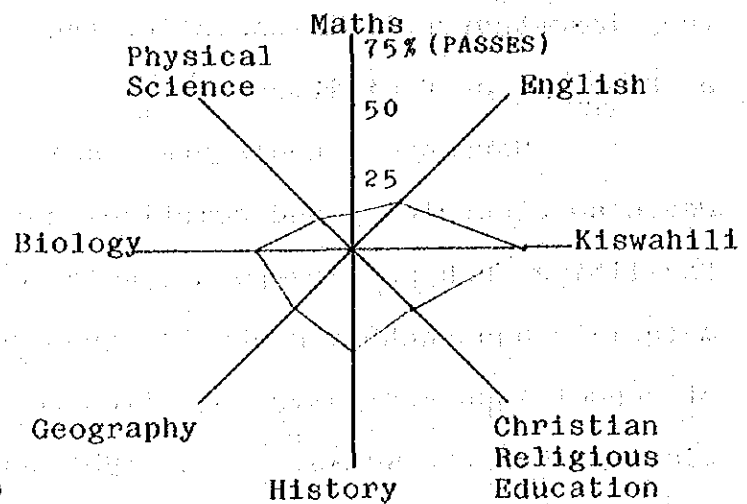


Fig.5. Results of Kenya Certificate of Education (Kiriani H.S.1981)

d) Financial problems

Students of the government class were recruited by government standard of C.P.E. (CERTIFICATE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION) and generally students in Harambee classes have less C.P.E. results. However, considering that the best class of Harambee stream showed almost the same results in my school, some Government-Harambee Schools are approaching the level of the government schools as far as academic results concerned.

Financial problem exists for both students and the

schools. At the time of school fee payment, it's very discouraging for us to see some of the excellent students leaving school, because of inadequate funds. Consequently a scholarship fund was started by resident J.O.C.V. volunteers. However, appropriate long term measures should be taken to provide scholarships to these deserving students who would otherwise drop out of school.

e) Students conduct:

I believe one of the important aspects of education is character building. Sometimes even local teachers were culture-shocked by their students conduct, for example, lying cheating, stealing, sexual misconduct and general irresponsibility.

A second thing to be noted is that the communities still retain their tribal customs such as circumcision as a very important initial rite for boys. In the past, tribal customs and taboos helped a young person know what was right and wrong. Nowadays however, with the loss of these tribal customs, students don't know how to control and discipline themselves.

As teachers, we cannot do away with character building, because I believe character building helps to improve academic results. Good academic results with sound character must be the one of the objectives of education.

4. WHY SCIENCE & MATHS EDUCATION IS IMPORTANT?

The importance of a basic maths & science education is without doubt, essential for the various technical subjects. After the educational reformation which has started this year,

more emphases will be put on these technical subjects, especially at the Primary level education although at present facilities of the primary schools are very poor compared with the local Harambee Schools. Technical training at the secondary level will also become more important in the future and more secondary schools will change their curriculum by adding technical subjects, also the number of technical (vocational) training school will increase to meet the local needs.

I believe that in order to develop a spirit of self reliance and logical thinking at individual level, science & maths education is very important. One of the important aspects of Human Resources Development is to develop a person who can look around his given situations objectively and try to do something for the betterment of his life.

5. HARAMBEE SCHOOLS & VOLUNTEER TEACHERS IN THE FUTURE

There is still a big need for Sci. & Math volunteer teachers especially in the small Harambee Schools which have no financial ability to employ enough qualified teachers. In order to improve the quantity of human resources at the secondary level, various efforts to provide schools with necessary facilities, equipment and qualified teachers would be necessary.

Education is a long term process, the effects of which is not easy to evaluate; however a leveling up of the education will be essential for the development of the country.

4. Summary of Discussions

(After Umetsu's presentation)

HOSOMI:

Is there an entrance examination for the Harambee school?

UMETSU:

When finishing a primary school, children take a nation-wide qualification examination. Those who achieve above a certain level can go to governmental secondary schools, and the rest go to Harambee schools.

HOSOMI:

What language is used for teaching?

UMETSU:

English is used from the secondary school level. As for a primary school, the choice of teaching language depends on its particular situation.

HOSOMI:

What do you mean by "character building" which is considered very important for better academic result?

UMETSU:

In addition to teaching school subjects, I made an effort to teach my students the morals and manners which are useful and common to everywhere in the world so that they would become international citizens. I wanted them to remember what I said about their behaviors when they went outside of their own community in the future.

DE LATTRE:

What is your advice on the management of Japan's international technical cooperation from your experiences?

HATTORI:

On the presupposition that Africa is able to survive itself, we are
1) to provide only what they really need; 2) to take account of the

operation and labor after the technical aid is given; 3) to evaluate the progress or development they are supposed to achieve not by looking at the volume but by looking at the quality of development; 4) to ask constantly ourselves what they are looking for in order that our aid is properly applied and utilized.

HORIUCHI:

A foreign technical expert very often serves as a coordinator to coordinate various conflicting interests among different tribes, though we are not able to send enough number of experts to cope with all the problems they have.

KJELLBERG:

We had better provide experts to solve inter-tribal conflicts. As a matter of fact, representatives of international aid agencies have been serving for this purpose.

HOSOMI:

Is it true that profit is considered to be dirty in many parts of Africa?

HATTORI:

Unfortunately, it is true, or at least when I visited Africa many African governments had such an idea.

Although my experiences are limited chiefly to Rwanda, a country composed of a single tribe, I would remark as follows;

- 1) so-called inter-tribal coordinating function of a foreigner might perpetuate tribal differences,
- 2) the integration of the tribes is expected to be advanced with economic growth because it is to their advantage to work together for the same interest.

(Session II-B ends)

