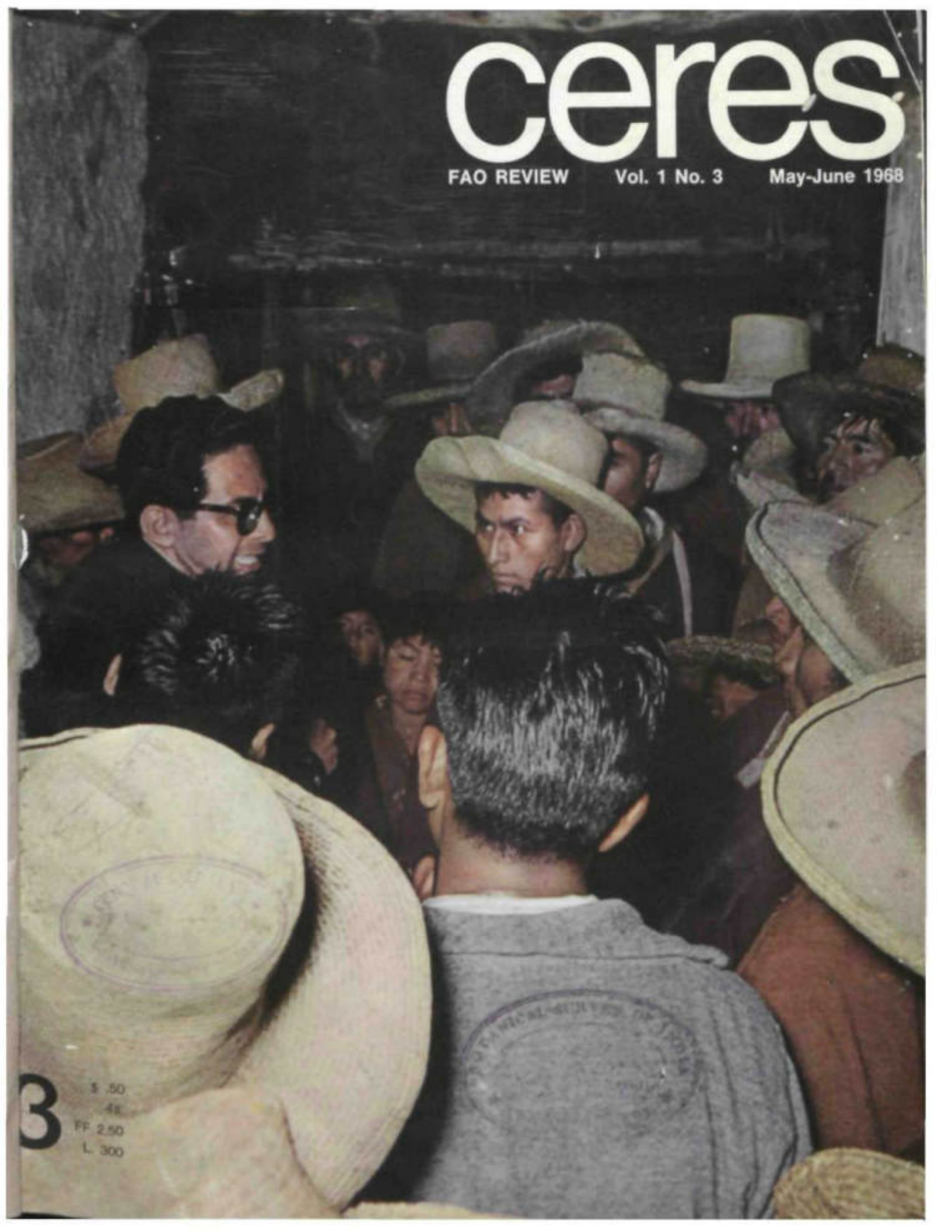


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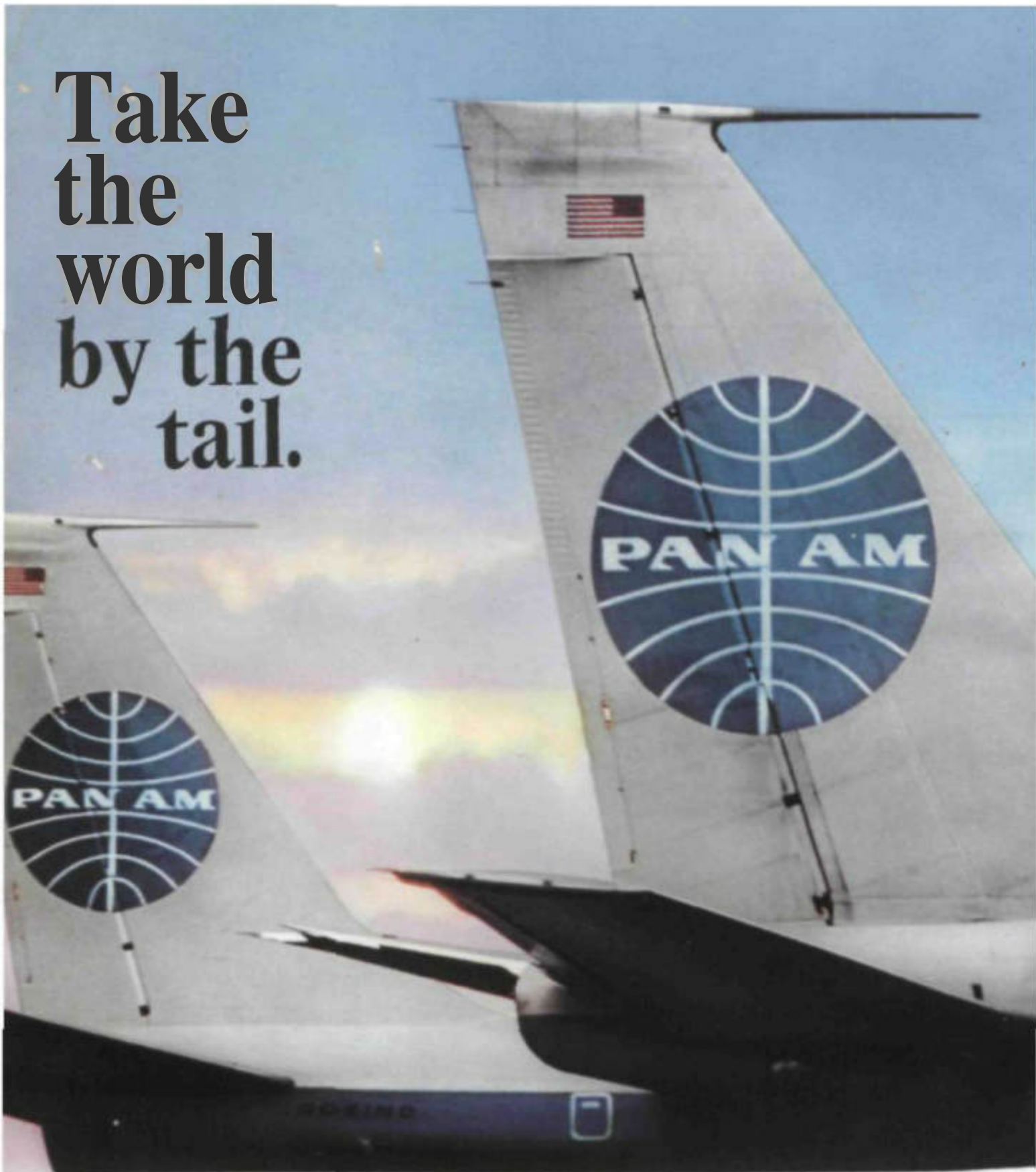
Vol. 1 No. 3

May-June 1968



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Latin American farmers must form their own organization which can act as a fulcrum for national development. From the anonymous mass of peasantry must come the natural leaders of social change, says the article on page 41. (Photo: A. Pittet).



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FOOTPRINTS in the Rice Fields...

At planting time and during the growing « » on, footprints made by planting or hand weeding result in substantially reduced yield*. Trampled plants never regrow to full maturity and cause a rice loss up to 15 bushels per acre.

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request.

Chile is one of the few countries where an active land reform program is being carried out. It is also a country where intensive post-Sand reform activity is under way. The article by Jacques Chonchol, on page 41, describes the organization of the Chilean farmers into a cohesive whole, able to make their presence felt in the development process.

Another aspect of farmer organization can be seen in the article, on page 32, by Derek Bryceson. A country like Tanzania needs aid but should be, as much as possible, independent of outside assistance, he says. Such self-reliance can only be gained by the efforts of the peasant farmers channeled through cooperative societies.

One of the world's foremost economic planners, Jan Tinbergen, describes the slow growth of national and international planning toward a new worldwide development plan in his article on page 19. He advocates the cooperation of all the specialized agencies with the U.N.'s Center for Development Planning, Projection and Policies in the preparation of a framework for a global master plan.

The logical outcome of UNCTAD 2 is a rather similar strategy for global development, according to Janez Stanovnik, in his article on page 50. Such a strategy would be dependent upon the linking of national and international effort, and on the adoption of adequate social reforms and policies in the developing countries, he says.

The way in which four African countries are working together to develop the Senegal river is a very practical example of national and international cooperation. Robert N'Dao, who has worked with this project since its earliest beginnings, is interviewed on page 22.



Jacques Chonchol



Derek Bryceson



Jan Tinbergen



Janez Stanovnik



Gunnar Myrdal

Another example of successful cooperation is the industry-backed program to increase fertilizer use in some 22 countries, now in its eighth year. A modest sampling from this program can be seen in the picture-story of a woman's lonely assignment in Ecuador (page 35).

Practical help for such programs can be given by FAO's new documentation center (page 25), which may soon blossom into a network of interconnected centers. Too much valuable information has, in the past, been lost in the archives, says the article. Now, technical assistance experience can be quickly brought to bear on specific problems.

Help of a rather different kind is offered by a private organization which is attempting to act as a bridge between the village-level and industrialized societies. E.F. Schumacher explains the meaning of intermediate technology and what his group is attempting to do in an interview on page 29.

Witjian Payne, an expert in animal husbandry, suggests a new kind of research, oriented toward the problems of the tropics, in his article on page 46. Such 'meaningful' research would encompass both sociological and technological aspects and should be launched from new regional research-cum-training centers, he says.

1965 may well be remembered for the publication of Gunnar Myrdal's "Asian Drama" a three-volume exploration of the growth processes of that vast subcontinent. The flavor of this frank and realistic appraisal can be caught in the book review on page 60 and in echoes from the world press on page 61.



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AFRICA

• EEC African* and EEC talk trmdm

Negotiations between the European Economic Community (EEC) and 18 African associated states (mainly in West Africa) for a renewal of the Yaounde Convention started in May.

Similar negotiations for an association agreement are also under way between EEC and Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda in an attempt to strengthen EEC-African links. Previous negotiations were halted eighteen months ago following the inability of Common Market countries to



Union in Alnca Presidents Jomptt Uetutu, Jmrrn-Brndtt Bohassa and francois Tamt>atb*v* agree to form tft* Untoti of Central African States

Democratic Republic of the Congo, President Jean-Bedel Bokassa of the Central African Republic and President Francois Tombalbaye of Chad.

The new union will, at first, be primarily one of economic cooperation, with the emphasis on customs and transportation.

The new regional grouping covers an area of over 1,600,000 square miles and contains a population of 21 million,

• M*w Mor*ooeo tivm-year plan

Morocco has just revealed its new 1968/72 five-year plan. It calls for a total investment of \$1,000 million. Nearly half of the money will be spent on dam building and agriculture. When completed, the plan should increase national income by 5 percent. Forty percent of the costs will be financed from abroad and \$200 million in foreign participation is already assured, according to a report from Rabat.

• Omtm*m oftmrmmmw openings for- invmmtorm

More investments in Guinea are expected to follow the country's new policy of cooperation and co-operation with all countries. Iron and bauxite production is steadily rising and a Canadian cono-

pany, Harvey Aluminum, recently made the first shipment from its Boke concession. Among other countries also cooperating in the development of Guinea's economy are the U.S.S.R., Mainland China and the U.S.A. Guinea looks forward particularly to increased French participation.

More foreign investments in Ghana are likely to follow the recent visits of Ghanaian officials to Europe.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, Mr. J.W.K. Harley, vice-chairman of the National Liberation Council, said Ghana wants Krupp to take part in its large-scale irrigation projects. Other suggestions discussed with Krupp executive concerned the building of freight and passenger ships for use on the Volta artificial lake.

Mr. E. Omaboe, Ghanaian Minister of Economic Affairs, who was in Paris recently for a meeting, said Ghana wants French agricultural experts, particularly for its palm and cotton plantations. French participation in Ghana's development would also extend to other fields. A French company, for instance, may take over the Ghanaian pharmaceutical slate enterprise.

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agree about the products on which they wanted preferences; also because of the East African states' refusal to accept the principle of preferences for Common Market products in return for duty-free entry of East African goods into EEC countries.

The European Community has now presented to the East African states an "indicative" list of widely assorted items for discussion and selection.

• Atricmn ar>r<s form rogtommtmm/on

The Central African Republic, Chad and the Democratic Republic of the Congo grouped together last month to form a new regional organization, the Union of Central African States.

The agreement was signed in Fort Lamy, Chad by President Joseph Mobutu of the



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lanym cotfam crop

an uncontrollable fungus
It has destroyed 70% of
jya's coffee crop this year,
lee has been for years
ya's top export.. worth
rly \$50 million yearly,
s year's loss is estimated
300000 tons. So far, no
-tive control has been
covered and many coffee
fers and planters am re-
ning their land with tea.

Malawi: ymmt n»w har- sta ptannmd

Raise production in Mar-
rt's lilongwe regionshould
rease about ten times and
ndnut production twice
ing the next 13 years, fol-
ing the approval of a \$6
lion interest-free Iniema-
tal Development Associa-
ODA) loan to the Malawi
ernm*nt to promote the
development of
Q.

he loan covers a first
ftse of 163,000 acres, pan
Pn eventual half a million
es.

Another IDA credit of \$3.7
••on will assist the devel-
["erit OM30,000 acres in the
ire valley, where n is hoped
treble cotton production
*r the next five years
P^uflh improved cultivation
-ctices and the use of
ayers and insecticides.
DA credits will cover the
e¹⁹n exchange require-
-nts of the two schemes
\$ Part of the local costs.
e Malawi government will
ver the rest

Both the projects were pre-
ed under the supervision
h^o and the World Bank
n n^{anc}ial assistance from

America. A special group,
headed by a minister, will
tour these two continents to
recruit personnel from among
Iranians now living and work-
ing in the more industrializ-
ed countries of the world.

• World* hiagmmt dmm for Wmmt Pmkimtan

The contract to build a
giant earth dam at Tarbela on
the Indus river in West Paki-
stan has been awarded to a
consortium of French and
Italian companies led by Im-
pregilo of Milan.

This is the largest single
public works bid ever award-
ed. The project is three
times larger than the Aswan
High Dam. Tarbela is to be
the major contributor in a
chain of dams and canals
which will provide power and
water to 50 million people
and 33 million acres of arid
land. The central dam will
be 9,000 feet long and 470
feet high. The dam will create
a lake 50 miles long and will
not be completed until 1976.

Total cost of the project:
\$827 million. The financing
has been arranged by a group
of seven countries and the
Indus Basin Fund under the
auspices of the World Bank.

LATIN AMERICA

• Program* toward Ca- ribbean community

An interregional free trade
area embracing most of the
Caribbean countries came a
step nearer reality following
a recent meeting of the heads
of governments of the pres-
ent CARIFTA members: An-
tigua, Barbados and Guyana

The three loundvr mambBfs at CARIFTA' Antigua Barbados
and Guyana



Accomplishments Included
the following:

...drafting of a charter for
a Caribbean Development
Bank, to come into being in
May of 1968.

...adoption of the CARIFTA
agreement as the basis for
an extended agreement aimed
at more complete free trade
among commonwealth Carib-
bean countries, with an even-
tual full customs union and
economic community.

...organization of a Carib-
bean regional secretariat, lo-
cated in Georgetown, Guyana.

...agreement to esabiish
various regional services,
such as a press service a
bureau of standards and a
population center.

The Eastern Caribbean
Common Market (ECCM)
countries — Dominica, Gre-
nada, Monserrat, St. Lucia
and St. Vincent — as well
as other Caribbean countries,
are stilt considering various
form of agreement.

• Maw dmm to* Aryan* Una approfad

The World Bank has decid-
ed to take part in the financ-
ing of the Chocon-Cerros-Co-
lorado hydroelectric scheme
in Argentina which will permit
the irrigation of half a mil-
lion hectares in northern
Patagonia. Cost of the project
will amount to \$440 million,

A major aim is 10 bring to
an end the periodic floods
from the Andes which are a
constant threat to this fertile
region. The dam forming
part of the scheme will be
one kilometer long and 75
meters high. Also included
in the project will be an
800,000 kilowatt power station

• S IBS million invamt- nant in L.A.* foraaia

A leading role in the ex-
pansion of forest industries
in widely separated coun-
tries in Latin America is being
played by private investment.

A Chilean/FAO team set up
the Institute (or Development
of Forestry Resources under
the United Nations Develop-
ment Program (UNDP) which
spurred the recent large
scale development of Chile's
forest-based industries (pulp
and paper plants, veneer and
plywood mills). During the
last six years, more than \$105
million have been invest-
ed in these industries, and
from 1962 to 1965 exports of
Chilean sawnwood rose by
107%.

An HoncJuran/FAO team re-
cently carried out a UNDP
survey or the forest potential
of Honduras which spotlight*
and that country's resources.
It eventually led to a govern-
ment partnership wil*» the
United States international
PapeT Company for the con-
struction of a \$77 million
pulp and paper plant in that
country.

The plant, the largest In-
ternational Paper project out-
side the United States and
Canada, will have an annual
production capacity of 40
million board feet o(lumber
and 210,000 metric tons of
linerboard.

NORTH AMERICA

• S W million in oon- traotn to ha mwardod

The list of new United Na-
tions Development Program
projects approved by the
UNDP governing council in
January, to be earned out by
the United Nations and its
various agencies, calls (or
nearly \$10 millton in contrac-
tual services over the next
few years.

The tetger contracts in-
clude \$t million for lorestry
consultant services over the
next four and a half years to
pave the way for a national
forest development plan m
West Africa. Two contracts
(or nearly \$1 million each will

EAR EAST

Iran reverses the rain drain

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3nian government to
of thB 10,000 Iranian
erity ^d college gradu-
Europe ano North

UREA STRIPPING a new SNANI PROGETTI PROCESS

A NEW GOAL IN UREA TECHNOLOGY

HIGH PRESSURE AMMONIA STRIPPING:

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- ELIMINATION OF CORROSION PROBLEMS
- LOWER OPERATING COST
- LOWER INVESTMENT COST
- EASY OPERABIUTY
- HIGH QUALITY PRODUCT

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**PETROCHEMICAL PLAN
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PETROLEUM PIPELIN
DRILL**

**P.O. BOX 4
MILAN - 10**

required for a pesticide lint. to produce, among her chemicals, 1,000 tons DDT annually in the Near »&t; and survey work preiratory to river valley devel->ment in the Far East, ther contracts include an tiouni of \$650,000 for lech-cal and economic transport udies in Africa and \$500,000 or a marine seismic survey he Caribbean,

Between 1959 and mid-1967 NDP projects involved 337 ntracts worth "more than 32 million and equipment lii-chases totaling some \$88 lition.

Briton hmmdm muralv isposat grunt*

The 41-nation subcommit- e on surplus disposal of ricultural products relected John Eaion. of the hited Kingdom, as its chair- an for 1968 at its recent eeting in Washington. Jose H. Sanchis Munos of Argen- Hna was elected vice-chair- Aian

The subcommittee isFAOs intergouernmental torum for verseeing ihe orderly trans- fer of agricultural products rom food-rich to food-deficit ountries. It works under a et of rules designed to revent "dumping" of agri- cultural surpluses, or the emergence of unfair com pet i- tive p radices in intern at ion- al trade. These rules have he status of an international convention and are known as ihe "FAO Principles on the Disposal of Agricultural Sur- pluses."

• IDA: %c+QO miliion m ymmi- for iomnm

Over the next three years he International Development Association, an affiliate of the World Bank, will dispose of Hi,280 million for loans to develgping countries. Major contributors are the United «le* (\$480 million), the United Kingdom (SI55.5 mil- wi). the Federal Republic of Germany (\$117 million) and France {S97.2 million) Other major donors are Australia,



Robert Strange McNamara, president of the World Ban*

Canada. Italy, Japan, the Netherlands and Switzerland.

Because of its present bal- ance of payments difficulties, the U.S. contribution can now only be used for purchases inside the United States.

Sweden has announced that it will make an addition- al contribution to IDA of \$21,36 million in freely con- vertible currencies over the next three years. This would be in addition to the \$29.64 million contributed by Swe- den to the \$1,280 million fund.

• Who owns Ihm mmm- bmtf

Recent findings of manga- nese oulcroppmgs on the ocean floor have stirred inter- national action on the prob- lem of seabed jurisdiction. Acting on a Malta proposal, the United Nations General Assembly has sei up a com- mittee to study practical means to promote internation- al cooperation in the ex- ploitation of the ocean floor.

A resolution covering the establishment of a United Nations licensing authority for exploitation of the sea- bed has been proposed in the United States Senate.

The US government has designated an interdepart- mental committee, chaired by the State Department, while the US, Marine Science Council is financially backing three research projects on internationaf law and marine minerals, fisheries and scien- tife exploration

ASIA

• ADB hack* Thai Coi>~ ttoration

The Manila-based Asian Development Bank has ap- proved a S5 million loan to the Industrial Finance Corpo- ration of Thailand.

The aim of the loan is to help the corporation contrib- ute to the industrial devel- opment of Thailand

This loan is the first made by ADB from ordinary capital resources. The bank started operations 18 months ago and has so far also helped fi- nance a major agricultural survey of the Asian region and agricultural production in Indonesia.

• U.S.S.R. IMT mm* co- opmrmtm on ttwvmlp- mrmmt planm

India and the Soviet Union want to cooperate more closely in their development plans. The economic plan- ning commissions of both countries will meet before the start of India's next five- year plan in 1969, and the Soviet Union's in 1971. in order to coordinate their ac- tivities.

The commissions will con- sult particularly over the use of aid from the Soviet Union to India. Present indo-Soviet trade stands at around \$180 million annually.

The Soviet Union is ex- pected to accelerate its pur- chases of Indian manufactur- ed goods, particularly rail- way wagons and jute

EUROPE

• AgrvGntBitt on food mtrnmndmrd*

Agreement has been reach- ed on international food stan- dards for canned fruits and vegetables, a range of sugars and glucose syrups and other commodities.

The join! FAO/WHO Codex Alimenlanus Commission. * 50-nation body, mat m Rome for its (ilth annual session ending 1 March.

The commission is attempt- ing, through its own work

and that of its various groups, to arrive at standard of food quality, hygiene, la- beling, additives and pesti- cide residues which can be adopted by governments in their national legislation. It is hoped, in this way, to re- move ngntariff barriers to trade and thus contribute to food availability.

■ New Indus•Irimm tnv- mrrntmtmmt vmmtttrm

New ways to increase coop- eration between the United Nations and industry and to facilitate industrial investment in developing countries were worked out at a meeting' in March of FAO's Industry Co- operative Program,

Representatives of 37 ma- jor international (irms met in Rome under the chairman- ship of Dr. V.H. Umbricht, managing director of Ciba A. G. who was also elected pro* gram chairman for 1968

Dr. Umbricht appeared for the adoption of "a widely ac- ceptable coda of conduct for the protection of private in- vestors." This, he said, would allow private concerns to



Or V.H. Umtricht, chairman of the FAO industry Cooperative Program

be as enterprising as they would wrsh to be." He ex- pressed regret that some de- veloping countries tended to see such a code as a form of discrimination against them. He appealed also to private enterprise to adopt "an atti- tude which reflects recogni- tion of todays conditions."

Informal arrangements on industrial fibers pave way for similar commodity agreements

A new technique for dealing with international market and price problems of various commodities, first adopted for jute, kenaf and allied fibers, has now been extended to two other groups of fibers: sisal and henequen; and abaca.*

some commodities due to technical problems.

FAO's Consultative Committee on Jute, Kenaf and Allied Fibers has worked out a technique of informal international commodity stabilization arrangements which seems to be working satisfactorily.

The relative success of these informal arrangements is due to three main reasons: because most of the key personalities in each relevant industry and trade sit at meetings side by side with their government representatives; because of the informal, flexible nature of these arrangements, and because of the very real pressure to evolve workable solutions at the meetings in the light of the critical conditions facing the respective fiber industries concerned.

These conditions include the growing competition from the new polyolefin synthetics, the downward trends in world fiber prices, and upward movements in labor and other costs in most countries. Not only have exporting countries been anxious to assure a future for their exports of fiber, but importers too, unwilling for economic and technical reasons to commit themselves wholeheartedly to the new synthetics, have wished to assure themselves of supplies of natural fiber at a mutually negotiated price.

In jute and kenaf these informal consultations have mainly sought agreement on an indicative price range for a representative export grade of jute, to be supported by

a recommended monthly or quarterly phasing of purchases by the major importing countries and by the internal price and marketing policies of the key agency on the exporting side, the Pakistan Jute Board. At a recent meeting for example, representatives of the main countries exporting and consuming jute agreed to revise the indicative price range in the light of sterling devaluation.

In sisal and henequen, where no one exporter predominates, the informal indicative price arrangements, as worked out for jute, have been carried a stage further by the elaboration of a full, though still informal, export quota system.

Under this system it is intended to support the market at an agreed price level sufficient to maintain both a viable industry in the producing countries and a competitive price in the face of synthetics.

In abaca, where the number of importers is limited, a third informal technique has been evolved: that of agreement as to an appropriate price level which the major importing interests agree round the table to pay in the market. At a recent meeting, for instance, buyers and sellers of abaca and their government representatives agreed that producers need urgent assistance and that the present price of the fiber should be raised to maintain a minimum level of production in the main producing country.

commodities
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commodities

The traditional formal commodity agreement tends to be rather rigid and cannot be easily and quickly modified to meet changes in world supply and demand: it is difficult to arrange for

* Abaca (Manila hemp—of which *pentadactylon* in the Philippines) is mainly used for matting and in the rope-making industry. It is also used for paper. The *Hydrocotyle* of the Philippines has been hard hit recently by drought. *Hydrocotyle* and henequen, which are cheaper, compete with the abaca. The bulk of the fiber is used for half and binder twine, though it is also employed in rope manufacture. Henequen is similar to abaca and is used for industrial and domestic material. It is mainly used for making hats and mats, buckings for *Hydrocotyle* and, increasingly, in manufacturing fiber.



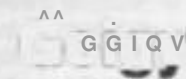
Attack

This is the world's most peaceful fleet: harvesters. Their attack on hunger has been helped by Geigy. Geigy products protect (rowing unpe from weed and insects.

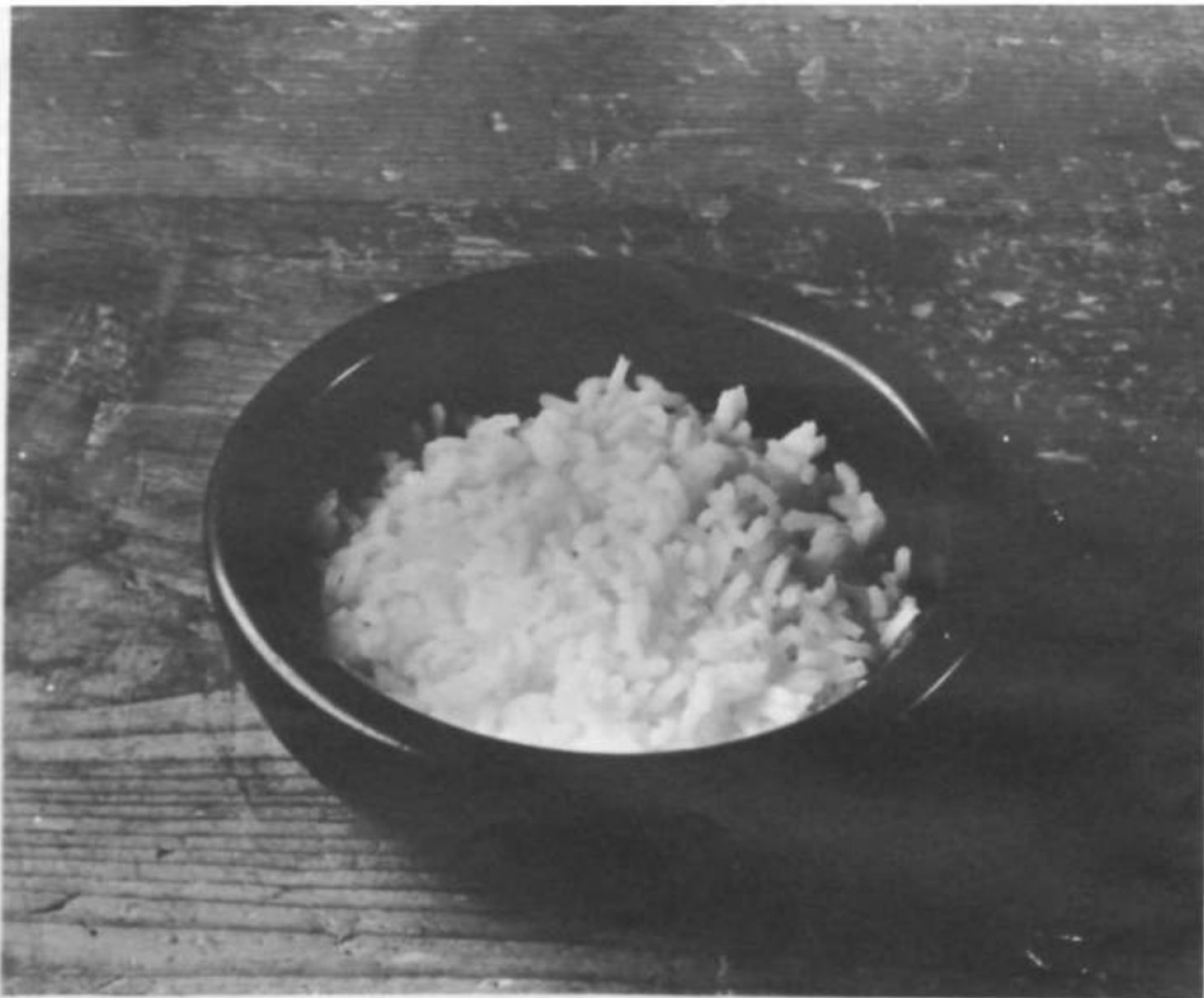
Follow the vigorous hufim man rKh harv«fti. No more weeds.

And the harvesters *Hht(only grains. Whether cereals, corn or rice, Geigy has been helping to harvesters for years.

With Cesjfin¹, Cesapnm*, EU&udirt*, and other well-tried products (the right one for every crop). This will be Geigy's potential ally. In the attack on hunger.



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There are many ways to get more food from earth. The simplest is to provide the crops with the right nutrients without useless waste.

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WOOD

A top foreign exchange earner

Forest products are among the fastest growing exports of the developing countries as a whole and are the top foreign exchange earners of a number of African and Asian countries, according to an FAO report presented at UNCTAD 2.

In the ten year* 1955-66 the export value of these products grew from \$230 million annually to \$770 million. This total is expected to reach \$1,500 million annually by 1975. The developing countries' export trade in these products continues to grow at a considerably faster rate than world trade, and at a very much faster rate than that of these countries' other commodities trade.

A number of dramatic increases are quoted in the report, such as the Republic of Korea whose exports of hardwood plywood increased more than 100 times between 1960 and 1966, from 3,300 cubic meters to 272,800 cubic meters.

However, only two fifths of these forest products are at present exported to the developed countries in processed form. By 1975 this share should, and could, increase considerably, says the report. Processed forest products present unusually favorable prospects for early, rapid and large-scale expansion of exports from the developing countries.

COTTON

Low or drop for most* for this V**

The world cotton crop in 1967/68 is estimated at 47.2 million bales as compared with 41.1 million bales harvested a year earlier and a record high of 53.1 million bales in 1965/66, according to a recent report from the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

The production estimate from the U.S. was reduced to 7.6 million bales, due to a 3 reduction in acreage and lower yields. Crops in Mexico, India, Iran, Israel and the U.S.S.R. were also reported to be lower.

Asia and Oceania, account for a major part of world cotton production, estimated at 17.3 million bales for 1967/68 as compared with 4.9 million bales in Africa and 3.8 million bales in South America.

COFFEE

Way open for new agreement

The second International Coffee Agreement should now come into force when the 1962 agreement expires at the end of September.

The final area of disagreement — namely that of the exports of soluble coffee from Brazil which, in the United States' opinion, had been facilitated by discriminating treatment in favor of green coffee processed in Brazil — has now been resolved.

The new agreement prohibits the application of governmental measures which constitute discrimination in favor of exports and re-exports of processed coffee as compared with green coffee; provision is also made for an arbitration panel to settle disputes between member countries.

The export quota mechanism of the 1962 agreement was successful in holding off the market and in improving and stabilizing prices. Annual export earnings from coffee have been raised by over \$500 million.

The aim of the new agreement remains unchanged though there has been some readjustment in basic export quotas. The system of selective quota adjustments, in order to maintain adequate supplies of the different types of coffee at equitable and stable prices, is being maintained. Quota-free exports to

certain countries which consume little coffee will be continued in order to develop new markets, but control measures are to be strengthened.

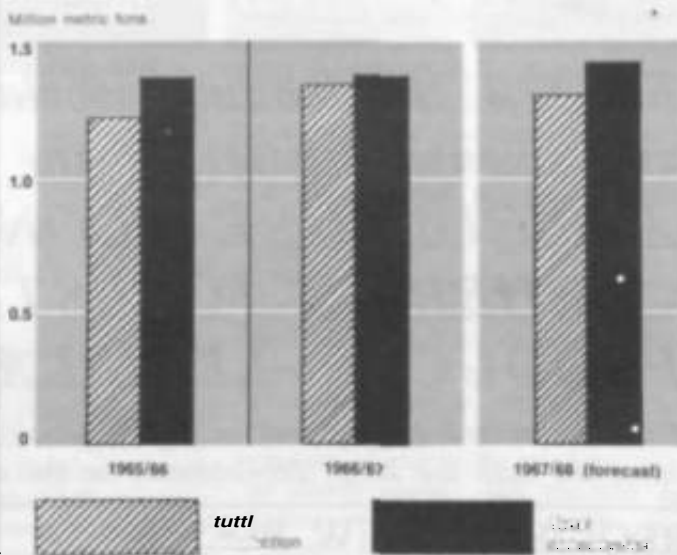
The long-term problem of coffee supplies is to be tackled by the establishment, before the end of 1968, of production goals for the 1972/73 coffee year and by setting up a diversification fund to help producing countries become less dependent on their coffee crop.

metric tons for the calendar year; 1968, a slight increase over the revised figure of 1,369,000 for the previous year.

Europe and the U.S.S.R. will account for nearly 750,000 metric tons of this estimated total, followed by North and Central America with a consumption figure of nearly 350,000 metric tons.

For the third year in succession production has been more than 300,000 tons below the record crop of 1964/65

World production and consumption of cocoa



COCOA

Continuing — myin higher than production

World production of cocoa in 1967/68 is forecast at 1,308,000 metric tons, slightly down from the revised estimate for the preceding crop year of nearly 1,347,000 metric tons, according to the committee on statistics of FAO's Cocoa Study Group, which met in Rome in April.

Africa is expected to produce the (ton's share, more than 960,000 metric tons followed by South America with slightly more than 230,000 metric tons.

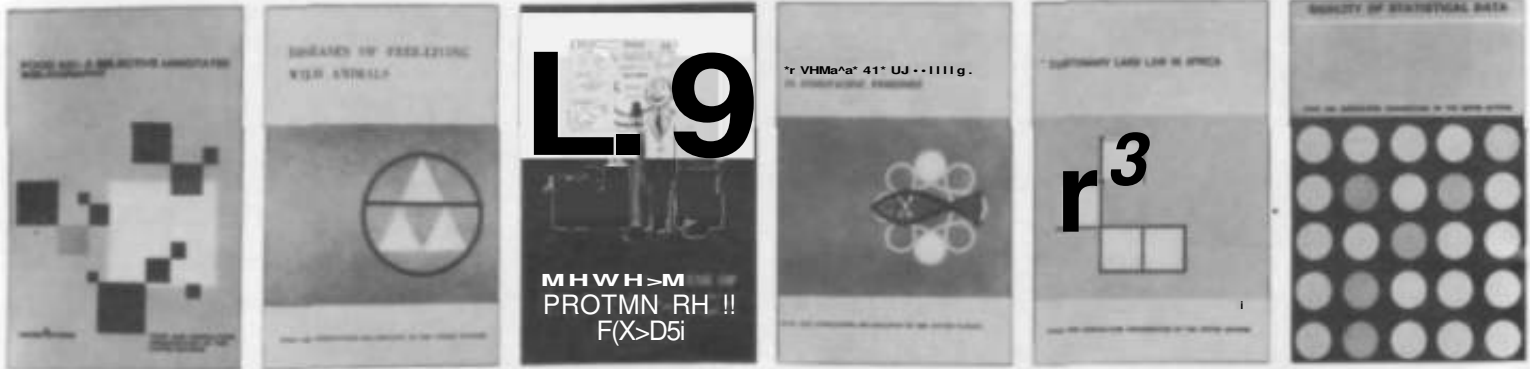
World grinding* (consumption) are forecast at 1,419,000

The trend in grinding is still upward, despite an apparent stagnation of demand in some of the major consuming countries.

Consumption has been rising over the past nine years. At the present time world reserves do not represent more than two months production. Up till now the imbalance between production and consumption has been balanced by the record crop of 1964/65.

Prices rose again during 1967. Among UNCTAD 2 the Principal producing countries — Ghana, Ivory Coast, Cameroon, Brazil and Nigeria — went some way toward a possible price agreement with the principal consuming countries.

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covering such aspects as forest utilization, fire control and the development of roads. It concludes by stating that the introduction of a more rational and a sustained forest management, the pine forests could produce enough wood to maintain a far more intensive forest industry.

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Available in English and Spanish editions, p. 96.

Price \$2.00 or 16/-

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opinion

seeing beyond one's nose

From an address by Bernard Hollowood in Punch.

...It should be fairly obvious that the strength of the rich countries lies in their economic versatility — their ability to attract labor and capital resources quickly to meet (the needs of) the market.

If the world wants color TV, then the west re-ignites industry to supply it. If the world wants pills of sporting equipment or man-made fibres, then the west shuffles labor around and turns out the goods, at fancy prices.

The underdeveloped nations, on the other hand, have no such opportunities. They have the know-how to produce only a very restricted line of raw materials and agricultural products.

The west encouraged these countries to produce nothing but cocoa, tea, coffee, rubber, rice, coconuts and so on; encouraged them by guaranteeing to buy heavily. But no price was fixed, and the guarantee usually promoted overproduction. So the poor nations were stuck with a rigid economy utterly dependent on the market for their subsistence. They are, and are, in the pockets of the rich.

The past fifty years have demonstrated that communities which are encouraged to put their iruses in a narrow range of products* are extremely vulnerable, and at the mercy of the rest of the world.

Even Kuwait, the richest state on earth, is pitiful: any scientific development that puts oil in the background would automatically convert the people of Kuwait to the primitive desert nomads they were a few years ago.

Undeveloped and underdeveloped nations must be helped (to diversify, to industrialize and (to compete with the west in the production of manufactured goods. And the west, responsible for their present plight, has a duty to provide them with

the raw materials to accomplish this diversification.

The west has now to decide whether it is prepared to allow millions to descend to the acutest poverty by refusing to sacrifice an insignificant fraction of its bloated standard of living, or whether to keep up its aid to a level that will make the poorer countries economically viable.

It is not an easy choice, for governments survive only when they please the pockets of the electorate and the electorate, almost everywhere, is so stupid and selfish that it cannot see the end of its nose.



stoking our own fires

From an address by M. Louis Nigre, Minister of Finance in the Republic of Mali, at VSCTAD 2.

...I approach this problem from an angle which is likely to be rather disagreeable. I feel an obligation for us, the developing nation*, to look at our situation (just for 1968, but) and critically, especially in this assembly, for our conference cannot be merely the Forum for criticising (perhaps rather superficially) only those countries which are already developed.

It is certainly legitimate (and indeed "good form") to require industrialized countries to raise the rules of the game of international trade. But what have we done ourselves to hinder trade within our own regions? Our products are subject to the same ridiculous system of taxes and tariffs, even though they are not competitive; and although our periodic meetings (at least so far as west African states are concerned) are ostensibly devoted to harmonizing differences on tariffs and taxes, they almost invariably end in admissions of deadlock — and therefore in failure.

What is happening to economic and industrial collaboration? We have enough tobacco and match factories to fill the whole of Africa. We all have textile industries — but sometimes no cotton — lots of slaughterhouses and large-scale facilities — but very often

no livestock; lots of sugar refineries, but scarcely ever any cane sugar. Or again, what is there to be said for the proposal to set up an iron-and-steel industry at the regional level, when it appears that no final agreement has yet been reached among the countries concerned?

There you have a description in broad outline of the present state of economic cooperation among the countries of west Africa, it is as disappointing as any platitude.

My country's position in this matter is anyway quite clear and unambiguous. We, in Mali, hold that economic cooperation between underdeveloped countries (such as our African countries) can bear lasting fruit only insofar as it is based upon a partnership of peoples who are fully conscious both of their rights and of their obligations, and who are resolved to make mutual concessions in order to ensure that each participant enjoys his fair share of real advantages accruing from projects* which are jointly put in hand.

We hold that such cooperation should not be confused with a vague association for mutual aid or solidarity, whose notional principle is one of "fraternalism" or "fraternalism," quite as dangerous as any paternalism since it will only confirm the wealthier partner in the privileges which he already enjoys*. Still less with any division of labor between nations on a regional or subregional level, which would have the effect of crystallizing the inequalities bequeathed by the colonial system and which would run the risk of finally and permanently condemning certain countries to stagnation but markets for the markets.

change of heart

From an address by Professor J. May fine Sryaet to a meeting on population problems in Latin America

...Although the intensity of effort varies greatly from country to country, at the present time Latin American and Caribbean governments provide some degree of support to family planning programs.

In 1967, the International Family Planning Federation spent more in the

Latin American region than in nil other regions combined. In this same area, AJ» (Agency for International Development) during 1965 and 1966 invested in family planning campaigns double the amount ii had spen: in other continents on similar programs.

The rapidity with which this situation has conic upon us is as remarkable us I he Tact that it has occurred at all. In 1960 there was only one private group dedicated 10 family planning in the whole of Latin America; that was in Mexico and was run by North Americans. In .1467 only three nations lacked such programs: Nicaragua, Haiti and Bolivia.

pro and con modern technology

*From an article by Gerard PM. publish-
er of Scientific American, in the Buliclin
of the Atomic Scientists.*

...The hordes of underemployed people in the countryside and of the plainly unemployed irt the squatter cities have encouraged the idea that development programs should call in iabor-miensivc technologies. A strong case can be made (or the opposite slralcgy.

In the first place. *tIKtc* is a generation or two of la bor- in tensive work lo be done in every pic-industrial country on the infrastructure tif ports, rails, highv ays, bousing and building.

When it comes lo the productive apparatus, on the other hand, this ought to incorporate the most advanced developments in science and technology. The model is (he petrochemical plant, with MO operators at * control panel.

Technology at this stage of perfection is highly portable, easily installed, makes least demand on local human resources, and operate* al the same efficiency independent of local conditions whether in fialveslnn or Kuwait.

In sum there is no reason why with adequate capital and technical assistance from outside, the prospective new steel industry in Chile should have to evolve through the beehive coke oven and backyard blast- furnace phase Ideally, it should install direct reduction and continuous casting at the outset.

The application of **Mtmot** and technology lo development may. therefore.

offset and reverse the forces that tend to widen and deepen the gap between the rich and the poor...



two halves
make a whole

*From an interview with Edgar Faure,
French Minister of Agriculture, appear-
ing in Enterprises.*

An effective global plan of aid to toe third world is almost impossible without real international cooperation.

It would seem lo be very difficult to effect an operation of this magnitude without complete international cooperation, embracing l-voth LUM and west, both market and centrally planned economies.

It would be difficult to obtain (tic unilateral consent of either camp to an equal amount of its gross national product for aid: difficult, in other words, to conceive of such a plan from the point of view of the recipient rather than that of the donor.

why call it aid?

*From tut article by Taya Zinkin in thr
Daily Telegraph.*

When the Italians lend money at 6'/j%, they call it aid. When the JapaneSC pay reparations, they call it **lid** When the British pay tiresome colonies money to go m .n. they call it aid. When the French provide money for African t-ountrics to compensate Frenchmen with, they call it aid. When an oil company finds oil, that too h aid.

I his !. id) very odd. Aid, as the name denotes, is eh;irit}-helping I hose who an* less fortunate than oneself. To lump private investment, or reparations for dam-atK done, under the aid label is a misnomer.

I Iw reason for this misnomer b tjuivc simpltf. The developed countries have all beta bulldozed at (he United Nations

into promising to hand over to the developing countries 1 % of their national income. Except for the French, they have no intention of making such enormous gifts, for the United Kingdom it would mean over £300 million a year, much the same sort of money as is at present splitting the government. So, naturally, the developed countries put everything into the aid rag bag: gifts, soft loans, hard loans, military assistance, f * y W ii^sistintc, supplie.iV credit, re-scheduling of debts, anything they can rake up.

"The western voter," told that he is pTo- * id ing 196 of his income in aid, sees himself as a Galahad, The Pakistani olliaal, who finds himself paying '6*% on a seven-ytfar loan and then 20% esirj for his generator because the supplier knows thai he cannot go shopping around, sees the Galahad as a Shy lock.

The story of aid is tittered with nonsense: Russian snowplows for Guinea, which has np winter; a refrigerated van for Iran meant for vaccines, but used to bring caviar up from the Caspian instead; Russian arms for Indonesia used to kill Communisis; IMJ loans for **Argentina** accompanied by such inappropriate ad- iante (hat the national income went down.

If such nonsense is to be avoided, three ruk-s have to be adopted. First, business must he separate from charity. Situud, (he donors must get together. And third, they must be prepared to tk i i\ umilh strings round their aid...

CREDITS

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If there is disillusionment with technical assistance it is largely because of ill-planned and uncoordinated ventures of national, bilateral and multilateral aid.

Here is a significant attempt at a global plan for development

The way out of the labyrinth

Ay JAM TINBEROEK

Everyone knows that our world is becoming smaller and smaller. We can now reach Tokyo, or Santiago, from Europe in about 10 hours, half the time it took ten years ago. Every year some 15% more people fly and between countries they have never seen before. Even more people do not fly, although "it is cheaper than you think," but they see other people coming into their countries. They see something of the way of life and prosperity of the people who can afford to fly: they see things they would like to have themselves.

For an even longer time many have known that their living was dependent on what distant populations bought from them. The Brazilian coffee planter and his employees know it. The metalworkers of Europe know it. They earn part of their income from the engines constructed for Argentina or India, the Japanese know that their build ships for Europe, and so on. Without such interdependent relationships the world would be a bit lower.

It was a long time when ruling groups everywhere thought that economic life could best be left to itself, and that free enterprise and free competition would automatically lead to the best of all possible worlds. But this is no longer believed. We have seen too many misfortunes resulting from free enterprise: unequal incomes, misery for the sick and the old; recurring crises with mass unemployment, erratic fluctuations in the prices of coffee, cocoa and rubber; the rich becoming richer at a faster pace than the poorer to unifies.

We have learnt that freedom is only fruitful within a controlled framework. Income tax and social insurance were introduced to eliminate the extreme of poverty. Budget

policies were enacted to counteract economic cycles. Markets were regulated so as to reduce the most violent price fluctuations. A very modest start has been made in transferring income from the rich to the poor countries rather than the other way round. We now have a complex system of state intervention within which freedom can exert its stimulating influence without unduly damaging human relations.

It is mostly the national governments who are organizing the nation, market regulations, social insurance and so on. National governments are the most important power centers. Power has a tendency to shift from local, state or provincial authority to federal or centralized authority.

Why we need for national control

Political systems of economic intervention are complex. They require careful preparation, which we now call planning. Preparation is needed if a complicated mechanism has to be changed. This is especially so if changes are needed within long-term processes. A long time is required to build a dam and, if a sun is not made on time, there may be a long period without electricity or with inadequate water for irrigation. Education also takes a long time. If the right educational facilities are not created when they are needed, then there may be too few engineers five or ten years later on.

We must look ahead. We must set ourselves targets in order to check the efficiency of our policies. We must coordinate the action taken by various groups, organisations, ministries so that they fit together. When the factory is erected, the machines must also be ready for installation; the roads and trucks to transport both raw materials and finished products must be available; housing for workers and engineers must be built. A great many factors often have to be accommodated into a balanced system. This is why planning has been accepted not only in eastern Europe and main-

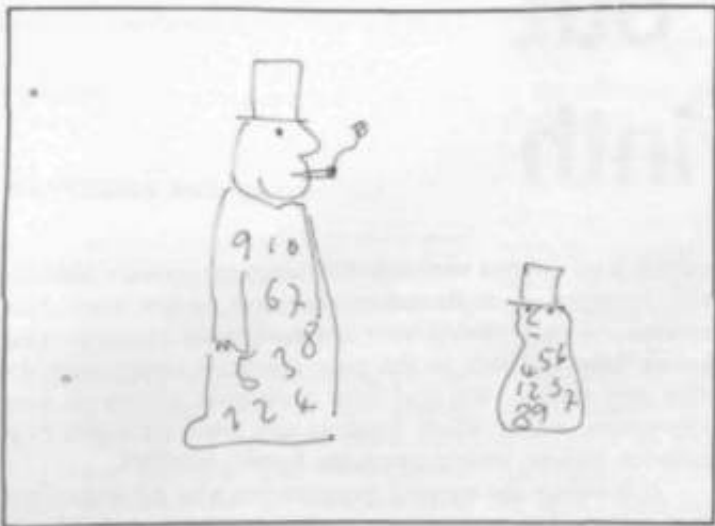
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t > t opment and Central Planning.

land China, but in every large industry ami by almost all governments.

National governments claim to be autonomous in many respects. While **risgk LjtWnt** have to behave according to the many laws of ibe country — and law and order has taken the place of the jungle familiar from Westerns or from history books (at least, in a majority of countries for a majority of the population) — national governments claim ihe right of ihe strongest, "right or wrong, my country."

Somewhat wiser men have shown us that many disasters have been caused by this attitude. Other disasters will follow unless we recognize the need for international order. But governments, and their parliaments, are changing lhcir attitude wry reluctantly. We found that wheat prices could only be



A v**Y mootsf start has been made in transferring income tram ttw rich to the poor countries, rather than the other way round... A we <tQ not **anter** irtltf a stalg pt war with poverty we rny find ourselves involved in other kinds of war"

kept under control if there was an international wheat agreement which both governments and producers had to obey. We h,ilc discovered that trade policies cannot be left to the jungle, and we now have GATT, UNCTAD, common nuiTkcis and the Jike under construction. But siitl. on so many occasions, governments behave iike bad little boys.

We now have **tMMMtiOM**) institutions whose (ask it is to regulate on a worldwide basis what cannot be left uncontrolled. The International Labour Organisation and the Food and Agricultural Organization are among the most venerable of such institutions. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the International Monetary r-und mm created after the second world war. prior to the central organization, the United Nations itself. There art* others, L'neseo, IMIK), the World Health Organization and so on: they are the beginnings of what we must hope will, sometime, be the ministries of a world government. But he careful not to say so; for a large number of governments wil) show their bad-boy mentality. For the lime being such international bodies have more modest duticit which they carry out very well.

We arc discovering the need **faf** coordination ut the world level, for looking ahead so that the pieces can be filled together more precisely. Thi\ has brought us to the beginning

of global planning, FAO is a pioneer: its Indicative World Plan is the first such attempt, the prototype version of which will be ready in 196**. The JLO is working hard on a World Employment Plan.

The U.N.'s Center for Development Planning, Projections and Policies (rDPPP) is preparing whai could well be called iik- framework for a master plan covering all such activities. This is pan of the task imposed on it by assembly resolutions which request the secretary-general, in plain words, to prepare future development efforts which arc un improvement on the present development decade.

I like to speak of DD 2, or the Second Development Decade, as the subject of this coordinated undertaking in global planning. One of its most important tasks will be to create a set of coherent statistics which will enable us, year **after** year, to check the effectiveness of our operations. In business, everybody is subject to such checks: if someone fails to meet his goal, he must explain why; if he has exceeded the target, so much the better for him and for all concern ed.

The various international bodies should follow the example set years ago by the OECD countries. Formerly known as OEEC (Organisation for European Economic Co-ope rationJ. Periodically, each country's socioeconomic policy is thoroughly investigated by two other member countries and their findings arc discussed in full plenary session: many useful suggestions have resulted from such a scrutiny. We can hope that in the future, at the international level, the performance of both governments and of international agencies will be examined from the point of view of benefiting common interest, that is, that the world at large (rather than at small) becomes prosperous

The major task of CDPPP will be to set some general goals and to indicate the main ways by which these goals can be attained at both national and international levels. The goals should not be ove ram bilious, because they will then be unrealistic. But they should not be realistic in ihc sense of being overcautious and wifhoul imagination, ihe realism of the *stotus qua*. As in eu-r) dynamic enterprise, (here should be an element of difficult achievement stimulating all involved to do their utmost.

Involves In oihmr kitn/m mf IW>

There is every reason to urge the utmost effort. Too often lhc prosperous countries, and the prosperous strata of poor countries, take it easy without understanding the present emergelKV situation. We arc faced with a tremendous challenge. Hundreds of millions of people live in misery: hungry and ill-fed; suffering (TOUI disease; living in dwellings that hardly deserve the n;imtr, or without dwellings like the two hundred thousand people in t'akuiu who cat and sleep in ihc Mrceis with no more shelter than their rags —true also of many in latin **America** and Africa. If we are not ready to enter >"io a Mate of war with poverty, m will soon find ourselves **Involved** in many other kinds of w<r, I u*e 'he phrase 'war against poverty' |Q indicate ihc needed state of mind.

The advantage of hii\mg a plan for DD 2 is lhal we can then tiMi,ih/i our "war goals" wnd concretely define the **obHgMkm** <f .ill S.M.,| groups, ifcluding gmcrcmncnli.

But the center cannot do this task by itself. The cooperation of all the specialised agencies is needed to hold the line! It is really possible in the various fields: in agriculture, industry, trade, **education**, population policies and so on. The center's provisional framework for a master plan will have to be discussed with all the specialized **agencies**. However, it will be proposed and the center is needed to see that **local** changes are mutually consistent.

Thus, a complicated procedure of calculation and consultation will have to be developed over the next two years, one of the **tasks** being to carry it through on schedule. It is well known that one of the most difficult accomplishments is to be able to leave out details if the operation can be saved as a whole,

But before knowing what are details and what are not, one has to look into **every** little corner: this helps to explain the size of some of the international organizations, the large quantity of paper consumed, the number of subunits, of meetings, of people. The efficiency of the international organizations is sometimes criticized, often based upon comparisons with industry. Some of these criticisms may well be justified and, in any case, their **operation** should be continually scrutinized for they are financed by the national taxpayers.

Yet, a sense of proportion should guide us and we should try to understand the dimension of the problem. It is **relatively** easy to efficiently manage a business of fifty or a hundred persons for they can be seen at work. It is less easy to supervise an enterprise of 10,000 or 100,000 employees.

The world at large has a population of three billions, that is, three thousand million. Think of the cubic meters of



'Otoaniing somtthno; in which all the citizens of the world are arranged as a highly organized structure, and the coordinators of the coordinators, the way in which the world is organized and thinking'

timber. Imagine they are sawn into little cubes measuring one cubic millimeter each. Now, imagine you want to see three billion of these little cubes at once. Spread them out over the floor - you will need a space 55 meters long by 55 meters wide. Organizing something in which all the citizens of the world are involved means supervising that square of 55 by 55 meters filled up with tiny **atoms** of wood.

Not all citizens would be actively involved but, if we stick to a democratic way of dealing with our problems, the adult population would have to be **consulted** in one way or another. Such consultation would be at various levels: local, **State**, federal, national, continental or regional and, finally, global. And some such consultation is necessary for we must know how, for instance, the individual farmer in Asia reacts to new possibilities, the use of fertilizer, better seeds, more varieties and new varieties of crops.

The field workers of the international organization are **confronted** with such problems; they often only really know what is going on "in the field". But it is highly desirable that all the coordinators, and the coordinators of the coordinators, and the coordinators of the coordinators of the coordinators remain aware of how the people at the grass-roots level are behaving, reacting and thinking. This does result in a network of relations which is, indeed, near the top, appalling in its complexity. Criticism which is not based on a knowledge of such difficulties is easy to make.

A message for the 'seventies

But let us return to the joint operation of the U.N. family necessary in order to enter the 'seventies with an improved development policy. What I would like to advocate is an operation carried out in four main phases: firstly, two phases covering the framework for a master plan, the main features only; then, two phases leading to the construction of a more detailed world plan. In each case, the second phase would take into account comments from all levels; specialized ("sector") agencies, regional ("geographical") agencies and governments. The framework would indicate the main features while the master plan would cover regions and, in some cases, individual governments if large, countries posing major problems are involved.

The complete work should be ready by 1970 for submission to the U.N. General Assembly as the basis of the Second Development Decade: a decade in which we hope more progress will be achieved than is possible in this decade.

This objective is of such paramount importance that all the energies of the United Nations family should be directed toward it.

It requires a state of mind of the decision makers involved which, unfortunately, does not exist everywhere. Our actions must be determined by the interests of the whole, all of us together. We must overcome attitudes of narrow national thinking, of narrow departmental thinking, of narrow individual thinking. The world situation demands that national delegates think internationally and that civil servants think interdepartmental! A unified operation is what is important, rather than the gathering of a number of independent, uncoordinated, or conflicting actions.

I know that many readers, moved by the cold wind of reality, will doubt whether such an approach can be carried out. Much will depend on the leadership of those directly responsible. Their task is far from easy and a great deal of **effort** will be needed. Let us wish (for success in their efforts) to the real leader and let each of us apply the same standards to our own tasks and responsibilities.

Once upon a time, four brothers lived by a great river

Guinea, Mali,
Mauritania and Senegal
have joined together
to develop the
Senegal river basin.
Robert N'Dao, who heads
the four-country team,
talks about this aim

by ROBERT CURT AT



Framed by the doorway, the river stretches away from Saint Louis into the heart of the delta. In his office, Robert N'Dao, secretary-general of the inter-governmental committee for development of the Senegal river basin, envisages the future:

"Down this formidable, wild river flow some 22,000 million cubic meters of water over an average year. It represents a reserve of one million hectares of cultivable land, enormous hydro-electric power potential and a thousand kilometers of navigable waterway. The river is one of the most extraordinary means of development that nature has bestowed upon us. Turning and harnessing it is our endeavor and our adventure."

The persistence of the pioneer sounds in the words of Robert N'Dao, from Mali, a man of athletic build dressed in a comfortable suit with open neck, a high forehead over a sculptured face. Respect grows quickly for this man who has made the development of the Senegal river the main task of his life.

It was a long, hard road from July 1962 at Conakry when representatives of Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Senegal signed preliminary agreements "to develop the potential of the basin for the benefit of all," to November 1963 at Nouakchott, when the four heads of state of the countries bordering on the river formally declared that they wished to build the

* Robert Curt At - Journalist, member of the Institut de la Recherche Scientifique de la Sorbonne.

future of their peoples around the river, A further difficult stretch led to November 1967 at Bamako when Modibo Keita, President of Mali, recalled the spirit of **fruwlrhft**. urged the peoples of the river and political leaders of the four countries to find "large-scale solutions to our burning economic problems."

After so many other appeals, this anguished plea by a head of state clearly shows that this part of Africa, a window into the Atlantic, is in a state of underdevelopment.

All the conditions of long-term poverty are to be found here: the race between agricultural production and an expanding population; the unequal fight to gain an unfair terms of trade; the iron law of international **COMM** which leads the poor into ever-greater-poverty: the predominantly subsistence economy at its primitive level, incapable of providing for a better life; the rigidity of social organization, and living standards so low that poverty can only perpetuate itself.

Intolerable amount of misery**

In traveling through the **QHLrtfti** bordering on the river it is impossible to contradict the authors of FAO's remarkable *African Struggle* from whom we have borrowed the following lines,

The mask of underdevelopment **tin** everywhere. It marks poverty as "habit" and the smallest luxury as an insult. It marks the futility of disjointed **efforts**. It marks the national struggle against misery. Underdevelopment brands the hundreds of thousands of people grouped in tribes along the banks of the river, enclosed in ancient social structures in which power rests upon cattle ownership. It marks the peasants subjected to the vagaries of the weather and to the ravages of disease: to the terrible onslaughts of **OHChoctnkub** which leaves whole village blind; to malaria which strikes throughout the basin. It marks a million human beings ignorant to ignorance for lack of classroom, teacher and money. This frightful burden of ills, due both to nature and to man, weighs heavily on the Senegal river project.

Reliable statistics tell us that the average per capita income of the region, what would be handed out to **ttA** inhabitants if **everyone** received an equal share is \$75 a year. Try to imagine it on the

first day of the year there is \$75 in your pocket knowing that it **then** will be nothing else to live on until the end of December.

Regional development centering on the river is an urgent remedy against those **OWdWdE** which "poverty tends to perpetuate itself." In November 1967 in Bamako, the project received the highest guarantees after having proved during the preceding two years that it was an indispensable element in cementing together the river states. Bamako was an early stage, but its achievement required men devoted to development of the basin, men who could negotiate **these** treacherous rapids with ease. Robert N'Dao, who has been one of the steersmen from the beginning, sums up the **SLmgjL**:

"What is seemingly simple it all the more difficult to earn through. We are experiencing **OBSJ** difficulties as

a sleepy administration or national susceptibility touched on the raw. Nothing is more difficult than to convince people [his] small, many reasons stand in the way of our project. Finally, everyone has to agree on the future use of the river for **UWdVed** agriculture, power and **UMT** navigation."

Robert N'Dao first tested the banks of the river and hacked out rock, samples in the upper basin as a young geologist. He knows the obstacles nature has put between the present and the future: the ridges that cannot be crossed without powerful modern equipment; the prevalent diseases; the climate which grips the peasants and bends their heads down to the ground, condemning them to sow too late when the floods have receded, hoping only that the sun and the insects will leave them part of the **tan** rest.



N'Dao, "We will have to struggle without ceasing before the first light bulb receives electricity wrested from the river, before the floods are controlled and the stored water reaches the first cultivated plot"

the founders of the European Common Market; even more because we are pioneers. Our only wealth is the future, what the **signatures** of our birth certificate called the common potentialities of the basin.

"We will have to struggle without **ccm** before the first light bulb receives electricity wrested from the river, before the floods are controlled and the first cultivated plot.

"We will have to struggle against men at first because in an undertaking such as ours nothing is more damaging than

In the close, stagnant air of the delta, men and women live and work very much in this way, as do their brethren in the **village**. In spite of **ofgmcmMH Giffatt**, despite aid, a giant effort will have to be made before their condition can improve. Wafted Lippman has written. "We knew now, both in theory and in practice, how to replace famine with abundance."

Robert N'Dao, like so many of us, **uh** to this hope but he also knows just how the long battle of development will have to be waged throughout the

SeaesBI basin: "Great ills call for great
ivniL-dks. We must break the present
vicious circk of underdcvlopment, in
which we arc forced to live on charity,
for we cannot lokrate such a slate of
affairs."

These remedies cover the following
four poinis:

___Gouina, a dam capable of reguhit-
ing the river flow by retaining 20.000
million cubic meters of water. A feasi-
bility study is being completed by a Swiss
group who will shortly submit a report
on tin- economic and financial implica-
tions of the proposed dam site.

— From Saint Louis to Kaycs, a
hydrp-agrk-uliura] stuiy of the basin,
requested by the four riparian countries,
is being carried out by an FAO team under
a United Nations Development Program
(UNDP) project. Two pilot plots for agri-
cullurc will be established in this area
under the second phase of this project.

___A study is under way of tiic Sene-
gal's main tributaries — Falcmc, Baling,
Baoule and Bakoy — as they cross the
Manding plateau in thu upper basin.
The discovery of important mining re-
sources in thi\$ area has given fresh im-
petus to the whole- undcrtakiTij:-

— Finally, the navigability of the rh.cr
from Kayes to its mouth, representing
about 1,000 kilometers of waterway. i>
under study as is the possibility of open-
ing up the continent to the SL-J fag bmfe>
ing the bar at Saint Denis.

In Robert N'Dao we discover a man
who is not only a geologist, tprwonriii
and economist hut also a river pilot and
a guide to the future. We sec with him
the million hectares of potentially irriga-
ble land, a marvelous reserve of bauxite
lying on the frontier between Guinea and
Mali, vast rice crops which could be
grown as I he result d controlled flood-
ing: ill these arc his weapons of con-
viction. And, since he has the knowl-
edge, he does convince people.

A mtm/or Aft-ican victory

He strengthened his beliefs in the
United States and Europe where he saw
what others have achieved in irrigation,
river navigation and (he production of
electric power. Me b one of those who
beliesc. and who hive every reason to
hckl-ve, that in the Senega] basin there

lies an opportunity for a major African
technical victory:

" We are going to set up irrigated plots
of 500 hectares each, one at Matam in
Senegal, the other at Rosso in Maurita-
nia. One thousand hectares, that's, noih-



Pro"fo number one Gowna rJom"

ing. but thes wU provide a start for our
tests.

" The people of [he basin will begin
to feel that they belong to a region, and
to understand the African way of inter-
national cooperation. We shall also set
up two /ones for animal husbandry out-
side the valley because we mutt put an
end to the frantic search for the last graz-
ing grounds of the dry MMtOO.

" At the same lime, there will be the
Gouina dam, priority number one. At
Jong last we are going to start taming
and using the river as a powerful modern
means of regional development. All this
will quickly fedtow efficient studies. Af-
terward, there will be the gradual citab-
lrshmcn of a new granary for the world.
Everything is there. It has got to be
done. And we arc going ro do it."

Robert N'Dao's faith is nurtured on
reason. Lite the Re\rcrnd Father dc
Breuvery. oT trasoc's Resources and
Transport Divbion. who more than ten
years ago launched the idea of mulii
country UK of the river's resources, he

thinks lhat the new states are bound to
quickly reach the ceiling of possibilities
for development if they remain within
their cramped frontiers. To enter the
20th century in force, it is necessary to
want things in a big way and to achieve
them on a simitar scale.

International organizations, who have
contributed nearly \$12 million to various
studies, are keenly interested in the re-
gional development of the Senegal river.
All the U.N. agencies are anxious to
support the integrated project, and this
generosity has had I-J be coordinated at
conferences in Milan and New York.
FAO, which has a large share in the
overall operation, maintains a mission at
Saint Louis, whose chief, Jacques Grolee,
has acquired remarkable competence in
the problems of African agricultural de-
velopment.

A ftmmt and a tmtmrm

The Senegal night envelops the house
by the river, obscuring the big map of
the basin on the wall, while Robert
N'Dao tells us about the interest that the
project has aroused abroad.

" Firstly, we had to come into being.
But now we exist and interest goes fur
beyond the boundaries of the river coun-
tries.

" We represent a past and a future for
dHM people of the river who have never
let themselves be enclosed within admin-
istrative frontiers. They arc going to
ht-lp us win the battle. It is a paradox,
but they know that they do not know
i-nough. So they go at it. tooth and nail,
lo gain knowledge, and they arc success-
ful. They must be part of it at all costs.
1 have lived with them for JPMn. I have
seen unskilled laborers become excellent
drillers in six months."

Robert N'Dao has more to say about
lhc future. I watch the smile on his face
as he talks about new boats, ihc growing
rice, mighty dams, about what will be
the beginning of happiness, to (wo million
pMUMa\ rather than merely a way of
improving production.

And looking at this passionately simple
man, I quite understand that he will not
like (hi* tribute and that he would new
accept it without mention of the men of
Bamako, NouaklnHi, Dakar;ind< nnakry
who. with him."farm the river team,

Twenty years in a second

A computerized retrieval system, part of FAO's documentation center, means that the accumulated experience of agricultural development is readily available to everyone



EVERYTHING PUBUSHEO ON THE OLIVE

An electronic memory gives quick access to tti9 storefl txpttionce at technical assistance

by JtAN-CHARiLS ABREU

An i-piduiit threaten* entile in the Far El and ilic animals must be immunized ;i(once. One of (he regional **OKpeffe milWUhrn** thai • similar outbreak had been successfully dealt **wiA** in Madagascar. Bui he doesn't remember the formula of lthe **VBCdoc** or how it was produced.

A cable is immediately sent to the i ui Documcnutioii Center. By return posi, the center sends hack micro curds containing infotmaiktn on the vaccine, abstracted from the proceedings of a **IB riling** held in Rome MR) years before.

I MI is ihc simplest, swiftest and **not**) ctimpicct way »l M>lvinp a **pmbien** o! this kind, whether for ;m aprkullural spcculi^ working in ihe ik-vi-ktpin^ countries. • student preparing his degree

therfi or for an industrialist faced with a produciion pruhk-m.

From now on, MO can supplement the skill at it* experts with the capability of the computer and the knowledge of its memory hunk*, in which lie the indexed experience of more than 20 year of technical assistance activity.

"Where there it activity, there is paper." cry ihe enemies of burcauct.icy. But in the mouth of Gerard Dubois, in charge of the ccteT. it ceases lo he a **satirical** phrase. Quite the opposite, for ihc scr'vice ofkred by the center turns hilhertrn uwctu> documents iniu v.ituabk¹ items.

The panoply of administratkin — **tHtm**, reports and stattna-nls — is not an nil in itself. Everything depends 00

the way it is used: it can be left to lose its value, carefully slowed away in a woollen stocking in a secret drawer, or it can be put at the disposal of mankind.

FAO chose the second road in 1966. The idea first occurred to Raymond A. Librae, a former engineer with the French Highways Department, while working on a project to establish unneep in arid areas of Morocco.

* We tost six months and spent several million francs just preparing the plans for stone sheep pens. There was no wood and we made do with what we had. Two years later I met an expert who, for many years and without limber, had been building stone pens in another area of North Africa that WLTC much betier than ours. His plans and reports were lying idle in a drawer at Rome headquarters."

Many experts are daily trying to solve rural development problems which have already been solved elsewhere: the waste runs into millions of dollars a year.

The Documentation Center has a budget of \$100,000, several offices in an annex to the main building and a staff of a dozen analysts and indexers. The center is built around a computerized information retrieval system, in which references from FACVS 150 publications and from two to three thousand documents (out of some 12,000 produced each year) are being stored. This modest but effective entry into the era of electron has already avoided costly false moves and duplication of work.

The Language of the computer

The computer uses a language. It would have been convenient to use the index system of the * p*o library, but decimal classification is unsuited to the multiple cross-indexing needed.

Such indexing is particularly valuable in order to preserve and use all the information gathered on assignment. For instance, one expert who wanted to find out the domestic market for wood products, so as to ascertain whether it was worth developing forest exploitation in Turkey, completed a thorough study on energy sources needed for the production of power and for heating.

This study is very complete and could be extremely useful but normally it would be hidden in a report on forest exploitation. By indexing documents under >

great number of headings and subheadings, however, the computer will recall this study whenever such key words as heat, energy, power or heating are raised in connection with Turkey.

The index system consists of "descriptors": words or groups of words, which define, without homonyms or synonyms, the concepts [iDiicf which information is to be listed and retrieved. Thus, a very simple language has been created; so simple that questions asked of the machine must be phrased very carefully.

For example, it is not enough to ask the computer what has been published on olive cultivation in the Mediterranean; it is necessary to add the names of all relevant Mediterranean countries.

StrmolMlixmtt tmtmxmw mvafabto

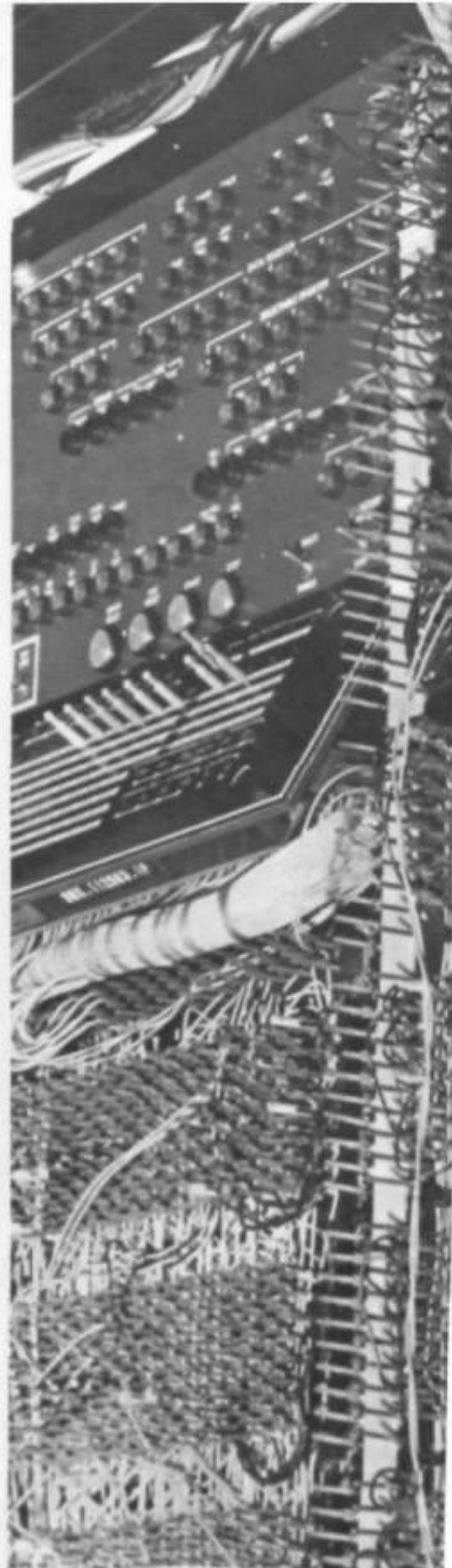
The questions sometimes seem bizarre: a government adviser in Laos once asked for everything that was available on the breeding of frogs. More usual customers are, for instance, a pulp and paper company wanting to obtain details on the industrial processing of certain tropical woods, or a student preparing a paper on nutrition problems.

The reply which comes back from the typewriter coupled to the computer is in the form of bibliographic references. Occasionally, questions that are too vague or badly put force KAO specialists to spend time on research or to ask for additional details.

A monthly index of current production of documents is being published. It consists of two parts: one is bibliographical, containing summaries of the documents in their order of accession; the other is analytical and lists in alphabetical order the descriptors and key words used in the indexing.

Each month the recipients of the index can quickly spot the documents of interest to them simply by going through the descriptors. Some institutes are already ordering about 40 documents each month in order to keep their collections up to date.

A cumulative index containing a more elaborate analysis comes out twice a year, in June and December. Raymond Aubrae, now director of F/M/I Program Liaison Division, who helped in establishing the center, explains: "The mere listing of entry number* opposite the descriptor.





and key words does **DO**, in **toctt**, help with selection of items, so we decided to **produce** an analytical index in which descriptors (and key words) appeared in their context, reproducing all or part of a summary composed while indexing "

Selection thus becomes a somewhat easier **matter**. This approach was made possible by adapting a specific information retrieval system known as KWJC (key words in context) for which pre-arranged computer programs exist.

FAO marked its 20th anniversary in 1966. Twenty years of documents had to be stored in the computer's memory banks. Specialized indexes are being produced which catalogue all of FAO's technical documents, covering such fields as forestry and fisheries.

Watching the computer at WOIC processing one of these indexes, one sees the tape implicitly consuming the subject matter at a rate that is inhumanly fast.

These indexes, bulky as telephone directories, are available to the public. They are divided into three parts: bibliographical; by author; and according to the CWK system. They make up a complete set of references to FAO's entire work since its founding, from nutrition to land reform.

"It all seems quite simple but it demands called for considerable work," says Mr. Dubois. "FAO's technical divisions have grasped its usefulness and helped us greatly by selecting and collecting documents. Sometimes, though, we had to be **detective**, tracking down a veteran who was hoarding the last copy of a document out of print for nearly 20 years."

Mr. Dubois was not the first to undertake this kind of search, though he may be the last. One day, when FAO was ten years old, one expense became very angry. He was studying Iraq's natural resources. He asked for documentation but received only two small pamphlets. "You are pulling my leg," he flared up. "Is this all you have learned in ten years about a country with such fantastic oil potential?"

THE NAKED BRAIN OF THE COMPUTER
An international network will some day link the continents, drawing upon the wisdom of major organizations through this material throughout the world.

But it was impossible to find other information for him. So he had to tour the offices one by one trying to find what he wanted. To his great surprise, he emerged from each talk with a report, a **bundle** of correspondence or the minutes of a meeting. The eventual pile of documentation exceeded all his hopes.

Today, all of the FAO documents dealing with a particular problem are easily available. If they have been published and are available in stock, there is no problem. If there is only one copy, it must be reproduced. In this end, the center uses micro cards, each sheet of which contains several pages of documents.

International network

This is a most economical, quick and efficient method of reproduction: mistakes are impossible, and dispatch by airmail is not too expensive.

Records can be handled for positive micro cards, which can be read on a special apparatus, negative micro-cards which can be reproduced at will, or photographic enlargements of the micro cards large enough for unaided reading. The center will soon store its own archives on micro cards.

"In every country, it seems quite natural to turn to the authorities to find the answer to one's problems," says Dr. Aubrac. "Aren't the ministries public services? One forgets all too often that organizations such as FAO are international public services."

"We are among those best qualified to solve rural problems. We have one of the best libraries in the world, (the most extensive documentation and a great range of specialists. Add to this the fact that we take a worldwide view of rural problems. With the help of present-day technical resources, we can solve many development difficulties.

"We would like the center to become a liaison point between bilateral and multilateral aid. Bilateral aid is sometimes expended in useless efforts for lack of knowledge of what is being done elsewhere; we can help avoid this problem. But we also hope that it will be a dialogue and that, through the center, multilateral programs can profit by the experience of bilateral aid.

"We should like to forge an international network covering the whole of

technical information on the development problems of food and agriculture. It would have to include these research bodies with long experience in this field from which we have drawn inspiration: the Centre national de recherche scientifique in France, the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the Tropical Institute in the Netherlands, to name only a few.

" On the other hand, our efforts must also be directed toward increasing the number of specialized¹ documentation centers. Already we have helped to establish 2 national documentation centers in Morocco which will use FAO's indexing system. Similar efforts are planned for other developing countries.

¹¹ Studies on rural development have multiplied in most countries of the third world over the past few years. In many cases the results have not been published and the original documents are in danger of being lost. It would be very useful to collect them together and increase their usefulness," said Dr. Aubrac. " In Morocco this would mean translating the central vocabulary which has been drawn up in English to meet the documentation needs of FAO.

" But one thing is clear. In publishing our indexes, we do not want to add to another pamphlet to the nearly 2000 periodicals which already furnish summaries of published articles. Our aim is to explore unpublished material which generally disappears. The vanguard sections, such as chemistry, nuclear science and molecular biology, are the only ones at present to issue indexes of unpublished work. We think, therefore, that the science of development is sufficiently important and in such constant evolution, that it also needs this kind of treatment.

Results confirmed

" It would meet a pressing need. For example, research has been going on in Morocco over the past 15 years on the cultivation of long-staple cotton using a sizable pilot project of 100 hectares. Excellent results have been achieved, but so far these have not been published. Scientists in the Sudan, who have been improving long-staple cotton with great success for half a century, do not know of the work of their Moroccan colleagues. As a result, two highly specialized teams have been grappling with the same prob-

lem: they could have shared the job if they are both working in similar ecological conditions."

The center recently published a document indexing agronomic research projects in eight West African countries. The document was prepared as the basis for discussion at a conference on the priorities of agronomic research for economic development in Africa, held at Abidjan in April under the sponsorship of the U.S. Academy of Sciences. These indexes enabled researchers to keep abreast of all similar projects. They confirmed not only the importance of the results obtained but also the need to continue such research work.

Great savings in money and effort

Savings in money and effort which could be gained through general application of this method are enormous. In worldwide agronomic research, perhaps 20% is spent on duplicated work: the United States alone spends \$400 million a year on such research.

National and international documentation centers, research stations — the backbone of a world-girdling information network for agricultural development — are now complete.

It is now planned to extend indexing to documents dealing with problems of rural development and food production published by nongovernmental organizations. Here, too, unpublished material, the work of specialists, is not being widely enough used and is in danger of being lost. If this project materializes, the results of work by the private sector would be integrated with the results achieved by governments,

opening up the dark frontiers of disease and death, man has become aware of another human failing: his physical isolation, the barriers preventing him from communicating with his fellow-men.

This is why our century is, above all, the century of communication. To know everything, at once — this is the aim which distinguishes ours from preceding centuries.

As the modest embryo of a giant worldwide information network for development, the FAO Documentation Center meets this most important requirement of our time.

A plea for intermediate technology



F. F. SCHUMACHER

give Mm viowm to O«rwttatw»m Komn*

**A controversial attempt
to increase
the productive capacity of
the two million villages
of the third world**

*F.F. St hu matter, dirttiar of tkt Intermediate
Trrkntiliify (Iritup Lid., if an (vomimir «/•
ritrr In thr U.K. Naliotttl C<*1 BrwJ. He
KUI KtMKMKit mMm I" Ik* CffVWNWfiili */
Hurma in fWIIJ. untt »t Inditt in 1966.*

When you launched the Intermediate Technology Development Group in 1966, 'what were you aiming at' What made you feel that an intermediate technology was so important?

In my view the real problem of world poverty — and [hereby the problem of development, lie in their villages — perhaps a billion of them. These villages find their agricultural productivity low. They have a small plot of land, their present farm-dance a plot of land. The result, people are starving in the land and into the towns, and this, in turn, is making the towns quite unmanageable.

The high level of technology that we have developed in the west can only be used if there is a town in the vicinity, and most of the aid effort has gone into such towns. This meant that the people

who need aid most are simply being bypassed. Can we bring aid into the rural areas so as to stabilize this position, stop the great drift into towns, do something about unemployment and banish the specter of world hunger by raising productivity?

The moment you begin to think along these lines, you see that an appropriate technology is required, something very much simpler than the highly sophisticated technology we are using in the west. The term that we use is an intermediate technology.

What do you see this technology as being intermediate between?

It should be very much better than the non viable technology in the rural areas of the poor countries today. At present there is a gap, a huge gap, between these traditional primitive methods and the high-level technology of modern farming.

Take, for instance, harvesting equipment. This means either the sickle or the combine harvester. What we want is to fill the gap between the two. Something better than the sickle but much easier to maintain and much sturdier than the combine harvester.

Quite a lot of work is already being done in developing countries along these lines. Do you think that you have something different to offer?

We do not want to be different. We want to tackle a particular aspect of the problem that is generally neglected. Poverty is a terrible condition, though most of us do not know very much about it. One of the drastic features of poverty is that you are cut off, out of touch, unconnected with what is going on elsewhere. There is no communication, and the same methods have to be re-invented again and again all over the world. Our main job is to tackle the problem of communication.

In India some splendid solutions have been found of an intermediate technology kind, but in Peru or, say, Tanzania, nobody knows about them — and vice versa. It is tragic to see people struggling to find solutions to quite straightforward problems, which have been solved long ago somewhere else.

Further, we have research establishments, both in the developing and in the aid-giving countries, which have been found using an appropriately simple technology. But these solutions are unknown to those who need them.

How do you aim to bridge this gap?

Quite obviously we cannot communicate with two million villages directly from London. Our policy is to set up local groups in the developing countries themselves. We have groups in India, Peru and Colombia. Negotiations are going on in many other places: Pakistan, Ceylon and various African countries.

We want the local group to do two jobs: first of all, to gather information on all the positive work already going on in the country; secondly, to receive and disseminate the information that can pass to them from London.



"What we want to fill is the gap between the two. Something that is not too expensive and can be made locally."