VI SESSION III -AID PRACTICES IN AFRICA

1. The World Bank's Aid to Africa -Policy and Realities

Dr. David G. Greene

2. Japan's Aid to Africa -Policy and Realities

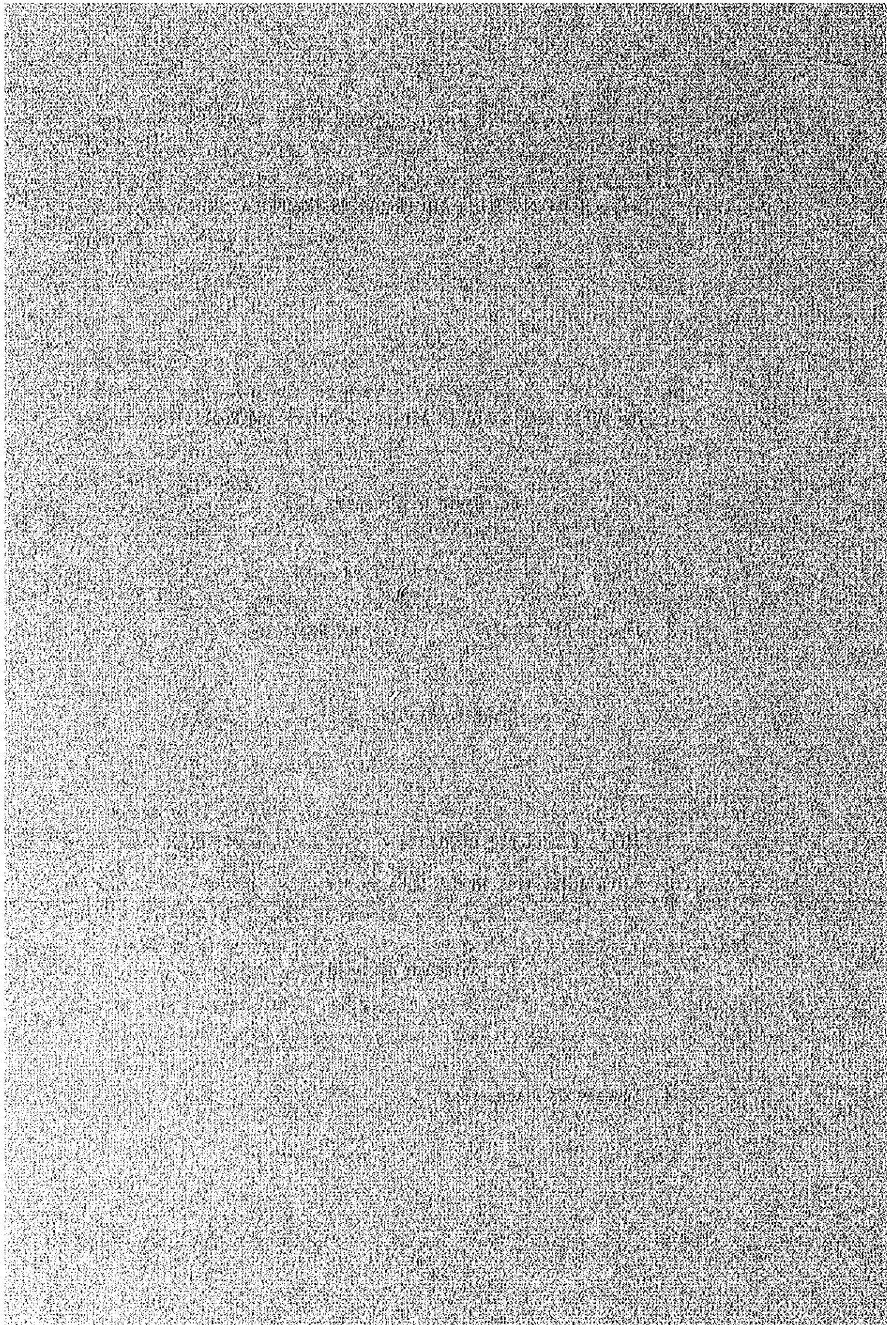
Mr. Hiroshi Ota

3. JICA's Experience in Africa

"JICA Activities in Sub-Saharan Africa"

Dr. Shinsuke Horiuchi

4. Summary of Discussions



AID TO AFRICA: LESSONS FOR THE FUTURE

DAVID G. GREENE

To change the current dim prospects for Africa is a long-term task. It requires a better policy framework, a heavy investment in human resources, and much greater emphasis on technology development and its application. There are no magic solutions nor will there be instant results. It will have to be a pragmatic, step-by-step approach to build on existing strengths and to eliminate the distortions of the past. The first such step is to assist those countries which are ready to implement realistic and efficient programs of reforms.

Within the donor community too there also is need and hope for change - for a more supportive, disciplined approach. We have also recognized our failures and deficiencies. These have not been minor and they have contributed to Africa's problems.

Most of the new investment in Africa over the past two decades has taken place with the participation of the donor community. The pressures donors have put on governments to accept projects in which they have commercial interest, the inappropriate designs, the lack of coordination among them and the disregard for national priorities and comparative advantage have contributed to low rates of return. Too often projects have been financed without adequate regard to long-term priorities or the ability to operate them efficiently. And it is no satisfaction that some of these activities were financed by exports credits rather than aid funds. Donors have continued to prefer new investments long after it

became clear that budget revenues would be inadequate even to maintain past investments. Donors have in pursuance of the preferences of aid agencies or commercial interest of export credit agencies, undermined the authority of core ministries, rather than strengthening their discipline.

Africa has received many advisors and consultants, but who can claim that these have been the best and the brightest. Too many have technical knowledge which is outdated and their contribution is minimal. African Governments and agencies were not in a position to demand quality and too often donors permitted their second and third best to make their careers in Africa.

The design of projects too often ignored the fragility of African institutions and the scarcity of skilled manpower. And too often, projects have reflected the perceived priorities of many donors rather than being formulated within a coherent national strategy. And, perhaps most important of all, African countries have not been held to the standards of performance common elsewhere in the world, including other low-income countries.

So it is time for us - as well as for African Governments - to undertake necessary reforms.

The prospects for growth in Africa are considerable. The

opportunities of present technologies are far from exhausted and much can be done to expand the knowledge base. The problems of the past are behind us. There is little purpose to be served in assigning blame. The important thing is that the lessons have been learned.

A Program for Action

The Bank has outlined a program of action. The substantive essence of this is, by now, widely shared. It involves a focus on agriculture because of the scope for increased yields with present technologies and because it is by increasing productivity in this sector that the lives of most people can be affected most directly.

It suggests a policy framework which stresses efficiency of investment and private innovation through prices which reflect production costs, and through reductions of bureaucratic controls which benefit the rich rather than protect the poor.

It emphasizes the practical limitations on the management capacity of governmental institutions and the need to tap and foster the ingenuity and drive of the private individual, be he farmer, in services or in industry.

But above all, the Joint Program for Action is an

approach to be applied at the country level. It involves the careful definition of a realistic set of country investment and expenditure priorities and a reorientation of the incentive framework. If this process is started it can yield substantial change -- and a resumption of growth. To be successful it will require the collaboration of all participants.

The Joint Program for Action requires action by both the African Governments and by donors.

The Role of Government

African Governments are called upon to prepare national programs of rehabilitation and development, which specify priorities and corresponding policy reform. This is no easy task and not all governments have the capacity to do this independently. Nor should the exercise degenerate into endless studies and long-term preparatory work. In most countries the more obvious distortions are well documented; the direction of change is clear. Fine tuning can come later. And in countries where capacity is limited, one can start with a single important sector, such as agriculture. The objective is not comprehensiveness, or intellectually polished five-year plans, but to begin to infuse a new approach into the political and administrative decision making process, to begin to change the incentive structure, to begin to make more effective use of existing resources.

An essential element of such programs of rehabilitation and development is the review of the public investment and expenditure programs. They must be realigned with a realistic assessment of resource availabilities and with revised development priorities.

The Role of Donors

Donors, to support this restructuring in Africa will need to take several important steps. They should gear themselves up to have the resources and quick response time to support Governments undertaking painful policy reforms, by providing timely assistance - including assistance which is not linked to specific identifiable projects.

They must recognize the need to emphasize maintenance and rehabilitation of existing investments for several years. New investment opportunities will be limited.

Donors should support, on a long-term basis expanding programs in health, family planning, education and agricultural research and help formulate efficient, low-cost programs in these areas.

Donors must help to coordinate aid activities better to ensure that scarce external capital supports national priorities and policy change.

More than this, the donor community is beginning to see the need for a changed approach in supporting Africa's development efforts. In financing projects, greater attention needs to be paid to long-term priorities and operational and financial viability, rather than to the preferences of aid agencies or the commercial interests of export credit agencies. Projects must reflect national priorities rather than donor priorities and must take into account the scarcity of skilled manpower and limited budgetary resources of African countries.