We try to feed these groups with information in an easy-reference form, like the catalogue that we have recently published called *Tools for Progress*. We are working on specialized manuals dealing with important everyday problems. At the same time we are very keen to get from the groups a feedback of what the problems really are.

What sort of form do you use in the various countries? Is it a government agency or private individual who are doing particularly good work in the field?

If you want to achieve anything in the real world you always look for something that already exists, some growing point:

a technical university; a group of private individuals.

If you ask me for a general formula, I would say that it has got to combine the three forces of society. I call them the A.B.X. forces. A stands for administration — in this case, government and international agencies; B stands for business, for industry; and C stands for the communicators, the intellectuals, the research people, universities and so on.

Setting up these groups is clearly the first step. The next, presumably, is to sort out the information you receive and to issue publication; which can, in turn, be used by the groups. What tools for progress typical of what you are seeking to do in this direction?

I think it is. We have been talking for some time about the appropriate equipment for these two million villages. People quite naturally said to us: "Well, where is it? Has it still got to be invented? Who is manufacturing this type of equipment?"

We started with British industry and found that what we consider appropriate equipment is being produced, commercially, today. There is no need to invent it; there is no need for new designs. None had hitherto gathered the information into a catalogue which could be used by people in the field to find what they wanted.

The catalogue lists manufacturers who are producing down-to-earth equipment. It contains the names of British manufacturers who are prepared to help with the production of this type of equipment abroad, either as a joint venture or under license. Where a certain product has gone out of production in Britain, because the market for it is no longer large enough, the manufacturer has offered to make his blueprints available to anyone interested in selling up production in a developing country.

How have you established a base, what is your main aim to tackle next?

We are now becoming more specialized. Our most important project is another publication dealing exclusively with low-cost building methods. The scope is a wide range of "building methods" but a

director of education, for example, who has to build 50 houses for teachers, has very little information to help him choose between the alternatives, particularly on really low-cost possibilities.

We are assembling a manual which will present a complete view of the alternatives that are available.

Another subject on which we are actively engaged is water supply and storage. A large number of the developing countries are arid. Water is the beginning of everything. Until this problem is tackled, no development effort can get off the ground. Here again, a great deal of knowledge is highly scattered. Our aim is to bring it together into a low-cost brochure.

There are many simple possibilities which could make a very real impact at the village level. The rainwater catchment tank, for instance, has aroused great interest in Botswana. Two of them have already been built and we are negotiating at the moment to get the very simple technique involved taught in primary schools throughout the country.

The introduction of simple tools and equipment could have an immense impact on village problems but this impact can only be felt on the world level if you can reach several hundred million people in the rural sector. The task is huge. Do you in your working closely with the government and international agencies?

Time is getting very short. We must use every means available and must work with everyone who is prepared to work with us. The international agencies are doing excellent work, but they are large and bureaucratic. Then there are things which they cannot do because it would be tactless. They cannot easily initiate action and very often must wait for the local people to ask them for help. We are extremely anxious to work with them and have so far been quite successful but we will not wait for them.

The network that is coming into being is a network of groups of individuals who really want to do something about the development problem and want to do it now.

We cannot, of course, teach two mil-

lion villages in one throw but we can reach people who are really concerned about the problem and we have to hope that there will be some snowballing effect.

We are trying to supplement our activity on the commercial side by getting people to tackle the trading aspects and also the question of credit. Credit is a major problem in poor villages and there is very little one can do about it from London. But, at least, when we get people interested in appropriate equipment we now have good banking connections who will help with the financing.

I do not think that a small private group like ourselves can solve the world's problems. But I think that through our work people are now becoming much more interested in this approach. I hope that we can persuade the big agencies to work with us. In this country there are the big money-collecting agencies like OXFAM and Freedom from Hunger. We are working very closely with them.

Charity can have an enormous impact in a small area, but there is surely a very definite limit to what it can achieve?

My answer is both yes and no. I do not believe that the problems of development, are problems of money. It is more a question of giving the right kind of help and advice. You can waste an enormous amount of money on projects which are not appropriate to the conditions of poverty as they actually exist.

Let us assume that there are some two million villages that represent the real heartland of poverty today. You can establish a first-class woodworking and metal-working shop for £. 100. One hundred times two million is not an insuperable problem.

It is organisation that is, perhaps, beyond us. It is intelligence, the application of intelligence to village problems, that is in short supply. If the right advice and the equipment available is the appropriate equipment, then finding the money to buy it is not such a problem.

I think great mistakes are being made in being too generous. People do not value a thing so much if they have not had to work for it. You cannot imitate any knowledge without your own effort. But the right information can be

supplied free of charge — a form of charity if you like. Our funds are very limited. Our contribution is to mobilize knowledge that already exists and make it available in the right places.

And this is the gap that you are aiming to bridge?

It is a major gap at an all-important level. Many people assume that I want to do away with all high-level technology. In fact, I am not concerned with technology at all. I am concerned with the gap. Can we fill this gap? Because if we do not, then the main aid effort will continue to bypass the poorest and will not touch the rural areas except at a few points.

The scientists and research workers of the rich countries work on the problems of the rich countries. The much less numerous scientists and research



but much easier to maintain than much sturdier than the combine harvester!

workers of the poor countries also work on the problems of the rich countries. Only in a few special cases, often at the instigation of international agencies, do the scientists and research workers of the rich countries apply themselves to the very humble and down-to-earth problems of the poor countries.

Our principle is to set up working groups of real experts on a voluntary basis to tackle simple questions: water control, transport, fish drying, etc. The tools a village needs, from clothing and footwear to simple processing of agricultural products.

We want to make available detailed background information on technology that is simple enough to be of use and which can be applied on the inevitably small scale that the village economy demands.

Tanzania says: yes, but...

Although aid is
both needed and wanted,
the country cannot
allow itself
to become dependent
upon outside sources.
The farmer is
the key to self-reliance

by DEREK BRVGESQM

Is a developing country really developing? What kinds of activity are being developed? Who controls this development and who benefits from it?

Statistics, which admittedly may be quoted to illustrate almost any point, indicate that life, today, is hardly more secure or comfortable than it was ten years ago for the vast bulk of the inhabitants of the underdeveloped world.

Governments of the countries making up that world are young. They lack experience of administration and adequate manpower resources for the most fundamental services as well as needed capital and skills for development. Such countries are nearly all largely dependent on development: such agriculture being an industry composed mainly of smallholder farmers.

The highly developed countries generally accept that they have a moral obligation, which can, of course, also be justified on economic grounds, to assist in the development of the poorer countries of the world; and they do so to a greater or lesser extent and in varying ways.

Tanzania is one of these underdeveloped countries which we hope is developing. During the few years since our 1961 independence, we have gained some **experience of** the difficulties of development, of the ways to use limited resources and of how technical aid may best be used; *Now* something of the requirements and hope* for foreign capital.

The government of Tanzania is a socialist government, dedicated to the formation of a truly socialist society with ever-rising standards of living. This is a most interesting philosophy but also a most difficult one, as our friend, Professor Duinont, has pointed out in us.

When a country is basically agricultural, the quickest and easiest way of increasing the national product is through large-scale enterprise using modern methods of production. When a government has very limited resources to instigate this development itself, even supposing that such is a proper function of a government, then it has to look outside itself, and usually outside the country, for such activity.

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Cooperatives.

But even if developers can be enticed in, is this really what underdeveloped countries need? Foreign capital, particularly when it is private capital, comes in seeking profits which it wishes to export. In many cases it wishes to make the profit in its own home country or even, for tax reasons, some third country, so prices and arrangements have to be adjusted accordingly.

Looming control of the economy

When taken too far, this kind of development can lead to a situation in which the government does not control the country's economy. Rather, the economy becomes controlled by interests that may, at times, find themselves in conflict with the country's own best interests. Decisions may be taken which are logical from the point of view of the enterprise concerned, but which may be damaging to the country, bringing about undesirable political and economic results.

Similarly, though to a lesser and less obvious extent, foreign aid. We all talk about "aid without strings" and most people in both worlds, the rich and poor, pay lip service to the ideal. But how much aid is truly without either economic or political strings? There is some, it is true, and more honor to those who give it, but it is the exception rather than the rule.

In order to retain a country's independence of action it is important. When receiving or accepting aid, to balance up such aid as far as possible and also to keep the basic necessities and, wherever it can be done, the development of the country independent of it. In other words, the daily bread of the country should not rely on outside factors, only in the hope of getting some butter and jam now and then.

Independence from these outside factors allows independence of national action and thus both honor and esteem. In an agricultural country, therefore, the government must enable the farmer to be providers of the daily bread.

When our first five-year development plan was laid out in 1963, great emphasis was placed on outside capital and skills to help develop the economy. Agricultural development was divided into two categories: "irrigation" meaning development of modern, usually capital intensive

* Essential facts on Tanzania

The United Republic of Tanzania consists of Tanganyika and the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. Tanganyika lies on the east coast of Africa with Uganda and Kenya to the north, the Democratic Republic of the Congo to the west and Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique to the south. Zanzibar and Pemba are situated in the Indian Ocean about 25 miles off the coast. Tanganyika, formerly a UN Trust Territory under British administration, became independent in 1961 and was declared a republic, within the Commonwealth, in December 1962. The Zanzibar government signed an act of union with Tanganyika in April 1964, thus creating the United Republic of Tanzania.



Julius Nyerere, president of The United Republic of Tanzania

Government: an interim constitution based on a one-party system, was introduced in 1964. The legislative organ is the unicameral National Assembly of up to 204 members. The President is elected by universal suffrage and a presidential election must be held whenever the Assembly is dissolved and new Assembly elections held. In October 1965, President Julius Nyerere was returned to power and in each constituency one of two Tanzania African National Union (TANU) members was chosen by the voters. The country is divided into seventeen regions, each with a commissioner. The way in which official posts must relinquish their tribal affiliations.

Population: 12 million (est. in 1967) with an annual growth rate of 3.4%. Population density: 3 per square mile on the mainland and 347 per square mile on the islands (13 per square mile respectively).

Language: Swahili and English (both official) and a number of tribal languages. Area: 367,000 square miles (957,962 square km).

Land use: 139,900/99,750 square miles (359,000/256,638 square km) arable; 141,500/366,485 square miles (366,485/943,329 square km) pasture; 68,200/176,638 square miles (176,638/454,329 square km) uncultivated; 73,000/189,329 square miles (189,329/488,329 square km) forested.

Major natural features and resources: borders on Lake Malawi (to south), Lake Tanganyika (to west) and Lake Victoria (to north). Lies partly in the savanna, partly in the tropical forest region. Diamonds, gold, tin and salt are mined.

Economic development: gross national product (GNP) was \$684.1 million in 1964. Of which agriculture was responsible for \$393.8 million; mining and quarrying for \$16.5 million; manufacturing for \$24.5 million; and commerce for \$79.5 million. The Five Year Development Plan (1964-69) involves an expenditure of about \$246 million (\$689 million).

Agricultural development: MAIN CROPS (production in metric tons): sisal — 221,529 (1966); sugar — 990,000 (1965), cotton lint — 67,000 (1965), coffee — 41,000 (1965); Cloves — shipments worth £3,596,000 (\$10,068,000) in 1966. ANIMAL PRODUCTION: beef, veal, pork, mutton and lamb production from indigenous animals totaled 91,000 metric tons in 1965. FISHERIES PRODUCTION: fresh marketed fish totaled 25,000 metric tons in 1965. Cured fish totaled 65,900 tons in 1965. FORESTRY PRODUCTION: round wood production totaled 11,562,000 cubic meters (equivalent) in 1965.

Trade: total merchandise trade exports (1965) amounted to \$179,400,000; total merchandise trade imports (1966) amounted to \$140,100,000. total agricultural exports (1965) amounted to \$147,400,000, total agricultural imports (1965) amounted to \$147,700,000. Breakdown of agricultural exports (1965) was as follows: tea 14,288 metric tons — \$4,230,000; sisal (213,770 metric tons — \$39,989,000); cotton (2,615 metric tons — \$3,419,000); coffee (2,215 metric tons — \$24,060,000).

Finance: all banks were nationalized in 1967. Tanzania belongs to the East African Community and to the African Development Bank. Foreign aid in 1964 included \$24 million from the international agencies and \$6 million in grants and credits from the United States. Development Fund estimates for 1965-66 included 420.7 million (United Kingdom); \$5.6 million (United States); \$7.3 million (International Development Association); \$3.6 million (Other foreign sources); \$21.6 million (internal sources), and \$28 million (unsecured revenue).

Tourism: in 1965 revenue totaled approximately £2 million (\$6 million). Tanzania plans to spend £8 million (\$10 million) over the next few years on tourism promotion.

Communications: a network of passenger and postal road services (2,611 miles/4,204 km) is operated in the southern highlands providing links with Zambia and Kenya. Rail and harbor services are part of the East African Common Service Organization.

(Omit from UN Yearbook of International Law - 1966, f-A) Irtd Ytrbenit - 1966. Ki#>«t* of f!trrv Stitiic* - <«««, e*0 ***** or Fortl r'nduef* - 1966. tump* r'ardbe - 1966. tr-a llmf *»d rfw lew*.*. 1 I U ***** t*W an £«f AIHCM)

ods; and "improvement," meaning development based on ameliorating the basic techniques of the peasant farmer.

It did not take us long to learn some lessons. Firstly, that capital-intensive schemes are also skill-intensive and that we were short of both commodities. Secondly, that we had grossly underestimated the capacity of the small farmer to increase his production given only the smallest of incentives and assistance. Thirdly, that foreign aid, and even more foreign capital, comes in where it chooses and not where you choose.

Mood for self-reliance

We started out with great enthusiasm for planned settlement schemes, but it soon became clear that there were a number of sociological and economic factors which had not been given due weight: the return from such investment was likely to be long-term and high-risk. This is not to say that all settlement schemes are bad, for we have had some notable successes, particularly in the tobacco-growing areas; but it does show that great care must be taken. Some workers adapt themselves to such schemes better than others; a certain amount of experience is essential before large-scale expansion becomes possible; while certain crops, such as sugar, tea and tobacco, are much more suitable than others.

We learned also that our school-leaving youth looked upon agricultural work as a last resort, an occupation for the failures and the uneducated. Our school system was geared to produce good university students, whereas only 1 in 50 of those entering primary school could find a place in a university. This meant that 49 out of 50 had to re-enter an agricultural society having been alienated from that society and taught that to go back was an admission of failure.

These factors, touched upon superficially and briefly here, as well as others, have led Tanzania to readjust and reform its priorities and to form new policies. We are determined to retain our newly gained independence. This means we must be self-reliant though not, as some people have interpreted, that we no longer want aid from outside. That would be narrow, stupid and illogical. We want aid very much, in many fields, but we cannot allow ourselves to become dependent on it, either from one source

or from a whole crowd of sources.

We seek a position in which anything we really must have, that is essential for our country's and our people's well-being, we should be able to provide internally or else be able to go outside and buy.

Practically the whole burden of such self-reliance falls on our farmers, in the absence of industrialization, mining or tourism. It is the farmers' efforts which must produce our food, our clothing and our shelter. They must produce surpluses for sale abroad to provide us with foreign exchange needed for both capital and recurrent purchases. It is they also who must provide, through their savings, the local resources for local industrial development, and, through their purchasing power, the local markets catering to an increasing range of locally manufactured consumer goods.

Gradually, of course, this picture will change, gradually industry will assume a greater importance in our national economy, and, more important still, in the everyday lives of the people. Even so, a wealthy industry is one which is built on a solid base of local demand. This will mean a purchasing public in the farming sector for some time to come.

What does all this add up to? As seen in Tanzania, it means that we must concentrate on supplying the farmer with the services and incentives he needs. This means on the government side, research and extension in both crop and animal husbandry. It means organization of the transport and distribution system. It means adequate credit under proper control. It means accurate forecasting of requirements for seed, fertilizer, insecticide and their availability in the quantities and in the places required. It means assistance to the farmers' cooperative societies so that they may properly serve the farmer and their organization, so that they may act as a two-way channel of communication between farmer and government. It means storage and crop protection. It means vaccination and inoculation campaigns, disease control and eradication. It means advice and assistance on marketing and many other aids and services.

And it means, at all times, education and more education. I use the word "education" deliberately because I mean more than just explanation, although explanation is very important in it. It is of the education process.

It is not simply the farmers who need educating but also government. Far too many people working in, and for, governments are unrealistic and impractical. Too often they lie comfortable and snug in their central cocoon, too ready to solve problems on paper without asking advice from those who have experienced the problems at firsthand. This applies perhaps even more to the U.N. agencies because their headquarters are even further from the reality of the field than most central governments. Education must be a two-way traffic of information.

It is important that technical aid should be aimed at increasing the receiving country's capacity for self-reliance. Many underdeveloped countries, like ourselves, accept aid which creates a situation in which continuing aid is necessary for the furtherance of a particular project.

Often we overestimate our capacity to undertake certain tasks within a given time. Sometimes this is a financial failing but, more often, it is manpower shortage which is the missing factor. Aid-giving countries would do well to insist on on-the-job training so that the receiving country is more likely to be able to carry on a project after the aid comes to an end.

Tragic waste of effort

This applies to personnel as well as projects: there should be a training element in all technical aid posts as far as possible. This would ensure that a country continues to have a particular job done by local staff after the aid assignment is completed.

Often, technical assistance experts do not stay for more than a two-year period. This is long enough, though, for some jobs and, in any case, is enough to allow national counterparts to be trained so long as they have enthusiasm and requisite basic knowledge. Too often experts come, drift along without proper guidance or a specific assignment, and leave with no follow-up.

There is little enough of the rich world's resources devoted to the assistance of the underdeveloped world; it is tragic to see so much of it go to waste. Such funds would often be far more effective if they were made available to the underdeveloped country on a much freer basis. Aiding countries like to use their own personnel and their own equipment. They like to be able to clearly

identify the project which they are helping. This can lead to much wasting of (Valuable time and effort in the kind of **situation** which is **pctaen**) in most under-developed countries.

The delays that often result are frustrating and, because of the changed circumstances, can render the original scheme less effective. Unfortunately, only too often the government of the under-developed country involved is as much, or even more, to blame for waste and delays. It seems to be in the nature of

we try to reach the majority of our farmers, to teach them new and improved methods and to introduce them to new varieties and new crops. They provide the channel for credit, both crop loans and longer-term credit. Tin; farmer markets his crop through his society and the society is in the best position to ensure repayment of outstanding debts.

Here, too, farmers can meet together and learn to manage their own affairs on a collective basis. Individual farmers, if they may have been their own managers

Tanzania is now beginning to clarify itself. Our job is now mainly teaching: teaching government officials in the Divisions of Agriculture and Cooperatives and Community Development the fundamental concepts of cooperation and how to stimulate and assist the cooperative movement. We teach the workers in the cooperatives, the managers, **bcwbcn** and secretaries, to be more diligent and efficient at their jobs. We teach the committee members how they should guide the progress of their society and



Tanzania's economy tests upon agriculture From left to right: pulping cotton, harvesting paddy, and growing tomatoes

governments, democratic ones anyway, that they are unable to take decisions in a hurry. While the reasons for this can be well understood, it does not make the work any less frustrating to the eager official.

In Tanzania's Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives we have always tried to identify and spell out the job that an expert from outside should be doing. Much time, it is important not to tie him too closely within rigidly defined terms of reference, unless the job is very specific — not often (the case in our situation).

One of the most important aids to agricultural development is the assistance that can be channeled to the small farmer through the cooperative society. These societies are the basis of Tanzania's development program. Through them

they may have been very largely at the mercy of dishonest and unscrupulous traders.

The cooperative is the organization through which the farmer may invest. The building up of his financial reserves by payment of **MM** or levy could lead to primary **ptoccmag oi hi CTOp**, later to more sophisticated institutions.

We can show good examples in Tanzania of very successful cooperative development and of failures. The successful ones are generally those which have built upward from the **faiMBU** themselves. Where they have failed it is usually possible to trace this back to the formation of a **top bfitv** **totdy** led by some individualistic but misguided leader.

After having had to take **KNM MthM** drastic action **laM fear**, the **rifnatiM** in

look after the interests of their fellow farmers who elected them. We teach the small farmer what a cooperative should be and how it can help him.

This is quite a job. Luckily it is not necessary in the case of all societies, but the job is urgent and so widely spread to mean that all our resources are stretched to the limit. As each society becomes more efficient and **BBOC** efficient, it tries to expand its activities into more and different fields: from marketing, transport, storage, processing, provision of **credit** and simple farming requirements to the sophisticated cooperative.

This is the **devdopmal** path that we follow for we believe that it can fulfill our aim of creating a society in which there is equal opportunity for all and a fair return for labor.

Low incomes in the high Sierras

**A young Dutch agronomist helps
to introduce fertilizer
to Ecuadorian subsistence farmers
as a short-cut
to higher crop yields
and cash returns**

by FIORITA BOTTIS

More than half of Ecuador's five million people struggle for an existence on the bare, high slopes of the Sierra region.

These highlands are occupied by people of pure, or nearly pure, Indian ancestry, speaking Quechua, language of the Incas, and living in a subsistence economy.

So great is the pressure for land that potato and maize-growing are earned on up to 4,000 meters. Higher still, sheep graze the grass-covered slopes.

It is a paradox that people are so numerous and land is so scarce in this mountain region while, in the fertile coastal belt, there is plenty of land but little labor to produce the cocoa, coffee, bananas and rice which, together with sugarcane and balsa wood make up Ecuador's main exports.

More food is needed to sustain the Sierra people, according to the Andean Mission, a national rural development agency, who have plumped for fertilizer as the quickest way to increase agricultural production.

Over the past five years some 4,000 fertilizer demonstrations and trials have been earned out in the Sierras by FAO's fertilizer program working with the Mission.

Anne van Heidsma is a tall, well-built Dutch girl who would draw whistles any time she walked down Amsterdam a Kalversstraat. Annet, whose swirl of blond hair bestows a marked resemblance to 'Ceres' herself (see page 66 of this issue), was born in Indonesia 26 years ago. She was trained in horticulture at Rijswijk, Netherlands, and previously worked as a Dutch volunteer in Colombia. She was brought up on a farm and gets on very well with the Ecuadorian farmers.





Farmers are canny folk the world over and must be convinced that what they are doing will help them and not a distant politician, iocs! traders or officials.

The first step (*below*) is for Annet to talk to the villagers before the land is sown or fertilized and ro get one of the farmers to allow part of his land to be used for a village demonstration.

Individual holdings are small and these farmers have been encouraged by the extension workers to form their own club where they can discuss mutual problems.





Gaining the confidence of the farmer's wife is almost as important as winning over the husband.

Social workers like the one talking to An net (*above left*) teach the villagers everything from chicken-raising to school gardens in efforts to increase and diversify the kinds of food grown and eaten by the family.

- Some of the fields are a long way from the village and fertilizer has to be brought in by donkey. This area (*above center*) is 3,500 meters up in the highlands; fertilizer, originally shipped to Ecuador from a donor country, is provided for these demonstrations by the Freedom from Hunger Campaign program; improved seed is loaned to the farmer by the Andean Mission. The cost being repayable out of proceeds from the harvest.

Annet and an Ecuadorian co-worker (*above right*) explain to the farmers and their families what fertilizer is all about. Fertilizer is not a magic formula. Annet explains (*right*) that fertilizer needs the right amount of moisture to act properly, and that it works best if used together with proper cultivation of the soil, improved seeds and insecticides and pesticides to guard the growing crops.





Results In Ecuador have been promising: a 50 la '00% increase in crop yields on the average, corresponding to an additional cash return to the farmer of twice the cost of his investment in fertilizer.

Through this program the farmers have learned the value of fertilizer and the need for new and improved methods and techniques, like the larmor (above) learning to use a fertilizer and seed spreader.

The next step is to make sure that fertilizer is available. So far, fertilizer of uneven quality is on sale only in the larger villages. The program is about to enter its second stage with the start of pilot schemes in which good fertilizer will be distributed on credit through cooperative organizations, which will also assure a market for the farmers' produce.



From isolation to unity

The
achievement of
the Chilean farmer

by JACQUES CHOMCHOL



One of the basic problems facing
developing countries throughout the
world today is the need (to accierate
productan of fcxxj and other agricul-
tural commodities in order to meet the
rising demands of ihcir domestic markets.

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Agriria.

The rupki population increase (due to
extremely high birth rates and fast di-
minishing death rates), (he chronic and
often acute undernourishment -of large
section* of the population, the impnrr-
ment in per caput income Hhiinks to the
expansion of industrial and other income-
earning activities) and ibc rising expeda-
tion of the masses for improvement of
their living standards (resulting from the
widely puhlici/cd image of the industrial-
ized countries) all combine together to
creite i pressing need for I he ks- de-

developed countries to speed up their economic development.

This requires a swift and steady increase in their agricultural output, partly for export to foreign markets, in order to enlarge their prospects on the world market, but primarily for their own domestic markets where there is a real and growing need.

All kinds of policies have been designed and promoted to deal with this situation in the developing countries, ranging from birth control (which encounters serious resistance in many of the world's less developed countries) to technical improvement schemes, farmers' economic incentives, redistribution of production resources through land reform programs, wider extension of agricultural credit to new sectors of the economy and improved supplies of modern agricultural inputs (fertilizers, improved seed, pesticide, machinery and equipment), etc.

Nevertheless, the results show that a vast distance lies between what the technicians of the developing countries, using all the international aid they receive, are capable of accomplishing in the laboratory and at the experimental station or pilot demonstration farm level and what the farm population, as a whole, in these countries can do to raise its output, productivity and living standards.

Even with the aid of everything that has been proposed in recent years — planning techniques, project evaluation, modern technical training methods, pure and applied scientific research — the impact, from the standpoint of overall impact on agricultural production, have been slight.

This is because the aspect which is most probably essential to success — the **motivation, mobilization and organization of the broad mass of the farm population toward a dynamic approach to agricultural production** — has been relegated to a position of minor significance. This is apparent even in organizations bearing worldwide responsibility for the progress and production of the agricultural population, in which it is realized that this is a marginal issue. And this shortcoming is even more marked in many developing countries where (the problem is not dealt with by ministries of agriculture, development organizations or those responsible for the allocation of investment funds

There are several reasons for this situation. Those who draw up development programs frequently seem to believe in the **existence** of a sort of automatic response between the amount of investment and the quantity of production, as though the economic system operated without the presence of a large number of people from widespread geographic locations, cultures and social and economic spheres who ultimately determine the nature of the relation between investment and production.

Another, often unconscious, cause lies in the attempt to draw similarities between the industrial form of progress, which may be concentrated in a few



OWNING THE LAND IS NOT ENOUGH
At the time of the World Bank's Chilean mission, the government had not yet begun to

large production units in any country, in the agricultural form of progress. In the latter, operations must be performed by thousands of production units geographically spread over a vast territorial area, usually kicking communication facilities, in each of which are people who tend to work independently. In such cases, the result depends on the coordination and uniform reaction of all these people.

The mere process of communicating production targets and of assigning the means for meeting these targets to these people raises remarkably complex prob-

lems, especially in view of the shortage of qualified personnel and of the many economic drawbacks in the developing countries.

Until special emphasis is given, at the international level and in the developing countries, to the ways and means of organizing and promoting, of motivating, mobilizing and training the broad farm masses, the present sharp disparity between the technical possibilities for speedy modernization of agriculture and actual agricultural output, and practical achievements, will persist, regardless of the progress made in applied scientific research and planning techniques and the abundance of financial resources for investment.

This is the great challenge confronting all those concerned with the rapid agricultural progress of the developing countries (politicians, economists, sociologists, engineers and other technicians). Unless it is met, it will be very difficult to make quicker progress in the next few years than has been made so far.

Taking this as a working assumption, we might suggest some ideas which Chile, a country in urgent need of speeding up its agricultural growth rate, has recently been trying to put into practice.

Little contact with the farmers

The proportion of the farm population of Chile's total population of 9 million is comparatively small, about 25%. In 1960, this farm population consisted of 350,000 families, accounting for just over 2 million people distributed roughly in the following groups: about 30,000 families were large- and medium-scale producers; about 7,000 families were employed by them as administrators or technicians; about 60,000 families were self-employed family farm producers; some 80,000 families were small-scale farmers, partly living in communities and partly independently, supplementing their own farm production by doing extra jobs to make a living; another 30,000 families were tenant farmers; and about 140,000 families were wage earners of various types, usually employed by the large- and medium-sole landowners.

In Chile, the first problem arose when the land reform process was begun in 1965 was the physical impossi-

bility of even establishing contact with these large farm masses which were supposed to be the subject of the reform.

Up to that time, the only organized groups consisted of the large landowners belonging to agricultural associations. These were actually social and economic pressure groups influencing the state authorities and the rest of the farmers. Traditionally, they considered themselves the legitimate representatives of the country's agricultural interests.

Three motivating forces

Yet, despite its power and influence, this type of organization included less than 2% of the country's rural families. The other 98%, particularly the large mass of agricultural wage earners and small independent farmers, had practically no form of organization, although the existing laws theoretically provided possibilities for the establishment, and operation of agricultural workers' unions and farmers' cooperatives.

These conditions led to the need to seek simple, rapid methods to promote the accelerated organization of the farm sector and to endow it with the resources and ability to play a dynamic role in the progress of the nation as a whole. This was an indispensable first step toward arousing an awareness of progress.

This farm population had an illiteracy rate of over 50% in some areas and average literacy ranged between 30 and 40%. Also, the isolated way of life and cultural values imposed by the dominant members of society fostered an attitude of profound individualism. It was found to be impossible to motivate organization of the farmers by abstract concepts of the advantages of mutual aid and solidarity, cooperative action, or farmer participation in the social power structure through organizations, etc. Therefore, it was essential to discover some simple, concrete ideas that could be readily grasped by the masses and would encourage them to organize, allowing, of course, for the specific situation of each farmer group.

Under the conditions existing in Chile, these motivations took the following forms: for wage earners — the organization of a union as an instrument of claims to social rights (better wages and working conditions, due observance of

the social legislation for the protection of farmers, which the laws guaranteed but which were seldom respected in practice); for the small independent farmers — credit facilities (membership in a small farmers' committee or a farm cooperative was established as a basic condition for loan eligibility under the programs for extending credit to these sectors); and, for both these groups — opportunities for obtaining cheaper provisions of their main consumer goods (through the organization of consumer cooperatives capable of supplying their members at lower cost than the traditional traders in the rural areas).

These three ideas: labor union demands; access to credit formerly unobtainable for lack of the traditional security required by the banking system; and cheaper consumer goods, proved to be simple enough and easily grasped by the farm masses. They were quickly organized, in only three years, into basic rank-and-file associations composed of families (between 20 and 200 families in each).

This first phase of organization has, itself, led to another advantage: the establishment of a milieu from which new farm leaders can arise. In the traditional, unorganized and individualistic community there were no such leaders because their emergence was physically impossible. The only leaders were the dignitaries (the large landowner, the local trader and the most highly educated person) who, as a rule, based their power and leadership on exploitation of the farm masses because they had greater opportunities for communication with the rest of the country's economic, social and political structure (the authorities, the banking system, wholesalers, members of parliament, etc.).

Emergence of new leader*

Thus, as these new basic community groups began to organize (cooperatives, labor unions, small farmers' committees, etc.), it became immediately possible for new leaders, more genuinely representing the farm masses, to emerge and become capable of replacing the traditional leaders.

But, obviously, if the process of organization and social mobilization were to stop at this level it could not be consoli-

dated, and there might even be the possibility of its backsliding to the former situation. In fact, in many of these base organizations which have suddenly sprung up there is a real risk that, as the first obstacles arise, their members may become discouraged and prefer to go back to the traditional system.

A climate of discouragement can arise: if the unions have difficulty, for whatever reason, in fulfilling the hopes their members have placed in them; if some of the business operations of the consumer cooperatives fail, due to their managers' lack of experience or attempts at boycotting by local traders; or if the credit or supplies of inputs the small farmers hope to obtain through their committees are delayed, or only partly forthcoming. The more pessimistic members, or those who are more traditionally minded, tend to spread their gloom and there is a risk that the entire organization may be undermined.

Heati for training

Along with the organization process, immediately following the formation of the base organizations, there must be a large-scale training program for the new leaders and the farmer rank and file to arouse them to growing awareness of the significance of their organization, the inevitable difficulties in making a start, how to overcome them, the requirements for the organization to move forward, and the long-term advantages it can afford as it grows stronger.

This training effort can be implemented through a combination of media: short and frequently repeated courses for leaders and rank-and-file members; audiovisual methods; illustrated manuals; farmers' publications and radio programs. At first, the approach should be primarily social and economic, rather than purely technical. The new leaders must quickly learn the meaning of a union or cooperative: how to manage them and their possibilities of action within the framework, or outside, of the existing legislation; the farmers' position in traditional agrarian society and what they must do to emerge from it; the country's real agricultural possibilities, etc.

While this is necessary for the leaders, it also applies to the rank and

file. It is absolutely indispensable to concentrate a substantial amount of resources for several years on this program, especially human resources. It will call for imagination to find these resources and to teach training personnel as soon as possible. It is worth mentioning that in all developing countries a fairly large number of people can be found who, with a little additional instruction, are capable of doing this work. They are usually without university degrees or special diplomas, while many of them may well come from the farm communities themselves.

The need for a new step forward automatically arises as this training effort enables the base organization to become firmly established. This involves a transition to farm organization at a second and higher stage, capable of forming socially influential and economically effective units. The basic farmers' organizations, after all, consist of a small number of families which are not often in a position to provide positive solutions to social and economic questions indispensable to rapid agricultural progress.

Danger of dopotttonay

A few examples may serve as illustration. In the case of unions, collective bargaining at the level of one or a few farms is often impossible, and even undesirable. It must be conducted at the regional level, requiring a federation of unions capable of representing all the farmers of the region. As for the small farmers, as they begin to improve and increase their output they automatically encounter new problems which did not occur when they were marginal subsistence farmers. By this time they need modern equipment at low cost; they must have a marketing infrastructure which allows them to provide their own financing and to keep part of their production, without being forced to deliver it to the nearest trader the day after the harvest, or to pledge it even before the harvest is in.

All these requirements mean that the small farmer needs a group of services — sometimes even facilities for industrialization (milk processing plants, silos, concentrated feed plants, dehydrating equipment, oil extraction equipment, etc.)

— which are economically impracticable at the small cooperative level, and which place those who control them in a position to determine the rules and the profit margins of agricultural trade.

Thus, as agriculture becomes modernized and more complex, and unless farm organizations take care, it will, sooner or later, become dependent on, or controlled by, those who dominate the important technical and economic factors.

Taking part in development

State intervention, because of lack of resources, administrative problems or overbureaucratic red tape, may not always be able to adequately help the organizations in dealing with these new situations. Therefore, the farmers, without losing social and human contact with those immediately surrounding them (which can be maintained through their base organization), are obliged by the greater complexity of the development process itself to favor the ramification and extension of farm organizations to a second and third stage (through their vertical and horizontal integration covering many more farmers and activities). If they do not they will soon be deprived of any benefits they may have gained in the initial phase. Certainly, this is one of the vital problems confronting the new farm system of technical progress and development emerging in the land reform process in Chile, as in other countries committed to similar methods.

The rank-and-file farmers' groups (unions, cooperatives, small farmers' committees, settlement committees, women's and youth organizations, neighborhood boards, etc.), composed of comparatively small numbers of families living and working in the same geographic area who are all personally acquainted, provide a basic point of departure for the application of the development plans and programs the planners may design in keeping with the country's needs.

Naturally, these plans and programs will never be more than a set of good intentions or documents to satisfy the intellectual concern of the planners and the international organizations, and will not have concrete, effective impact on the country's conditions, unless these

groups participate both in the establishment and, particularly, in the execution of such plans and programs.

The existence of these farmers' groups offers, first and foremost, the major advantage of greatly simplifying contact between the managerial personnel of the development process and the broad mass of farmers. Certainly it is much easier to discuss and agree on action with one, two, three, four or five thousand farmers' groups than with several hundreds of thousands of individual farmers.

Secondly, as the base group itself develops its awareness of its significance as a group, of what it can accomplish and of what is available to it (in terms of resources), as compared to what each member possesses and can do as an isolated individual, this awareness changes the farmers' traditionally passive attitude into a far more dynamic approach enabling them to engage in the solutions of some of the most immediate problems weighing on the communities to which they belong.

In Chile, for instance, one of the typical problems of the small farmers was their physical isolation. Although the main highways and secondary roads are rather good, the third-class or smaller roads (giving many small farm communities access to the urban centers) are deplorable. Farmers are completely cut off during certain periods of the year when the rains make these roads absolutely unfit for transit. The farmers' attitude was traditionally expressed in requests, through members of parliament and local representatives of the central government, that such roads be built, repaired and maintained.

Joining in government effort*

Naturally, since the governments economic and technical resources were small, progress was extremely slow and the main efforts continued to be concentrated on the principal highways and secondary roads. Meanwhile, the farmers continued to wait for the state authorities to solve the problem for them, without shaking off their passive attitude.

However, they soon realized, through their base organizations, the economic limitations of the central government, but that it could, nevertheless, increase its capacity to action considerably by

making agreements with the various farm organizations. By agreement, the government would supply heavy equipment while the farm organizations would provide free labor (when not otherwise employed in farm work) and materials (rubber, sand, etc.).

As a result, the number of small, new or improved country roads, linking the farm communities with the main road network, increased remarkably quickly; and this work was accomplished at a cost to the national budget which was in keeping with the limited funds available to the government for this item.

The roads, which were the most pressing necessity, marked only the beginning. The effort was extended to other services: construction of schools and health centers; irrigation and drainage installations; airstrips for small planes; commodity storage facilities, recreation and community centers, etc.

Strategy of mobilization

All these achievements show that an accelerating dynamic movement toward the development process can be set on in the rank-and-file farmers' organizations by a kind of cumulative chain of cause and effect. Progress is impossible without these organized and motivated groups.

Another great advantage of group organization is that it enables the farmers to participate in the establishment of development plans: the base groups and the representatives of the government can jointly analyze the farmers' problems, expectations, resources, possible new uses of these resources, the requirement for meeting these needs, and what the groups themselves can contribute to development carried out for their benefit — all in a spirit of action rather than in an abstract way. Plans and programs can then be designed: not only as broad overall national objectives, but as much more realistic goals based on a region-by-region and community-by-community analysis of available resources, existing problems, the minimum requirements and most appropriate forms of action.

Efficient operational plans and programs can be drawn up in this way which are based on the real conditions of the country's various resources and human

population groups and its available economic and technical resources, etc. A strategy of action can be established which allows the plan to be applied in concrete form and adapted to actual conditions.

At the same time, such participation by the base community, in the determination of both national and community objectives within the overall plan.



SHARING THE DECISIONS

In only three years farmers' organizations were created composed of between 70 and 200 family farm units

creates a psychological commitment that forcefully motivates these groups to play an active part in meeting the challenge.

Chile's experience in 1967, in promoting encounters between farm base organizations and the various state services (agriculture, health, education, communications, etc.) has proved remarkable not only from the standpoint of helping the farmers' organizations to mature, in their awareness of their responsibility toward the development process, but because it has also enabled many of the state services to define their work objectives on the basis of a better knowledge of the real farm situation.

An indispensable condition for continuing the action we have described is

a clear social consciousness and a high degree of commitment by the managerial and technical personnel guiding the program (meaning not only the increase in per capita income, but also its redistribution aiming the population as a whole).

These personnel members must be willing to break with many of the traditional society's values, social and economic relationships and forms of operation. Such an attitude means, of course, that there will be a more or less violent conflict between them (depending on their power and attitude to the change) and the influential members and leaders of the traditional society, especially in the rural areas where the latter groups are the strongest and most conservative.

Unquestionably, the large landowners, the traders (who lived and prospered by exploiting the farmers through both their sales and purchases) and the dignitaries of the local community (who acted as the mediators between the farmers and the authorities and other institutions of urban society, and based their power and influence on this mediating capacity) will oppose any change in the social, economic, and even the technical structure insofar as it will signify a loss of their power and influence. And all these institutions of power will fight with every means their command against those promoting change, including, of course, the state authorities.

It has state must, therefore, have personnel for the promotion of change who are not committed to the traditional power structure. These people can only emerge from the younger generation, whether professionally or technically trained or simply gifted with an ability for social leadership. An entire strategy must be defined, in terms of the conditions of the country, to solve this problem (ranging from the discovery of people who can constitute the personnel to lead the process of change, to training them and instilling in them an action mystique).

In Chile, it is hoped to organize and raise the status of the farm populations which, in turn, appears to be an indispensable condition for speeding up development achieving a permanent increase in agricultural production, effecting a more equitable redistribution of its benefits and modernizing society.

White collar research - a luxury

Rejecting the alternative
of 'basic'
or 'applied' research,
the author proposes
a middle way
— 'meaningful' research containing
both sociological
and technological aspects
and aimed directly
at regional problems

by WILLIAM PA YNL

The situation of animal production research in the tropics today is somewhat confused. In some respects there has been retrogression, in others progress. Everywhere there are hopes, dreams and plans.

In general, expatriate staff have withdrawn from tropical research centers and have not yet been replaced by equally well-trained locally recruited staff. Some centers have been closed as a consequence, others are operating on a 'care and maintenance' basis while, at others, new projects are being developed with the assistance of multilateral, bilateral or private aid agencies.

New methods of organizing animal production research in tropical countries must emerge during the next decade. If these are to be inherently sound and are to assist such countries to develop their livestock production, it is important that all possibilities should be freely debated and examined and that policy should not be based on attitudes inherited from the past.

In many tropical countries research facilities were first provided by the former colonial powers, either at special government stations or at the new universities. Private industry or foundations were the donors in a limited number of tropical countries, while there were a very small number of regional research schemes, such as at Tumukuru, Costa Rica, and at Muguga, Kenya.

Generally these facilities were limited in scale and concept. There was Mule

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cooperation among different centers, or between research workers and producers in the countries concerned. Often, particularly in Africa and Asia, the major effort was concentrated on the control of endemic diseases, so that only minor [irrijirvs* WH BUUfc in Sni-kiti^ solutions to production problems.

Nevertheless, useful results were achieved. Many endemic diseases were brought under control; indigenous breeds were differentiated; and an effort was *nr.uk* to select for productivity within these breeds. Useful information was acquired I on (he effect of environment, particularly climatic environment, on animal productivity; and a start was made in selecting suitable forage species for different tropical environments and in studying how these could test be u&ed.