We believe that this is essentially a realistic program. Based on improved performance of countries and improvement in quality of aid rather than massive expansion of capital flows. But expanding aid programs are necessary simply to maintain the 1980-82 level of net capital flows in real terms. Structural change and policy reform holds out the prospects for increased production and reduced dependence on aid. But it would be dishonest to believe that such changes can be accomplished with declining capital inflows now.

Many countries are working to elaborate a well-defined development strategy, including adopting policies for profound structural adjustment. We expect many others to follow this route.

Given urgent need for action and resource scarcity, concentrated efforts should necessarily focus on countries, sectors and individual

lending operations which promise the greatest returns. This implies three things - one a reorientation of routine aid programming, a programming which fails to take account of performance. It requires both a willingness to reconsider a reallocation of resources between countries; to increase the support for those undertaking reform; and a greater flexibility in tools to reflect the priorities between new investment and maintenance and changes in priorities which makes the completion of some investments inappropriate - second, it requires meaningful coordination; - third, it requires an internationally administered fund, as we have suggested, to provide a quick response capacity based on a professional assessment of structural adjustment efforts. And this fund should supplement, not substitute for, increased bilateral assistance for Africa, in support of policy reform.

Meaningful coordination must include: a mechanism to systematically evaluate the priority development needs identified by the borrowers; a mechanism where donors make monitorable commitments in support of specified priority development needs over a 'reasonable planning horizon' (say three years); I should note here that what we mean by 'monitorable commitments' is that the borrower has a right and need to know resource availability. If we insist that borrowers plan realistically, then they must know resource availability; willingness to adjust policies and procedures to enable donors (a) to reallocate resources in support of redefined priorities when necessary, (b) to provide financial support for

rehabilitation of existing facilities, operation and maintenance, and (c) to provide increased program assistance in support of agreed economic reform programs; participation in local groups which can focus on sectoral investment and policy issues, linking assistance to the country in the formulation of its sectoral programs to decisions by donors at Round Tables or Consultative Groups for support of the overall country program; all officially supported technical assistance and export credit programs must increasingly be placed in the context of a coordinated, priority oriented development plan. But it also requires increased funding.

The Bank's request for a special fund of US\$1 billion is based on our estimate of the minimum necessary to support structural change. Factors which drive up external capital requirements, particularly in countries with structural adjustment programs in place, outweigh the factors which will reduce these requirements. Obviously, specific aid programs need to be developed for each country. This requires careful consultation with the country concerned and can best be done in the framework of Consultative Groups and Round Tables.

The financing required can be met in several ways. Although much has been done in the way of debt rescheduling, there is room for some additional measures as the numbers indicate. It is a matter of urgency that bilateral assistance programs increase resources to the low-income countries of Africa as rapidly as possible and particularly to those which

have agreed to, and are now undertaking, effective policy reform measures. Additional resources can be provided both efficiently and quickly through use of existing multilateral channels. These have the capacity to provide financing in support of monitorable medium-term adjustment programs.

What the Bank is doing

In order to put in place the framework to support African countries to continue the movement for policy change and to help organize a coordinated response, a budget supplement has been approved by our Board. It will increase our missions in Africa, from the present 19, to better assist countries in national economic management and the reformulation of policies and investment programs; increase the size of field offices, to better support local coordination efforts; increase our funded technical assistance; together with the UNDP increase the efficiency of Consultative Groups and Round Tables. These fora have the same objective and we are working to ensure that they are equally efficient and policy oriented; expand our analytical support for Africa, including addressing the long-term issues of desertification, population growth and institutional development; expand agricultural research (ICIPE) at regional and subregional level; Special Project Facility, providing funding on a grant basis to supply preparatory work for projects to be financed by the Bank and other donors. This facility is also open to other donor contributions.

To sum up, within Africa, serious efforts at structural change must be continued. They must be supported and rewarded. To treat good and poor performers alike does not recognize the scarcity of resources and devalues the process.

Bilateral aid programs for low-income Africa must be increased beyond what is now envisaged.

Aid programs must recognize that for the next several years new investment projects will be few. The emphasis must be on maintaining present infrastructure, developing human resources and improving the efficiency of the existing investments.

To assure the effectiveness of aid we must make aid coordination a practical reality.

And finally, to supplement bilateral efforts, a multilateral fund is necessary to underpin a disciplined approach to policy change, and to provide the necessary capacity to respond.

Japan's Aid to Africa - Policy and Realities

Hiroshi Ota

Thank you, Mr. Chairman.

It is a great pleasure for me to be here this afternoon and to discuss the Japanese Government's policy for economic cooperation to Africa.

I should like to talk about the present situation and problems of and outlook for the Japanese Government's economic cooperation programme with Sub-Saharan Africa.

First, let me discuss briefly the present picture of our economic cooperation with Africa.

As you all know, last year interest in Africa was very much heightened, due primarily to the disastrous situation in Ethiopia and other African countries. Nationwide appeals were made and campaigns mounted to organize help for those suffering Africans.

It seems to me really impressive that so many non-governmental organizations came into the picture and were so very active in extending a helping hand to those African countries.

For the Government, also, last year was a year when considerable attention was paid to Africa. You will recall that at the United Nations Foreign Minister Abe in his major speech made an urgent appeal to the member

countries of the United Nations, proposing that all the United Nations' Agencies be mobilized to draw up a unified plan of action for Africa making effective use of the whole range of the United Nations capabilities. Foreign Minister Abe also called upon all the United Nations' member states for their support and participation in U.N. moves to implement specific action in accordance with that plan. Japan was nominated as a coordinator with regard to the proposed declaration on the critical economic situation in Africa, and the role played by Japan contributed to the adoption of this declaration in the early part of December. Foreign Minister Abe visited Africa in the second half of November and after returning from his African tour made a special appeal to the United Nations on the urgent need to increase economic cooperation for the African countries.

With regard to Japan's specific aid, at the beginning of last year, the Japanese Government announced that it was going to extend aid in the amount of \$US 115 million related to food to Africa, as emergency aid.

At the time of his visit to Africa in November, Foreign Minister Abe announced that, in addition to these 115 million dollars, Japan was ready to provide some 50 million dollars within fiscal 1984.

Medical aid was organized by JICA, for disaster relief in Ethiopia, and so far two teams have been sent to that country to provide emergency medical aid.

At the grassroots level, the Foreign Ministry also took the initiative in endeavours to collect and send a million blankets to African countries.

Last September, the Foreign Ministry was also instrumental in organizing Africa Month, and sought to provide relevant information on Africa and to promote a better understanding on the part of the Japanese people regarding various African questions.

All of this does not mean that Japan's interest in Africa increased all of a sudden last year. As a matter of fact, as far as Japan's economic cooperation is concerned, it has been gradually and steadily increasing over the past ten or so years. If one looks at Japan's Official Development Assistance to Sub-Saharan Africa, in terms of absolute volume from 1972 to 83, one sees that the amount has increased by more than 50 times, from approximately 5 million dollars in 1972 to 287 million dollars in 1983. The increase was not just in absolute terms. The share Africa occupies within Japan's total ODA has also been increased, from a mere 1.1% in 1972 to 11.8% in 1983. Among DAC member countries, in 1983, Japan ranked fourth after France, West Germany and the U.S.A. in terms of the amount of bilateral ODA to the Sub-Saharan countries. In 1981, Japan ranked 9th, in 82, 6th, and, as I have mentioned, in 1983, Japan ranked fourth. This indicates the increased importance Japan attaches to aid to Africa. At the same time, Japan has been a major

contributor to regional financing organizations like the African Development Bank and African Development Fund.