The need for greater emphasis on training at all levels has now become very obvious.

In the past, expatriate research staff and many laboratory technicians were trained outside the country. The small number of locally recruited staff who received professional training were usually granted fellowships to study abroad.

This situation has created many problems for administrators concerned with the organization of training programs. At present, there is an overemphasis on the value of academic training and the acquirement of diplomas and degrees rather than skills. At the same time, academically *trained* personnel have a strong bias in favor of participating in research rather than in teaching or extension work; they consider that research is a more prestigious occupation.

Overseas training has acquired a snob value that is difficult to counter, or to eradicate. It seems to be fashkinnNi today for the young graduate to have received some academic training overseas.

The majority of multilateral and bilateral aid schemes cater to this attitude by providing overseas fellowships-, competition remains acute while ihe authority <o recommend overseas training constitutes it subtle form of patronage that is willingly exercised. Most researchers are eager u> accept overseas fellowships, I whether or not they have any [mention of using iheir training QB6t they return.

There \s tmc oIhor difficulty which arises when biologists or agriculturists

receive postgraduate training overseas: such training usually takes place in an alien environment so thai, only too often, the experimental work has lit tie relevance to the work carried out in the national environment.

The need for greater emphasis on training at all levels has now become very obvious. It is necessary .to encourage and support training schemes jn tropical countries so that adequate personnel can he provided at *ait* levels in the future. *It* is also essential to assist research centers to recommence, improve and expand their programs by providing expert as-

cooperation between, and often a minimum of Cooperation within, aid organisations in planning the allocation of resources for research purposes.

Requirements for 'meaningful' research programs on a national and on an international scale should be urgently examined so that resources can be allocated on a more rational basis.

What is meant by 'meaningful' research? All too often research is rather facilely *dtvkkd* into two categories, 'basic' and 'applied.' At present it is fashionable to suggest that any research carried out in a developing country must be capable



"My uncle's right, there's a future In research"

stistance. equipment and supplies.

It is generally believed that the very existence of research institutes or organizations endows prestige on the country in which they are sited'. Thus, applications for the provision or strengthening of research organizations multiply at a prodigious rate.

The number of such schemes which •H operational or under consideration by multilateral, biiateral and private aid organizations is very considerable. The United Nations Development Program has already approved approximately 58 projects, costing \$50 million, in the fields of forage, animal production and animal health training and research. It is difficult to estimate what part of this total sum will be spent on research but it cannot be *kit*. than \$20 million.

Unfortunately, at present there is link

of immediate application and be 'economically orientated,' whatever the *tsttet* term may mean. It is often categorically stated that developing countries should not engagt in 'basic' but only "applied" research: because 'basic' research is too costly; because such countries do not possess the necessary resources; or because ihe research can be more advantageously conducted in economically advanced countries.

This is tantamount to suggesting that developing countries should not think about basic problems of animal production but should concentrate their attention on applying knowledge acquired in completely different and alien environments. The disastrous consequences of these attiudes arc already apparent. Government agencies and new universities equipped to carry out control, extension

or leaching functions are encouraged to engage in short-term, so-called 'applied', research that is sometimes meaningless and ill too often a complete waste of effort and funds.

The terms 'basic' and 'applied' should be discarded and the developing countries should be encouraged to undertake 'meaningful' research that might include problems formerly categorized under either heading. Research should be directly related, and ultimately applicable in practice, to the animal production problems of the country.

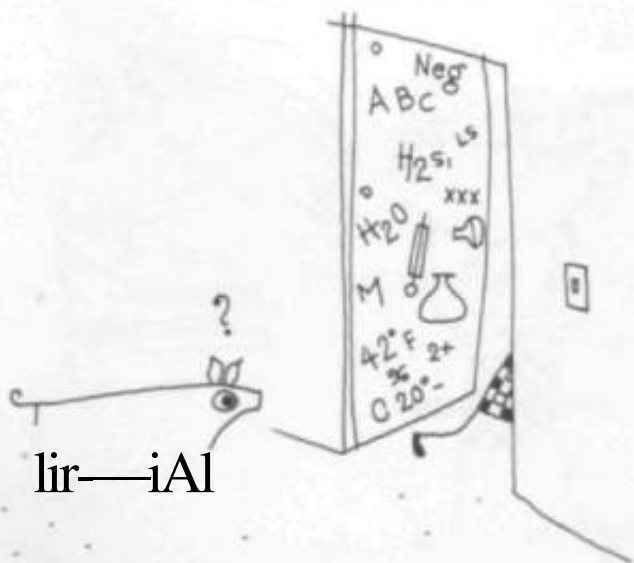
This suggests that 'meaningful' research

contemporary society, and to make rational guesses as to what motivations will exist within one or two generations.

Examples of mistakes made due to a lack of appropriate sociological knowledge can be multiplied indefinitely. When long-term livestock breeding programs are organized, it is absolutely essential to select for the type of livestock that producer* will wish to raise, and that will produce the type of livestock products that consumers will wish to purchase.

It is of little use selecting for single-purpose cattle, however productive they

buffalo indigenous to the country, the idea being to provide the farmer with a larger and more powerful work animal [that will also produce more milk. Though the upgraded animal can undoubtedly work longer hours and produce more milk, it has never been accepted by the farmer; the indigenous water buffalo is smaller and therefore cheaper to feed, it is capable of carrying out the work on listing holdings (which have probably decreased in average size during the last fifty years), and it produces all the milk that the farmer requires (in the absence of milk collection schemes that would



lir—iAl

¹ 'He's got me a grant and bought me my ticket'



'I've Spent many long months cramming (or my exams)'

has both a sociological and a technical content: that the most brilliant and successful technical research will not be exploited to its fullest advantage unless it is sociologically acceptable; and that **MckdogEai** research should precede, or be conducted together with, technical research.

C*** of ttm wmtmr bmtfrnlo

Sociologies studies are needed to keep the animal production scientists informed. What new practices the farming population will accept, only immediately but — in view of the long-term nature of so much animal production research — for several decades ahead.

It is necessary to know something of the motivation* of producers within

may be, if producers will eventually require a double- or triple-purpose animal. Similarly it is no use selecting for a type of animal that fattens rapidly at an early age if consumer demand points toward lean meat.

Improving the growth rate and the size of most farm livestock appears to be an obvious aim to most animal breeders and administrators. However, unless farm M/L- and firm organization are radically altered, large animals may become uneconomical on small farms and the farmer may not be able to produce or purchase the feedingsuffs required to take advantage of the growth potential of the improved livestock.

During the last fifty years in the Philippines, the authorities have imported **nwffi** Murrah buffalo bulls from **toffa** in order to upgrade the smaller water

buffalo (the production and sale of milk is a viable enterprise),

Even if land reform and consolidation were instituted, so that the average size of holdings radically increased during the next decade, there might still be no place on the farms for an upgraded water buffalo: the farmers might decide to mechanize.

Thus the sociologist has a very important role to play in animal production research. It is not suggested that all research should be tailored to ensure that it fits in with the sociologist's concept of what is, or what will be, acceptable to the farming community. Technological changes based on research findings may occasionally alter the whole basis of rural society. What is suggested is that the **iccWofW iboaH** be an integral member of any research team and that

sociological data should be evaluated before decisions are made as to the form, Content and direction of any major animal production research program.

Animal husbandry is an integrated subject embracing many scientific disciplines; therefore, "meaningful" animal production research must be based on an integrated approach. So often in the past, **short-term experimentation** by biochemists, nutritionists, physiologists, animal breeders and parasitologists has been considered a substitute for an integrated research effort, simply because it was easier and cheaper to conduct. Unfortunately this

farmer in a humid tropical environment where there has been no tradition of dairy farming must know whether he should manage his dairy Cattle indoors or outdoors. Once a decision has been made this will guide the whole pattern of his **investment**, his managerial methods and the type of dairy cattle he breeds,

At the present time nobody can advise him as to which is the most suitable system. This can only be decided by large-scale integrated animal husbandry experimental work conducted simultaneously at several different centers.

Is this 'basic' or 'applied' research? H

Administrators think in terms of up to five years' assistance and a relatively small allocation of facilities for a very large number of so-called research centers that will concentrate on short-term 'applied' programs.

New tropical research centers*

There are three major environments in the tropics: humid; arid or semiarid; and montane or medium-to-high altitude. Within these three major types there are many microenvironments.

The aid organizations, multilateral, bilateral and private, should cooperate to support and adequately finance six to nine major animal production research centers in the tropical world, two or three in each of the main environments.

These centers could concentrate on evaluating the effect of soil-plant-animal interactions in their environment in order to find out the most economic and productive managerial systems for all classes of livestock.

They would have to be interdisciplinary institutes employing first-class scientists enjoying exceptional research facilities of a quality and magnitude that could not be provided at small animal production research centers, or university departments of animal production.

These specially selected centers should act as training grounds for animal production scientists from all developing countries in the region, and should form part of a first-class university. Scientific **gals** from smaller centers could be offered postdoctoral fellowships at the larger ones.

These major centers should maintain contact with all animal production research in their ecological region. They should organize and assist in cooperative experiments so that new ideas and methods evolving from their research programs could be simultaneously tested in a variety of microenvironments.

The value of major research centers of this type would be inestimable. It is likely that they can only be established if the Food and Agriculture Organization is willing to take the lead and persuade aid organizations to cooperate in an overall world animal production research program.



* At last I'm on my way home: doctor of NITHOLOGY "

splintered approach to animal production research problems is sometimes encouraged by vested interests in specific scientific disciplines; also by the emphasis that aid administrators place on 'applied' research which, rightly or wrongly, is associated with the idea of short-term, immediate utility research.

There is considerable confusion in defining the requirement* for increasing livestock productivity. There must be adequate incentives for the farmer, a suitable infrastructure, available credit and an efficient marketing system. The farmer must be able to educate himself in the necessary managerial skills and be advised by knowledgeable extension service.

Research is required to chart the course along which the extension service should guide the farmer. For example, a dairy

is certainly 'meaningful' research. Such research has not yet been carried out, and is not likely to be carried out given the present situation, because work of this type requires the cooperation of many specialists, the use of large numbers of dairy cattle and extensive facilities.

Or again, we know that under good management in the humid tropics a three-quarter bred temperate x tropical type dairy cow is likely to be the most productive animal to use. Whereas in other areas where management is not so good a half-bred temperate x tropical cow would be the most suitable type. Are we attempting to breed stabilized crosses of this type? The answer is generally no, because this would require large numbers of cattle, very large and expensive facilities and, perhaps, twenty years of breeding work. Aid admin-

UNCTAD 2

- success or failure?

The outcome depends on the lessons that are learned. The next step: for the United Nations to launch a global strategy for development using the Marshall Plan approach

by JANLZ STANOVNIK



UNCTAD 2 was considered by few as a success, by some as a limited success, and by many as a failure.

Such divergence of opinion is the consequence of different conceptions and expectations of the organisation as a machinery for cooperation, rather than a misunderstanding over the real meaning of the decisions and happenings at UNCTAD Delhi.

The international economic and financial atmosphere at the conference was certainly not propitious for bolder action in favor of assistance to the developing countries.

However, there is a great deal that one could say about the "procedural" and the progress of negotiations at the conference. One must ask what results could have been expected which were not achieved because of such factors as the atmosphere before putting the entire blame on an unpropitious atmosphere. This requires some re-evaluation of the origins of UNCTAD.

For almost the entire two decades of the existence of the United Nations, the major trading countries have maintained that the operational aspects of trade and finance could not be dealt with by a UN-type international organization.

They have maintained that they should be carried out in an appropriate contractual framework such as GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade), IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) and IMF (International Monetary Fund).

This was the real reason for the nonacceptance of the idea of ITO (International Trade Organization), the opposition (to the point of nonparticipation) by some countries to CITT (Commission on International Trade), as well as for the resistance to the very idea of UNFED (Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development).

UNCTAD was not created willingly. The participants

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to UNCTAD 1 will remember the bitter debates over the principle of "one country — one vote."¹¹ A reading of the terms of reference will show that the conciliation procedure was elaborated in order to prevent the adoption of decisions affecting the economic or financial interests of the major trading countries without their consent.

Discussion of the Trade and Development Board, preceding UNCTAD 2, on the question of whether it should be a negotiating conference or not, will show that this basic difference over the role of the organization was not resolved.

The major trading countries see in UNCTAD a forum for international discussion where they are open to the impact of dialogue with the developing countries, and even to pressure by them. This process could lead to two positive lines of action in their view.'

Firstly, delegates carry home the results of this dialogue and try to translate them, through appropriate parliamentary procedures, into autonomous political action: thus helping the gradual integration of the developed and developing countries.

Secondly, this discussion has a bearing on concerted international action **not** necessarily operated by the UNCTAD machinery but, in a decentralized way, by IBRD, GATT, FAO and other organizations.

There was, during the year, a slight evolution in this "debating society" approach, but it would be wrong to think that the position has radically changed.

The socialist countries do not regard UNCTAD as an operational agency in the field of international trade. They have repeatedly emphasized the importance of the general and special principles governing international trade relations and trade practices which have met with the opposition of the developed market economy countries. The trade relations of socialist countries with the developing countries are still mainly conducted through bilateral trade agreements.

What's new philosophy of development

However, the developing countries are pressing for the transformation of UNCTAD into a truly operational body. This was the meaning of their insistence that the conference be a negotiating conference and that it be a "New Delhi Round," parallel to the "Kennedy Round."

The Algiers Charter* was drafted in this spirit so as to lay the basis for such negotiations. The developing countries recognize that the negotiations cannot take the form of give-and-take, as in contractual negotiations, as the whole structure of UNCTAD rests on the recognition of the principle of non-reciprocity of trade concessions. However, they consider that an agreement on a joint program for development provides a sufficient number of elements for practical negotiation.

But even this type of negotiation did not really get underway in New Delhi, with possibly one exception: the declaration on the world food problem and, in some respects, in the financial field.

This is a matter of greatest concern. The historic mean-

* The Algiers Charter: a series of recommendations on commodity trade policies, development financing and tariff preferences which were adopted by the representatives of developing countries at the Ministerial Meeting of the Group of 77 in October 1967 as a program of action for UNCTAD 2.

ing of the Algiers Charter consists not merely in the elaboration of a detailed program of action, but in the laying down, in unequivocal terms, of a whole new philosophy of development.

The cornerstone of this philosophy is the recognition by the developing countries that development is their own primary responsibility, and that it must rest upon their domestic efforts.

One cannot help but think, however, that the forces of the past, with their attitude of confrontation, were stronger at New Delhi than those who recognized the new opportunities offered by the Charter of Algiers.

But all chances are not lost. An international conference cannot be judged by its formal decisions but rather by the effect of an exchange of views transmitted to their home countries by the delegates.

Major task ahead for UNCTAD

Raul Prebisch, UNCTAD'S secretary-general, was rightly disappointed that the conference did not pronounce itself on the strategy for development which he expounded with such vigor and persuasiveness. The fact that the conference has not adopted a resolution stating the main future lines for such a strategy should not, however, be interpreted as indifference to this task.

Judging the political will of the conference on the basis of ministerial declarations in the plenary debates, rather than on the basis of expert discussions in the committees, one could come to the conclusion that it strongly supported the main lines of a global strategy for development, and that the lack of a formal resolution was due more to the time factor than to substantive disagreement.

It is clear that the way for elaborating a strategy for development is open and that this is the major task now confronting UNCTAD.

There are several points on which such a strategy could be built:

... the determination of the developing countries to mobilize their own resources and to liberalize intertrade relations to the maximum extent possible;

... the decision of the developed countries to grant, in general, a nondiscriminatory and nonreciprocal preferential treatment for the imports of manufactured products from the developing countries — there is every hope that the inclusion of processed agricultural products will have its effect in the shift of necessary capital from the developed countries;

... the agreed upon calendar for commodity conferences. It is regrettable that the question of access to markets and a technique for the operation of buffer stocks has remained open, though the outcome of the declaration on world food problems gives some ground for hope;

...the financial discussions leading to an agreement on the yardstick for aid — it is disappointing that there was no agreement on the supplementary financing scheme though it was decided that efforts should continue.

Taking all these elements together, one can see that a decisive breakthrough has not yet been reached; though some basic lines have been drawn up for future action.

The development of an overall strategy should proceed

hand in hand with persevering work on practical agreements in the major sectors: commodities; manufacture; finance; and transportation. Such an overall strategy without concrete action schemes would be senseless, but it should also be recognized that the operation of individual programs outside such a strategic framework would be just as senseless.

The elaboration of such a strategy should rest upon the cornerstone of a joint developed/developing countries' venture. It should provide a rationale for such cooperation and should be based on the long-term planning of this cooperation. A long-term perspective would open the way for an outward looking policy and would influence political decisions against concentrating on short-term measures which are too often inward looking.

Unking of domestic and international effort«

This strategy for development should adopt appropriate targets in the key sectors of interrelated international economic policies. A financial target was adopted by UNCTAD 2 and some progress has also been made toward agreeing on a target in the developed countries for sharing the increase in domestic consumption between domestic producers and foreign suppliers.

It should not be too difficult, in the light of the present trend, to agree on a target for manufactured products, either in terms of domestic production or in terms of imports, or both. Such targets would serve as political guidelines for the parliamentary organs of the developed countries.

The global and sectorial targets should then, of course, be translated into appropriate instruments and schemes, which is where agreements on individual problems fit in. It is to be hoped that the work begun in New Delhi can be accomplished through a permanent mechanism.

The basic point on which the entire concept and success of a global strategy for development hinges is, of course, the linking of domestic and international efforts.

Development is not only an economic but also a social and political process. There is little use in pumping resources into a country where there is no social change and where aid is dissipated in making the reactionaries and the corrupt even richer.

The scheme of supplementary financing, prepared by the staff of the World Bank, was not adopted by the conference. **But** its basic philosophy — ensuring the continuity of development plans by new financial action if the trade mechanism fails for reasons which are beyond the control of individual developing countries — was universally accepted. This idea deserves wider application.

Discussions on financial questions at UNCTAD 2 showed that the debt burden and the imposed conditions of aid are among the greatest obstacles to faster growth in many of the developing countries.

The problem of tied aid was widely discussed: while international lending for development is largely tied, repayment is not tied. This leads us into a flagrant contradiction: the developed countries, with considerable production facilities and competitive power, secure for themselves the export outlets with tied credits; the developing countries, already in a weak competitive position, must search for convertible

currencies so as to repay these credits. The way out of the existing situation can only be found through a new kind of payment arrangement.

What is urgently needed now, following the New Delhi conference and in the present world situation, is a new Marshall Plan for the developing countries.

This plan would differ from the first one in being applied through the United Nations and in embracing substantially all the developing and developed countries, both socialist and nonsocialist.

The developing countries would present, in UNCTAD, an outline of their own development policies within the framework of such a plan; just as in OEEC (Organization for European Economic Cooperation — which later became OECD) the European countries elaborated their own plans for reconstruction and regional cooperation. These national plans would then be supported by correlated international measures.

Such a procedure would have several advantages as compared to the present approach:

1 it would guarantee to all countries an equitable international contribution, commensurate with their own efforts and needs;

2 it would guarantee the efficient use of international efforts and resources as these measures would be directed and inter-related;

3 it would alleviate the fears of bilateral interference in domestic affairs as there would be a community of nations examining the performances of individual countries;

4 it would provide developing countries not merely with assistance, by furnishing material and financial resources, but also with the opportunity of economic management and planning through friendly international discussion in a forum where the developing countries are in the majority;

5 it would stimulate efforts for the development of trade and economic cooperation among the developing countries themselves;

6 it would create the economic background for the elaboration of payment arrangements; and,

7 it would provide a framework for the gradual economic integration, on an equitable basis, of the developed and developing regions of the world.

Such an effort would require the increasing adaptation of the production structures in the developed parts of the world as well.

As the strategy for global development would be a planned operation, this would mean that the developed countries should refrain from increasing their production capacity in those sectors where they do not enjoy comparative advantages.

Such an exercise in economic cooperation goes on continuously among the developed countries. An extension of this area of cooperation and integration so as to include practically the whole world is not merely technologically feasible but politically indispensable for maintaining peace in the world,
*

BURMA

• *Tractors gradually replacing elephant**

An efficient teak and hardwood logging industry is vital to the Burmese economy. Forest products earn an average of nearly \$25 million a year in exports. Some 145,000 square miles of the country (57% of the total area) are covered by forests and 50% of the forest under harvest is suitable for mechanized extraction.

Traditionally, timber has been hauled from the forest by elephants, but powered equipment is gradually taking over. Just before World War II, some 6,500 elephants were working in the logging camps of Burma. When the war ended there were only 2,600 elephants left; and this loss started the State Timber Board on the road to mechanization.

in the field
in the field
in the field
in the field

From 1961 to 1966 over \$3 million have been spent on equipment, according to an FAO forestry adviser who worked with the Board. This mechanical power can handle up to 225,000 logs per season, nearly a quarter of the annual timber output. However, the changeover will be gradual for yields per acre and climatic conditions are favorable to the use of animal power for timber extraction whenever possible.

AUSTRALIA

• *Man-made forests: growing well*

There are approximately 61 million hectares of man-made forests in the world today and this area will double

by 1935 according to an FAO world symposium on man-made forests held in Canberra, Australia, last year.

The symposium dealt in detail with questions of policy, silviculture, management, utilization, and integration of planning and financing. It passed 66 recommendations.

Among facts of general interest:

...approximately half the total acreage consists of plantations in Mainland China and the USSR

...the most widely planted group are conifers — mainly pines — which make up about 70% of the reported total.

...eucalypts are probably the most extensively planted of the broad-leaved species. Others widely grown are poplar, acacia and teak.

...the latest growing man-made forests can produce wood for fuel or poles in 5 to 10 years, pulpwood in 10 years or even less, sawlogs in 15 to 20 years

ZAMBIA

• *Live fish airlifted to Africa*

Some 250,000 live fish have been airlifted from Lake Tanganyika to stock the waters of man-made Lake Kariba between Zambia and Rhodesia, 700 miles away. The airlift was the latest step in a \$1 million dollar UNDP (United Nations Develop-

ment Program) project for boosting fisheries development in the Lake Kariba area. The 1,718-square mile artificial lake was formed by the damming of the Zambesi.

The fish selected for this venture was the small, silvery *Limnothfissa Miodoff* which is tasty and a prolific breeder. Lake Kariba is naturally supplied with fish but scientists feel its fishery potential could be greatly increased by stocking it with choice outside species.

JORDAN

• *Underground water*

The UN Development Program has increased its contribution to the investigation of sandstone aquifers project in east Jordan from \$173,650 to nearly \$1,400,000 while the Jordanian Government has upped its share from \$1,620,300 to nearly \$4 million.

Ultimate object of this major land and water utilization project is to bring water to a region covering 60,000 square kilometers and noted at present for its aridity and poverty. Large tracts of the region have been surveyed both above and below ground and 65 wells have so far been dug. In all, over 21,000 meters have been drilled in the search for the areas where the underground water can best be exploited for irrigation, stock watering and industrial and domestic uses.

Most of the world's man-made forests are coniferous. Sixty percent of the world's man-made forests are coniferous. Sixty percent of the world's man-made forests are coniferous.



INDIA

• *Cutting losses in storage*

A five-year \$1.6 million effort to reduce the large losses caused to stored grain in India by pests and fungi has started with the arrival of Gus Huysmans, an FAO agricultural engineer. The main aim of the UNDP project is to show local manufacturers how to make storage units adapted to Indian conditions from local materials, and to encourage creation of a stor-

age industry. A grain storage institute will be set up at Hapur, near New Delhi, while two field stations will collect and assess research results and evaluate the nature and extent of losses in storage.

• *Flying check on forests*

Initial conclusions of a UNDP forest inventory project being carried out by a joint Indian/FAO team indicate that central India should be able to support a pulp and paper industry.

A jet helicopter has been bought by FAO from UNDP contributions to help verify inventory work done in the course of the survey. The aircraft, which cost \$100,000, is a five seater. It will shortly be used to transport members of the survey team to and from inaccessible parts of the forests.

The first part of the project — training a strong corps of Indian experts — will be completed toward the end of this year, when FAO experts leave them to carry on the survey.

• *Daily protein food for 25 million children*

Alarmed at the grave deficiencies in Indian children's diet, the director-general of India's Health Services has warned that unless successful efforts are made to combat malnutrition, irreparable physical and mental retardation may result for the two thirds of Indian children who are inadequately nourished.

A campaign is now under way throughout the country to give children a proper diet. As one of the first

New funds pledged for agricultural development

New projects approved by the governing council of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) for the first half of 1968. Projects listed are those in which the executing agency is FAO; FAO in association with the U.N. or its agencies; or the United Nations, itself, in fields of interest to FAO.

Afghanistan: To assist the government in establishing an organization which will coordinate and control the development of all water resources throughout the country. UNDP — \$1,416,200; government — \$1,020,000. (Four and a half years.)

To prepare detailed plans for the development and expansion of irrigated agriculture in the Kunduz-Khanabad district (in the northeast) with a view to defining the areas investment potential. UNDP — \$671,100; government — \$289,000. (Two years and three months.)

Algeria: To strengthen the government forest service and train professional staff and skilled workers in the course of developing and executing a national forest utilization plan. UNDP — \$1,109,800; government — \$800,000. (Four years.)

Argentina: To strengthen livestock investigation and promotion centers and to train personnel in intensified livestock production techniques. UNDP — \$1,063,700; government — \$5,006,000. (Five years.)

Bolivia: To survey the animal health situation and strengthen veterinary laboratory and field services. UNDP — \$945,400; government — \$1,769,000. (Four years.)

To formulate and implement a program of groundwater development in the Altiplano. UNDP — \$1,479,800; government — \$1,159,000. (Four years.)

Brazil: To establish a farm planning and training service for the Mogiana region. UNDP — \$958,900; government — \$1,350,000. (Four years.)

Burma: To carry out studies to develop the Sittang river valley, including general studies of the basin and feasibility studies for the Yamethin and Yen we Pyuntaza areas. UNDP — \$2,179,200; government — \$1,096,000. (Three and a half years.)

Chile: To continue and expand the training, research and advisory services of the Institute of Training and Research for Agrarian Reform. UNDP — \$982,000; government — \$1,671,000. (Two and a half years.)

Congo (Brazzaville): To plan and implement a regional program of rural development in the Niari-Loudima area and on the basis of this pilot operation to define a nationwide program of rural development. UNDP — \$1,399,500; government — \$960,000. (Three years.)

Ethiopia: To complete the establishment of the School for Animal Health Assistants, Debre Zeit, by providing additional training, including field programs for Ethiopian veterinarians who will be assigned to take over its operation. UNDP — \$991,500; government — \$808,000. (Five years.)

Gabon: To assist the government in determining the extent and composition of the forests in the eastern zone and in preparing a forestry and forest industries development plan. UNDP — \$1,346,200; government — \$798,000. (Four and a half years.)

Ghana: To increase production of food crops in selected pilot areas through extensive use of fertilizers. UNDP — \$1,188,400; government — \$1,450,000. (Five years.)

Greece: To undertake feasibility studies leading to the development of forest industries, with special reference to possibilities in western Greece, with a view to attracting investment. UNDP — \$301,900; government — \$410,000. (One and a half years.)

Honduras: To establish a forestry school for the training of low and middle-level technical personnel. UNDP — \$938,200; government — \$1,009,000. (Five years.)

India: To develop sheep husbandry in eight states through improved sheep breeding, shearing, collection, grading, marketing and utilization of wool. UNDP — \$1,634,300; government — \$3,245,000. (Five years.)

Iraq: To complete the establishment of the Iraq laboratory unit for the investigation of animal diseases and the training of veterinary field services through the strengthening of the Veterinary Faculty, University of Baghdad. UNDP — \$1,046,300; government — \$450,000. (Three years.)

To assist in the preparation and planning of a pilot project for soil and water management and in training for irrigated land development and settlement. UNDP — \$203,800; government — \$350,000. (One year.)

Jamaica: To conduct a feasibility survey to determine the economics of production and the market prospects for selected food crops. UNDP — \$110,400; government — \$137,000. (One year.)

Kuwait: To assist in the establishment of a center for the development of Kuwait's water resources, to test and evaluate equipment and materials for desalination plants, and to train the skilled personnel needed for their operation. UNDP — \$668,400; government — \$1,500,000. (Five years.)

steps, it is planned to distribute a new protein food. *Balahar*, among 25 million schoolchildren daily.

Also in the planning stage is the production of 100 million loaves of lycine-fortified bread. The first of nine bakeries, donated by Australia and Canada and set up by the Indian Government, opened recently and five more will be built shortly.

Says the health service report: "The cost of counteracting malnutrition by raising the nutritional levels of children is far less than

either the cost of the resultant decrease in productivity or the cost of treating malnutrition."

DAHOMÉY

• *New horizons for tishormttn*

Today over 3,000 fishermen operate Off Dahomey's 75 miles of turbulent West African coastline as the result of three years' intense multi-lateral and bilateral effort to change and modernize fishing practice.

Until a few years ago the bulk of commercial fishing took place in quiet landlocked lagoons. Every year some 20,000 tons of fish were harvested from some sixty thousand acres of calm, brackish water.

Three years ago a new port was built at Cotonou: the construction of these new facilities caused the sands to shift. The lagoons opened up, never to close again, and a large part of the fish population vanished.

This meant a new approach to fishing, new boats, new

men and new training.

Many organizations have shared in the work. Outboard Marine (Belgium) S.A. contributed 50 motors worth nearly \$20,000 to the Freedom from Hunger Campaign fishing boat mechanization project. The Canadian FFHC Committee gave over 210,000,

Dahomey's neighbor, Senegal, provided five crews of expert fishermen with their own canoes to prospect offshore fishing grounds and to train the Dahomeans in line fishing.

Stronger and bigger planked

Lebanon: To further the planning of hydroagricultural development in Lebanon by carrying out irrigation feasibility studies and related pilot schemes. UNDP — \$1,011,100; government — \$2,378,000. (Four years.)

To complete the current survey and evaluation of Lebanese water resources and to plan their development and utilization with particular regard to agricultural needs and to the water supply for Beirut. UNDP — \$221,000; government — \$240,000. (One year.)

Madagascar: To promote development of the fishing industry by training personnel, undertaking trial and demonstration fishing, and carrying out marketing studies. UNDP — \$966,500; government — \$364,000. (Four years.)

Supplementary assistance for hydrogeological exploration in southern Madagascar, with special emphasis on the Morondava river basin. UNDP — \$245,500; government — \$129,000. (One year.)

Malaysia: To assist the government in strengthening all aspects of its forestry planning and services as a basis for the development of forest industries. UNDP — \$1,221,800; government — \$954,000. (Five years.)

Mauritius: To assist the development of the fishing industry through demonstration fishing and marketing studies. UNDP — \$396,900; government — \$504,000. (Three years.)

To prepare feasibility reports on irrigation development, and to undertake supplementary studies of natural resources. UNDP — \$406,400; government — \$171,000. (One and a half years.)

Morocco: Assistance in the establishment and initial operation of a center for the collection, indexing and dissemination of documents on rural and agricultural development. UNDP — \$174,000; government — \$292,000. (Two years.)

To develop a new curriculum for intermediate-level forest engineers at the Forestry School in Sale. UNDP — \$1,051,700; government — \$887,000. (Five years.)

Nicaragua: To assist the government in developing the pine forests of the northeast and to carry out technical and economic studies for large-scale investment in the region. UNDP — \$1,000,100; government — \$1,551,000. (Four years.)

Peru: To investigate livestock production possibilities and to provide training in livestock production and health techniques in high altitude and tropical areas. UNDP — \$1,124,400; government — \$2,175,000. (Four years.)

Republic of Korea: To assist in providing the expanding fishing industry with trained technicians to operate modern fishing vessels in coastal and nearby high seas areas. UNDP — \$1,117,600; government — \$1,459,000. (Four years.)

To assist in the expansion of the fishing industry through the provision of advisory services. UNDP — \$121,100; government — \$35,000. (One year.)

Romania: To improve, expand and strengthen research on plant breeding and seed production at the Institute for Cereals and Technical Crops, Fundulea. UNDP — \$1,377,200; government — \$5,800,000. (Four years.)

Singapore: To assist in the development of new industrial fisheries through the training of fishing technicians. UNDP — \$1,261,900; government — \$1,481,000. (Five years.)

Somalia: To carry out intensified mineral exploration in two zones; to strengthen the geological survey. UNDP — \$776,600; government — \$977,000. (Two years.)

To assist in the field training of veterinary personnel in the control of rinderpest, contagious bovine pleuropneumonia and other diseases. UNDP — \$158,200; government — \$374,000. (Two years.)

Syrian Arab Republic: To assist the government in implementing an agricultural development program in the Ghab region by helping to train personnel, establishing supporting institutions and creating permanent settlements. UNDP — \$1,313,900; government — \$1,110,000. (Three years.)

Togo: To assist in preparing a comprehensive forestry and forest industries development plan. UNDP — \$877,200; government — \$580,000. (Three years.)

United Arab Republic: To complete the establishment of the Animal Health Institute for the investigation of animal diseases and the strengthening of veterinary teaching at the University of Cairo. UNDP — \$961,400; government — \$654,000. (Three years.)

United Kingdom, Fiji: To prepare development plans and feasibility studies for the rational utilization of forests and for the expansion of forest industries. UNDP — \$238,400; government — \$200,000. (Two years.)

Upper Volta: To improve agricultural productivity by training increasing numbers of agricultural technicians and farmers. UNDP — \$1,129,500; government — \$1,243,000. (Five years.)

Uruguay: To study animal diseases and to train national personnel in animal health techniques. UNDP — \$1,149,000; government — \$2,215,000. (Five years.)

Republic of Zambia: To develop the natural resources of the Luangwa valley through improved wildlife conservation and utilization, and promotion of tourism. UNDP — \$1,056,400; government — \$2,679,000. (Three and a half years.)

Regional: Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Senegal: To promote increased agricultural productivity through a comprehensive program of applied agricultural research and pilot demonstration (see *article for Corral in Ibis issue*). UNDP — \$1,850,600; governments — \$788,000. (Five years.)

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vessels were designed to cope with the force of the surf. Norwegian and Swiss cooperatives. French bilateral assistance, United States AID and FAO provided, a large part of the needed technical expertise and financial resources.

PERU

• Tunnel through the Andes

After a three-year survey of the mountain and coastal regions of Peru, FAO has submitted to the Peruvian government a large-scale project aimed at the agricultural and industrial development of the Pampas de Olmos region in the arid coastal belt. The course of three rivers would be diverted from east to west through two tunnels to be driven 12 miles through the Andes.

This project, which will also involve the construction of a network of canals, power transmission lines and electrical power stations, will permit the irrigation of nearly 90,000 hectares of fertile land. Given enough water, a wide range of tropical and subtropical products can be grown including cotton, rice, sorghum, soybeans, groundnuts, oilseeds and alfalfa. Livestock could also be increased from the present 15,000 head of cattle to 140,000, including more than 80,000 milk cows.

The three-year survey was carried out for FAO by an Italian firm Italconsult, under a UNDP project. It included investigation into many aspects of topography, hydrology, geology, soil and water and mapping.

SUDAN

• Using the water hyacinth

The water hyacinth dogs up waterways, rivers and lakes all over the world

• Country studies for investment

To encourage foreign private investment in developing countries, the FAO/Industry Cooperative Program is putting out a series of country studies — prepared by the FAO Legislative Branch — setting out in detail the prospective investor the legislative and administrative measures taken by each country to attract and regulate foreign capital.

These studies deal exclusively with investments in agriculture, forestry, fisheries and related industries. The studies so far published concern Chile, Guatemala, Kenya and Turkey. In preparation are studies on Argentina, Colombia, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Madagascar and Morocco. Other studies will also be issued later.

Ninety to 100 million tons of it invade the Nile every year.

Dr. E.C.S. Little, an FAO weed control consultant, has set in motion a project in the Sudan to try to control the weed by gathering it by hand (and paying the workers with World Food Program food), drying it and spreading it in the vegetable gardens along the Nile as mulch and for weed control. Tests are also being carried out to see whether it makes good compost, while the use of the hyacinth ash, rich in phosphate and potash, is also under study. It may also find use as animal fodder.

Latest victim of the beautiful flower is the island of Java where it is taking over a large lake and stifling fish life. Dr. Little has been assigned to Indonesia to investigate.

ITALY

• Substitute for calves' milk

Scientists from 10 countries met in Rome in April at a consultation on how to reduce the number of calves. The use of an enzyme from the fourth stomach of unweaned calves is traditionally used to coagulate or "set" cheese-milk. The available calf veal rennet, or stomach lining, which produces it, cannot meet the industry's needs. Delegates discussed whether

artificial enzymes now being tried can be made to act as efficiently as nature's product.

PHILIPPINES

• Mow fishing vessel

The Japanese-built fishery research and training vessel, arrived in Manila recently where she will take part in a deep-sea fishery development project, financed over five years with nearly \$4 million from the United Nations Development

fish. The 70-ton vessel began operations in April, joining another research-training vessel taking part in the project. The Japanese-built *Maya Maya*.

MEXICO

• Changing Valleys

A number of food-for-work projects have been started in Mexico's Valle de Mezquital under the banner of DESMI, a nonprofit organization founded two years ago to assist the economic and social development of the 400,000 Otomi-speaking Indians who live there.

These people, whose chronic malnutrition and extreme poverty are responsible for one of the highest death rates in the world, still depend on a primitive system of agriculture for their living: Seventy percent of their land only supports the hardier types of cactus life.

One of their first necessities is water and three villages have been enrolled in a voluntary self-help commu-



The *Maya Maya*, a Japanese-built fishing vessel which is being used in the Philippines development project.

Program and managed by FAO.

The vessel is equipped for experimental trawling and livebait fishing and is fitted with the latest electronic equipment and fishing gear for locating and catching marine

life. DESMI has also acquired a 120-acre farm, started a pig raising program and next plans to build a small meat processing plant.

TUNISIA

• **A model agricultural college**

The North African College of Agricultural Engineering, financed by the World Council of Churches, is due to end as a Freedom from Hunger Campaign (FFHC) project next year but the Tunisian Government has asked that the project, instead, be expanded and continued.

Located at Medjez-El-Bab, 40 miles southeast of Tunis, the college turns out every year about 50 specialized technical agents, several from other countries of North Africa. It is the only agricultural college in Tunisia that gives both technical and practical courses in mechanized farming.

These specialists, trained in modern techniques yet working closely with a peasantry still largely backward in its thinking, could become a vital force in the agricultural progress of developing countries. The Tunisian Government is planning to start three more colleges based on this model: one for forestry, another for livestock and a third for horticulture.

COLOMBIA

• **Improving the fishing industry**

A four-year UNDP fishery development project went into effect in Colombia early this year. FAO specialists are advising the government on strengthening the fishery administration, developing the fishery industry and organizing research. The project, which costs nearly \$2 million, will help to set up a national fisheries research and development center. Plans call for the delivery of a fully equipped fishery vessel for experimental purse seinina and trawling, and for research off Colombia in the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea.

MANY NEW FOOD-AID PROJECTS

A recent count showed pledges to the UN/FAO World Food Program (WFP) for the period 1969-70 amounting to just over \$120 million, some two thirds in commodities, the rest in cash and services. This total represents slightly more than 60% of the target set at WFP's third pledging conference held in New York at the beginning of the year.

WFP's governing body met in Rome in April to consider requests for food aid and to examine progress of operational projects. Projects approved, and agreements signed, this year have included:

... \$534,000 to help farm settlement on an Afghanistan irrigation project (three years).

... \$450,000 to help train more teachers in Algeria (four years).

... \$436,000 to help rural development in the Central African Republic (four years).

... \$5.9 million worth of coarse grains to help develop Indian poultry industry (five years).

... \$800,000 emergency food aid to Indonesia in the wake of torrential rain and flooding (six months).

... \$876,000 to help expand a farm settlement project in Iraq (three years).

... \$262,500 to help provide meals in Liberian secondary schools (three years).

... \$240,000 to help increase milk production and stimulate livestock improvement in Niger (four and one half years).

... \$480,000 to Pakistan to help raise production sixfold from the Karachi milk plant (two and one half years).

... \$145,000 for vocational training centers in Peru (three years).

... \$672,000 to help increase milk supplies and provide cattle feed in Senegal (four years), with a further \$714,000 going to self-help rural development (two years).

... \$270,000 to help provide meals for trainees in Sierra Leone (five years).

... \$423,000 to help build schools and extension centers in Somalia (three years).

... \$510,000 emergency postwar food aid to Syria.

... \$1,894,000 to Taiwan for an irrigation and flood control project (\$1.2 million - two years; the balance - four years).

... \$747,000 to help voluntary youth work camps in Tanzania (five years).

... \$528,000 to aid the rural self-help movement in Togo (three years).

... \$116,000 to help build small earth dams in southern Tunisia which will allow more cactus cultivation and, thus, more sheep fodder (five years).

... \$840,000 emergency postearthquake food aid to Turkey.

... \$198,000 to further help youth service camps in Zambia (two years).

... \$434,000 to help build village wells, dams and reservoirs in Upper Volta (five years).

GHANA

• **Thirst for practical books**

To help fill the need for technical literature in Africa, FAO jointly with the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has been operating a project for the production and publication of manuals and text-books.

Sixteen titles have so far been released, the latest being an *Introduction to Agriculture in Nigeria* by Professor Oyenuga. Seven more titles will be published during 1968, according to a meeting of experts on book development in Africa, held in Ghana earlier this year.

KENYA

• **4-K clubs show the way to better farming**

More than 60% of Kenya's population is under 20 and one of the major problems of tomorrow will be to keep the country's young people on the land and out of the slums.

One of the ways is through the 4-K clubs. The aim of the Clubs: to provide young people in rural areas with sound advice on all types of farming. The ultimate purpose: to prove that farming is a satisfying and profitable occupation.

Modeled on the North American 4-H clubs and started with United States funds, Kenya's 4-K clubs now receive backing from the Freedom from Hunger Campaign (FFHC) through the Unesco gift coupon program.

There are over 1,100 4-K clubs scattered throughout the country with a membership of some 30,000 mostly boys of school age. Club leaders are all volunteers who receive their training from Ministry of Agriculture field workers under an FFHC plan, also financed with Unesco gift coupons.

The four Ks stand for Swahili words meaning unity, self-help, better farming methods and Kenya.

Incomes Triple for Resettled Kenya Farmers

The Mwea/Tebere irrigation *settlement* lies about 60 miles northeast of Nairobi, close to the foothills of Mount Kenya, some 4,000 feet above sea level. It was started in 1955 to settle landless families from the Central Province. By the end of the first development period in 1960, 5,000 acres of soil had been prepared, and di-

VICES will continue to be used on a further extension of 3,000 acres to be financed by German (Fed. Rep.) funds.

All the newly settled farmers have built their own houses in a series of new villages on the settlement. To achieve this, a major difficulty had to be overcome — the newcomers were practically destitute. An arrange-



The irrigation scheme *trtrpfiW on *a(sr from two n/ers rising in Irug Mount Kenya foothills. Water pours through an intake canal from the Thiba river*

vided into single acre units suitable for rice cultivation and had been provided with complete irrigation systems. The project involved a great deal of earthworks, mainly canal excavation and land leveling.

By 1960, 1,200 landless African families had been settled. It was upon these foundations that the United Kingdom FFhC project was launched in 1964 at a cost of some \$450,000. By the end of 1967 more than 2,000 additional acres had been developed capable of settling a further 500 families comprising about 3,500 people. A reception center to handle the rice produced on the new extension was completed in 1968. An efficient development team has also been built up and «» » r "

ment was therefore made with a commercial bank for them to be granted \$140 house-building loans, repayable in three years from crop income and unsecured except by reputation of the settlement. By the end of 1967 the farmers on the extension had received housing loans totaling some \$55,000 and so far not one settler has defaulted on his repayments.

By the end of the 1968/69 season when the whole extension will have been fully operational over its entire surface for at least one crop, it will have produced since inception 10,919 tons of paddy with a gross value of \$750,000. An optimistic estimate of the annual wage in this area for unskilled labor working six days a week

throughout the year (such steady working is, however, unlikely) amounts to \$115.

Tenants on the Mwea/Tebere scheme earn an average of \$350 annually.

In the words of a senior agricultural officer in Kenya, the setting up and operation of this irrigation scheme have been "nothing less than an agricultural and social revolution." When the settlement started, very few people in Kenya knew anything about rice production. With the exception of two senior agricultural officers seconded to the scheme, everyone from senior officers down to the most junior member of the staff had to be trained locally. Not only is the crop new to Kenya, but there is no tradition of irrigation in Kenya. An immediate task was to find men who could absorb the basic rudiments of technology and who also had the personality and the leadership to pass on their knowledge to their juniors and to the settlers themselves.

The people settled under this scheme are a rural proletariat. They have come to these lands with nothing; most have never engaged in anything but the lowest subsistence farming. Now, almost suddenly, they find themselves on an irrigated holding. They are taught to grow a crop they have never seen in more water than they knew existed. They have become members of a team working within a highly organized, centrally controlled agricultural system. They are the targets of a concentrated program of agricultural education and information.

Like many other countries in Africa, Kenya is faced with a formidable population expansion and with land hunger. This scheme provides a partial answer. Irrigation brings new land into cultivation. Just over ten years ago, Mwea/Tebere was a semidesert, seasonally grazed by a few cattle. Today, it supports more than 15,000 people.

in the field
in the field
in the field
in the field

Asian Drama by GUNNAR MYRDAL

This is not a book like other books, which will be read and then put away on the shelf. Gunnar Myrdal's *Asian Drama* will live with us whenever we contemplate, discuss and argue about the problems of Asia and other underdeveloped areas.

It is a synopsis of all the manifold factors which have created south Asia as it is today, and which will shape its future. It is an honest book, written by a western economist who knows the difficulties of objective evaluation and the possibilities of bias, and who feels a compulsion for searching his own soul. It is written on the basis of worldwide experience and with the same methods which made Myrdal's *An American Dilemma* one of the most profound social analyses of its time.

The book will help Asian governments to understand the uncertainty of their present position, which is difficult to defend against the evils of the past and from which it is difficult to ensure the way to a better future. Myrdal says, in the chapter on agricultural policy, that the Asian countries now have the worst of both worlds: they cannot realize agrarian reform and cannot carry out efficient agriculture. In another chapter he talks frankly about the corruption which marks the atmosphere of south Asia (and other underdeveloped regions).

The developed countries will recognize the not very mattering role that they have played in south Asia during the last few centuries, and even today. Myrdal stresses the weaknesses of their present policies and their bias in evaluating the reality of south Asia.

One of the great advantages of Myrdal's inquiry is that he brings out the divergence of western and Asian values and the great differences in development. When the western world understands this fundamental aspect of the development problem of Asia — and when western vested interests, looking for profitable solutions, discipline themselves or are disciplined — then there will be hope that European and American aid and advice will be useful.

Gunnar Myrdal says that, generally speaking, the western approach is ab-

stracted from most of the conditions that are peculiar to the south Asian countries and which are responsible for their underdevelopment and for the special difficulties they meet in developing.

The unique importance of Myrdal's inquiry is the decisive questions which he poses to himself, to the reader, to governments and to the international agencies.

The central concern of *Asian Drama* is with the problems of economic underdevelopment and development, and with planning for development. The starting point of Myrdal's study is recognition of the fact that pure economic analysis can never be successful. Distinctions between "economic" and "non-economic" factors are artificial at best. The only worthwhile demarcation is between relevant and less relevant factors and the line of demarcation will vary with the characteristics of the environment in the study.

The whole inquiry has a strong institutional emphasis. The starting point is the incontrovertible fact that the basic socioeconomic structure of south Asia is radically different from that existing in advanced countries. The problems of development in the region call for induced changes in the existing social structure as a continuous development. As this structure does not change spontaneously, or to any great extent in response to economic policies, far-reaching institutional reforms become necessary.

This point is of utmost importance since the bias for purely economic solutions is very strong in the official policies of bilateral and multilateral programs.

Gunnar Myrdal writes: "The essential first step toward an understanding of the problems of the south Asian countries is to try to discover how they actually function and what mechanisms regulate their performance. Failure to root analysis firmly in these realities invites both distortions in research and faults in planning."

If the United Nations organizations, particularly **FAO**, were to draw one conclusion from Myrdal's inquiry, it would be recognition of the urgent need for an intensification of institutional research in order to ensure proper guidance for de-

velopment programs. It is not sufficient to assert qualifications and reservations meant to take into account factors left out by conventional economic analysis along western lines; what is needed is a framework of theories and concepts that is closer to the realities of south Asia.

A study by Gunnar Myrdal always begins with a set of selected value premises. Any such study must look at the problems from the standpoint of the interests and ideals, norms and goals that are relevant and significant. Myrdal has selected new values directed toward modernization. This "modernization ideal" was impressed on the nations of south Asia at the dawn of their independence and has become the official creed, almost the national religion; Myrdal sees in it one of the powerful strengths of new nationalism.

An important element is the need to apply modern technology to increase productivity. Other elements which he feels should accompany such modernization include social and economic equality and improved institutions and attitudes.

The last is the most striking for it comprises the ideal of a social revolution aimed at the creation of the 'new man,' the "modern man" or 'citizen of the new state'. Such a man, he feels, must be efficient, dedicated, orderly, punctual, frugal and honest. He must be able to make rational decisions, be prepared for change, alert for opportunities as they arise, enterprising, cooperative and, most important of all, he must possess integrity and self reliance.

The chapter on the problems of labor utilization is of the greatest importance for all students of south Asia since it places the industrialization issue in its proper perspective. Myrdal states that only intensification of labor in agriculture can take care of the population's surplus during decades to come.

He says that a variety of institutional pressures have coalesced to induce spreading of the workload, while both traditional and modern factors have operated to restrict the members of the population regarded as **legitimate job claimants**. The net effect* of these forces has been

to suppress growth in output per head.

With respect to the population problem, Myrdal does not believe that conditions in south Asian villages are particularly favorable for awakening a desire to limit the number of children. He rightly recognizes that the setting of Asian life is such that children are expected to fulfill obligations to parents more than parents to children. However, he forecasts dramatic changes in Asian governments' interest in the population problem and feels that by the beginning of the 1970s government programs for family limitation will be in force in all south Asian countries.

(In his prologue Gunnar Myrdal writes on the concept of drama and explains why he chose *Asian Drama* as the title for his book. He draws a distinction between the classic conception of drama and real-life drama. He says: "In life, while the drama is still unfolding — as in the practical phase of a study, when policy inferences are drawn from value premises as well as from premises based on empirical evidence — the will is assumed to be free, within limits, to choose between alternative courses of action. History, then, is not taken to be predetermined, but within the power of man to shape. And the drama thus conceived is not necessarily tragedy." We can only pray that it may be so.

Erich M. Jacoby

Asian Drama, An Inquiry Into the Poverty of Nations, by Gunnar Myrdal. (New York, 1968, 3 volumes. 2,284 p.). \$15.00 for the three volumes.

Other reviews of ASIAN DRAMA

Herald (Tribune

Swedish economist Gunnar Myrdal contends that economic development efforts in south Asia will not succeed until there is a social revolution.

Aid from the west can be of only marginal help, he believes, until countries such as India carry out radical reforms in agriculture, education, population planning and similar areas.

Basically he believes that the Asian countries have been mistaken in attempting to adapt western approaches to many

problems deriving from their particular historical circumstances.

He is especially critical of education, or what he terms "miseducation," and contends that the emphasis must be on quality rather than on mere quantity.

"Throughout south Asia there is a traditional contempt for manual work, and the educated tend to regard their education as the badge that relieves them of any obligation to soil their hands," he writes, noting that this attitude "is a very serious obstacle to development."

Western countries err in their judgments of Asian socialism, which is a "rather vague term for the modernization ideology," Mr. Myrdal asserts. It applies mainly in areas where there is little private initiative and nowhere has it extended to the collectivization of agriculture. Nevertheless, economic inequalities have increased since independence...

The Times of India

...Professor Myrdal is right when he says that the western concept of employment "has little meaning in a society where, in the absence of a dole, the pressure of economic distress forces everyone to find some means of support, where the labor market is not fluid, where many persons of working age are disinclined to engage in physical labor and where standards of work performance are very low."

What holds down labor input and efficiency is not lack of capital but lack of stamina, ignorance and the deadweight of tradition.

Again, Professor Myrdal is not the first to point out that "without any technical innovation and even without investment other than longer and more efficient work, agricultural yields can be raised substantially."

But who is to provide the stamina? Very often the tenant or the sharecropper is not even sure how long he is going to stay on the piece of land he tills and he is afraid that the more it grows, the greater will be the rent he will have to pay. So he just does not put his heart into his work, much less invest in the land he tills.

Professor Myrdal is not the first man to say that absentee landlordism must go. The planners have said it for 18 years.

But no party has been able to muster the will to define "personal cultivation" in a way which will make it impossible for absentee landlords to resume land only to lease it out to tenants or sharecroppers.

Professor Myrdal is a radical. But out of sheer frustration he concludes that radical land redistribution, however desirable, is not politically feasible in south Asia today. So instead of paying lip service to the slogan "land to the tiller," he tells us, we will do far better by making "a deliberate policy choice in favor of capitalist farming."

Those who invest in land and make a good job of it must be allowed "to reap the rewards of their efforts." Absentee landlords must be penalized by heavy taxes. And nonfarming nonresidents must be barred by law from acquiring land.

The government, is, of course, too timid to admit in so many words that it has made such a policy choice. It is inhibited by all that it has said in the past. But a choice on these lines is already being made, particularly in areas where the new agricultural strategy is at work.

For the first time those who have money know that investment in agriculture, if made with care, can be more paying than in industry.

...Professor Myrdal almost despairs of the system. "Under the present southeast Asian conditions development cannot be achieved without much more social discipline," he writes, and adds that "an authoritarian regime may be better equipped to enforce social discipline." But then even he is careful to point out that the existence of even such a regime "is no guarantee of this accomplishment".

...The question here, as in most democratic countries, is how to make the system more responsive to the true needs of the people. As far as India is concerned the people will accept a far greater measure of discipline if the political parties do so. They have to put a curb on their greed and their petty rivalries and achieve some sort of consensus on issues which have a direct bearing on productivity and efficiency.

Only when they do so and limit the area of political conflict will the open competition for power become meaningful. Until that happens there will be no escape from mushy thinking or mushy planning.

African Economic Development

by William A. Hance

Analysis, and forecast are the economist's major weapons. Let him rejoice as he opens Mr. Hance's book, for pages 220 and 291 offer magnificent tables listing the symptoms of the illness afflicting Africa; aridity, political uncertainty, lack of roads and tribal rivalries — 33 countries, 10 parameters and the patterns analyzed. Then comes the treatment; agriculture, tourism, water power, each remedy marked from 1 to 4. Finally, the short- and long-term prospects, duly weighted and ready for the computer. If everything were that simple, what happened to Kansas and Oregon two centuries ago?

The reader knows from the foreword that this book is based on notes prepared by a study group dealing with United States foreign policy. A good half of the chapters, written more than ten years ago, have been compiled from documents rather than investigations. Facts and figures are plentiful, [lumen in very extended order like a disjointed course of physical, economic and political geography (North and South Africa are absent, and countries such as Nigeria, Senegal and Ivory Coast are given only a few paragraphs).

Nevertheless Mr. Hance's book is worth reading despite its overcrowded title and lack of homogeneity. Indeed, it includes integrated studies on three big pilot projects for development of the vast continent — (the Gezira-Managil irrigation network in the Sudan, hydroelectric development of the Volta river in Ghana and the iron-ore complex in Liberia.

The Sudanese irrigation system, covering about 600,000 hectares, has made the

Sudan one of the world's leading producers of long and medium-staple cotton.

The Akosombo Dam, the aluminum plant and the port of Tema have turned Ghana into one of the world's principal producers of aluminum. Liberian mines are among the foremost suppliers of rich iron ore for the iron and steel industries of Europe, North America and even Japan. In each case, total investments amount to hundreds of millions of dollars. The author examines the uses of such financing in the light of fluctuations of world prices and the effect on the infrastructure of the country and its general development (employment, living standards, balance of payments).

Sun, water, earth and the peasants' labor in the Sudan, (the power potential of the Volta river in Ghana, the riches of the subsoil in Liberia are supplying the developed world with raw materials and are giving Africans a fighting chance. Here are three examples of development in which Africa is furnishing its riches in the form of raw material to the industries and consumers of the rich countries. They are well chosen as examples, considering their technical success and their value,

But from the point of view of long-term strategy it is important to analyze how some of these undertakings threaten to increase the vulnerability of the countries benefiting by them because of growing dependence on suit-led markets.

To achieve greater independence, Liberia will have to process her iron ore one day, creating a big African iron and steel industry and selling machinery to Africa and the world. Likewise, Ghana which, incidentally, is processing imported aluminum and does not yet exploit her own bauxite, will one day have to produce aircraft bodies and engines rather than aluminum ingots.

This poses the problem, among many others, of market size. Mr. Hance devotes a very instructive chapter to the integration of Africa. Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania are endeavoring to set up a viable regional economy amid a thousand difficulties, of which politics is not the least important.

Strategies defined by the Charter of Algiers, which possess the great merit of having been drawn up by qualified representatives of the poorer countries,

illustrate and conclude the data supplied by a book such as this: which justifies their fundamental claim to recognition and independence.

Taking this into account, Mr. Hance's book can serve as reference if African leaders will forget his too frequent objections to the Africanization of the superstructure.

Raymond Aubrac

African Economic Development by William A. Hance; Frederick A. Prater. New York, 1967 (224 p.)

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FAMINE 1975

by William and Paul Paddock

Population expansion and stagnant food production in the underdeveloped nations are on a collision course. Serious **Economic** and **political** disorders are **inevitable** by 1975. With no possibility of producing the needed food and no **other** production to finance importation of it, the hungry nations will have to rely mainly on the U.S.A. (or supply of food on noncommercial terms, state the authors. But even the massive production capacity of the United States will be inadequate and hard choices will **have** to be made as to who **will** and **will not** receive food — in other words, what people and what nations may **survive**.

Statistics and **data** developed in Part I show that the relationship between population and food **supply** in much of the developing world is already unfavorable. People **are** hungry now and by 1975 will be starving — a time of famines, perhaps lasting for decades, will have begun. The authors argue that **a** **past** tendency to underestimate population increase and overestimate food production suggests that famine is **near** and likely on a more massive scale than UN estimates, indicate.

While medical advance continues to lower the death rate, the **birth** rate remains **high** or rises. For a variety of reasons, hopes of substantially limiting **population** growth are **something far** the future. The authors dismiss the **possibility** that any of the already known means of increasing food production can **have** a **significant** impact by 1975. They conclude their **analysis** of [the situation in the **developing** world by looking **at** factors outside the agricultural sector which affect **food** production. **Here**, **at** **the** **top**, they find little **ground for** **optimism**.

the possible **contribution** of the developed world **to** **feeding** **the** **world** **is** **considered** in Part II. Potential suppliers **are** the U.S., V. Canada, Australia and Argentina but, to date at least, only the United States has **shipped** substantial **quantities** on a **noncommercial** basis. This position is seen as continuing due to the likely availability of commercial markets large enough to absorb the production of the other **three** countries.

Given the situation of insufficient United States food supplies to meet the needs for shipments to all the hungry nations, the authors in Part III of their book give their views on how the decision should be made as to which nations receive food. Drawing an analogy with the situation at an overextended field medical station in wartime, the authors propose their system of "triage." Wounded coming to such stations are classified as: (1) **can** be saved and thus no point in medical attention; (2) walking wounded, in pain but can wait for **treating** and (3) seriously wounded but can be saved by prompt medical treatment.

The **real** merit of the book is that it draws attention, in dramatic terms, to the increasingly serious population food **supply** **problem**. **First** **step** in bringing about action to deal with it. While the various aspects of the **problem** are **extremely** complex and difficult to quantify, there **can** be no doubt **about** the general conclusion that famines **lie** ahead — only the timing and extent are debatable.

Unfortunately the text of the book is interspersed with rather subjective judgments, or at least judgments based on inadequate information on what countries will do. Two examples, one from the developing and one from the developed world, are illustrative: (1) United Arab Republic, p. 44-49 — "The Aswan Dam is only a **delay** of progress; its new land will be farmed in the same old **way**. In the same old **fashion** **providing**; **it** **always** **will** **not** **be** **effective** **in** **providing** support to curtail family size;" (2) With **reference** to the contribution of Canada, Australia and Argentina to feeding the hungry nation*, pages 130 and 131, "(c) **if** **they** **could** **afford** **generosity** **at** **that** **level**, these countries have not yet developed within their governments **and** citizenry a sense of moral duty, and this comes slowly. There is little evidence

that this **exists** today **even** at a **rudimentary** level. During 1952-64 Canada shipped only **million** tons of wheat and Australia only 50,000 tons on a noncommercial **basis**, insignificant amounts in comparison with the **13,500,000** tons shipped by the United States on a noncommercial basis during the same period.⁵ Such judgments can lead to a slightly more pessimistic forecast than may be justified.

More serious, however, they do not add to the reservoir of goodwill among **nations** which is absolutely essential in dealing with crises of the magnitude predicted by the authors and, eventually, **in** achieving **a** better world for all. Nor does an unfavorable judgment, valid or **invalid**, necessarily lead to the kind of action needed to improve the situation.

It **is** the third part of the book, where the authors put forward their proposals as to how the U.S.A. should deploy its food resources in time of famine, that is most contentious. Here, the authors seem to be advocating on the part of the United States the **"nationalism"** **which** **is** **deplorable** in the developing countries. One wonders, for example, if it would be in the best interests of the United States, **in** **the** **face** **of** **an** **economically**, **politically** **and** **socially** **disruptive** **famine**. **It** **is** **not** **clear** **that** **the** **decision** **on** **how** **the** **world** **resources** **should** **be** **shared** **is** **in** **the** **best** **interests** **of** **the** **world**. Is it **possible** **that** **the** **author** **underestimate** the degree of **international** **prevalence** in the United States **is** **suggesting** that it would do so?

It is to a considerable extent the time factor — target date 1975 — which leads to the extremely pessimistic conclusion of the book. Governments in the newly developing countries are acquiring increased experience and are also increasingly appreciating the need to give higher priority to agriculture in their development plans and allocation of resources. Their capacity to make use of the findings of studies is, in effect, increasing. Then, **too**, **action** **is** **being** **taken** **in** **a** **number** **of** **developing** countries, including India, in the last few years may begin yielding results even before 1975 and thus the crisis may be on a lesser scale than predicted by the brothers Paddock.

O.C. Kimmei

Famine 1975 by William and Paul Paddock, Little, Brown and Company, Boston. (276 p.)

Weather and Agriculture

Edited by
James A. Taylor

The primary demand for weather science came from agriculture until the sudden needs of aviation in **wartime** and in peace gave a very expansionist impulse to meteorology.

Those of us who are concerned with Food production art. on the one hand, grateful for a tremendous progress in weather observing, reporting and forecasting which could not have been achieved without this outside influence and, on the other, envious of the amount of attention given to this upstart and vociferous consumer of meteorological information.

A result of this new situation is a fairly widespread lack of exchange between jgrLuhural and mett't>mlop.ical **MCVfctt**, especially in developing countries.

Efforts are now being made to remedy this, greatly facilitated by a growing desire on the part of national meteorological services to diversify now that the aviation pressure is relaxing. Nowadays meteorologists tend to **x-playddMB** and niLiIhemalicians, rather than naturalists, but geographers have also come to the rescue. A shining example of the effective help they can render in the development of agricultural meteorology is the work of Dr. James A. Taylor at the University College of Wales in Aberystwyth.

Yearly symposia **htve** been held then? *since 1958 on varitxj**. *jppci* of agricultural meteorology and. from their proceedings (Memoranda 1-RI, Dr. Taylor has selected some notable contributions rearranged under the headings of: The Imironmeni; The Hazards; and Productivity.

This is an excellent book. Its contents apply primarily to Wales and, more generally, to temperate regions, but there is nevertheless much in it of benefit to

anyone concerned with the rational development of agriculture in warm and drier climates.

For instance, the climatic factors which favor the incidence of sheep liver fluke or of potato blight are sensibly the same all over the world; and the tipper air currents which carry the spores of rusts affecting cereal are part of a global atmospheric circulation which can link the Atlas with the Caucasus.

Developments in ecology (an integrated consideration of all the factors of the environment) and in operational research (which give dimensions to hitherto subjective impressions) discussed in this new text lend themselves to extrapolation for work in developing countries. However, the process cannot be automatic. Sensible adaptation, which requires local knowledge as well as outside know-how, is essential.

J.A.M. Cochrane

Weather and Agriculture edited by James A. Taylor.
Penguin Press Ltd., London. 1967, (22\$ p.).
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ceres

Cetti wm id opted as the name of this review because of its close association with agriculture, **partjartariy** the growing of food crops. *Cats*, the Roman version of the Greek goddess Demeter, has its equivalent in most languages just as *Ceres* herself, symbol of agriculture and representing mother earth, has her equivalent in most cultures.



Roman copy of a Greek statue of CERES of the 5th century BC.

By the beginning of the Roman Republic, Sicily was known as the center of the worship of both *Ceres* and her daughter Persephone. *Ceres* herself was then considered as the most ancient and venerable of all the gods and goddesses. During the famine which the Romans suffered after the expulsion of the Tarquin monarch*, the dictator Tulio Postumio consulted the Sibylline books which advised that the worship of *Ceres* should be established in Rome. A temple to *Ceres* was therefore built in 493 B.C. on the Aventine hill (near the present site of FAO). *Ceres* was then regarded as the goddess of food grains and patroness of the corn trade.

Ceres also adopted Triptolemus, the son of *Celeus*, and initiated him in the **Htl** of agriculture. He became identified as the deity of agricultural crafts. *Triptolemus* in some legends is named as the inventor of the plow.

The attributes of *Ceres* are chiefly connected with her position as goddess of agriculture and include: ears of corn, the poppy, the mystic *kalathos* (a basket filled with flowers, corn and fruits of all kinds, the pomegranate being especially common). As the earth goddess she is often associated with the snake, myrtle, asphodel and **Hirlliui**.

Letter to the Reader

Raising over a million dollars in SU **yeen** to help thirty leper colonies is not enough for Cardinal Leper, Archbishop of Montreal fit- b leaving Ms high office and the affluent society to go and tnd the lepers in Airk a, "Beatin\$ the drum to raise funds is easy. It's going down there that's hardest," he says.

This is an example of self-denial, of starting over from the ground up, that commands respect. The Cardinal is sixty-three years old.

Two authors appearing in this number of *CERES* deal with the same problem, but from a different point of view. Jan Tinbergen and Janez Stanovnik believe that development is only possible through the establishment of a global plan. "Coordination and cooperation," they say.

Those convinced of the need for action to help the underprivileged of the third world, honest citizens of the industrialized societies, gravitate toward the kind of humanistic and personal solution chosen by the Cardinal. Action, especially if followed by results — however slight — is far more satisfying to the individual than the most brilliant theory.

One of the most frequent criticisms of aid efforts is that local and uncoordinated action is like pouring water into a sieve. Aiding ten families, or a village, to produce more cassava, or rice, falls far short of the takeoff of an entire economy. In other words, the act of charity meets the giver's conscience, but not the recipient's anxiety for the future.

What should we do then? Which is the right choice?

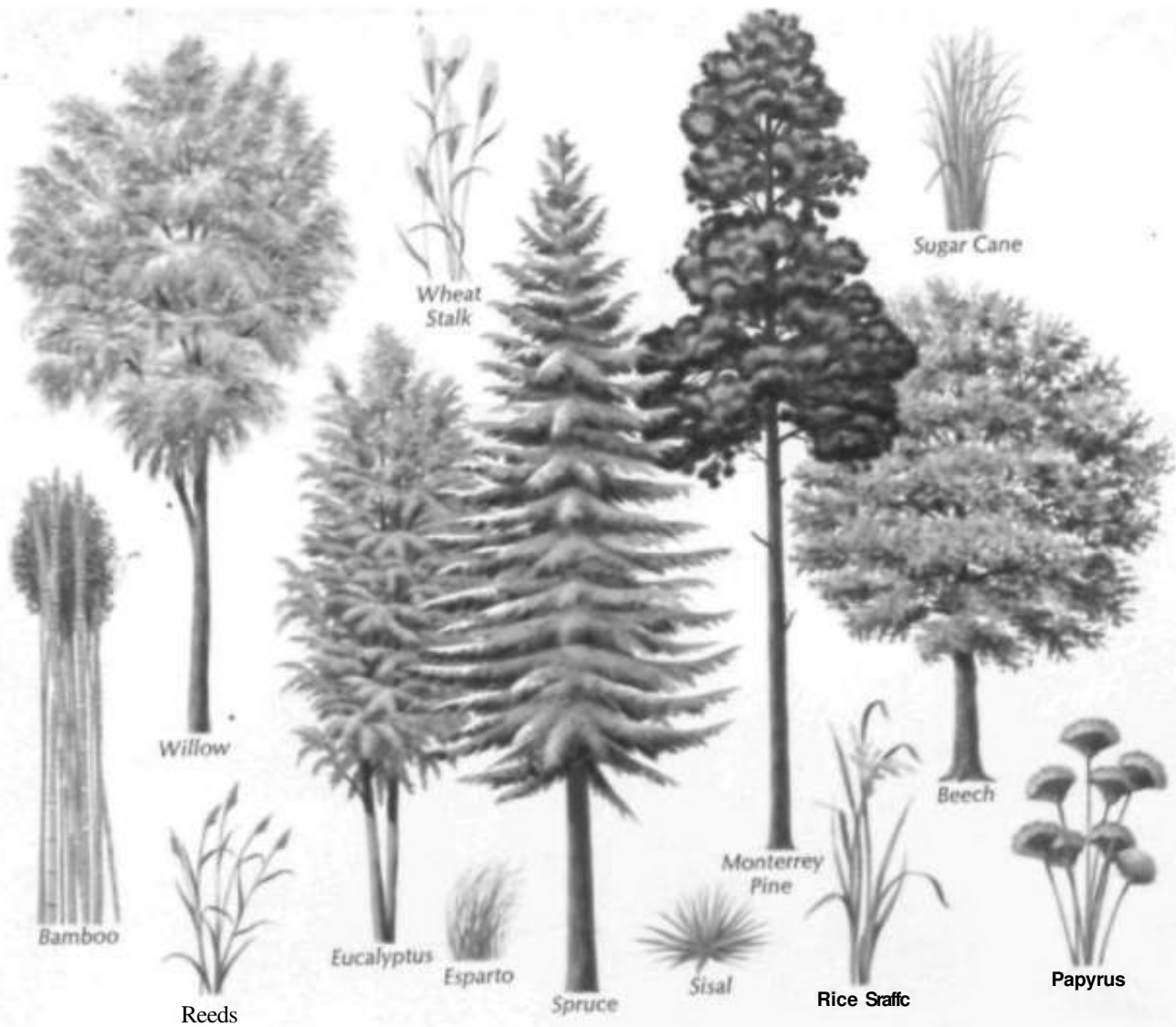
Above all, we must not try to "hide behind one's finger," as an old Greek proverb puts it. To evade reality through grandiose plans would be as harmful as not having a plan at all. The integration of all the significant elements within the **Orne** of a global development plan, handled with realism but with the visionary's faith as well, seems the only effective course open to us.

The elaboration of a plan that will be useful to billions of people is an arduous task. We can see from the **OMOet** the quantitative problems: gathering an enormous volume of statistical data on a country-by-country basis; analyzing it; and determining the order of priorities and objectives.

Yet the qualitative aspects are no less complex. Understanding by the planners of the poorer countries' present and future needs, and of the resources which are, or may be available to meet the needs must form the basis for the development plan. Who can produce such a plan if not the countries themselves, working within the United Nations?

Moreover, now that there is hope of an imminent end to the conflict in Vietnam, the positive factors favoring a worldwide plan acquire a new element: the possibility of an immediate, or at least rapid, shift of the focus to **datrtetk*** to forces for the advancement of the underdeveloped countries.

mambu are the first to realize that reality is more complex and more uncertain than the forecasts and targets planners work with. Unfortunately, the pessimists amongst them have not often been proved wrong, the prospect of peace should now give the optimists their turn. A, Biru



RAW MATERIAL FOR PAPERMAKING

Including the tree* "«1 plantm Ululrt1*d above. some 20 different species of softwood*, hardwood*, reed*, grasses, and other natural materials can have been used for pulp and paper production. A mill* built by the Parsons & Whittemore-Lyddon Organization, V/h, in theory any vegetable matter will yield cellulose fibers, careful study and analysis are necessary to determine what species are economical suitable for industrial processing.

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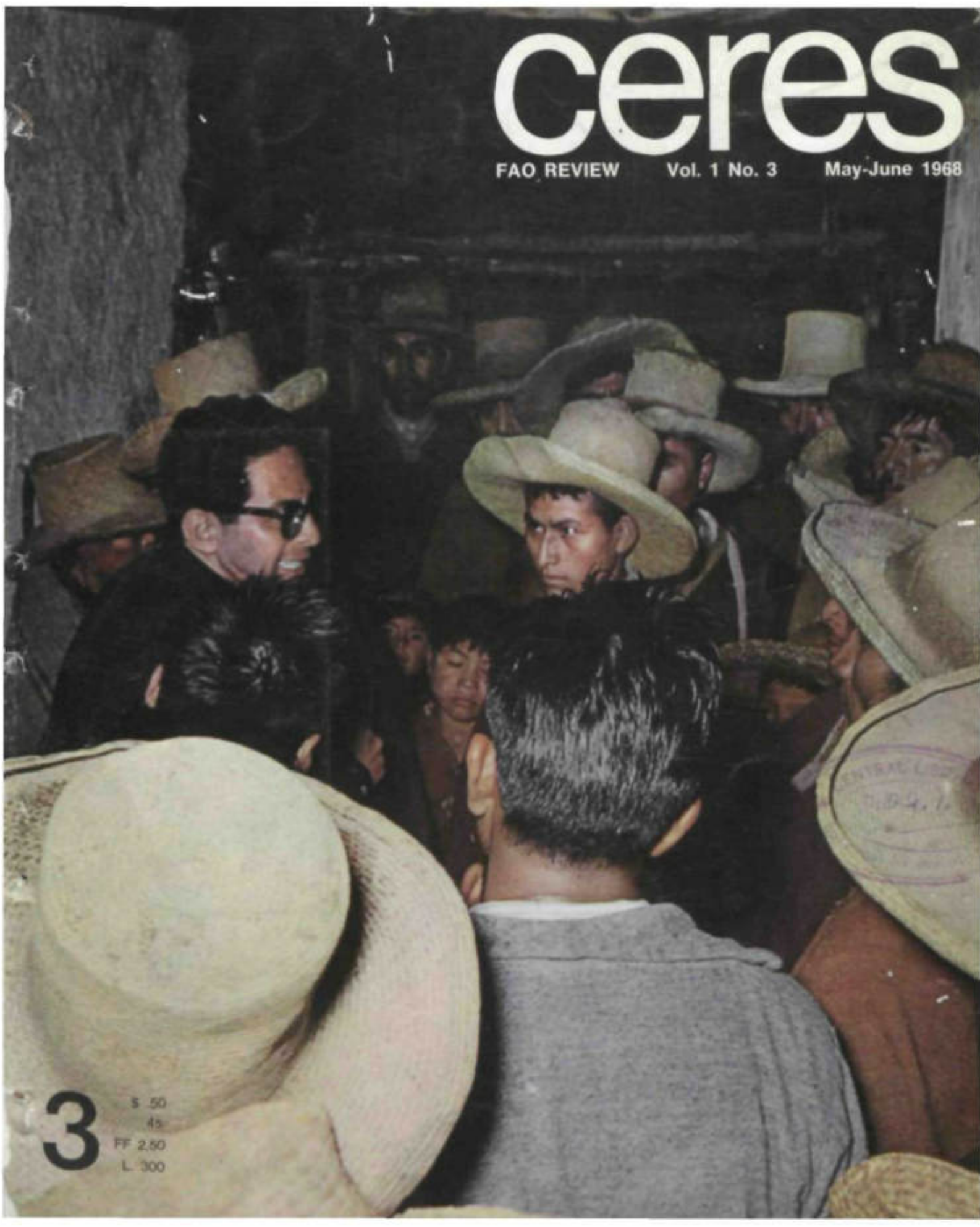


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Vol. 1 No. 3

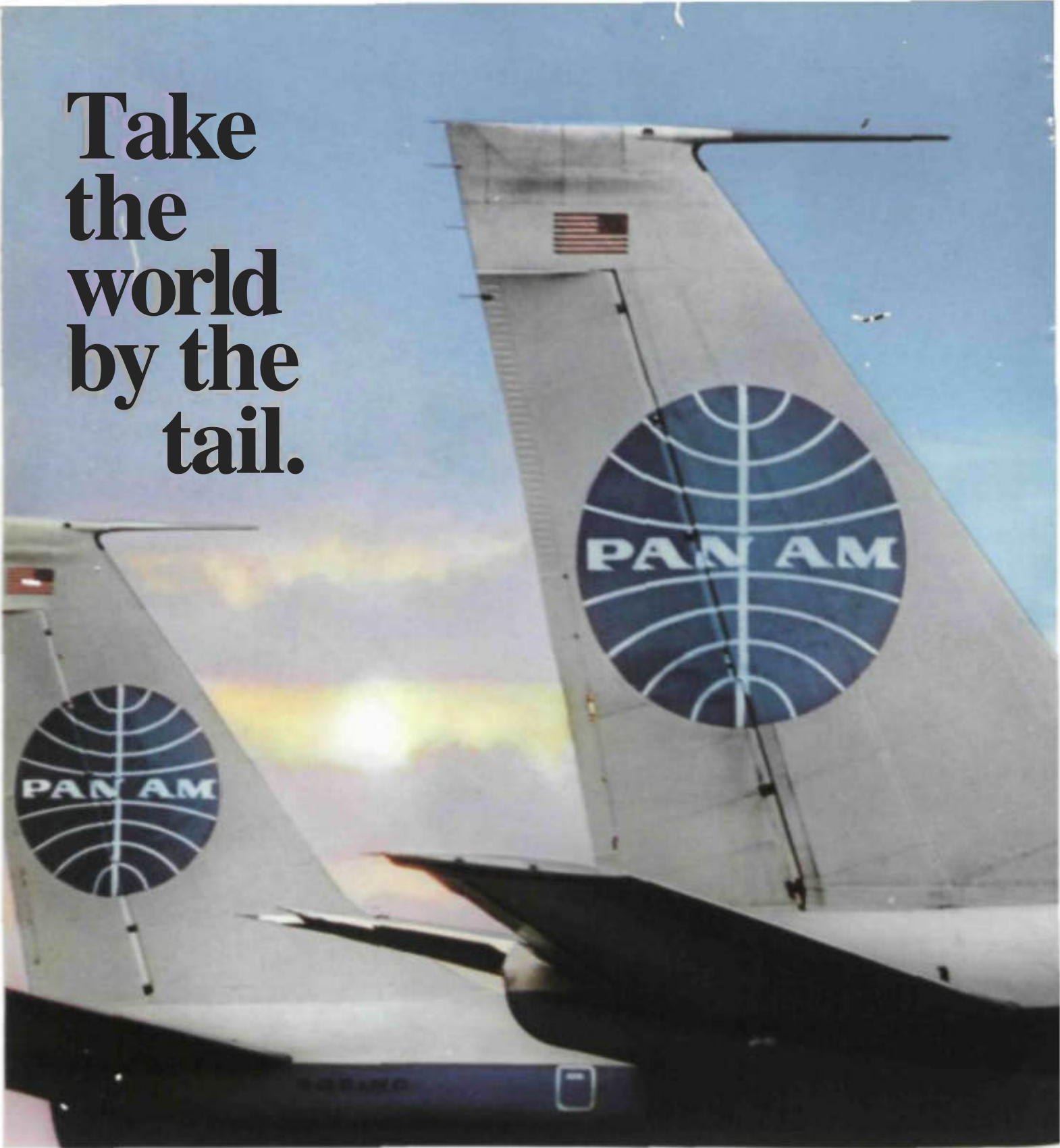
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CERES

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Chile is one of the few countries where an active land reform program is being carried out. It is also a country where intensive post-land reform activity is under way. The article by Jacques Chonchol, on page 41, describes the organization of the Chilean farmers into a cohesive whole, able to make their presence felt in the development process.

Another aspect of farmer organization can be seen in the article, on page 32, by Derek Bryceson. A country like Tanzania needs aid but should be, as much as possible, independent of outside assistance, he says. Such self-reliance can only be gained by the efforts of the peasant farmers channeled through cooperative societies.

One of the world's foremost economic planners, Jan Tinbergen, describes the slow growth of national and international planning toward a new worldwide development plan in his article on page 19. He advocates the cooperation of all the specialized agencies with the UN's Center for Development Planning, Projection and Policies in the preparation of a framework for a global master plan.

The logical outcome of UNCTAD 2 is a rather similar strategy for global development, according to Janez Stanovnik, in his article on page 50. Such a strategy would be dependent upon the linking of national and international effort, and on the adoption of adequate social reforms and policies in the developing countries, he says.

The way in which four African countries are working together to develop the Senegal river is a very practical example of national and international cooperation, Robert N'Oao, who has worked with this project since its earliest beginnings, is interviewed on page 22.



Jacques Chonchol



Derek Bryceson



Jan Tinbergen



Janez Stanovnik



Gunnar Myrdal

Another example of successful cooperation is the industry-backed program to increase fertilizer use in some 22 countries, now in its eighth year. A modest sampling from this program can be seen in the picture-story of a woman's lonely assignment in Ecuador (page 36).

Practical help for such programs can be given by FAO's new documentation center (page 25), which may soon blossom into a network of interconnected centers. Too much valuable information has, in the past, been lost in the archives, says the article. Now, technical assistance experience can be quickly brought to bear on specific problems.

Help of a rather different kind is offered by a private organization which is attempting to act as a bridge between the village-level and industrialized societies. E.F. Schumacher explains the meaning of intermediate technology and what his group is attempting to do in an interview on page 29.

W.N. Han Payne, an expert in animal husbandry, suggests a new kind of research, oriented toward the problems of the tropics, in his article on page 46. Such 'meaningful' research would encompass both sociological and technological aspects and should be launched from new regional research-cum-training centers, he says.

1963 may well be remembered for the publication of Gunnar Myrdal's 'Asian Drama' a three-volume exploration of the growth processes of that vast subcontinent. The flavor of this frank and realistic appraisal can be caught in the review on page 60 and in echoes from the world press on page 61.



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1 Latin American farmers must form their own organization which can act as a fulcrum for national development. From the anonymous mass of peasantry must come the natural leaders of social change, says the article on page 41. (Photo: A. Pittet).

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FOOTPRINTS in the Rice Fields...

At planting time and during the growing season, footprints made by planting or hand weeding result in substantially reduced yields. Trampled plants never regrow to full maturity and cause a rice loss up to 15 bushels p*r acre.

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AFRICA

• *Entt Africnm and EEC talk tf*dm*

Negotiations between the European Economic Community (EEC) and 18 African associated states (mainly in West Africa) for a renewal of the Yaounde Convention started in May.

Similar negotiations for an association agreement are also under way between EEC and Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda in an attempt to strengthen EEC-African links. Previous negotiations were halted eighteen months ago following the inability of Common Market countries to

agree about the products on which they wanted preferences; also because of the East African states' refusal to accept the principle of preferences (or Common Market products in return for duty-free entry of East African goods into EEC countries.

The European Community has now presented to the East African states an "indicative" list of widely assorted items for discussion and selection.

• *African mtatm* farm (f) na. union*

The Central African Republic Chad and the Democratic Republic of the Congo grouped together last month

njzsbom th» Unton o4 Central Mricm States.

The agreement was signed in Fort L*cy Chad & President Joseph WotMjtu at lft*



Union In Attica: Presidents Josefft Mobutu, Jean-Beds! Bokassa and Franpois Jombaibaye agree to form Jte Union of Central African Slatg

Democratic Republic of the Congo, President Jean-Bedel Bokassa of the Central African Republic and President Francois Tombalbaye of Chad.

The new union will, at first, be primarily one of economic cooperation, with the emphasis on customs and transportation.