At the same time, Japan has also been a major contributor to other international organizations that are providing important financial aid to Africa, such as the World Bank, the UNDP, the FAO, the UNHCR and the World Food Programme.

I should, next, like to touch briefly upon some of the problems that the Japanese Government has been encountering with regard to economic cooperation with African countries. First, there are problems that Japan has in common with other donor countries, France, the United Kingdom, the United States and so on. I do not have to dwell extensively on these points. For example, one difficulty lies in the fact that, in most African countries, infrastructures are fragile and it is not too easy to organize and implement effective aid programmes because of lack of developed and effective infrastructures. Similarly, there is the problem of lack or insufficiency of the ability on the part of most African countries to organize projects locally, which also creates serious problems for the Japanese Government. Similarly, the difficulty of mobilizing personnel in African countries to coordinate aid programmes is also a major problem.

In addition to these problems which Japan shares with other aid-giving countries, there are some problems which are perhaps unique to Japan. First is the fact that,

although Japan has over the past ten years or so been increasing its aid to African countries, Africa as a whole is still a remote region for most Japanese people, and, among other things, we lack basic information, data and knowledge about Africa as a whole and about each of the African countries individually. From time to time, this prevents Japan from formulating and implementing economic cooperation projects more effectively. The second difficulty which I believe is unique to Japan is related to the first difficulty, and that is that Japan is not yet very much experienced in providing economic cooperation to Africa, especially compared with some of the European countries which have historical and other ties with many of the African countries.

The third is perhaps not so much a problem as an element of constraint with regard to Japan's economic cooperation with Africa and that is the relative importance, to speak frankly, of Africa in the total picture of Japan's economic cooperation. Africa accounts for something like ten percent of Japan's total bilateral ODA and Asia stands out as the most important developing region for Japan with regard to economic cooperation, with the five member countries of ASEAN alone receiving something like 30 percent of Japan's total bilateral Official Development Assistance. Of course, as I pointed

out at the outset, the Japanese Government has been giving increasing importance to Africa as a region, which is shown by the fact that, whereas in 1972 Africa accounted for only 1.1% of ODA, the figure is now over 10%. But still, taken as a part of the global picture, in spite of the fact that Japan is giving increasing importance to Africa, we feel that regions like Asia continue to receive greater amounts of aid from Japan.

So much for problems. I should now like to briefly touch upon the outlook for Japan's economic cooperation with Africa.

First, with regard to volume, as far as Japan's economic cooperation to Africa in fiscal 1985 is concerned, we expect Japan's total bilateral grant aid to Africa to amount to some 60 billion yen, which will be an increase of 8 billion yen over the estimated 52 billion yen grant aid to Africa for the present fiscal year.

With regard to areas of cooperation to Africa, we expect our grant aid to cover, first of all, short-term emergency assistance for food provision but at the same time aid for the promotion of food production, cooperation for research and development of agricultural technology, water resources development, establishment of the post-harvest sector, development of human resources, among other things.

So, our grant aid to Africa in the course of the next fiscal year is expected to cover both the emergency aspects and the medium- and long-term aspects. Japan is also extending Yen Loans to African countries and during the next fiscal year the Japanese Government intends to continue to provide Yen Loans, perhaps with more flexible ways, taking into account the cooperation of these recipient African countries with international financial institutions such as the World Bank and also in linkage with technical cooperation. Our expectation is that next year's Yen Loans will amount to more than 100 million US dollars. Needless to say, the Japanese Government will continue to provide and contribute funds to various international organizations dealing with Africa.

With regard to the outlook, I should, next, like to briefly touch upon some basic policy guidelines in formulating and implementing our aid to Africa. First of all, I would like to emphasize that, as I have already briefly touched upon, Japan will put emphasis on the structural needs of African countries in dealing with the problem of agriculture in general and the question of food shortages in particular.

Foreign Minister Abe has already emphasized this point in his address at the United Nations last September. Foreign Minister Abe said, "This

unprecedented crisis does not arise solely from a quirk of nature but is rooted in a variety of structural causes. Accordingly, while the need to relieve starvation is of obvious urgency, it is imperative on a more fundamental level that our reach extend to the complex web of structural factors and that we treat this not with a bewildering array of contradictory policy responses but with a cooperative and comprehensive solution involving the entire international community."

The second basic policy guideline is that we believe we should adopt a more effective combination of both financial cooperation and technical cooperation. There are already cases in which the Japanese Government has attempted to combine these two types of cooperation. One notable example is the JOMO KENNYATA AGRICULTURAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY. It is generally believed that in this case this type of cooperation has proved to be a remarkable success. In our view, the Japanese Government should try to put more emphasis on formulating and implementing this kind of systematically combined cooperation in order that our aid to the African countries be more effective.

There is a need for an integrated approach of somewhat different nature, and that is the need for a

coordinated approach to deal with the problem of infrastructure. One cannot over-emphasize the importance of extending economic cooperation for increasing food production itself. But, at the same time, most of the African countries have problems properly distributing food produced, particularly because they lack adequate transportation systems. Consequently, we believe that in providing effective agricultural and food aid to African countries, we have to make sure that the problem of infrastructure is also properly attended to.

The next basic policy guideline is that of aid coordination. In the view of the Japanese Government, it is of the utmost importance to try to have more effective coordination among aid-giving countries, especially in view of the fact that the funds available are limited and the need for assistance is really immense.

Lastly, with regard to basic policies, I should like to touch very briefly upon the need to balance the needs of the African countries and the effectiveness of economic cooperation. I believe we donor countries are in a dilemma in the sense that from time to time we find that those countries which need aid most are not in the best condition to receive it, either due to lack of infrastructure, of lack of management. We cannot take an

either-or approach. The only adequate way to deal with this question is to have an appropriate balance between needs and the ability to absorb economic cooperation. It is not an easy task, but in view of the limited amount of funds available and in view of the need to think in terms of priorities, we have to cope with this question.

Finally, I should like to touch briefly upon some of the technical problems we are trying to cope with in formulating and implementing our economic cooperation programmes with Africa along the policy lines that I have just mentioned.

The first is, naturally, the need for us to obtain more relevant data and information, which, relatively speaking, Japan still lacks.

Secondly, we have to look for appropriate levels of technology. I do not have to explain in detail the need of find appropriate levels of technology suited to Africa, taking into account its technology level, human abilities and infrastructure.