The new regional grouping covers an area of over 1,600,000 square miles and contains a population of 21 million,

• *Now Morocco tlva-yomr piat*

Morocco has just revealed its new 1968/72 five-year plan. It calls for a total investment of \$1,000 million. Nearly half of the money will be spent on dam building and agriculture. When completed, the plan should increase national income by 6 percent. Forty percent of the costs will be financed from abroad and \$200 million in foreign participation is already assured, according to a report from Rabat.

• *Gtiinm* off arm naw oponiitg* for tnvanmoi***

Mont invHmanii in 'i:na» arm vqjMcttff to follow it* country's rww potey o* cooperation and coexistence with all countrtt* Iron and Mum!* production t% steadily risi: *g and a C*r*»«n com-

pany. Harvey Aluminum, recently made the first shipment from its Boke concession. Among other countries also cooperating in the development of Guinea's economy are the U.S.S.R., Mainland China and the U.S.A. Guinea looks forward particularly to increased French participation.

■ *Ohmmm mamkm foreign capital*

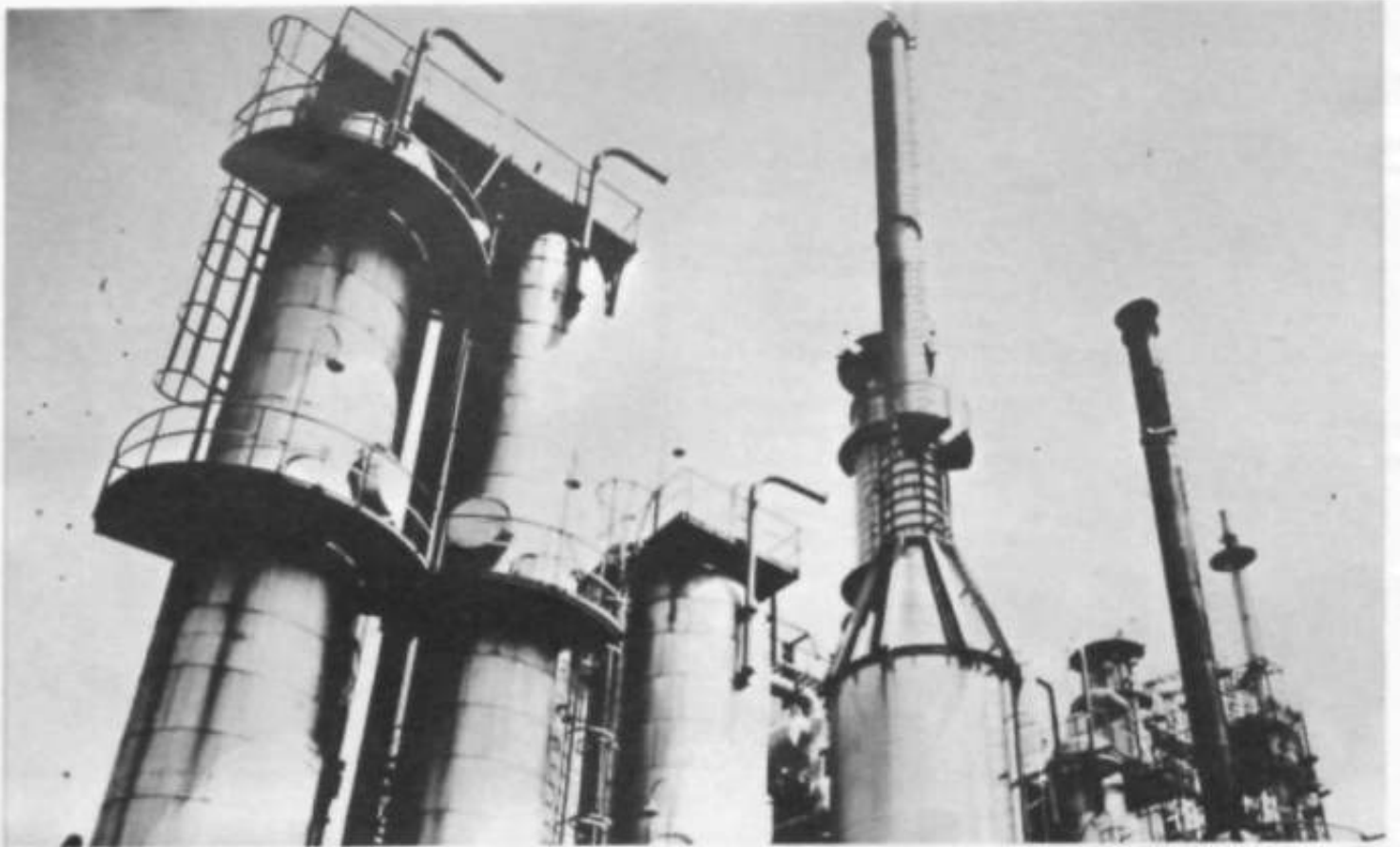
More foreign investments in Ghana are likely to follow the recent visits of Ghanaian officials to Europe.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, Mr. j.w.K. Harlley, vice-chairman of the National Liberation Council, said Ghana wants Krupp to take part in its large-scale irrigation projects. Other suggestions discussed with Krupp executives concerned the building of freight and passenger ships for use on the Volta artificial lake.

Mr. E. Omaboe, Ghanaian Minister of Economic Affairs, who was in Paris recently for a meeting, said Ghana wants French agricultural experts, particularly for its palm and cotton plantations. French participation in Ghana's development would also extend to other heldi. A French company, for instance, may ujk* ow »hn Ghanaian pharmaceutical*! slate enterprise.

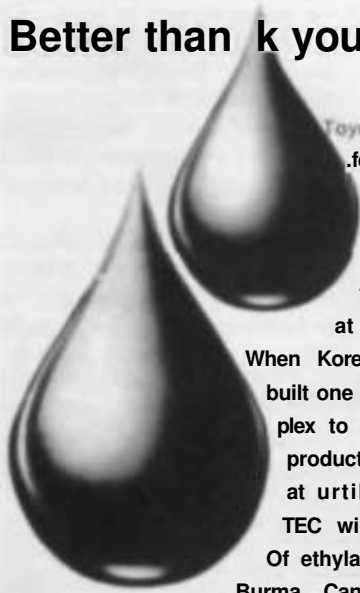
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• Kmny m ooffmv crop fait*

An uncontrollable fungus blight has destroyed 70% of Kenya's coffee crop this year. Coffee has been for years Kenya's top export, worth nearly \$50 million yearly.

This year's (ess is estimated at 300.000 tons. So far, no eHactive control has been discovered and many coffee farmers and planters are replanting their land with tea.

• Mmtmwii v-aat now harvests planned

Maize production in Malawi Lilongwe region should increase about ten times and groundnut production twice during the next 13 years, following the approval of a \$6 million interest-free International Development Association (IDA) loan to the Malawi government. ID promote the agricultural development of the region.

The loan covers a first phase of 163.000 acres, part of an eventual half a million acres.

Another IDA credit of \$3.7 million will assist the development of 130.000 acres in Shire valley, where it is hoped to treble cotton production over the next five years through improved cultivation practices and the use of sprayers and insecticides.

IDA credits will cover the foreign exchange requirements of the two schemes and part of the local costs. The Malawi government will cover the rest.

Both the projects were prepared under the supervision of FAO and the World Bank with financial assistance from UNDP.

NEAR EAST

Iran reverses its

To find the needed manpower to implement its fourth development plan, a come-home call will be made by the Iranian government to 10,000 Iranian university and collage graduates in Europe and North

America. A special group, headed by a minister, will tour the two continents to recruit 10,000 from among Iranians now living and working in the industrialized countries of the world.

• MroWcfe biggemt dam for WB*t Pmk/wtan

The contract to build a giant earth dam at TarDeia on the Indus river in West Pakistan has been awarded to a consortium of French and Italian companies led by Impregilo of Milan.

This is the largest single public work ever awarded. The project is three times larger than the Aswan High Dam. Tsrpela is to be the major contributor in a contract of dam and canal which will provide power and water to 50 million people and 33 million acres of arable land. The central dam will be 9000 feet long and 470 feet high. The dam will create a lake 50 miles long and will not be completed until 1976.

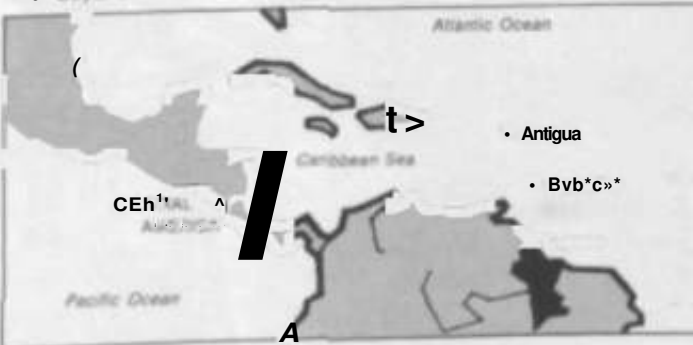
Total cost of the project \$827 million. The financing has been arranged by a group of seven countries and the Indus Basin Fund under the auspices of the World Bank.

LATIN AMERICA

• Program* tovrmrd Caribbean community

An interregional free trade area embracing most of the Caribbean countries came a step nearer reality following a recent meeting of the heads of government* of the present CARIFTA members Antigua, Barbados and Guyana,

The three founding members of CARIFTA: Antigua, Barbados and Guyana



Accomplishments included the following.

...drafting of a charter (or a Caribbean Development Bank 10 come into being in May of 1968

...adoption of the CARIFTA agreement as the basis for an extended agreement aimed at more complete free trade among commonwealth Caribbean countries, with an eventual free customs union and economic community

...organization of a Caribbean regional secretariat, located in Georgetown, Guyana.

...agreement to establish various regional services, such as a press service, a bureau of standards and a population center.

The Eastern Caribbean Common Market (ECCM) countries — Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St. Lucia and St. Vincent — as well as other Caribbean countries, are still considering various forms of agreement,

• Novr tSmm tor Argantinn mopfovmd

The World Bank has decided to take part in the financing of the Cnocon-Cerro-Coraco irrigation scheme in Argentina which will permit the irrigation of half a million acres in northern Patagonia. Cost of the project will amount to \$440 million.

A major aim is to bring to an end the periodic floods from the Andes which are a constant threat to this fertile region. The dam forming part of the scheme will be one kilometer long and 75 meters high. Also included in the project will be an 800,000 kilowatt power station.

• * tat million invmmt-mmnt in t.A. m formmtm

A leading role in the expansion of forest industries in widely separated countries in Latin America is being played by private investment.

ACM's team set up the Institute for Development of Forestry Resources under the United Nations Development Program (UNOP) which spurred the recent large-scale development of Chile's forest-based industries (pulp and paper plants, veneer and plywood mills). During the last year*, more than \$105 million have been invested in these industries, and from 1952 to 1968 exports of Chilean sawnwood rose by 107%.

An Honduran team recently carried out a UNDP survey of the forest potential of Honduras which spotlighted that country's resources. It eventually led to a government partnership with the United States International Paper Company for the construction of a \$77 million pulp and paper plant in that country.

The plant, the largest International Paper project outside the United States and Canada, will have an annual production capacity of 40 million board feet of lumber and 210,000 metric tons of paperboard.

NORTH AMERICA

• 3 f O million in on-trmim to bo avrmrdnd

The list of new United Nations Development Program projects approved by the UNDP governing council in January, to be carried out by the United Nations and its various agencies, calls for (or nearly \$10 million in contractual services over the next few years.

The larger contracts include \$1 million for forestry consultant services over the next four and a half years to pave the way for a national forest development plan in West Africa. Two contracts (or nearly \$1 million each will

UREA STRIPPING a new SNAM PROGETTI PROCESS

A NEW GOAL IN UREA TECHNOLOGY

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be required for a pesticide plant to produce, among other chemicals. 1000 tons of DDT annually in the Near East; and survey work preparatory to river valley development in the Far East. Other contracts include an amount of \$650,000 for technical and economic transport studies in Africa and \$500,000 for a marine seismic survey in the Caribbean.

Between 1959 and mid-1967 UNDP projects involved 337 contracts worth more than \$62 million and equipment purchases totaling some \$88 million.

• Briton head* nurplu* dimpomml group

The 41-nation subcommittee on surplus disposal of agricultural products re-elected John Eaton, of the United Kingdom, as its chairman for 1968 at its recent meeting in Washington. Jose R Sanchis Munos of Argentina was elected vice-chairman.

The subcommittee is FAO's intergovernmental forum for overseeing the orderly transfer of agricultural products from food-rich to food-deficit countries. It works under a set of rules designed to prevent "dumping" of agricultural surpluses, or the emergence of unfair competitive practices in international trade. These rules have the status of an international convention and are known as the "FAO Principles on the Disposal of Agricultural Surpluses."

• tOA: 400 million m Y9*r for loan*

Over the next three years the International Development Association, an affiliate of the World Bank, will dispose of \$1.2B0 million for loans to developing countries. Major contributors are the United States (\$480 million), the United Kingdom (\$155.5 million), the Federal Republic of Germany (\$17 million) and France (\$97.2 million). Other major donors are Australia.



Robert Strange McUamara, president of the World Bank

Canada, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands and Switzerland.

Because of its present balance of payments difficulties, the U.S. contribution can now only be used for purchases inside the United States.

Sweden has announced that it will make an additional contribution to IDA of \$21.36 million in freely convertible currencies over the next three years. This would be in addition to the \$2964 million contributed by Sweden to the \$1,280 million fund.

m Who own* the t « - bed?

Recent findings of manganese outcroppings on the ocean floor have stirred international action on the problem of seabed jurisdiction. Acting on a Malta proposal the United Nations General Assembly has set up a committee to study practical means to promote international cooperation in the exploitation of the ocean floor.

A resolution covering the establishment of a United Nations licensing authority for exploitation of the seabed has been proposed in the United States Senate.

The U.S. government has designated an interdepartmental committee, chaired by the State Department, while the U.S. Marine Science Council is financially backing three research projects on international law and marine minerals, fisheries and scientific exploration.

ASIA

• ADB hack* Thai Corporation

The Manila-based Asian Development Bank has approved a \$5 million loan to the Industrial Finance Corporation of Thailand.

The aim of the loan is to help the corporation contribute to the industrial development of Thailand.

This loan is the first made by ADB from ordinary capital resources. The bank started operations 18 months ago and has so far also helped finance a major agricultural survey of the Asian region and agricultural production in Indonesia.

• U.S.S.R. and India cooperate on development plan*

India and the Soviet Union want to cooperate more closely in their development plans. The economic planning commissions of both countries will meet before the start of India's next five-year plan in 1969, and the Soviet Union's in 1971, in order to coordinate their activities.

The commissions will consult particularly over the use of aid from the Soviet Union to India. Present Indo-Soviet trade stands at around \$180 million annually.

The Soviet Union is expected to accelerate its purchases of Indian manufactured goods, particularly railway wagons and jute.

EUROPE

• Agreement on food standard*

Agreement has been reached on international food standards for canned fruits and vegetables, a range of sugars and glucose syrups and other commodities.

The joint FAO/WHO Codex Alimentarius Commission, a 50-nation body, met in Rome for its fifth annual session ending 1 March.

The commission is attempting, through its own work

and that of its various subgroups, to arrive at standards of food quality, hygiene, labeling, additives and pesticide residues which can be adopted by governments in their national legislation. It is hoped, in this way, to remove nontariff barriers to trade and thus contribute to food availability.

• Hew industries investment venture

New ways to increase cooperation between the United Nations and industry and to facilitate industrial investment in developing countries were worked out at a meeting in March of FAO's industry Cooperative Program.

Representatives of 37 major international firms met in Rome under the chairmanship of Dr. V.H. Umbricht, managing director of Ciba A.G. who was also elected program chairman for 1968.

Dr. Umbricht appealed for the adoption of "a widely acceptable code of conduct for the protection of private investors." This, he said, would allow private concerns to



Dr. V.H. Umbricht, chairman of the FAO Industry Cooperative Program

be as enterprising as they would wish to be." He expressed regret that some developing countries tended to see such a code as a form of discrimination against them. He appealed also to private enterprise to adopt "an attitude which reflects recognition of today's conditions."



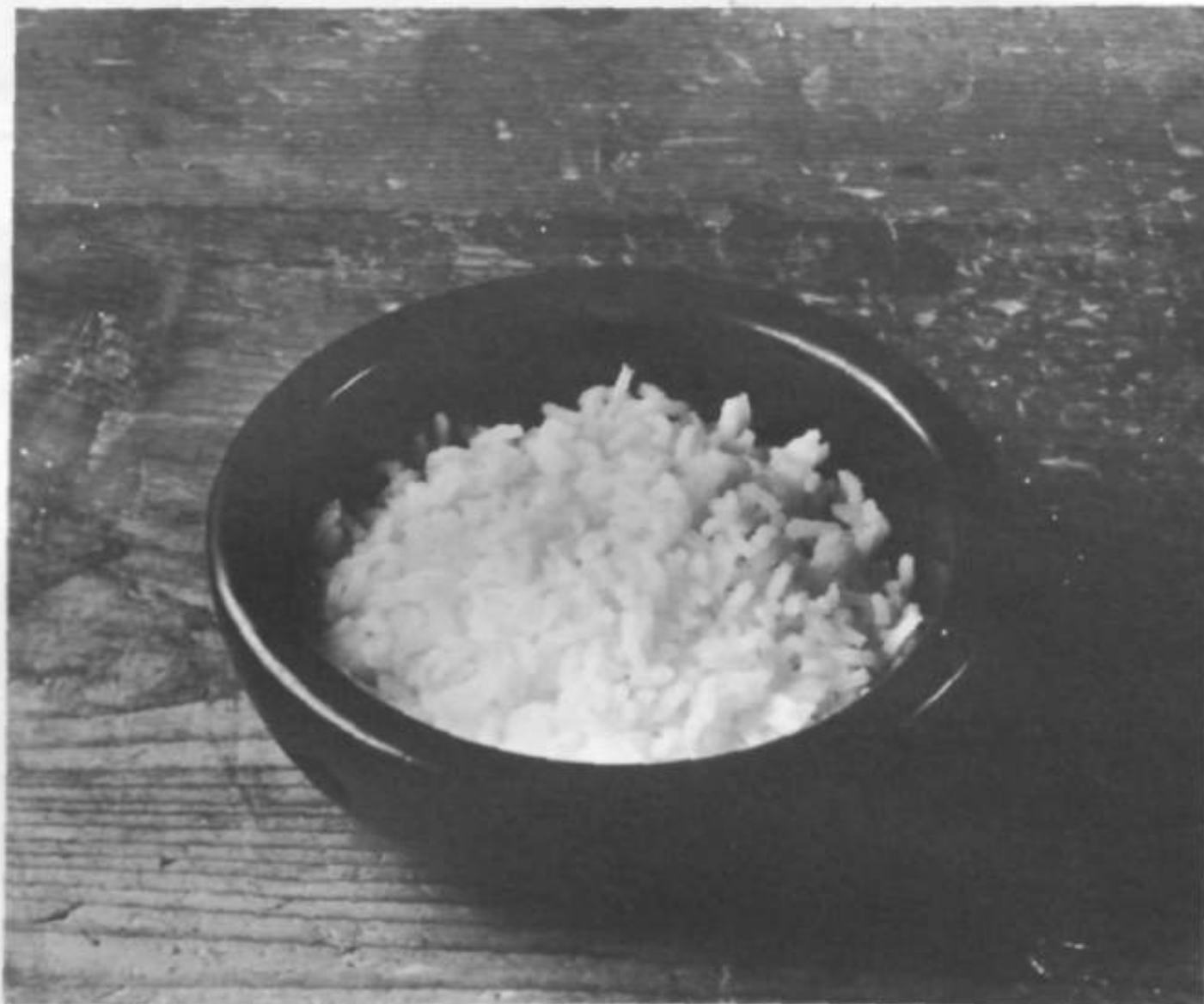
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WOOD

Mort foreign exchange earner

Forest products are among the fastest growing exports of the developing countries as a whole and are the top foreign exchange earners of a number of African and Asian countries, according to an FAO report presented at UNCTAD 2.

In the ten years, 1955-66 the export value of these products grew from \$280 million annually to \$770 million. This total is expected to reach \$1,500 million annually by 1975. The developing countries' export trade in these products continues to grow at a considerably faster rate than world trade, and at a very much faster rate than that of these countries' all-commodities trade.

A number of dramatic increases are quoted in the report, such as the Republic of Korea whose exports of hardwood plywood increased more than 100 times between 1960 and 1966, from 2,300 cubic meters to 272,800 cubic meters.

However, only two fifths of these forest products are at present exported to the developed countries in processed form. By 1975 this share should, and could, increase considerably, says the report. Processed forest products present unusually favorable prospects for early, rapid and large-scale expansion of exports from the developing countries.

COTTON

World crop forecast for 1967/68

The world cotton crop in 1967/68 is estimated at 47.2 million bales* as compared with 47.6 million bales harvested a year earlier and a record high of 53.1 million bales in 1965/66, according to a recent report from the US Department of Agriculture.

The production estimate from the U.S. was reduced to 7.6 million bales, due to a reduction in acreage and lower yields. Crops in Mexico, India, Iran, Israel and the U.S.S.R. were also reported to be lower.

Asia and Oceania account for a major part of world cotton production, estimated at 17.1 million bales for 1967/68 as compared with 4.9 million bales in Africa and 3.8 million bales in South America.

COFFEE

Way toward far more agreement

The second International Coffee Agreement should now come into force when the 1962 agreement expires at the end of September.

The final area of disagreement — namely that of the exports of so-called coffee from Brazil which, in the United States' opinion, had been facilitated by discriminating treatment in favor of green coffee processed in Brazil — has now been resolved.

The new agreement prohibits the application of governmental measures* which constitute discriminatory treatment in favor of exports and re-exports of processed coffee as compared with green coffee; provision is also made for an arbitration panel to settle disputes between member countries.

The export quota mechanism of the 1962 agreement was successful in holding stock off the market and in improving and stabilizing prices. Annual export earnings from coffee have been raised by over \$500 million.

The aim of the new agreement remains unchanged though there has been some readjustment in basic export quotas. The system of selective quota adjustments, in order to maintain adequate supplies of the different types of coffee at equitable and stable prices, is being maintained. Quota-free exports to

certain countries which consume little coffee will be continued in order to develop new markets, but control measures are to be strengthened.

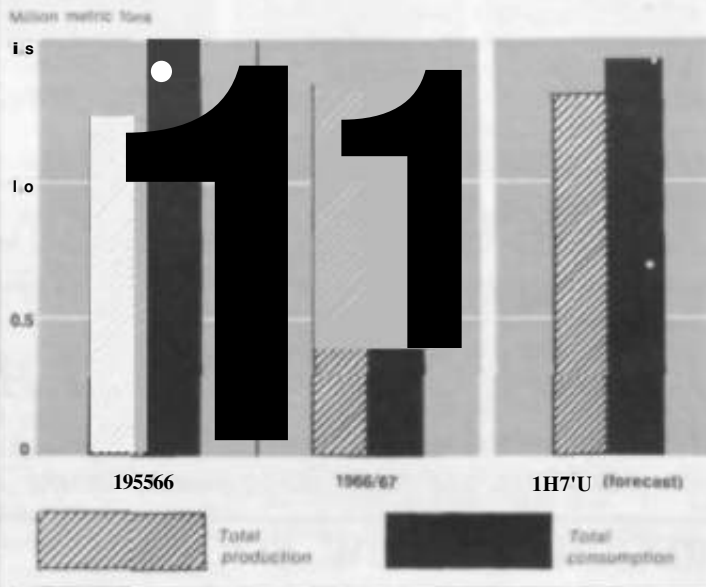
The long-term problem of coffee supplies is to be tackled by the establishment, before the end of 1968, of production goals for the 1972/73 coffee year and by setting up a diversification fund to help producing countries become less dependent on their coffee crop.

metric tons for the calendar year 1968. a slight increase over the revised figure of 1,389,000 for the previous year.

Europe and the U.S.S.R. will account for nearly 750,000 metric tons of this estimated total, followed by North and Central America with a consumption figure of nearly 350,000 metric tons.

For the third year in succession production has been more than 300,000 tons below the record crop of 1964/65.

World production and consumption of cocoa



COCOA

Consumption higher than production

World production of cocoa in 1967/68 is forecast at 1,308,000 metric tons, slightly down from the revised estimate for the preceding crop year of nearly 1,347,000 metric tons, according to the committee on statistics of FAO's Cocoa Study Group, which met in Rome in April.

Africa is expected to produce the lion's share, more than 950,000 metric tons, followed by South America with slightly more than 230,000 metric tons.

World grindings (consumption) are forecast at 1,419,000

The trend in grindings is still upward, despite an apparent stagnation of demand in some of the major consuming countries.

Consumption has been rising over the past nine years. At the present time world reserves do not represent more than two months production. Up till now the imbalance between production and consumption has been corrected by the record crop of 1964/65.

Prices rose again during 1967. During UNCTAD 2, the principal producing countries — Ghana, Ivory Coast, Cameroon. Brazil and Nigeria — went some way toward a possible price agreement with the principal consuming countries.

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I • It inion

seeing beyond one's nose

Front an editorial by Bernard Hoilowood
in Punch-

...It should be fairly obvious that the strength of the rich countries lies in their economic versatility — their ability to switch labor and capital resources quickly to meet the needs of the market.

If the world wants color TV, then the west rejigs industry to supply it. If the world wants pills or sporting equipment or man-made fibres, then the west shuffles its labor around and turns out the goods, at fancy prices.

The underdeveloped nations, on the other hand, have no such opportunities. They have the know-how to produce only a very restricted line of raw materials and agricultural products.

The west encouraged these countries to produce nothing but cocoa, tea, coffee, rubber, rice, coconuts and so on; encouraged them by guaranteeing to buy heavily. But no price was found, and the guarantee usually promoted overproduction. So the poor nations are left with a rigid economy utterly dependent on the market for their subsistence. They were, and are, in the pocket of the rich.

The past few years have demonstrated that communities which are encouraged to put their trust in a narrow range of products are extremely vulnerable, and at the mercy of the rest of the world.

Even Kuwait, the dominant power on earth, is anxious; any scientific development that puts oil in the background would automatically convert the people of Kuwait to the primitive desert nomads they were thirty years ago.

Underdeveloped and underdeveloped nations must be helped to diversify, to include native and to compete with the west in the production of manufactured goods. And the west, responsibly for their present plight, has a duty to provide them with

the means to accomplish this diversification.

The west has now to decide whether it is prepared to allow millions to dwindle to the acute poverty by refusing to sacrifice an insignificant fraction of its standard of living, or whether to tap up its resources to a level that will make the process economically viable.

It is not an easy choice, for governments survive only when they please the pockets of (the electorate and the electorate, almost everywhere, is so stupid and selfish that it cannot see the end of its nose.



stoking our own fires

From an address by M. Moukoko Nguema,
Minister of Finance in the Republic of
Mali, at USCTAO 2.

...I approach this problem from an angle which is likely to be rather disagreeable. I feel an obligation for us, the developing nations, to look at ourselves just for once, frankly and critically. Especially in this august assembly, for our conference cannot be the forum for criticising (sometimes perhaps rather superficially) only those countries which have developed.

It is certainly legitimate (and indeed "good form") to require industrialized nations to observe the rate of the game of international trade. But what have we done ourselves to facilitate trade within our own regions? Our products are subject to the discriminatory system of tariffs and taxes, even though they are not competitive; and although our periodic meetings (at least so far as west African states are concerned) are ostensibly to harmonize our legislation on tariffs and taxes, they almost invariably end in admissions of deadlock — and therefore in failure.

And what is happening to economic and industrial collaboration? We have enough tobacco and match factories to supply the whole of Africa! We all have textile industries — but sometimes no cotton; lots of slaughterhouses and cold-storage facilities — but very often

no livestock; lots of sugar refineries, but scarcely ever any cane sugar. Or again, what is there to be said for the proposal to set up an iron-and-steel industry at subregional level, when it appears that no final agreement has yet been reached among the countries concerned?

There you have a description in broad outline of the present state of economic cooperation among the countries of west Africa. It is truly disappointing as any platitude.

My country's position in this matter is anyway quite clear and unambiguous. We, in Mali, hold that economic cooperation between underdeveloped countries (such as our African countries) can bear lasting fruit only insofar as it is based upon a partnership of peoples who are fully conscious both of their rights and of their obligations, and who are resolved to make mutual concessions in order to ensure that each participant enjoys his fair share of real advantages accruing from projects which are jointly put in hand.

We hold that such cooperation should not be confused with a vague association for mutual aid or solidarity, whose motive principle is one of brotherliness or "fraternalism," quite as dangerous as any paternalism since it will only confirm the wealthier partner in the privileges which he already enjoys. Still less with any division of labor between nations on a regional or subregional level, which would have the effect of crystallizing the inequalities bequeathed by the colonial system and which would run the risk of finally and permanently condemning certain countries to being nothing but markets for the others.

change of heart

From an address by Professor I. Ma yane
Stycox to a meeting on population problems in Latin America

...Although (the intensity of effort varies greatly from country to country, at the present time) Latin American and Caribbean governments provide some degree of support to family planning programs.

In 1967, the International Family Planning Federation spent more in the

Latin American region than in all other regions combined. In this same area, AID (Agency for International Development) during 1965 and 1966 invested in family planning campaigns double the amount it had spent in other continents on similar programs.

The rapidity with which this situation has come upon us is as remarkable as the fact that it has occurred at all. In 1960 there was only one private group dedicated to family planning in the whole of Latin America; that was in Mexico and was run by North Americans. In 1967 only three nations lacked such programs: Nicaragua, Haiti and Bolivia.

pro and con modern technology

From an article by Gerard J. F. published in Scientific American, in the Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists.

...The hordes of underemployed people in the countryside and of the plain unemployed in the squatter cities have encouraged the idea that development programs should call in labor-intensive technologies. A strong case can be made for the opposite strategy.

In the first place, there is a generation or two of labor-intensive work to be done in every pre-industrial country on the infrastructure of ports, rails, highways, housing and buildings.

When it comes to the productive apparatus, on the other hand, this ought to be the most advanced developments in science and technology. The model is the petrochemical plant, with two operators at a control panel.

Highly portable, easily installed, makes less demand on local human resources, and operates at the same efficiency independent of local conditions whether in Galveston or Kinshasa.

In sum there is no reason why, with adequate capital and technical assistance from outside, the prospective new steel industry in Chile should have to evolve through the beehive coke oven and backyard blast-furnace phase. Ideally, it should install direct reduction and continuous casting at the outset.

The application of science and technology to development may, therefore,

offset and reverse the forces that tend to widen and deepen the gap between the rich and the poor...



two halves
make a whole

From an interview with Edgar Faure, French Minister of Agriculture, appearing in *Enterprises*.

An effective global plan of aid to the third world is almost impossible without real international cooperation.

It would seem to be very difficult to effect an operation of this magnitude without complete international cooperation, embracing both east and west, both market and centrally planned economies.

It would be difficult to obtain the unilateral consent of either camp to an equal contribution of its gross national product for aid; difficult, in other words, to conceive of such a plan from the point of view of the recipient rather than that of the donor.

why call it aid?

From an article by Taya Zinkov in the Daily Telegraph.

When the Italians lend money at 6% interest, they call it aid. When the Japanese pay reparations, they call it aid. When the British pay tiresome colonies money to go away, they call it aid. When the French provide money for African countries to "buy" Frenchmen with, they call it aid. When an oil company finds oil, that too is aid.

This is all very odd. Aid, as the name denotes, is charity-helping the less fortunate than oneself. To lump private investment, or reparations, or aid done, under the aid label is a misnomer.

The reason for this misnomer is quite simple. The developed countries have all been bulldozed at the United Nations

in to promising to hand over to the developing countries 1% of their national income. Except for the French, they have no intention of making such enormous gifts. For the United Kingdom it would mean over £ 300 million a year, much the same sort of money as is at present splitting the government. So, naturally, the developed countries put everything into the aid rag bag: gifts, soft loans, hard loans, military assistance, technical assistance, suppliers' credit, re-scheduling of debts, anything they can rake up.

The western voter, told that he is providing 1% of his income in aid, sees himself as a Galahad. The Pakistani landlord, who finds himself paying 6% on a seven-year loan and then 20% extra for his generator became the supplier knows that he cannot go shopping around, leaving the Galahad as a Shallock.

The story of aid is littered with nonsense! Russian snowplows for Guinea, which has no winter; a refrigerated van for Iran meant for vaccines, but used to bring caviar up from the Caspian instead; Russian arms for Indonesia used to kill Communists; IMF loans for Argentina accompanied by such inappropriate advance that the national income went down.

If such nonsense is to be avoided, three rules have to be adopted. First, business must be separate from charity, Second, the donors must get together. And third, they must be prepared to tie very tough strings round their aid...

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If there is disillusionment with technical assistance it is largely because of ill-planned and uncoordinated ventures of national, bilateral and multilateral aid.

Here is a significant attempt at a global plan for development

The way out of the labyrinth

by JAM TIMBERGEM

Everyone knows that our world is becoming smaller and smaller. We can now reach Tokyo, or Santiago, from Europe in about 18 hours, half the time it took ten years ago. Every year some 15% more people fly and in some countries they have never seen before. Even more people do not fly, although "it is cheaper than you think," but they see other people coming into their countries. They see something of the way of life and prosperity of the people who can afford to fly: they see things they would like to have themselves.

For an even longer time many have known that their living was dependent on what distant populations bought from them. The Brazilian coffee planter and his employees know it. The metalworkers of Europe know that they earn part of their income because of diesel engines constructed for Argentina or India. The Japanese know that they must build ships (or Europeans, and so on. Without such mutually dependent relationships incomes would be quite a bit lower.

There was a time when ruling groups everywhere thought that economic life could best be led by itself, and that free enterprise and free competition would automatically lead to the best of all possible worlds. But this is no longer believable for we have seen too many misfortunes resulting from free enterprise: unequal incomes, misery for the unemployed, the sick and the old; recurring crises with mass unemployment; fluctuations in the prices of coffee, cocoa and rubber; the richer countries becoming richer at a faster pace than the poorer countries.

We have known that freedom is only fruitful within a controlled framework. Income tax and social insurance were introduced to eliminate the extreme of poverty. Budget

policies were enacted to counteract economic cycles. Markets were regulated so as to reduce the most violent price fluctuations. A very modest start has been made in transferring income from the rich to the poor countries rather than the other way round. We now have a complex system of state intervention which freedom can exert its stimulative influence without unduly damaging human relations.

It is mostly the national governments who are organizing taxation, market regulation, social insurance and so on. National governments are the most important power centers. Power has a tendency to shift from local, state or provincial authority to federal or centralized authority.

Recognizing the need for world order

The economic intervention systems of social and economic intervention are increasingly complex to require careful preparation, which we now call planning. Preparation is needed if a complicated mechanism has to be changed. This is especially so if changes are needed within long-term processes. A long time is required to build a dam and, if a start is not made on time, there may be a long period without electricity or with inadequate water for irrigation. Education also takes a long time. If the right educational facilities are not created when they are needed, then there may be too few engineers five or ten years later on.

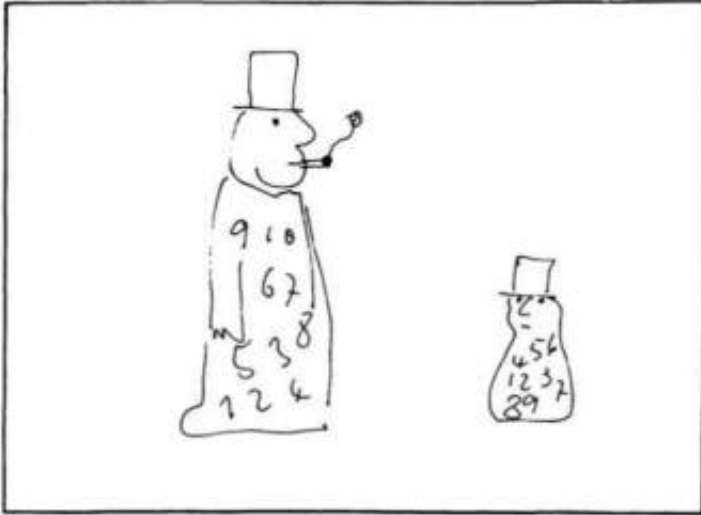
We must look ahead. We must set ourselves targets in order to check the efficiency of our policies. We must coordinate the actions taken by various groups, organizations or ministries so that they fit together. When the factory is created, the machines must also be ready for installation; the roads and trucks to transport both raw materials and finished products must be available; housing for both the workers and engineers must be built. A great many factors often have to be accommodated into a balanced system. This is why planning has been accepted not only in eastern Europe and main-

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and China, but in every large industry and by almost all governments.

National governments claim to be autonomous in many respects. While single citizens have to behave according to the many laws of the country — and law and order has taken the place of the jungle familiar from Westerns or from history books (at least, in a majority of countries for a majority of the population) — national governments claim the right of the strongest, "right or wrong, my country."

Somewhat wiser men have shown us that many disasters have been caused by this attitude. Other disasters will follow unless we recognize the need for international order. But governments, and their parliaments, are changing their attitudes very reluctantly. We found that wheat prices could only be



"A very modest start has been made in transferring income from the rich to the poor countries, rather than the other way round... if we do not enter into a state of war with poverty we may find ourselves involved in other kinds of war"

kept under control if there was an international wheat agreement which both governments and producers had to obey. We have discovered that trade policies cannot be left to the jungle, and we now have GATT, UNCTAD, common markets and the like under construction. But still, on so many occasions, governments behave like bad little boys.

We now have international institutions whose task it is to regulate on a worldwide basis what cannot be left uncontrolled. The International Labour Organisation and the Food and Agricultural Organization are among the most venerable of such institutions. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the International Monetary Fund were created after the second world war, prior to the central organization, the United Nations itself. There are others, Unesco, UNIDO, the World Health Organization and so on: they are the beginnings of what we must hope will, sometime, be the ministries of a world government. But be careful not to say so; for a large number of governments will show their bad-boy mentality. For the time being such international bodies have more modest duties which they carry out very well.

We are discovering the need for coordination at the world level, for looking ahead so that the pieces can be fitted together more precisely. This has brought us to the beginning

of global planning, FAO is a pioneer: its Indicative World Plan is the first such attempt, the prototype version of which will be ready in 1969. The ILO is working hard on a World Employment Plan.

The U.N.'s Center for Development Planning, Projections and Policies (CDPPP) is preparing what could well be called the framework for a master plan covering all such activities. This is part of the task imposed on it by assembly resolutions which request the secretary-general, in plain words, to prepare future development efforts which are an improvement on the present development decade.

I like to speak of DD 2, or the Second Development Decade, as the subject of this coordinated undertaking in global planning. One of its most important tasks will be to create a set of coherent statistics which will enable us, year after year, to check the effectiveness of our operations. In business, everybody is subject to such checks: if someone fails to meet his goal, he must explain why; if he has exceeded the target, so much the better for him and for all concerned.

The various international bodies should follow the example set years ago by the OECD countries, formerly known as OEEC (Organization for European Economic Cooperation). Periodically, each country's socioeconomic policy is thoroughly investigated by two other member countries and their findings are discussed in full plenary session: many useful suggestions have resulted from such a scrutiny. We can hope that in the future, at the international level, the performance of both governments and of international agencies will be examined from the point of view of benefiting common interest, that is, that the world at large (rather than at small) becomes prosperous.

The major task of CDPPP will be to set some general goals and to indicate the main ways by which these goals can be attained at both national and international levels. The goals should not be overambitious, because they will then be unrealistic. But they should not be realistic in the sense of being overcautious and without imagination, the realism of the *status qua*. As in every dynamic enterprise, there should be an element of difficult achievement stimulating all involved to do their utmost.

Involved in other kinds of war>

There is every reason to urge the utmost effort. Too often the prosperous countries, and the prosperous strata of poor countries, take it easy without understanding the present emergency **situation**. We are faced with a tremendous challenge. Hundreds of millions of people live in misery: hungry and ill-fed; suffering from disease; living in dwellings that hardly deserve the name, or without dwellings like the two hundred thousand people in Calcutta who eat and sleep in the streets with no more shelter than their rags — true also of many in Latin America and Africa. If we are not ready to enter into a state of war with poverty, we will soon find ourselves involved in many other kinds of war. I use the phrase "war against poverty" to indicate the needed state of mind.

The advantage of having a plan for DD 2 is that we can then **visualize** our "war goals" and concretely define the obligations of all social groups, including **governments**.

But the center cannot do this task by itself. The cooperation of all the specialized agencies is needed to find out what is really possible in the various fields; in agriculture, industry, trade, education, population policies and so on. The center's provisional framework for a master plan will have to be discussed with all the specialized agencies. Changes will be proposed and the center is expected to see that such changes are mutually consistent.

Thus, a complicated procedure of calculation and consultation will have to be developed over the next two years, one of the tasks being to carry it through on schedule. It is well known that one of the most difficult accomplishments is to be on time and to also maintain a SET™: of proportion, to be able to leave out details if the operation can be saved as a whole.

But before knowing what are details and what are not, it has to look into every little corner: this helps to explain the size of some of the international organizations, the large amount of paper consumed, the number of subunits, of meetings, of people. The efficiency of them in terms of international organizations is sometimes severely criticized, often based on comparisons with industry. Some of these criticisms may well be justified and, in any case, their operations should be continually scrutinized for they are financed by the national taxpayers.

Yet, a sense of proportion should guide us and we should try to understand the dimension of the problem. It is relatively easy to efficiently organize a business of fifty or a hundred persons for they can be seen at work. It is less easy to supervise an enterprise of 10,000 or 100,000 employees.

The world as a whole has a population of three billions, almost three thousand million. Think of three cubic meters of



Organizing something in which all in the country of the world are involved means supervising that of 55 by 55 meters filled up with tiny cubes of wood,

Imagine they are turned into little cubes measuring one cubic millimeter each. Now, imagine you want to see all the three billion of those little cubes at once. Spread them out over the floor: you will need a space 53 meters long by 55 meters wide. Organizing something in which all the citizens of the world are involved means supervising that of 55 by 55 meters filled up with tiny cubes of wood,

Not all citizens would be actively involved but, if we stick to a democratic way of dealing with our problems, the adult population would have to be consulted in one way or another. Such consultation would be at various levels: local, state, federal, national, continental or regional and, finally, global. And some such consultation is necessary for we must learn how, for instance, the individual farmer in Asia reacts to new possibilities, to the use of fertilizer, better seeds, more water and new varieties of crops.