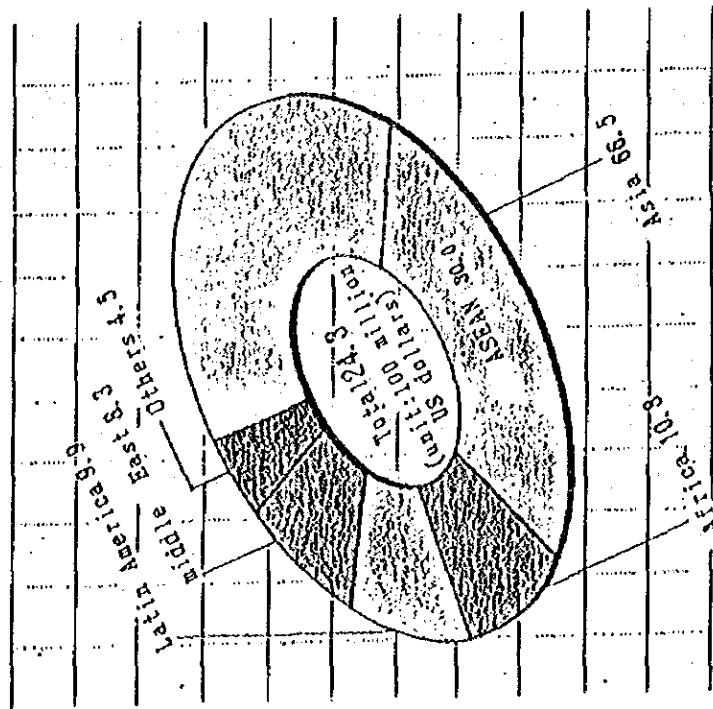
Another practical consideration that we have to bear in mind is the problem of local costs to be borne by beneficiary countries. This is, again, not an easy problem to deal with, but truly effective economic cooperation is only possible when local costs are

efficiently and effectively borne by African beneficiary countries in an appropriate way.

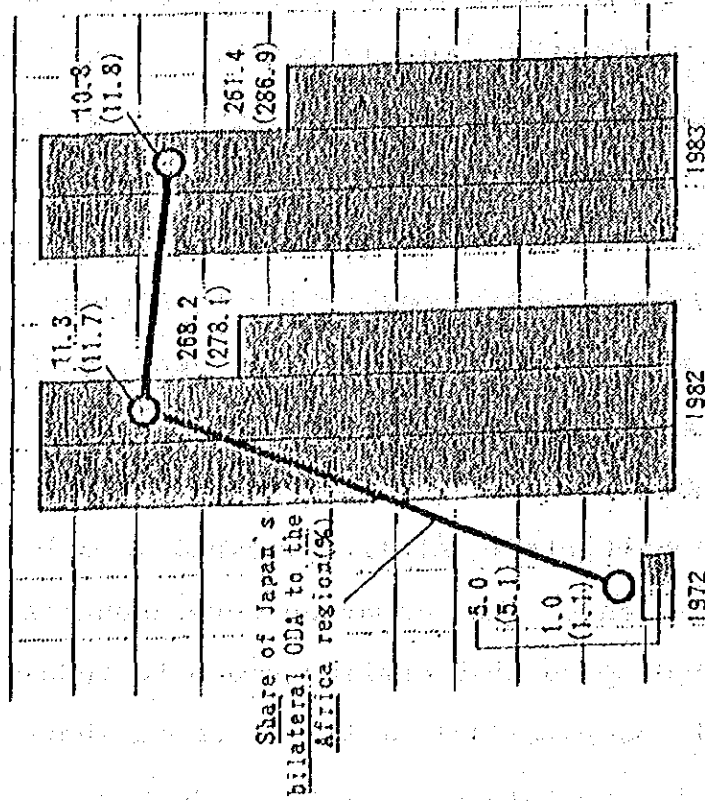
Ladies and gentlemen,

Japan has, in recent years, recent months, been increasingly aware of the difficulties of Africa and of the need to expand economic cooperation to African countries. Because of developments last year, Africa seems to have become a household word in Japan. In pursuing our course, there are a number of serious problems to be dealt with. Africa presents us all with very serious challenge. The Japanese Government is resolved to stand up to this challenge and to endeavour to provide economic cooperations in yet more meaningful and efficient ways in the future.

① Share of Japan's bilateral ODA by region
(net amount of disbursement in 1983, unit: %)



② Transition of Japan's bilateral ODA to the Africa region
(net amount of disbursement, unit: million us dollars)

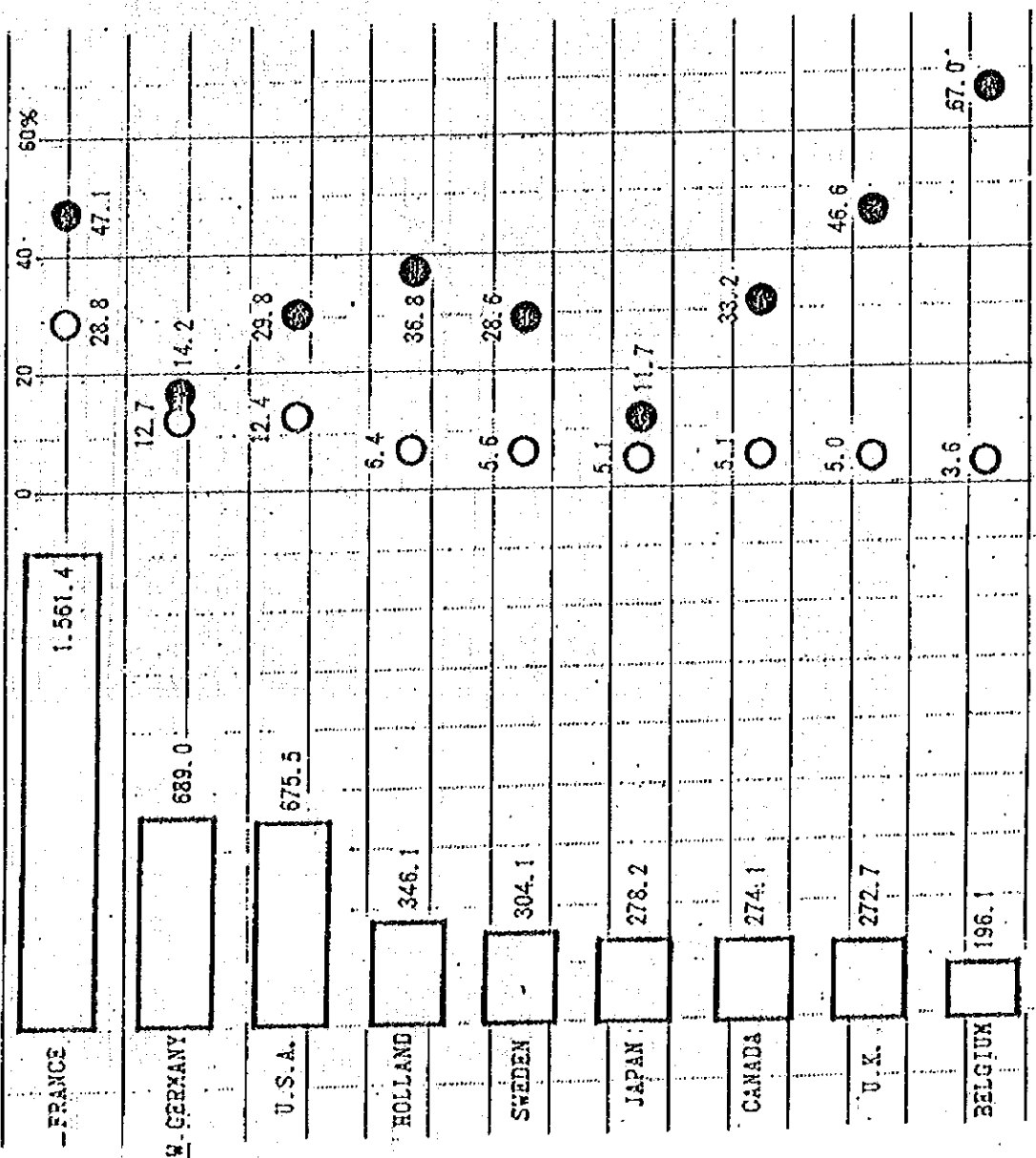


Note: Figures in parenthesis are for Sub-Saharan Africa

③ Bilateral ODA to the Sub-Saharan Africa by major DAC member countries.

(net amount of disbursement in 1982, unit: million us dollars)

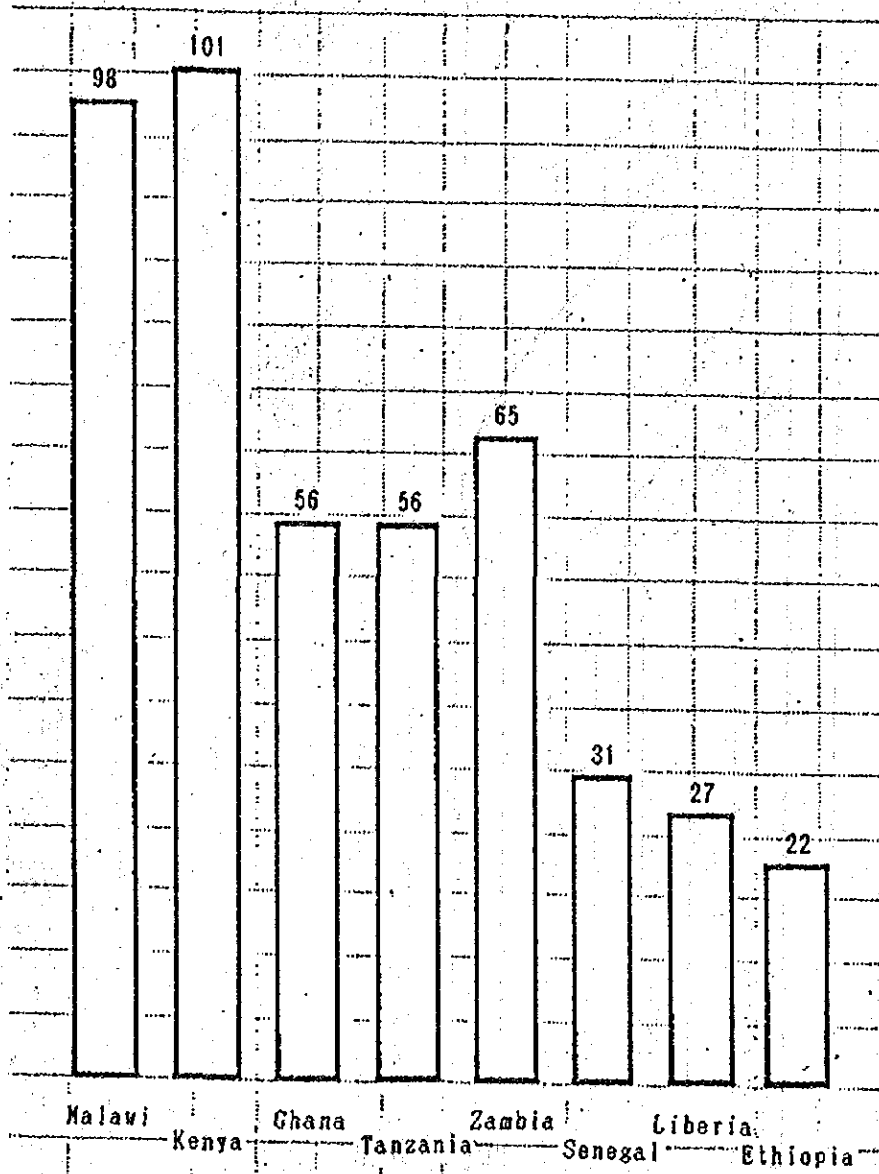
○ Share of each country's bilateral ODA in the total
 ● Distribution of each country's bilateral ODA to Sub-Saharan Africa



④ Japan's bilateral ODA to Sub-Saharan Africa by Type
 (net amount of disbursement in 1983, unit: %)

	Bilateral ODA to the Sub-Saharan Africa 286.9 (unit: million us dollars)	Bilateral ODA in the total 2,425.2
Grant Aid	50.2	22.1
Yen Loan	36.1	59.0
Technical Cooperation	13.7	18.9

⑥ The total Number of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) to the African countries (as of Oct.1. unit: persons)



JICA Activities in Sub-Saharan Africa

Shinsuke HORIUCHI

I. Technical Cooperation in 1983(F.Y.)

1. Trainees	406	8.2%	communication, agriculture, public, health & medicine, transportation etc.
2. Experts	244	9.8%	public health & medicine, education, transportation, fishing etc.
3. Equipments	¥108billion	10.8%	
4. Development studies	374	7.4%	transportation, agriculture, mining, public work, public health & medicine etc.
5. JOCV	619	42.0%	education, manufacturing, agriculture, social infrastructure, public health & medicine

6. Total ¥7.6billion 11.8%

7. Major recipient countries: Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana, Malawi, Zaire & other 37 countries

8. List of Project-type technical cooperation

Kenya: Communicable Disease Research and Control
 Jomo Kenyatta college of Agriculture & Technology

Tanzania:	Kilimanjaro Agricultural Development Center Technical Cooperation for Kilimanjaro Industrial Development Center
Zambia:	Faculty of Medicine, University of Zambia
Madagascar:	Livestock Development
Nigeria:	Jos University Medical Research
Ghana:	Medical School, Ghana University
Senegal:	Vocational Training Center

9. Selected list of Development Studies

Botswana	Survey for Collaborative Mineral Exploration
Guinea	Survey for Topographic Mapping Project
Kenya	Survey for the Likoni & Kilifi Bridges Construction Project Survey for Likoni Crossing Construction Project Survey for Kilifi Bridge Construction Project Survey for Topographic Mapping Project of East Kenya Survey for Bura East Irrigation Project Survey for Kenya's National Transport System Survey for the Sondu River Hydroelectric Power Development Survey for the Rift Valley Geothermal Development Project
Liberia	Survey for St. John River Development Project
Mali	Survey for Underground Water Development Project
Mauritius	Survey for the Fishery Port Improvement Project
Mozambique	Survey for Fishery Development Project
Niger	Survey for Irrigation Agriculture Development Project of Kourani Baria Basin in Niger
Nigeria	Survey for Benito Pole and Line Fishing Research Boat Project
Rwanda	Survey for Rural Water Supply in Eastern Area