The field workers of the international organizations are faced with such problems; they often only really know what is going on "in the field". But it is highly desirable that all the coordinators, and the coordinators of the coordinators, and the coordinators of the coordinators, of the coordinators remain aware of how the people at the grass-roots level are behaving, reacting and thinking. This does result in a network of relations which is, indeed, near the top, appalling in its complexity. Criticism which is not based on a knowledge of such difficulties is easy to make.

A new program for the U.N. family

But let us return to the joint operation of the U.N. family necessary in order to enter the 'seventies with an improved development policy. What I would like to advocate is an operation carried out in four main phases: firstly, two phases covering the framework for a master plan, the main features only; then, two phases leading to the construction of a more detailed world plan. In each case, the second phase would take into account command from the following levels: specialized ("sector" agencies, regional ("geographical") agencies and governments. The framework would indicate the main features while the master plan would cover regions and, in some cases, individual governments if large countries posing major problems are involved.

The complete work should be ready by 1970 for submission to the U.N. General Assembly as the basis of the Second Development Decade: a decade in which we hope more progress will be achieved than is possible in this decade.

This objective is of such paramount importance that all the energies of the United Nations family should be directed toward it.

It requires a state of mind of the decision makers involved which, unfortunately, does not exist everywhere. Our actions must be determined by the interests of the whole, all of us, collectively. We must overcome attitudes of narrow national thinking, of narrow departmental thinking, of narrow individual thinking. The world situation demands that national delegates think in terms of ally and that civil servants think interdepartmentally. A unified operation is what is important, rather than the glory of a single agency, whether it be the U.N., the World Bank or (UNEP).

I know that many readers, blown by the cold wind of reality, will doubt whether such an altitude can be created. Much will depend on the leadership of those directly responsible. The task is far from easy and a great deal of concerted effort will be needed. Let us wish them success in their efforts to be real leaders and let each of us apply the same standards to our own work and responsibilities.

Once upon a time, four brothers lived by great river

Guinea, Mali,
Mauritania and Senegal
have joined together
to develop the
Senegal river basin.

Robert N'Dao, who heads
the four-country team,
talks about this aim

by ROBERT CURT AT



Framed by the doorway, the river stretches away from Saint Louis into the haze of the delta. In his office, Robert N'Dao, secretary-general of the inter-governmental committee for development of the Senegal river basin, envisages the future:

"Down this formidable, wild river flow some 22,000 million cubic meters of water over an average year. It represents a reserve of one million hectares of cultivable land, enormous hydroelectric power potential and a thousand kilometers of navigable waterway. The river is one of the most extraordinary means of development that nature has bestowed upon us. Taming and harnessing it is our civilizational and economic adventure."

The passion of the pioneer sounds in the words of Robert N'Dao, from Mali, a man of a high forehead over a sculptured face. Respect grows quickly for this man who has made the development of the Senegal river (the main task of his life).

It was a long, hard road from July 1962 at Conakry when representatives of Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Senegal made recommendations to develop the potential of the basin for the benefit of Mali to November 1963 at Nouakchott, when the four heads of state of the countries bordering on the river formally declared that they wished to build (the

* Hubert de la Tour, "Journalist, in his staff of Tilburg, Lausanne."

future of [their peoples around the river. A further difficult stretch led to November 1967 at Bamako when Modibo Keita, President of Mali, recalling the spirit of **Nouakchott**, urged the peoples of the river and the political leaders of the four Countries to find "large-scale solutions to our burning economic problems."

After so many other appeals, this anguished plea by a head of state clearly shows that this part of Africa, a wedge into the Atlantic, is in a state of underdevelopment.

All the conditions of long-term poverty are to be found here: the race between agricultural production and an expanding population; the unequal fight against unfair terms of trade; the iron law of international **BMMKrc** which leads the poor into **ever-greater poverty**; the **predominant** Kinship subsistence economy at a primitive level, incapable of providing for a better life; the rigidity of social **relations** and living standards so low that poverty can only perpetuate itself.

Intolerable amount of misery

In traveling through the country bordering on the river it is impossible to contradict the authors of FAO's **readable African Survey** from whom we have borrowed the foregoing lines.

The mask of underdevelopment is everywhere. It marks poverty as a habit and the smallest luxury as an insult. It marks the futility of disjointed effort. It marks the national struggle against misery. Underdevelopment brands the hundreds of thousands of people grouped in tribes along the banks of the river, enclosed in ancient social structures in which power rests upon cattle ownership. It marks the peasants subjected to the vagaries of the weather and to the ravages of disease: to the terrible onslaughts of *onchocerciasis* which leaves whole villages blind; to malaria which strikes throughout the basin. It marks a million human beings condemned to ignorance for lack of **teachers** and money. This frightful burden of ills, due both to nature and to man, weighs heavily on the Senegal river project.

Reliable statistics tell us that the average per capita income of the region, what would be handed out to each inhabitant if everyone received an equal share, is \$75 a year. Try to imagine that on the

first day of the year there is \$75 in your pocket **knowing** that there will be nothing else to live on until the end of December.

Regional development centering on the river is an urgent remedy against all those conditions in which "poverty tends to perpetuate itself." In November 1967 at Bamako, the project received the highest guarantees after having **proved** during the preceding two years that it is indispensable in cementing together the Five States. **Bamako** was an early success, but its achievement required men **to** of the basin, men who could negotiate these first rapids with **ease**, Robert N'Dao, who has been **from the beginning**, sums up the struggle:

"What is so simple is all the **difficult** to carry through. We are **up to** many **difficulties** as

a sleepy administration or national susceptibilities touched on the raw. Nothing is more difficult than to convince people that small, mean reasons stand in the way of our project. Finally, everyone has to agree on the future **use** of the **river** for improved agriculture, power and river **navigation**."

Robert N'Dao first tested the banks of the river and hacked out rock samples in the upper basin as a young geologist. He knows the obstacles nature has put between the present and the future: the ridges that cannot be crossed without powerful modern equipment; the prevalent diseases; the climate which grips the land and bends their heads down to the ground, condemning them to sow too late when the floods have receded, hoping only that the sun and the insects will **lean** the span of their harvest.



Robert N'Dao. "We will struggle without ceasing to improve the light bulb receives electricity wrested from the river, before the floods are controlled and the stored water reaches the cultivated fields."

the founders of the European Common Market; even more because we are poorer. Our only wealth is the future, what the signatories of our birth certificate called the common potentialities of the basin.

"We will have to struggle without **respite** before the first light bulb receives electricity **wrested** from the river, before the floods are controlled and the stored water reaches our first valid plot.

"We will **struggle** against men in an undertaking such as **the** **dam** which is more damaging than

In the close, stagnant air of the delta, men and women live and work very much in this way, as do their brethren in the valley. In spite of government **aid**, a giant effort will have to be made before their condition can improve. Walter Lippman has **said**: "We know now, both in theory and in practice how to replace famine with abundance."

Robert N'Dao, like so many of us, has hope but he also knows just how long the **process** of development will take (to be waged throughout the

Senegal basin: "Great ills call for great remedies. We must break the vicious circle of underdevelopment, in which we are forced to live on charity, for we cannot tolerate such a state of affairs."

These remedies cover the following four points:

— Gouina, a dam capable of regulating the river flow by retaining 20,000 million cubic meters of water. A feasibility study is being completed by a Swiss group who will shortly submit a report on the economic and financial implications of the proposed dam site.

— From Saint Louis to Kayes, a hydro-geographical study of the basin, requested by the four riparian countries, is being carried out by an FAO team under the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) project. Two pilot plots for agriculture will be established in this area under the second phase of this project.

— A study is under way of the Senegal's main tributaries — Fatick, Baling, Baoule and Bakoy — as they cross the Fatick plateau in the upper basin. The discovery of important mining resources in this area has given fresh impetus in the whole undertaking.

— Finally, the navigability of the river from Kayes to its mouth, representing about 1,000 kilometers of waterway, is under study as is the possibility of opening up the continent to the sea by breaking the bar at Saint Denis.

In Robert N'Dao we find a man who is not only a geologist, agronomist and economist but also a river pilot and a guide to the future. We see with him the million hectares of potentially irrigable land, a marvelous reserve of bauxite lying on the frontier between Guinea and Mali, vast rice crops which could be grown as the result of controlled flooding: all these are his achievements. And, since he has the knowledge, he does convince people.

A man's victory

He strengthened his beliefs in the United States and Europe where he saw what others have achieved in irrigation, river navigation and the production of electric power. He is one of those who believe, and who have every reason to believe, that in the Senegal basin there

lies an opportunity for a major African technical victory:

"We are going to set up irrigated plots of 500 hectares each, one at Matam in Senegal, the other at Rosso in Mauritania. One thousand hectares, that's nothing."



"Priority number one ... Gouina dam"

ing, but they will provide a man for our tests.

"The people of the basin will begin to feel that they belong to a region, and to understand the African way of international cooperation. We shall also set up two zones for animal husbandry outside the valley because we must put an end to the frantic search for the last grazing grounds of the dry season.

"At the same time, there will be the Gouina dam, priority number one. At long last we are going to start taming and using the river as a powerful modern means of regional development. All this will quickly follow efficient studies. Afterward, there will be the gradual establishment of a new granary for the world. Everything is there. It has got to be done. And we are going to do it."

Robert N'Dao's faith is nurtured on reason. Like the Reverend Father de Brucery, of ECOSOC's Resources and Transport Division, who more than ten years ago launched the idea of the country use of the river's resources, he

thinks that the new states bound to quickly reach the ceiling of possibilities for development if they remain within their cramped frontiers. To enter the 21st century in force, it is necessary to want things in a big way and to achieve them on a similar scale.

International organizations, who have contributed nearly \$2 billion to various studies, are keenly interested in the regional development of the Senegal river. All the U.N. agencies are anxious to support the integrated project, and this generosity has had to be coordinated at conferences in Milan and New York. FAO, which has a large share in the overall operation, maintains a mission at Saint Louis, whose chief, Jacques Grollet, has acquired remarkable competence in the problems of African agricultural development.

A firm and a firm

The Senegal night envelops the house by the river, obscuring the big map of the basin on the wall, while Robert N'Dao tells us about the interest that the project has aroused abroad.

"Firstly, we had to come into being. But now we exist and interest goes far beyond the boundaries of the river countries."

"We represent a past and a future for those people of the river who have never let themselves be enclosed within administrative frontiers. They are going to help us win the battle. It is a paradox, but they know that they do not know, enough. So they go at it, tooth and nail, to gain knowledge, and they are successful. They must be part of it at all costs, I have lived with them for years. I have seen unskilled laborers become excellent drillers in six months."

Robert N'Dao has more to say about the future. I watch the smile on his face as he talks about new boats, the growing rice, mighty dams, about what will be the beginning of happiness to two million peasants, rather than merely a way of improving production.

And looking at this passionately simple man, I finally understand that he will not like it, tribute and that he would never accept it without mention of the men of Hamidou, Nouakchott, Dakar and Conakry who, with him, form the river team.

Twenty years in a second

A computerized *retrieval* system, part of FAO's documentation center, means that the accumulated experience of agricultural development is readily available to everyone



EVERYTHING PUBLISHED ON THE OLIVE

Art tlocttonic memory gii/os qutcX excess 10 the stored experience OI technical assistance

by **JEAH-CHARIES ABRtU**

An epidemic threatens cattle in ihc Far F.iisi and the animals must be immunized at once. One of (he regional experts remembers that a. similar oulnhijk had been *nucctssSuWy* dealt wiih in Madagascar. But he doesn't remember the formula o(the vaccine or In.iv. it was produced,

A t-able is immediately sent to the MO Documentation Center. By return post, the center sends back micro cards containing information on the vaccine, abstracted from the proceedings of a mceiing held in Rome two years before.

I hi-, il *the* simplest, swiftest and most complete way of solving a problem of this **kJBd**, whether for an Agricultural specialist working in (he developing countries, u student preparing hb degree

thesis or for an industrialist faced with a production problem.

From now on, fAO can supplement the skill of its experts with the capability of *the CiiniputtT* ;jnd the *knowledge of its memory hunk** in which lie the indexed experience of more than 20 *yea*n of technical assistance activity.

" Where there is activity, thetc is paper," cry the enemies of hureaocrncy. Bui in the mouth of Gerard Dubois. in *charge* of the center, il ceases to be a *satirical* phrase. Quite the opposite, for the service offered by the center turns hiihcno useless documents into valuable items.

The pnnoply of administration — notes, nrhiriN **lad UtttmM** — is not an cvij] in itself. Everything depends M

the way it is used: it can be left to lose its value, carefully stowed away in a woollen stocking in a secret drawer, or it can be put at the disposal of mankind.

FAO chose the second road in 1966. The idea first occurred to Raymond Aubrac, a former engineer with the French Highways Department, while working on a project to establish sheep in arid areas of Morocco.

"We lost six months and spent five million francs just preparing the plans for stone sheep pens. There was no wood and we made do with what we had. Two years later I met an expert who, for many years and without timber, had been building stone pens in another area of North Africa that were much better than ours. His plans and reports were lying idle in a drawer at Rome headquarters."

Many experts are daily trying to solve the rural development problem* which have already been solved elsewhere: the waste runs into millions of dollars a year.

The Documentation Center has a budget of \$100,000, several offices in an annex to the main building and a staff of a dozen analysts and indexers. The center is built around a computerized information retrieval system, in which references from FAO'S ISO publications and from two to three thousand documents (out of some 12,000 produced each year) are being stored. This modest but effective entry into the era of electronics has already avoided costly false moves and duplication of work.

The language of the computer

The computer uses a language. It would have been convenient to use the index system of the FAO library, but decimal classification is unsuited to the multiple cross-indexing needed.

Such indexing is particularly valuable in order to preserve and use all the information gathered on assignment. For instance one expert who wanted to find out the home market for wood products so as to ascertain whether it was worth developing forest exploitation in Turkey, completed a thorough study on energy sources needed for the production of power and for heating.

This study is very complete and could be extremely useful but normally it would be hidden in a report on forest exploitation. By indexing documents under a

great number of headings and subheadings, however, the computer will recall this study whenever such key words as heat, energy, power or heating are raised in connection with Turkey.

[The index system consists of "descriptors": words or groups of words, which define, without homonyms or synonyms, the concepts under which information is to be listed and retrieved. Thus, a very simple language has been created; so simple that questions asked of the machine must be phrased very carefully.

For example, it is not enough to **off** the computer what has been published on olive cultivation in the Mediterranean; if it is necessary to add the names of all relevant Mediterranean countries.

Specialized index

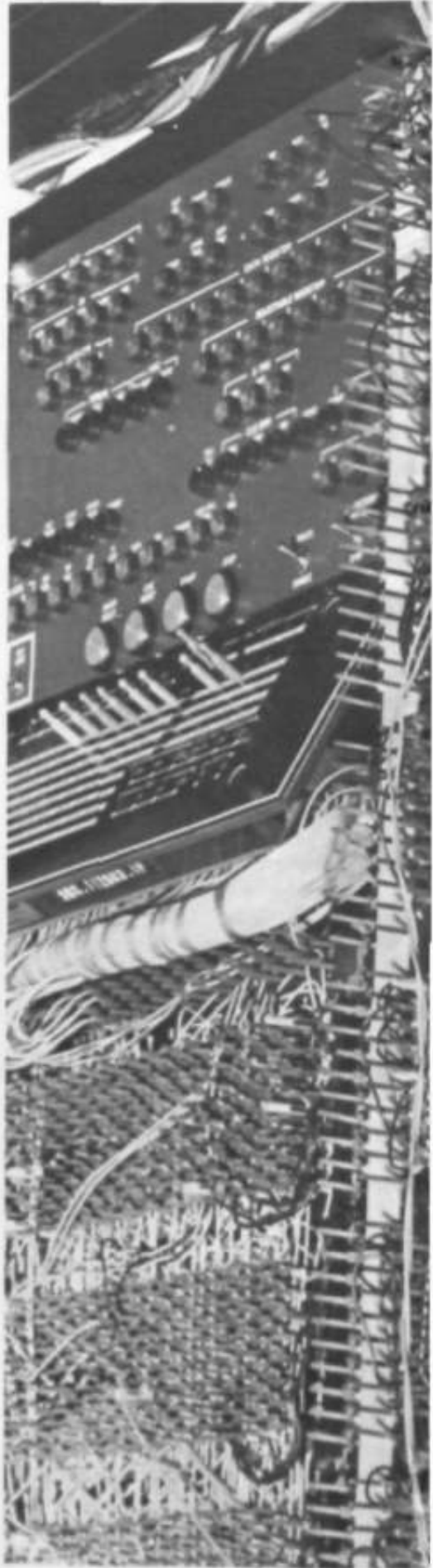
The questions sometimes seem bizarre: a government adviser in Laos once asked for everything that was available on the breeding of frogs. More usual customers are, for instance, a pulp and paper company wanting to obtain details on the industrial processing of certain tropical woods, or a graduate student preparing a paper on nutrition problems.

The reply which comes back from the typewriter coupled to the computer is in the form of bibliographic references. Occasionally, questions that are too vague or badly put force FAO specialists to spend time on research or to ask for additional details.

A monthly index of current production of documents is being published. It consists of two parts: one is bibliographical, containing summaries of the documents in their order of accession; the other is analytical and lists in alphabetical order the descriptors and keywords used in the indexing.

Each month the recipients of the index can quickly spot the documents of interest to them simply by going through the descriptors. Some institutes are already ordering about 40 documents each month in order to keep their collections up to date.

A cumulative index containing a more elaborate analysis comes out twice a year, in June and December. Raymond Aubrac, now director of FAO'S Program Link Division, who helped to establish the center, explains: "The mere listing of entry numbers opposite the descriptor





and Ley words ilocs not, in itself, help with ^lctUin of items, so we decided to produce an analytical index in which descriptors (and key words) appeared in their context, reproducing all or part of the summary composed while indexing "

Selection thus becomes a somewhat easier mil tier. This approach was made possible by adapting a spetitk information retrieval system known • twice (key words in context) for which pre-arranged computer programs exist.

FAO marked its 20th anniversary in 1966. Twenty years of documents had to be stored in the computer's memory bunks. Specialized indexes are being produced which catalogue nil of FAO'S technical documents, covering such Ik-Ms as forestry and fisheries.

Waiching the computer at work processing QBO of these indexes, one sees the tape implacably consuming ihe subject matter at a Me thai K inhumanly fast.

These indexes bulky as telephone directories, are available w ihe public. They are divided into three pans bibliographical; b\ author; and according CO the KWir system. They make up a complete set of references to FAMS entire work since its founding, from nutrition to land reform.

" It all isetnt quite simple but ii his called (or OOntidSftble work, " says Mr. Dubois. " FAO'S technical divisions have grasped its Wflftjnw and helped us grtatly by selecting and collecting document. Sometimes, though, we had to pla> detceiivc. tracking down a veteran who was hoarding the last copy of a document mil of print for nearly 20 years."

Mr. Dubois was not the first to underinke [his kind of search, though he may be the lasl. One day, when FAO was ten years old, one expert became wry angry. He was studying Iraq's natural resources. He asked for documentalinn but received only two small pamphlets. " You are pulling my leg " be Band up, " K this all you have learned in ten years about a country with such fantastic nil potential? "

THE NAKED BRAIN OF THE COMPUTER
An information network wilt som day tink thm continents, drawing upon lha **p*<t*nce of mtiot vrganitatiQns tnd dsstmmaUng this material throughout thm world*

Gut it was impossible to find other documents for him, so he had to (our I he offices one by one trying m lind whil be wanted. To his great surprise, he emerged from each talk with a rpon, a bundle of correspondence, or the minutes (if a meeting, I IK eventual pile of documentation exceeded all his hopes.

Today, all of the FAO documents dealing with a. particular problem are easily available. If they have been published and are available in stuck, there is no problem. If there is only one copy, iL must be reproduced. To this end, the center uses micro cards, each sheet of which contains 60 pages of documents.

Am intmrruntiommt mmtmrork

This is a most economical, quick and surv method of reproduction: mistakes are impossible, and dispatch by airmail is not too expensive.

Requests can be handled for positive micro cards, which can be read on a special apparatus, negative micro cards which can be reproduced at will, or photographic enlargements of the micro cards large enough for unaided reading. The center will soon store it*. OWB archives on micro cards.

" In every country, it seems quite natural to turn to the authorities to timl ihe answer lo one's problems." says Dr. Aubrac. " Aren't the ministries public services? One forgets ull too often that organizations such as FAO are international public icrvioes.

" We are among those best qualified lo solve rural prohlcmv We have one of the finest libraries in this field, the oral BKteatVB doowneniactlofl and a •great nage nr ipethrtbtt. Add to this the fact that we take a worldwide view of such problems. Witte the help of prcsnl-day Iechnical resources, we can lolvt many development dilliculties.

•' We would like the center to rxvt>nilL a luiistm point between bilateral and multilateral aid. Bilateral aid is sonic-times expended in useless L-florts fur bck of knowledge of what • beiQg done etsc-where; we can help avoid this problem. But »c UIMJ hope that it will be a dialogue and ttiit. through our center, multilateral programs can profit by the experience uF bilateral aid.

¹¹ We should like to forge an inter-national netwink covering exchange of

technical problems of food and agriculture. It would have to include those research bodies with long experience in this field from which we have drawn inspiration: the Centre national de la recherche scientifique in France, the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the Tropical Institute in the Netherlands, to name only a few.

"On the other hand, our efforts must also be directed toward increasing the number of specialized documentation centers. Already we have helped to establish a national documentation center in Morocco which will use IAO'S indexing system. Similar efforts are planned for other developing countries.

"Studies on rural development have multiplied in most countries of the third world over the past few years. In many cases the results have not been published and the original documents are in danger of being lost. It would be very useful to collect them together and to increase their usefulness." said Dr. Aubrac. "In Morocco this would involve translating the central vocabulary which has been drawn up in English to meet the documentation needs of HO.

"But one thing is clear. In publishing our indexes, we do not want to add yet another pamphlet to the nearly 2,000 periodicals which already furnish summaries of published articles. Our aim is to explore unpublished material which generally disappears. The vanguard sectors, such as chemistry, nuclear science and molecular biology, are the only ones at present to have indexes of unpublished documents. We think that the science of development is sufficiently important, and in such constant evolution, that it also needs this kind of treatment.

Research results confirmed

"It would meet a pressing need. For example, research has been going on in Morocco over the past 5 years on the local variety of long-staple cotton using a pilot project of 100 hectares. Excellent results have been achieved, but so far these have not been published. Scientists in the Sudan, who have been improving long-staple cotton with great success for half a century, do not know of the work of their Moroccan colleagues. As a result, WHO highly specialized teams have been grappling with the same prob-

lem: they could have shared the job for they are both working in similar ecological conditions."

The center recently published a document indexing agronomic research projects in eight West African countries. The document was prepared as the basis for discussion at a conference on the priorities of agronomic research for economic development in Africa, held at Abidjan in April under the sponsorship of the U.S. Academy of Sciences. These indexes enabled researchers to keep abreast of a similar project*. They confirmed not only the importance of the results obtained but also the need to continue such research work.

Grains in money and effort

Savings in money and effort which could be gained through general application of this method are enormous. In worldwide agronomic research, perhaps 20% is spent on duplicated work: the United States alone spends \$4(M) million a year on such research.

National and international documentation centers, research stations — the elements of a worldwide information network for agricultural development — seem complete.

It is now planned to extend indexing to documents dealing with problems of rural development and food production published by nongovernmental organizations. Here, too, valuable material, the work of specialists, is not being widely enough used and is in danger of being lost. If this project materializes, the results of work by the private sector would be integrated with the results achieved by governments.

Having pushed back the dark frontiers of disease and death, man has become aware of another human failing: his terrible isolation, the barriers preventing him from communicating with his fellowmen.

This is why our century is, above all, the century of communication. To know everything, at once — this is the aim which distinguishes ours from preceding centuries.

As the modest embryo of a giant worldwide information network for development, the FAO Documentation Center meets an important requirement of our time.

A plea for intermediate technology



E. F. SCHUMACHER
give hi* vfawm to Gormldine K*mn*

When you launched the Intermediate Technology Development Group in 1966, where were you aiming at? What made you feel that an intermediate technology was so important?

**A controversial attempt
to increase
the productive capacity of
the two million villages
of the third world**

E. F. Schumacher, director of the Intermediate Technology Development Group (ITDG), is an influential economist. He was born in 1911 in the town of Paderborn, Germany. He worked in India in 1966.

In my view the real problem of world poverty, and thereby the problem of development, lies in the villages — perhaps two million of them. These villages find their populations multiplying; they have not enough land, their present farming is too inefficient to produce a proper livelihood. As a result, people are streaming off the land into the towns. This, in turn, is making the towns quite unmanageable.

The high level of technology that we have developed in the west can only function if there is a low level in the vicinity, and most of the aid effort has gone into such towns. This means that the people

Tanzania says: yes, but...

**Although aid is
both needed and wanted,
the country cannot
allow itself
to become dependent
upon outside sources.**

**The farmer is
the key to self-reliance**

**y DEREK BRVCSOK*

Is a developing country really developing? What fields of activity are being **developed**? Who controls this development and who benefits from it?

Statistics, which admittedly may be quoted to illustrate almost anything, indicate that life, today, is hardly more secure or comfortable than it was ten years ago for the vast bulk of inhabitants of the underdeveloped world.

Governments of the countries making up that world are young. They lack experience of administration and adequate manpower resources for the most fundamental services as well as needed capital and skills for development. Such countries **are nearly** still largely dependent on agriculture for their livelihood and their development: such agriculture being an industry composed mainly of smallholder peasant farmers.

The highly developed countries generally accept that they have a moral obligation, which can, of course, also be **justified** on economic grounds, to assist in the development of the poorer countries of the world; and they do so to a greater or lesser extent and in varying ways.

Tanzania is one of these underdeveloped countries which we hope is developing. During the few years since our 1961 independence, we have gained some experience of the difficulties of development, of the ways to use limited resources and of how technical aid **is** best used; also something of the requirements and hopes for foreign capital.

The government of Tanzania is a socialist government, dedicated to the formation of a true socialist society with ever-rising standards of living. This is a most difficult philosophy but also a most difficult one, as our friend, Professor Dunioni, has pointed out to us.

When a country is basically agricultural, the quickest and easiest way of increasing the national product is through large-scale enterprise using modern methods of production. When a government has very limited resources to instigate this development itself, even supposing that it is the proper function of a government, then it has to look outside itself, and usually outside the country, for such activity.

*Dr M. B. M. O., Urmriy TmtUttd IrffWrf
ft Wifln and Vttmrtrr and thru it(Health
ami Lihir. n tutw Minhtrr of Awuullurr and
Cooperatives.*

who need aid most are simply being bypassed. Can we bring aid into (the rural areas so as to stabilize this position, stop the great drift into towns, do something about unemployment and banish the specter of world hunger by raising productivity?

The moment you begin to think along these lines, you **asc** that an appropriate technology is required, something very much simpler than the highly sophisticated technology we are using in the west. The term that we use is an intermediate technology.

*What do you see this technology as **being** intermediate between?*

It should be very much better than the nonvubk- technology in the rural areas of the poor countries today. At present there is a gap, a huge gap, between these traditional primitive methods and the high-level technology of modern farming.

Take, for instance, harvesting equipment. This means either the sickle or the combine harvester. What we want is to fill the gap between the two. Something better than the sickle but much easier to maintain and much sturdier **than** the torn hint-harvester

Quite a lot of work is already being done in developing countries along these lines. Do you think that you have something different to offer?

We do not want to be different. We want to tackle a particular aspect of the problem that is **generally** neglected. Poverty is a terrible condition, though most of us do not know very much about it. One of the drastic features of poverty is that you are cut off, out of touch, unconnected with what is going on elsewhere. There is no communication, and the same methods **have** to be re-invented again and again all over the world. Our main job is to tackle the problem of communication.

In India some splendid solutions have been found **at** an **intermediate** technology kind, but in Peru or, say, Tanzania, nobody knows about them — and vice versa, it is irugru in KM people struggling to find solutions to quite straightforward problems, which have been solved long **ago** **mail** it else.

Further, we have research establishments, **with** in the developing and in the aid-giving countries, **where** solutions have been found using an appropriately simple technology. But these solutions are unknown to those who need them.

*flew tin you **Him** to **bridge** this gap?*

Quite obviously we cannot communicate with two million villages directly from London. Our policy is to set up local groups in the developing countries themselves. We have groups in India, Peru and Colombia. Negotiations are going on in many other places: Pakistan, Ceylon and various African countries.

We want the local group to do two jobs: first of all, to gather information on all the positive work already going on in the country, secondly, to receive and disseminate the **information** that we can pass to them from London.



*•What we want is to **tilt** the gap between the two **Something better than the sickle...***

We try to feed these groups with information in an **easy** **readable** form. Like the catalogue that we have recently published called *Tools for Progress*, **We** are working on specialized manuals dealing with important everyday problems. At the same time we are very anxious to get from the groups a feedback of what (the problems really are.

*What sort of nucleus do you form in these countries? **is** it round a government or private individual who are doing particularly good work in the field?*

If you want to achieve anything in the real world you always look for something that already exists. **KNM** growing point:

a technical university; a group of private individuals.

If you **think** me for a general formula, I would say that it has got to combine the three forces of society. I call them the A.B.C forces: A stands for administration — in this case, government and international agencies; B stands for business, for industry; and C stands for the communicators, the intellectuals, the research people, universities and so on.

*Setting up these groups is clearly the first step. The next, presumably, is to **sift** and **sort** out the information you **receive** and **to** issue publications which **can**, in turn, be used by the groups, **is** Tools for Progress *typical* of what you are seeking to do in this direction?*

I think it is. We have been talking for some time about the appropriate equipment for these two million villages. I suppose you naturally said to us: "Well, **where** is it? Has it still got to be invented? Who is manufacturing this type of equipment?"

We started with British industry and found that what we consider appropriate equipment is being produced, commercially, today. There is no need to invent it: there is no need for new designs. No one had hitherto gathered the information into a catalogue which could be easily used by people in the field to find out what they wanted.

The catalogue lists manufacturers who are producing down-to-earth equipment. It contains the names of British manufacturers who are prepared to help with the production of this type of equipment abroad, either as a joint venture or under license. Where a certain product has gone out of production in Britain, because the market for it is no longer large enough, **the** manufacturer has offered to make his blueprints available to anyone interested in setting up production in a developing country.

*What sort of nucleus do you form in these countries? **is** it round a government or private individual who are doing particularly good work in the field?*

We are now becoming more specialized. Our most important project is an **intermediate** publication dealing exclusively with low-cost methods. There is a **wide** range of building **techniques** but a

director of education, for example, who has to build 50 schools or 50 houses for teachers, has very little information to help him choose between the alternatives, particularly on really low-cost possibilities.

We are assembling a manual which will present a complete view of the alternatives that are available.

Another subject on which we are actively engaged is water supply and storage. A large number of the developing countries are arid. Water is the beginning of everything. Until this problem is tackled, no development-effort can get off (the ground. Here again, a great deal of knowledge exists in highly scattered form. Our aim is to bring it together into a low-cost brochure.

There are many simple possibilities which could make a very real impact at the village level. The rainwater catchment tank, for instance, has aroused great interest in Botswana. Two of them have already been built and we are negotiating at the moment to get the very simple technique involved taught in primary schools throughout the country.

The introduction of simple tools and equipment could have an immense impact on village problems but this impact can only be felt in the world total if you can reach several hundred million people in the rural sector. The task is huge. Do you let yourselves working closely with government and international agencies?

Time is getting very short. We must use every means available and must work with everyone who is prepared to work with us. The international agencies are doing excellent work, but they are large and bureaucratic. There are many things which they cannot do because it would be tactless. They cannot easily initiate action and very often must wait for the local people to ask them for help. We are extremely anxious to work with them and have so far been quite successful but we will not wait for them.

The network that is coming into being is a network of groups of individuals who really want to do something about the development problem and want to do it now.

We cannot, of course, reach two mil-

lion villages in one throw but we can reach people who are really concerned about the problem and we have to hope that there will be some snowballing effect.

We are trying to supplement our activity on the commercial side by getting people to tackle the trading aspects and also the question of credit. Credit is a major problem in poor villages and there is very little one can do about it from London. But, at least, when we get people interested in appropriate equipment we now have good banking contacts, JOM who will help with the financing.

I do not think that a small private group like ourselves can solve the world's problems. But I think that through out work people are now becoming much more interested in this approach. I hope that we can persuade the big agencies to work with us. In this country there are the big money-collecting agencies like OXFAM and Freedom from Hunger. We are working very closely with them.

(Imrity can have an enormous impact in a small area, but there is surely a very definite limit to what it can achieve?)

My answer is both yes and no, I do not believe that the problems of development are problems of money. It is more a question of giving the right kind of help and advice. You can waste an enormous amount of money on projects which are not appropriate to the conditions of poverty as they actually exist.

Let us assume that there are some two million villages that represent the real heartland of poverty today. You can establish a first-class wood working and metal-working shop for £100. One hundred times two million is not an insuperable problem.

It is organization that is, perhaps, beyond us. It is intelligence, the application of intelligence to village problems, that is in short supply. If the advice given is the right advice and the equipment available is the appropriate equipment, then finding the money to buy it is not such a problem.

I think great mistakes are being made in being too generous. People do not value a thing so much if they have not had to work for it. You cannot assimilate any knowledge without your own effort. But the right information can be

supplied free of charge — a form of charity if you like. Our funds are very limited. Our contribution is to mobilize knowledge that already exists and make it available in the right places.

And this is the gap that you are aiming it) bridge?

It is a major gap at an all-important level. Many people assume that I want to do away with all high-level technology. In fact, I am not concerned with this at all. I am concerned with the gap. Can we fill this gap? Because if we do not, then the main aid effort will continue to bypass the poorest and will not touch the rural areas except at a few points.

The scientists and research workers of the rich countries work on the problems of the rich countries. The much less numerous scientists and research



"...but much easier to maintain and much sturdier than the combine harvester"

workers of the poor countries also work on the problems of the rich countries. Our) In a few special cases, often at the instigation of international agencies, the scientists and research workers of the rich countries apply themselves to the very humble and down-to-earth problems of the poor countries.

Our principle is to set up working groups of real experts on a voluntary basis to tackle simple questions: water conservation, transport, fish drying, crafts and trades: to meet village needs, from clothing and footwear to simple processing of agricultural products.

We want to make available detailed background information on technologies cheap enough to be of use and which can be applied on the inevitably small scale that the village economy demands. m

Essential facts on Tanzania

But even if developers can be enticed in, is this really, what underdeveloped countries need? Foreign capital, particularly when it is private capital, certainly in seeking profits which it wishes to export. In many cases it wishes to make the profit in its own home country or even, for tax reasons, some third country. So prices and arrangements have to be adjusted accordingly.

Lorirtg aantrot of thm mconomy

When taken too far, the kind of development can lead to a situation in which the government does not control the country's economy. Rather, the economy becomes controlled by interests that may, at times, find themselves in conflict with the country's own best interests. Decisions may be taken which are logical from the point of view of the enterprise concerned, but which may be damaging to the country, bringing about undesirable political and economic results.

Similarly, though to a lesser and much less obvious extent, foreign aid. We all talk about "aid without strings" and most people in both worlds, the rich and poor, pay lip service to the ideal. But how much aid is truly without either economic or political strings? There is some, it is true, and men subscribe to those who give it, but it is the exception rather than the rule.

In order to retain a country's independence of action it is important, when receiving or accepting aid, to balance up such aid as far as possible and also (to keep the basic necessities and, wherever it can be done, the development of the country independent of it. In other words, the daily bread of the country should not rely on outside factors, only the hope of getting butter and jam now and then.

Independence from these outside factors allows independence of national action and thereby honor and esteem. In an agricultural country, therefore, the government must enable the farmers to be providers of their own bread.

When our first five-year development plan was laid out in 1963, great emphasis was placed on outside capital and skills to help develop all sectors of the economy. Agricultural development was divided into two categories: "transformation," meaning development using modern, usually capital-intensive, methods

The United Republic of Tanzania consists of Tanganyika and the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. Tanganyika lies on the east coast of Africa with Uganda and Kenya to the north, the Democratic Republic of the Congo to the west and Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique to the south. Zanzibar and its sister island, Pemba, are situated in the Indian Ocean about 25 miles off the coast. Tanganyika formerly a UN Trusteeship Territory under British administration, became independent in 1961 and was proclaimed a republic, within the Commonwealth, in December 1962. The Zanzibar government signed an act of union with Tanganyika in April 1964, thus creating the United Republic of Tanzania.



Julius Nyerere, president of the United Republic of Tanzania

Government: an interim constitution of a one-party system was introduced in 1964. The legislative organ is the National Assembly of 204 members. The President is elected by universal suffrage and a permanent secretary of state. The new Assembly met in October 1964. Prudent Juris Nyerere was re-elected to power and in the first session of the African National Union (ANU) members were elected by the country which was divided into seventeen regions, each with a commissioner. Civil servants to hold official posts must relinquish their tribal authority.

Population: 12.12 million (est. in 1967) with an annual growth rate of 3.4%. Population density is 11.5 per square mile on the mainland and 347 per square mile on the islands (133 per square km., and 133 per square km. respectively).

Language: Swahili and English (both official) and a number of tribal languages. Area: 361,600 square miles (937,062 square km).

Land area (in square miles/square km): arable (39,900/99,750), plantations (4,100/11,619), permanent pasture (3,000/9,650), uncultivated (68,200/176,638), forested (141,500/366,435) other (73,100/109,329).

Major natural resources and timber on Lake Malawi (to the south), Lake Tanganyika to the west and Victoria (to the north) partly in the savanna, partly in the tropical forest. Iron, manganese, gold, tin and salt are mined.

Economic development: gross national product (GNP) was \$684.1 million in 1964. Of which agriculture was 31.5%, manufacturing 14.5%, mining and quarrying 10.5%, services 43.5%. Five-Year Development Plan (1964-1969) aims at a growth rate of about 10% per annum.

Agriculture: total production in metric tons: sisal — 221,529 (1966) wigar — 990,000 (1965), coconuts — 7,000 (1965), coffee — 1,000 (1965), cloves — 400,000 (1965), animal production: beef — 1,000, mutton and lamb production: 91,000 metric tons, indigenous animals: 25,000 metric tons, 1965. Forestry production: roundwood production: 1,562,000 cubic meters (equivalent) in 1965.

Trade: total imports — \$179,400,000; total exports — \$140,100,000. Total agricultural exports (1965) — \$137,000,000. Major exports (1965) — sisal (4,288 metric tons — \$34,900,000), cotton (2,615 metric tons — \$24,000,000).

Finance: banks — National Bank of Tanzania, Agricultural Bank of Tanzania, East African Bank, and Industrial Bank of East Africa. Foreign aid in 1964 included \$24 million from the United States, \$73 million from the United Kingdom, \$217 million from the International Development Association, \$28 million from the World Bank, and \$28 million from the African Development Bank.

Tourism: Tanzania plans to spend \$15 million over the next few years on tourism promotion.

Communications: network of passenger and goods road services (2,611 miles/4,204 kms.) is operating in the southern highlands providing link with Zambia and Kenya. Rail and harbor services are part of the East African Common Services Organization.

From the FAO Yearbook of Statistics, 1965, Vol. 12, Part 1, p. 100. Also see FAO Yearbook of Statistics, 1966 and 1967, and the Economist's E.A.U. 1965 Report on East Africa.

ods; and "improvement," meaning development based on ameliorating the basic techniques of the peasant farmer.

It did not take us long to learn some lessons. Firstly, that capital-intensive schemes are also skill-intensive and that we were short of both commodities. Secondly, that we had grossly underestimated the capacity of the small farmer to increase his production given only the smallest of incentives and assistance. Thirdly, that foreign aid, and even more foreign capital, comes in where it chooses and not where you choose.

Mood to self-reliance*

We started out with great enthusiasm for planned settlement schemes, but it soon became clear that there were a number of sociological and economic factors which had not been given due weight: the return from such investment was likely to be long-term and high-risk. This is not to say that all settlement schemes are bad, for we have had some notable successes, particularly in the tobacco-growing areas; but it does show that great care must be taken. Some workers adapt themselves to such schemes better than others; a certain amount of experience is essential before large-scale expansion becomes possible; while certain crops, such as sugar, tea and tobacco, are much more suitable than others.

We learned also that our school-leaving youth looked upon agricultural work as a last resort, an occupation for the failures and the uneducated. Our school system was geared to produce good university students, whereas only 1 in 50 of those entering primary school could find a place in a university. This meant that 49 out of 50 had to re-enter an agricultural society having been alienated from that society and taught that to go back was an admission of failure.

These factors, touched upon superficially and briefly here, as well as others, have led Tanzania to readjust and reform its priorities and to form new policies. We are determined to retain our newly gained independence. This means we must be self-reliant though not, as some people have interpreted, that we no longer want aid from outside. That would be narrow, stupid and illogical. We want aid very much, in many fields, but we cannot allow ourselves to become dependent on it, either from one source

or from a whole crowd of sources.

We seek a position in which anything we really must have, that is essential for our country's and our people's well-being, we should be able to provide internally or else be able to go outside and buy.

Practically the whole burden of such self-reliance falls on our farmers, in the absence of industrialization, mining or tourism. It is the farmers' efforts which must produce our food, our clothing and our shelter. They must produce surpluses for sale abroad to provide us with foreign exchange needed for both capital and recurrent purchases. It is they also who must provide, through their savings, the local resources for local industrial development, and, through their purchasing power, the local markets catering to an increasing range of locally manufactured consumer goods.

Gradually, of course, this picture will change, gradually industry will assume a greater importance in our national economy, and, more important still, in the everyday lives of the people. Even so, a wealthy industry is one which is built on a solid base of local demand. This will mean a purchasing public in the farming sector for some time to come.