Senegal	La Mission d'etude Japonaise pour le project d'alimentation des regions en eau au Senegal
Sierra Leone	Survey for Rhombe Swamp Agricultural Development
Swaziland	Survey for the Coal Development Project
Tanzania	Survey for Mkomazi Valley Area Irrigation Development Project
	Survey for the Construction of Storehouses for Food Grains
Upper Volta	Survey for Sebba-Cormgorm Road Construction Project
Zambia	Survey for the Establishment of the University of Zambia, School of Veterinary Medicine
	Survey for the Construction of Storehouses for Food Grains
	Survey for Kambilombilo State Farm Development Project
Zimbabwe	Survey for the Project on the Installation of Intelsat Standard and Earth Station
	Survey for Rural Village Water Supply Programme in Binga & Gokwe Provinces
	Survey for the Project on the Establishment of Aquaculture Centre
Gambia,	Survey for the Project Evaluation of Grant-Aid Project
Mauritania &	
Cape Verde	
Tunisia, Algeria,	Survey for Project Identification in Middle Eastern and
Senegal &	African Countries
Ivory Coast	

II. Grant Capital Cooperation in 1983(F.Y.)

1. regional total: ¥32.5billion (21.4%), of which JICA implementation ¥17.3billion (20.6%)
2. major recipient countries: Zambia, Senegal, Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana and other 38 countries

3. selected list of Grant Capital Cooperation project in 1983

Cape Verde	Equipment Supply for Reinforcement of the Existing Structure of Sonte
Gambia	Equipment Supply for the Expansion of Kotu Power Station
Ghana	Equipment Supply for the Expansion of National Primary Health Care in Ghana
Guinea	Supply of Vehicle and Medical Materials for the Improvement of Sanitary Facilities
Kenya	Construction of Kenya Medical Research Institute Equipment Supply for the Extension of Water Supply Pipelines of Ithanga Region
Liberia	Establishment of a Hospital Monrovia
Madagascar	Supply of Small Fishing Boats and Equipment for Fisheries Promotion in Madagascar Supply of Vehicles(Buses, Ambulances, etc.) for the Improvement of Antananarive City
Malawi	Equipment Supply for the Improvement of Roads
Mali	Equipment Supply for the Reinforcement of Sanitary Services
Mozambique	Construction of Facilities for Fishery Development in Mozambique
Niger	Equipment Supply for the Exploration of underground Water
Senegal	Construction of Vocational Training Center in Senegal Improvement of the Water Supply System for Rural Area
Seychelles	Equipment Supply for the System of Praslin Treated Water Supply
Tanzania	The Educational Equipment Improvement of the Dar es Salaam Technical College
Togo	Improvement of Medical Equipment
Upper Volta	Improvement of Rural Equipment and Materials for the Excavation of Well
Zaire	Equipment Supply for the Improvement of City Roads

Zambia	Establishment of the Paediatric Surgical Center in the University Teaching Hospital
	Equipment Supply for the Improvement of Roads
Zimbabwe	Supply of Trucks for the Reinforcement of the Transportation Facilities for Agriculture
	Equipment Supply for the Improvement of Medical Instruments

III. Development Priority and Problems

1. Agricultural and community development

- i) food production by small holders
- ii) incentives --- price, distribution, credit, infrastructures
- iii) level of technology and R & D

2. Human resources development

- i) formal education
- ii) vocational training
- iii) middle-level management

3. Infrastructure

- i) sparse population distribution
- ii) small market --- geographical and conceptual limit of an economy
- iii) low return on investments

4. Population control

- i) high percentage of un-economically active population
- ii) tribal society

5. Development model and life-style

- i) Western development model
- ii) Pastoralists
- iii) Miombo forest

6. Administration and policy dialogue

1. Agricultural and community development

It is obvious that many African countries should concentrate its efforts to increase food production. But the question is how. One approach would be to revitalize food production by small holders. JICA, for its part, has been looking into the cooperation which is related not only to direct food production, but also to community development. To that end, various incentives for small holders have to be found and then reflected in the policy changes. and the choice of technology is another vital element. The question is whether we have adequate technology to assist, and if not, its related research and development has to be boosted.

2. Human resources development

JICA has few experience in formal education, especially in the elementary and secondary level. In the area of vocational training, JICA has had much experience in LDCs, yet in implementing vocational training, the crucial point lies in the concept of skill or technology. Here arises the question of "technology transfer." For any technology to be transferred, it should be understood by both our experts and the recipient countries that technology transfer is the assimilation process of technology with African life-style.

The high-ranking officials in many of African countries are well-educated and competent, while at middle-level, they often lack managerial ability. In technical cooperation from now on, we should concentrate our efforts on educating and training middle-level personnel both in the public and private sectors.

3. Infrastructure

For any development to take place, it is essential to build the infrastructure. Yet sparse distribution of population in most African countries makes it hardly economical to build and maintain the infrastructure.

For instance, electrification in rural areas with a few households to be served, or building paved road with a few traffic a day would not warrant sufficient returns in normal economic sense. In other words, returns on social infrastructure in normal sense is so low that it would not give anyone a positive incentive to invest. Then how should we set a criteria for any infrastructure building?

4. Population control

A high percentage of uneconomically active population makes the cost of education quite high.

We have some experience in population control in Southeastern Asia and in Latin America. However, it becomes more sensitive in Africa where various races or tribes are constantly competing for political and economic dominance.

5. Development model and life-style

"More is better than less", or "How much consumption goods one can command" is where our or western development model or goal stands. We are advocating the development path or steps which would eventually lead the developing countries to adopt western life-style and the production pattern based on the life-style of present developed countries.

But I have some doubt as to the validity of this economic model when it comes to African people who have their own long-standing and deep-rooted life-style. For example, while we advocate increase in food stuff or production of raw materials, how are we going to preserve Miombo Forest?

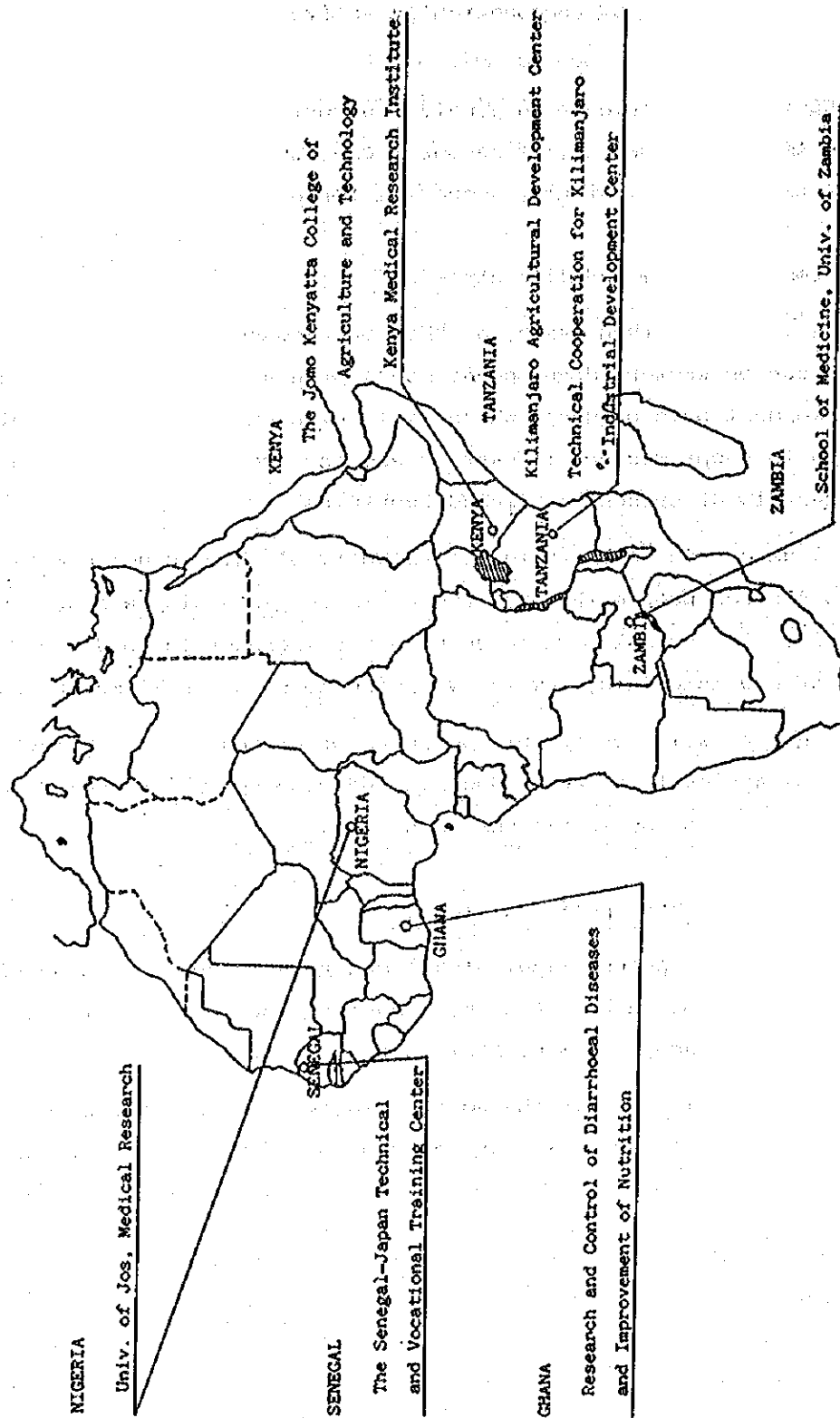
We might as well devise some policies or procedures of infrastructure investment, agricultural and industrial development which deemed appropriate to the local needs and traditions in Africa.

6. Administration and policy dialogue

The lack of competent middle-level managers in government services increasingly becomes a bottle-neck, hindering the normal implementation of development programmes in many African countries.

Another question is how the policy dialogue is possible between us and them, when the basic model or philosophy of economic development differs?

PROJECT-TYPE TECHNICAL COOPERATION TO THE AFRICAN REGION IN 1984



4. Summary of Discussions

KANAMORI:

Some speakers have mentioned excessive, often harmful aid. Could you show some more unsuccessful examples concerning the donor countries' guilt?

DA LATRE:

We should not consider the faults of donor countries to be guilty. Ignorance was more problematic. What we should have done is to put ourselves in the recipient's place, to try to understand their particular environment and problems which could have been unfamiliar to us, and to think very carefully before we took any action. Do not forget that we had had a long history of labor issues until we attained the present prosperity. Since you cannot always make a short-cut, we should not provide consumption goods and introduce the Western life style which an overwhelming majority of Africans is not ready to enjoy. Maximizing consumption before maximizing production, which we tend to do, is wrong in Africa. We have to stop the laxest way of handling aid without any control. We need to examine how tax-payers' money have been spent, to think what we should do with the money, and to define everybody's responsibility clearly.

GREENE:

Mutual responsibility among various parties, both donors and recipients, is to be reconsidered. The aid should be concentrated on those countries that can use it best. The donors have to rethink their aid programs in terms of; 1) the distribution of aid among countries and, 2) kinds of projects for strict selection. The World Bank is encouraging coordination of the donors' own activities.

HORIUCHI:

If JICA, which has not been much involved in loan programs so far, handle aid programs based on the internal rate of returns, what time-span should we take into consideration, and to what kind of economic model is given priority?

GREENE:

Do not overly concern present economic models. It is not necessary for us to impose an unrealistic model on another country.

(Greene continues)

Some programs require long time-span. They are the core programs which aim at the long-term development of human resources such as education, population, health and nutrition programs. They are so basic and essential in all nations in the world that the donors must continue to support these programs. More sophisticated, thus selective, projects come after such long-term programs. On this stage you can examine the pros and cons of each program from various points of view and can talk about priority.

DE LATTRE:

We have left the choice of practical support to the judgement of the recipients' governments. The results, however, have not been very fruitful because of their careless planning and poor management. They are not able to decide the best priority for them by themselves. I do not think what we are proposing and doing now is going to lead to development.

HORIUCHI:

In justification of spending precious tax-payers' money, we would like to know how effective our aid programs will be and when we can expect visible returns from them, since the benefit justifies the expense.

We also have to estimate in advance the procedure of development to be chosen by them on their achieving certain improvements in food production. I wonder if we expect them to follow the same procedures of development or industrialization as we have done.

HATTORI:

Technology is to create the most value out of very limited physical resources and there needs discipline of the use of the resources. Because education is to prepare children for survival and then, for contribution to the development of the society which they live in, education programs should be promoted in the right direction with clear objectives even if the programs require a long time-span.

YOSHIDA: When planning the aid programs, we had better study unwritten customs and practices the local people have conformed to for so long, so that we should not neglect their implicit law and order. I know the case, for example, that even the government of the country did not know the fact that there was a traditional irrigation system and unwritten water control regulations which have been practiced effectively within the community.

UMEZU:

The number of secondary school girls in Kenya who became pregnant within one year, based on the statistics as of 1984, shows interesting inter-relationship between the quality of education and pregnancy rate. This fact might serve us, when considering population control. The report says that only one girl became pregnant in a governmental girls' school, while as for Harambee schools, where the education standard is lower than governmental ones, 33 in a girls' school and 41 in a co-ed school became pregnant.

TOMITA:

One of the big problems is that Africans often do not understand that science is one thing and technology another, so that they tend to ask for facilities and instruments requiring skilled labor and advanced technology which they have not attained. When we give them something, the first thing we have to do is to select carefully what we supply, considering their practical ability, otherwise our aid could be completely useless.

FUJIMURA:

I have a few questions; 1) what kind of tools do you use to introduce such structural adjustment as the World Bank is emphasizing? 2) how effective are they? and 3) how successful are you in Africa?

GREENE:

We are not really introducing structural change into Africa ourselves. What we have done is to devise a new form of lending to support countries which have programs on policy changes such as economic reforms.

In addition, we have agreed with several countries to provide balance-

of-payments support to encourage a foreign exchange for the industry producing consumer goods which farmers want to buy. This is expected to give greater incentives for agricultural production to farmers. Thus, the effectiveness of policy reforms in many instances depends on the availability of foreign exchange.

We have no generalized model of policy reform applicable to all the countries in Africa, because each program has to be adjusted to the particular conditions of respective countries. What we try to do in this lending type of operations is to agree with the government on specific steps to be taken, by specific dates, instead of having a general agreement on economic policies.

About a half of the countries which we made these loans has shown satisfactory progress, and the other half has not and that process has been discontinued.

Structural adjustment type of operations tend to be very complicated and multi-sectoral. Perhaps we have been too ambitious and now we are moving toward sectoral reform, as in Zambia, for instance, we are only focusing our support on the rehabilitation of mining. We feel that this approach which is narrow and limited to one sector would be easier to manage and easier to discuss with African countries. In this way, we are still experimenting and trying to make our means more effective.

(Session III ends)