What does all this add up to? As seen in Tanzania, it means that we must concentrate on supplying the farmer with the services and incentives he needs. This means on the government side, research and extension in both crop and animal husbandry. It means organization of the transport and distribution system. It means adequate credit under proper control. It means accurate forecasting of requirements for seed, fertilizer, insecticide and their availability in the quantities and in the places required. It means assistance to the farmers' cooperative societies so that they may properly serve the farmer and their organization, so that they may act as a two-way channel of communication between farmer and government. It means storage and crop protection. It means **vaccination** and inoculation campaigns, disease control and eradication. It means advice and assistance on **marketing** and many other aids and services.

And it means, at all times, education and more education. I use the word "education" deliberately because I mean more than just explanation, although explanation is very important in itself as part of the education process.

It is not simply the farmers who need educating but also government. Far too many people working in, and for, governments are unrealistic and impractical. Too often they lie comfortable and snug in their central cocoon, too ready to solve problems on paper without asking advice from those who have experienced the problems at firsthand. This applies perhaps even more to the U.N. agencies because their headquarters are even further from the reality of the field than most central governments. Education must be a two-way traffic of information.

It is important that technical aid should be aimed at increasing the receiving country's capacity for self-reliance. Many underdeveloped countries, like ourselves, accept aid which creates a situation in which continuing aid is necessary for the furtherance of a particular project.

Often we overestimate our capacity to undertake certain tasks within a given time. Sometimes this is a financial failing but, more often, it is manpower shortage which is the missing factor. Aid-giving countries would do well to insist on on-the-job training so that the receiving country is more likely to be able to carry on a project after the aid comes to an end.

Tragic waste of effort

This applies to personnel as well as projects: there should be a training element in all technical aid posts as far as possible. This would ensure that a country continues to have a particular job done by local staff after the aid assignment is completed.

Often, technical assistance experts do not stay for more than a two-year period. This is long enough, though, for some jobs and, in any case, is enough to allow national counterparts to be trained so long as they have enthusiasm and requisite basic knowledge. Too often experts come, drift along without proper guidance or a specific assignment, and leave with no follow-up.

There is little enough of the rich world's resources devoted to the assistance of the underdeveloped world; it is tragic to see so much of it go to waste. Such funds would often be far **more** effective if they were made available to the **underdeveloped** country on a much freer basis. Aiding countries like us* their own personnel and their own equipment, *lluv liVc la be able to clarh*

identify the project which they are helping. This can lead to much wasting of valuable time and effort in the kind of situation which is present in most underdeveloped countries.

The delays that often result are frustrating and, because of the changed circumstances, can render the original scheme less effective. Unfortunately, only too often the government of the underdeveloped country involved is as much, or even more, to blame for waste and delays. It seems to be in the nature of

we try to reach the majority of our farmers, to teach them new and improved methods and to introduce them to new varieties and new crops. They provide the channel for credit, both crop loans and longer-term credit. The farmer markets his crop through his society and the society is in the best position to ensure repayment of outstanding debts.

Here, too, farmers can meet together and learn to manage their own affairs and collectively, of course, they may have been their own managers

Tanzania is now beginning to clarify itself. Our job is now mainly teaching: teaching government officials in the Divisions of Agriculture and Cooperatives and Community Development the fundamental concepts of cooperation and how to stimulate and guide the cooperative movement. We teach the workers in the cooperatives, the managers, treasurers and secretaries, to be more diligent and efficient at their jobs. We teach the committee members how they should guide the progress of their society and



Tanzania's economy relies upon agriculture. From left to right: pulping coffee, hawing paddy, and growing tomatoes

governments, democratic ones anyway, that they are unable to take decisions in a hurry. While the reasons for this can be well understood, it does not make the whole exercise any less frustrating to eager officials.

In Tanzania's Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, we have always tried to identify and spell out the job that an expert from outside should be doing. At the same time, it is important not to tie him too closely within tightly defined terms of reference, unless the job is very specific — not often the case in our situation.

One of the main aims of agricultural development is the assistance that can be channeled to the small farmer through the cooperative activity. These societies are the basis of Tanzania's development program. Through them

for years but, during this time, they may have been very largely at the mercy of dishonest and unscrupulous traders.

The cooperative is the organization through which the farmer may invest. The building up of his financial reserves by primary processing of his crop, later to more sophisticated investments.

We can show good examples in Tanzania of very successful cooperative development and of failures. The successful ones are generally those which have grown upward from the farmers themselves. Where they have failed it is usually possible to trace this back to the formation of a top-heavy society led by a systematic but misguided leader.

After having had to undergo some rather drastic changes last year, the situation in

took after the interests of their fellow farmers who elected them. We teach the snail farmer what a cooperative should be and how it can help him.

This is quite a job. Luckily it is not necessary in the case of all societies, but the job is urgent and sufficiently widespread to mean that all our resources are stretched to the limit. As each society becomes stronger and more efficient we try to expand its activities into more and different fields: from marketing, transport, storage, processing, provision of credit and simple farming requirements to the sophisticated cooperative.

This is the development path that we have chosen, for we believe that it can fulfill our aim of creating a society in which there is equal opportunity for all and a fair return for labor.

Low incomes in the high Sierras

**A young Dutch agronomist helps
to introduce fertilizer
to Ecuadorian subsistence farmers
as a short-cut
to higher crop yields
and cash returns**

by FLORITA BOTTS

More than half of Ecuador's five million people struggle for an existence on the bare, high slopes of the Sierra region.

These highlands are occupied by people of pure, or nearly pure, Indian ancestry, speaking Quechua, language of the Incas, and living in a subsistence economy.

So great is the pressure for land that potato and maize-growing are carried on up to 4,000 meters. Higher still, sheep graze the grass-covered slopes.

It is a paradox that people are so numerous and land is so scarce in this mountain region while, in the fertile coastal belt, there is plenty of land but little labor to produce the cocoa, coffee, bananas and rice which, together with sugarcane and balsa wood make up Ecuador's main exports.

More food is needed to sustain the Sierra people, according to the Andean Mission, a national rural development agency who have plumped for fertilizer as the quickest way to increase agricultural production.

Over the past five years some 4,000 fertilizer demonstrations and trials have been carried out in the Sierras by FAO's ItrWm program working with the Mission.

Annet van Heidsma is a tall, well-built Dutch girl who would draw whistles any time she walked down Amsterdam's Kaivtffstraai. Annet, whose swirl of blond hair bestows a marked resemblance to "Ceres" herself (see page 66 at this issue), was born in Indonesia 26 years ago. She was trained in horticulture at Rijswijk, Netherlands, and previously worked as a Dutch volunteer in Colombia. She was brought up on a farm and gets on very well with the Ecuadorian farmers.

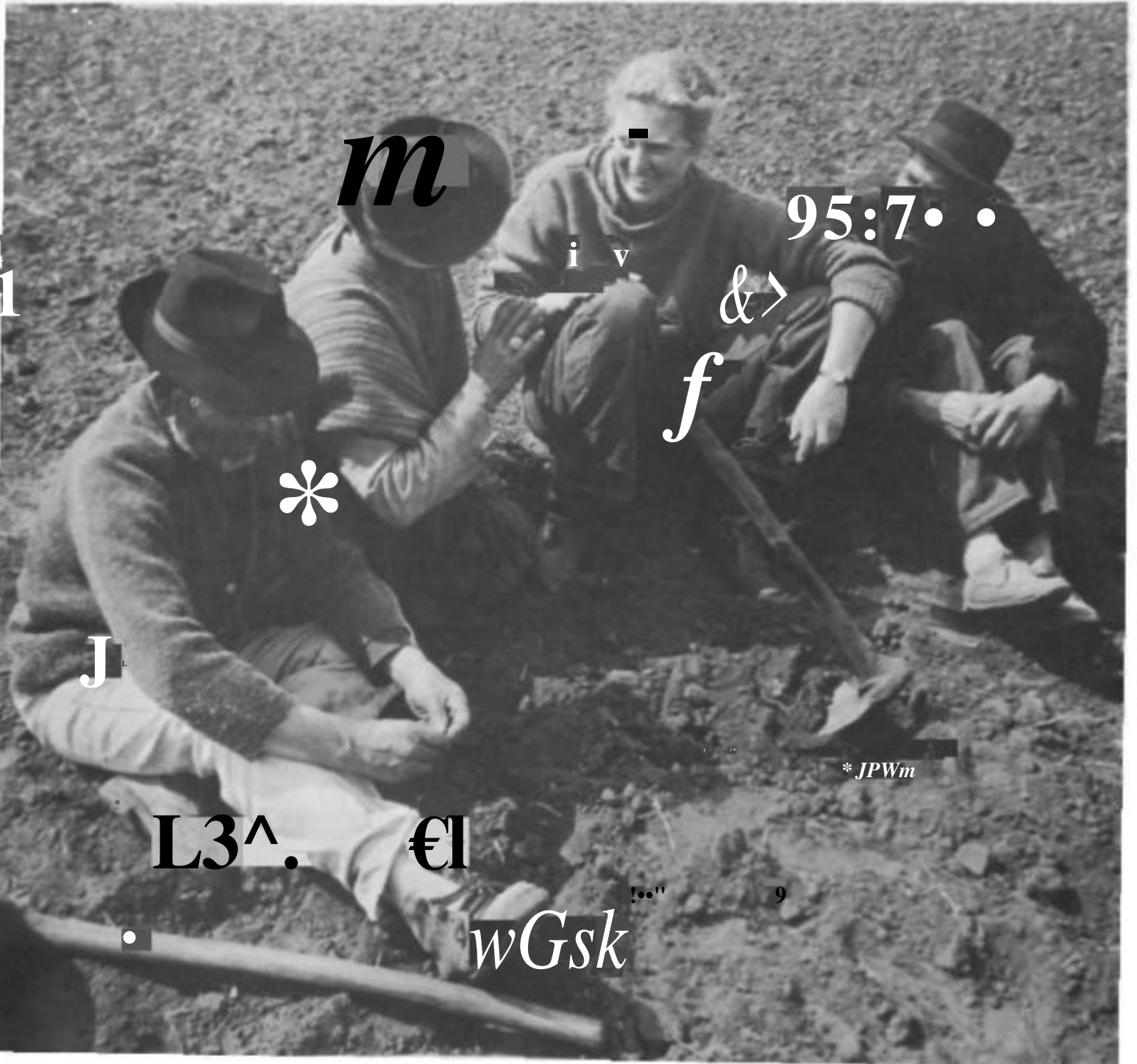




Farmers are canny folk the world over and must be convinced that what they are doing will help them and not a distant politician, local traders or officials.

The first step (below) is for Annet to talk to the villagers before the land is sown or fertilized and to get one of the farmers to allow part of his land to be used for a village demonstration.

Individual holdings are small and these farmers have been encouraged by the extension workers to form their own club where they can discuss mutual problems.





Gaining the confidence of the farmer's
 ** wife is almost as important as winning
 over the husband.

Social workers like the one talking to
 Annel [itow tsff] (each ifw villagers
 everything from chicken-raising to school
 gardens in efforts to increase and di-
 versify the kinds of food grown and
 eaten by the family.

- Some of the fields *ata* a long way
 from the village and fertilizer has to be
 brought in by donkey. This area (*above
 center*) is 3,500 meters up in the high-
 lands: fertilizer, originally shipped to
 Ecuador from a donor country, is pro-
 vided for these demonstrations by the
 Freedom from Hunger Campaign pro-
 gram; *improved seed is loaned to Me*
 farmer by the Andean Mission, the cost
 being repayable out of proceeds from the harvest-

Annet and an Ecuadorian co-work«r
 (*above right*) Explain to the farmers and
 their families what fertilizer is all about.
 Fertilizer is not a magic formula. Annet
 explains (*right*) that fertilizer needs the
 right amount of moisture to act properly,
 and that *it wtrrks best* » used too!hpr
 i with proper cultivation of the soil, im-
 n,pved s*eds and insecticides and pesii-
 cides 10 g^{ar(1 h0} g^{ro*ing crops}



Results in Ecuador have been promising: a 50 to 100% increase in crop yields on the average, corresponding to an additional cash return to the farmer of twice the cost of his investment in fertilizer.

Through this program the farmers have learned the value of fertilizer and the need (or new and improved methods and techniques, like the farmer (*above*) learning to use a fertilizer and seed spreader.

The next step is to make sure that fertilizer is available. So far, fertilizer of uneven quality is on sale only at the larger village. The program is about to enter its second stage with the start of pilot schemes in which good fertilizer will be distributed on credit through cooperative organizations, which will also assure a market for the farmers' produce.

developed countries to speed up their economic development.

This requires a swift and steady increase in their agricultural output, partly for export to foreign markets, in order to enlarge their prospects on the world market, but primarily for their own domestic markets where there is a real and growing need.

All kinds of policies have been designed and promoted to deal with this situation in the developing countries, ranging from birth control (which encounters serious resistance in many of the world's less developed countries) to technical improvement schemes, farmers' economic incentives, redistribution of production resources through land reform programs, wider extension of agricultural credit to new sectors of the economy and improved supplies of modern agricultural inputs (fertilizers, improved seed, pesticides, machinery and equipment), etc.

Nevertheless, the results show that a vast distance lies between what the technicians of the developing countries, using all the international aid they receive, are capable of accomplishing in the laboratory and at the experimental station or pilot demonstration farm level and what the farm population, as a whole, in these countries can do to raise its output, productivity and living standards.

Even with the aid of every thing that has been proposed in recent years — planning techniques, project evaluation, modern technical training methods, pure and applied scientific research — the results, from the standpoint of overall impact on agricultural production, have been slight.

This is because the aspect which is most probably essential to success — the motivation, mobilization and organization of the broad mass of the farm population toward a dynamic upward trend to agricultural progress — has been relegated to a position of minor significance. This is apparent even in the hairing worldwide responsibility for the progress and production of the agricultural population, such as in the case of the United States. And this shortcoming is even more marked in many developing countries where the problem area is not linked with by ministries of agriculture, development organizations or those responsible for the investment funds.

There are several reasons for this situation. Those who draw up development programs frequently seem to be insensitive in the existence of a sort of automatic response between the amount of investment and the quantity of production, as though the economic system operated without the presence of a large number of people from widespread geographic locations, cultures and social and economic spheres who ultimately determine the nature of the relation between investment and production.

Another, often unconscious, cause lies in the attempt to draw similarities between the industrial form of progress, which may be concentrated in a few



OWNING THE LAND IS NOT ENOUGH
At the time of land reform of the Chilean farmers had practically no form of organization

large production units in any country, and the agricultural form of progress. In the latter, operations must be performed by thousands of production units geographically spread over a vast territorial area, usually lacking communication facilities, in each of which are people who tend to work independently. In such cases, the final result depends on the coordination and uniform reaction of all these people.

The mere process of communicating production targets and of assigning the means for meeting these targets to these people raises remarkably complex prob-

lems, especially in view of the shortage of qualified personnel and of the many economic drawbacks in the developing countries.

Until special emphasis is given, at the international level and in the developing countries, to the ways and means of organizing and promoting, of motivating, mobilizing and training the broad farm masses, the present sharp disparity between the technical possibilities for speedy modernization of agriculture and increasing agricultural output, and practical achievements, will persist, regardless of the progress made in applied scientific research and planning technique* and the abundance of financial resources for investment.

This is the great challenge confronting all those concerned with the rapid agricultural progress of the developing countries (politicians, economists, sociologists, engineers and other technicians). Unless it is met, it will be very difficult to make quicker progress in the next few years than has been made so far.

Taking this as a working assumption, we might suggest some ideas which Chile, a country in urgent need of speeding up its agricultural growth rate, has recently been trying to put into practice.

Living conditions with the farmer

The proportion of the farm population of Chile's total population of 9 million is comparatively small, about 25%. In 1964, this farm population consisted of 350,000 families, accounting for just over 2 million people distributed roughly in the following groups: about 30,000 families were large- and medium-scale producers; about 7,000 families were employed by them as administrators or technicians; about 60,000 families were medium-sized family farm producers; some 80,000 families were small-scale farmers, partly living in communities and partly independently, but all self-employed, supplementing their own farm production by doing extra jobs to make a bare living; another 30,000 families were tenant farmers; and about 140,000 families were wage earners of various types, usually employed by the large- and medium-sized landowners.

In Chile, the first problem arising when the land reform process was begun in 1965 was the physical impou-



From isolation to unity

The
achievement of
the Chilean farmer



toy JACQUES CM0HCH01

One of the basic problems facing the developing countries throughout the world today is the need to accelerate production of food and other agricultural commodities in order to meet the rising demands of their domestic markets.

Jilquo Chonchol is the executive vice-president of Chile's National Institute for Livestock Development. He has written several books on land reform and economic development in Latin America including *El Desarrollo Económico de América Latina y la Reforma Agraria*.

The rapid population increase (due to extremely high birth rates and fast diminishing death rates), the chronic and often acute undernourishment of large sections of the population, the improvement in per capita income (thanks to the expansion of industrial and other income-earning activities) and the rising expectation of the masses for improvement of their living standards (resulting from the widely publicized image of the industrialized countries) all combine together to create a pressing need for the less de-

bility of even establishing contact with these large farm masses which were supposed to be the subject of the reform.

Up to that time, the only organized groups consisted of the large landowners belonging to agricultural associations. These were actually social and economic pressure groups influencing the state authorities and the rest of the farmers. Traditionally, they considered themselves the legitimate representatives of the country's agricultural interests,

Thraa motivating forces

Yet, despite its power and influence, this type of organization included less than 2% of the country's rural families. The other 98%, particularly the large mass of agricultural wage earners and small independent farmers, had practically no form of organization, although the existing laws theoretically provided possibilities for the establishment and operation of agricultural workers' unions and farmers' cooperatives.

These conditions led to the need to seek simple, rapid methods to promote the accelerated organization of the farm sector and to endow it with the resources and ability to play a dynamic role in the progress of the nation as a whole. This was an indispensable first step toward arousing an awareness of progress.

This farm population had an illiteracy rate of over 50% in some areas and average literacy ranged between 30 and 40%. Also, the isolated way of life and cultural values imposed by the dominant members of society fostered an attitude of profound individualism. It was found to be impossible to motivate organization of the farmers by **abstract** concepts of the advantages of mutual aid and solidarity, cooperative action, or farmer participation in the **social** power structure through organizations, etc. Therefore, it was essential to discover some simple, concrete ideas that could be readily grasped by the masses and would encourage them to organize, allowing, of course, for the specific situation of each farmer group.

Under the conditions existing in Chile, these motivations took the following forms; for wage earners — the organization of a union as an instrument of claims to social rights (better wages and working conditions, due observance of

the social legislation for the protection of farmers, which the laws guaranteed but which were seldom respected in practice); for the small independent farmers — credit facilities (membership in a small farmers' committee or a farm cooperative was established as a basic condition for loan eligibility under the programs for extending credit to these sectors); and, for both these groups — opportunities for obtaining cheaper provisions of their main consumer goods (through the organization of consumer cooperatives capable of supplying their members at lower cost than the traditional traders in the rural areas).

These three ideas: labor union demands; access to credit formerly unobtainable for lack of the traditional security required by the banking system; and cheaper consumer goods, proved to be simple enough and easily grasped by the farm masses. They were quickly organized, in only three years, into basic rank-and-file associations composed of families (between 20 and 200 families in each).

This first phase of organization has, itself, led to another advantage: the establishment of a milieu from which new farm leaders can arise. In the traditional, unorganized and individualistic community there were no such leaders because their emergence was physically impossible. The only leaders were the dignitaries (the large landowner, the local trader and the most highly educated person) who, as a **rule**, based their power and leadership on exploitation of the farm masses because they had greater opportunities for communication with the rest of the country's economic, social and political structure (the authorities, the banking system, wholesalers, members of parliament, etc.).

*Emergence of new leader**

Thus, as these new basic community groups began to organize (cooperatives, labor unions, small farmers' committees, etc.) it became immediately possible for new leaders, more genuinely representing the farm masses, to emerge and become capable of replacing the traditional leaders.

But, obviously, if the process of organization and social mobilization were to stop at this level it could not be consoli-

dated, and there might even be the possibility of its backsliding to the former situation. In fact, in many of these base organizations which have suddenly sprung up there is a real risk that, as the first obstacles arise, their members may become discouraged and prefer to go back to the traditional system.

A climate of discouragement can arise: if the unions have difficulty, for whatever reason, in fulfilling the hopes their members have placed in them; if some of the business operations of the consumer cooperatives fail, due to their managers' lack of experience or attempts at boycotting by local traders; or if the credit or supplies of inputs the small farmers hope to obtain through their committees are delayed, or only partly forthcoming. The more pessimistic members, or those who are more traditionally minded, tend to spread their gloom and there is a risk that the entire organization may be undermined.

Need for training

Along with the organization process, immediately following the formation of the base organizations, there must be a large-scale training program for the new leaders and the farmer rank and file to arouse them to growing awareness of the significance of their organization, the inevitable difficulties in making a start, how to overcome them, the requirements for the organization to move forward, and the long-term advantages it can afford as it grows stronger.

This training effort can be implemented through a combination of media: short and frequently repeated courses for leaders and rank-and-file members; audiovisual methods; illustrated manuals; farmers' publications and radio programs. At first, the approach should be primarily social and economic, rather than purely technical. The new leaders must quickly learn the meaning of a union or cooperative: how to manage them, and their possibilities of action within (the framework, or outside, of the existing legislation; the farmers' position in traditional agrarian society and what they must do to emerge from it; the country's real agricultural possibilities, etc.

While this is necessary for the leaders, it also applies to the rank and

fiJe. It is absolutely indispensable to concentrate a substantial amount of resources for several years on this program, especially human resources. It will call for imagination to find these resources and to teach training personnel as soon as possible. It is worth mentioning that in all developing countries a fairly large number of people can be found who, with a little additional instruction, are capable of doing this work. They are usually without university degrees or special diplomas, while many of them may well come from the farm communities themselves.

The need for a new step forward automatically arises as this training effort enables the base organization to become firmly established. This involves a transition to farm organization at a second and higher stage, capable of forming socially influential and economically effective units. The basic farmers' organizations, after all, consist of a small number of families which are not often in a position to provide positive solutions to social and economic questions indispensable to rapid agricultural progress.

Danger of dBpandancy

A few examples may serve as illustration. In the case of unions, collective bargaining at the level of one or a few farms is often impossible, and even undesirable. It must be conducted at the regional level, requiring a federation of unions capable of representing all the farmers of the region. As for the small farmers, as they begin to improve and increase their output they automatically encounter new problems which did not occur when they were marginal subsistence farmers. By this time they need modern equipment at low cost; they must have a marketing infrastructure which allows them to provide their own financing and to keep part of their production, without being forced to deliver it to the nearest trader the day after the harvest, or to pledge it even before the harvest is in.

All these requirements mean that the small farmer needs a group of services — sometimes even facilities for industrialization (milk processing plants, silos, concentrated feed plants, dehydrating equipment, oil extraction equipment, etc.)

— which are economically impracticable at the small cooperative level, and which place those who control them in a position to determine the rules and the profit margins of agricultural trade.

Thus, as agriculture becomes modernized and more complex, and unless farm organizations take care, it will, sooner or later, become dependent on, or controlled by, those who dominate the important technical and economic factors.

Taking part in dovlopment

State intervention, because of lack of resources, administrative problems or overbureaucratic red tape, may not always be able to adequately help the organizations in dealing with these new situations. Therefore, the farmers, without losing social and human contact with those immediately surrounding them {which can be maintained through their base organization), are obliged by the greater complexity of the development process itself to favor the ramification and extension of farm organizations to a second and third stage (through their vertical and horizontal integration covering many more farmers and activities). If they do not they will soon be deprived of any benefits they may have gained in the initial phase. Certainly, this is one of the vital problems confronting the new farm system of technical progress and development emerging in the land reform process in Chile, as in other countries committed to similar methods.

The rank-and-file farmers' groups (unions, cooperatives, small farmers' committees, settlement committees, women's and youth organizations, neighborhood boards, etc.), composed of comparatively small numbers of families living and working in the same geographic area who are all personally acquainted, provide a basic point of departure for the application of the development plans and programs the planners may design in keeping with the country's needs.

Naturally, these plans and programs will never be more than a set of good intentions or documents to satisfy the intellectual concern of the planners and the international organizations, and will not have concrete, effective impact on the country's conditions, unless these

groups participate both in the establishment and, particularly, in the execution of such plans and programs.

The existence of these farmers' groups offers, first and foremost, the major advantage of greatly simplifying contact between the managerial personnel of the development process and the broad mass of farmers. Certainly it is much easier to discuss and agree on action with one, two, three, four or five thousand farmers' groups than with several hundreds of thousands of individual farmers.

Secondly, as the base group itself develops its awareness of its significance as a group, of what it can accomplish and of what is available to it (in terms of resources), as compared to what each member possesses and can do as an isolated individual, this awareness changes the farmers' traditionally passive attitude into a far more dynamic approach enabling them to engage in the solutions of some of the most immediate problems weighing on the communities to which they belong.

In Chile, for instance, one of the typical problems of the small farmers was their physical isolation. Although the main highways and secondary roads are rather good, the third-class or smaller roads (giving many small farm communities access to the urban centers) are deplorable. Farmers are completely cut off during certain periods of the year when the rains make these roads absolutely unfit for transit. The farmers' attitude was traditionally expressed in requests, through members of parliament and local representatives of the central government, that such roads be built, repaired and maintained.

Joining in govornment ottorn

Naturally, since the government's economic and technical resources were small, progress was extremely slow and the main efforts continued to be concentrated on the principal highways and secondary roads. Meanwhile, the farmers continued to wait for the state authorities to solve the problem for them, without shaking oil their passive attitude.

However, they soon realized, through their base organizations, the economic limitations of the central government, but that it could, nevertheless, increase its capacity for action considerably by

making agreements with the various farm organizations. By agreement, the government would supply heavy equipment while the farm organizations would provide free labor (when not otherwise employed in farm work) and materials (rubble, sand, etc.).

As a result, the number of small, new or improved country roads, linking the farm communities with the main road network, increased remarkably quickly, and this work was accomplished at a cost to the national budget which was in keeping with the limited funds available to the government for this item.

The roads, which were the most pressing necessity, marked the beginning. The effort was extended to other services: construction of schools and health centers; irrigation and drainage installations; airstrips for small planes; commodity storage facilities, recreation and community centers, etc.

Strategy of melton

All these achievements show that an accelerating dynamic movement toward the development process can be set off in the rank-and-file farmers' organizations by a kind of cumulative chain of cause and effect. Progress is impossible without these organized and motivated groups.

Another great advantage of group organization is that it enables the farmers to participate in the establishment of development plans: the base groups and the representatives of the government can jointly analyze the farmers' problems, expectations, resources, possible new uses of these resources, the requirements for meeting these needs, and what the groups themselves can contribute to development carried out for their benefit — all in a spirit of action rather than in an abstract way. Plans and programs can then be designed: not only as broad overall national objectives, but as much more realistic goals based on a region-by-region and community-by-community analysis of available resources, existing problems, the minimum requirements and the appropriate forms of action.

Efficient operational plans and programs can be drawn up in a way which are based on the real conditions of the country's various regions and human

population groups and its available economic and technical resources, etc. A strategy of action can be established which allows the plans to be applied in concrete form and adapted to actual conditions,

At the same time, such participation by the base community, in the determination of both national and community objectives with in the overall plan.



SHARING THE DECISIONS
In only three years farmers' organizations were created composed of between 20 and 200 (Million per unit)

creates a psychological commitment that forcefully motivates these groups to play an active part in meeting the challenge.

Chile's experience in 1967, in promoting encounters between farm base organizations and the various state services (agriculture, health, education, communications, etc.) has proved remarkable not only from the standpoint of helping the farmers' organizations to mature, in their awareness of their responsibility toward the development process, but because it has also enabled many of the state services to define their work objectives on the basis of a better knowledge of the real farm situation.

An indispensable condition for continuing the action, we have described is

a clear social consciousness and a high degree of commitment by the managerial and technical personnel guiding the program (meaning not only the increase in per capita income, but also its redistribution among the population as a whole).

These personnel members must be willing to break with many of the traditional society's values, social and economic relationships and forms of operation. Such an attitude means, of course, that there will be a more or less violent conflict between them (depending on their power and attitude to the change) and the influential members and leaders of the traditional society, especially in the rural areas where the latter groups are the strongest and most conservative. •

Unquestionably, the large landowners, the traders (who lived and prospered by exploiting the farmers through both their sales and purchases) and the dignitaries of the local community (who acted as the mediators between the farmers and the authorities and other institutions of urban society, and based their power and influence on this mediating capacity) will oppose any change in the social, economic, and even the technical status quo, insofar as it will signify a loss of their power and influence. And all these groups of dignitaries will fight with every weapon at their command against those promoting change, including, of course, the state authorities.

The state must, therefore, have personnel for the promotion of change who are not committed to the traditional power structure. These people can only emerge from the younger generation, whether professionally or technically trained or simply gifted with an ability for social leadership. An entire strategy must be defined, in terms of the conditions of each country, to solve this problem (ranging from the discovery of people who can constitute the personnel to lead the process of change, to training them and instilling in them an action mystique).

This is a basic problem for the developing countries to solve if it is hoped to organize and raise the status of the farm populations which, in turn, appears to be an indispensable condition for speeding up development, achieving a permanent increase in agricultural production, effecting a more equitable redistribution of its benefits and modernizing society.

White collar research - a luxury

Rejecting the alternative
of 'basic'
or 'applied' research,
the author proposes
a middle way
— 'meaningful' research containing
both sociological
and technological aspects
and aimed directly
at regional problems

by WILLIAM PAYNE

The situation of animal production research in the tropics today is somewhat confused. In some respects there has been retrogression, in others progress. Everywhere there are hopes, dreams and plans.

In general, expatriate staff have withdrawn from tropical research centers and have not yet been replaced by equally well-trained locally recruited staff. Some centers have been closed as a consequence, others are operating on a 'care and maintenance' basis while, at others, new projects are being developed with the assistance of multilateral, bilateral or private aid agencies.

New methods of organizing animal production research in tropical countries must emerge during the next decade. If these are to be inherently sound and art: to assist such countries to develop (their livestock production, it is important that all possibilities should be freely debated and examined and that policy should not necessarily be based on attitudes inherited from the past.

In many tropical countries research facilities were first provided by the former colonial powers, either at special government stations or at the new universities. Private industry or foundations were the donors in a limited number of tropical countries, while (here were a very small number of regional research schemes, such as at Turrialba, Costa Rica, and at Muguga, Kenya.

Generally these facilities were limited in scale and concept. There was little

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cooperation among different centers. OT between research workers and producers in the countries concerned. Often, particularly in Africa and Asia, the major effort was concentrated on the control of endemic diseases, so that only minor progress was made in seeking solutions to production problems,

Nevertheless, useful results were achieved. Many endemic diseases were brought under control; indigenous breeds were differentiated; and an effort was made to select for productivity within these breeds. Useful information was acquired on the effect of environment, particularly climatic environment, on animal productivity; and a start was made in selecting suitable forage species for different tropical environments and in studying how these could best be used.

The need for greater emphasis on training at all levels has now become very obvious.

In the past, expatriate research staff and many laboratory technicians **WON** trained outside the country. The small number of locally recruited staff who received professional training were usually granted fellowships to study abroad.

This situation has created many problems for administrators concerned with the organisation of training programs. At present, there is an overemphasis on the value of academic training and the acquirement of diplomas and degrees rather than skills. At the same time, academically trained personnel have a strong bias in favor of participating in research rather than in teaching or extension work; they consider that research is a more prestigious occupation.

Overseas training has acquired a snob value that is difficult to counter, or to eradicate. *It seems to be fashionable today for the young graduate to have received some academic training overseas.*

The majority of multilateral and bilateral aid schemes cater to this attitude by providing overseas fellowships; competition remains acute while the authority to recommend overseas training **HHttti** titles a subtle form of patronage that is willingly exercised. Most researchers are eager to accept overseas fellowships whether or not they have any intention of using their training **wnc** they return.

There is one other difficulty which arises when biologists of agriculturist

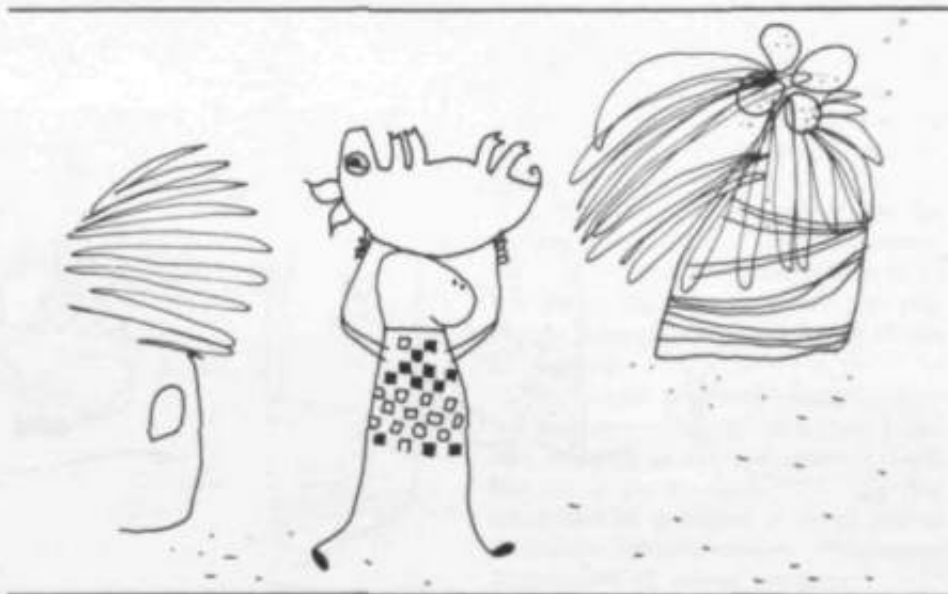
receive postgraduate training overseas: such training usually takes place in an alien environment so that, only too often, the experimental work has little relevance to the work carried out in the national environment.

The need for greater emphasis on training at all levels has now become very obvious. It is necessary to encourage and support training schemes in tropical countries so that adequate personnel can be provided at all levels in the future. It is also essential to assist research centers to recommence, improve and expand their programs by providing expert as-

cooperation between, and often a minimum of cooperation within, aid organizations in planning the allocation of resources for research purposes.

Requirements for "meaningful" research programs on a national and on an international scale should be urgently examined so that resources can be allocated on a more rational basis.

What is meant by "meaningful" research? All too often research is rather facilely divided into two categories, - "basic" and "applied."¹ At present it is fashionable to suggest that any research carried out in a developing country must be capable



"My uncle's right, there's a future in research"

sistance, equipment and supplies.

It is generally believed that the very existence of research institutes or organizations endows prestige on the country in which they are sited. Thus, applications for (the provision or strengthening of research organizations multiply at a prodigious rate.

The number of such **BAimm** which are operational or under consideration through multilateral, bilateral and private aid **urgU&Wtielt** is very considerable. The **EJaled** Nations Development Program has already approved approximately 58 projects, costing \$50 million, in the fields of forage, animal production and animal health training and research. It is difficult to estimate what part of this total sum will be spent on research but it **cannot** be less than \$20 million.

Unfortunately, at present there is link

of immediate application and be 'economically oriented,' whatever the latter term may mean. It is often categorically stated that developing countries should not engage in 'basic' but only "applied" research: because 'basic' research is too costly; because such countries do not possess the necessary resources; or because the research can be more advantageously conducted in economically advanced countries.

This is tantamount to suggesting that developing countries should not think about basic problems of animal production but should concentrate their attention on applying knowledge acquired in completely different and alien environments. The disastrous consequences of these attitudes are already apparent. Government agencies and new universities equipped to carry out control, extension

or teaching functions are encouraged in engage in short-term, so-called 'applied', research that is sometimes meaningful and all too often a complete waste of effort and funds.

The terms 'basic' and 'applied' should be discarded and (the developing countries should be encouraged to undertake 'meaningful' research that might include problems formerly categorized under either heading. Research should be directly related, and ultimately applicable in practice, to the animal production problems of the country.

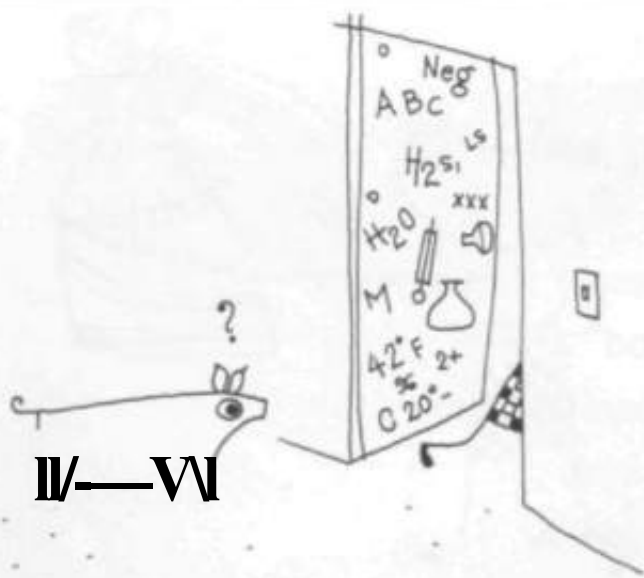
This suggests that "meaningful" research

contemporary society, and to make rational guesses as to what motivations will arise within one or two generations.

Examples of mistakes made due to a lack of appropriate sociological knowledge can be multiplied indefinitely. When long-term livestock breeding programs are organized, it is absolutely essential to select for the type of livestock that producers will wish to raise, and that will produce the type of livestock products that consumers will wish to purchase.

It is of little use selecting for single-purpose cattle, however productive they

buffalo indigenous to the country, the idea being to provide the farmer with a larger and more powerful work animal that will also produce more milk. Though the upgraded animal can undoubtedly work longer hours and produce more milk, it has never been accepted by the farmer; the indigenous water buffalo is smaller and therefore cheaper to feed, it is capable of carrying out the work on existing holdings (which have probably decreased in average size during the last fifty years), and it produces all the milk that the farmer requires (in the absence of milk collection schemes that would



IV—VI



¹ He's got me a grant and bought me my ticket'

¹ I've spent many long months cramming for my extras'

has both a sociological and a technical content: that the most brilliant and successful technical research will not be exploited to its fullest advantage unless it is sociologically acceptable; and that sociological research should precede, or be conducted together with, technical research.

Comm o thm wmtmr hmftmlo*

Sociological studies are needed to keep the animal production orientees informed about what new practices the farming population will accept, not only immediately but — in view of the long-term nature of so much animal production research — for several decades ahead.

It is necessary to know something of the motivations of producers within

may be, if producers will eventually require a double- or triple-purpose animal. Similarly it is no use selecting for a type of animal that fattens rapidly at an early age if consumer demand points toward lean meat.

Improving the growth rate and the size of most farm livestock appears to be an obvious aim to most animal breeders and administrators. However, unless farm size and farm organization are radically altered, large animals may become uneconomic on small farms and the farmer may not be able to produce or purchase the feedstuffs required to take advantage of the growth potential of the improved livestock.

During the last fifty years in the Philippines, the authorities have imported many Murrah buffalo bulls from India in order to upgrade the smaller water

make the production and sale of milk a viable enterprise).

Even if land reform and consolidation were instituted, the average size of holdings radically increased during the next decade, there might still be no place on the farms for an upgraded water buffalo; the farmers might decide to mechanize.

Thus the sociologist has a very important role to play in 'meaningful' animal production research. It is not suggested that all research should be tailored to ensure that it fits in with the sociologist's concept of what is, or what will be, acceptable to the farming community. Technological changes based on research findings may occasionally alter the whole life of rural society. What is suggested is that the sociologist should be an integral member of any research team and that

sociological data should be evaluated before decisions are made as to the form, content and direction of any major animal production research program.

Animal husbandry is an integrated subject embracing many scientific disciplines; therefore, 'meaningful' animal production research must be based on an integrated approach. So often in the past, short-term experimentation by biochemists, nutritionists, physiologists, animal breeders and pathologists has been considered a substitute for an integrated research effort, simply because it was easier and cheaper to conduct. Unfortunately this

farmer in a humid tropical environment where there has been no tradition of dairy farming must know whether he should manage his dairy cattle indoors or outdoors. Once a decision has been made this will guide the whole pattern of his investment, his managerial methods and the type of dairy cattle that he breeds.

At the present time nobody can advise him as to which is the most suitable system. This can only be decided by large-scale integrated animal husbandry experimental work, conducted simultaneously at several different centers.

Is this 'basic' LIT 'applied' research? It

administrators think in terms of up to five years' assistance and a relatively small allocation (if facilities for a very large number of so-called research centers that will concentrate on short-term 'applied' programs.

New tropical livestock management

There are three major environments in the tropics: humid; arid or semiarid; and montane or medium-to-high altitude. Within these three major types there are many microenvironments.

The aid organizations, multilateral, bilateral and private, should cooperate to support and adequately finance six to nine major animal production research centers in the tropical world, two or three in each of the main environments.

These centers could concentrate on evaluating the effect of soil-plant-animal interaction* in their environment in order to find out the most economic and productive managerial systems for all classes of livestock.

They would have to be interdisciplinary institutes employing first-class scientists enjoying exceptional research facilities of a quality and magnitude that could not be provided at small animal production research centers, or university departments of animal production.

These specially selected centers should act as training grounds for animal production scientists from all developing countries in the region, and should form part of a first-class university. Scientific staff from smaller centers could be offered postdoctoral fellowships at the larger ones.

These major centers should maintain contact with all animal production research in their ecological region. They should organize and assist in cooperative experiments so that new ideas and methods evolving from their research programs could be simultaneously tested in a variety of microenvironments.

The value of major research centers of this type would be inestimable. It is likely that they can only be established if the Food and Agriculture Organization is willing to take the lead and persuade all aid organizations to cooperate in an overall world animal production research program.



"At last, I'm on my way home: doctor at ORNITHOLOGY"

splintered approach to animal production research problems is sometimes encouraged by vested interest* in specific scientific disciplines; also by the emphasis that aid administrators place on 'applied' research which, rightly or wrongly, is associated with the idea of short-term, immediate utility research.

There is considerable confusion in defining the requirements for increasing livestock production. There must be adequate information for the farmer, suitable infrastructure, available credit and an efficient marketing system. The farmer must be able to educate himself in the necessary managerial skill* and be helped by a knowledgeable extension service.

Research is required to determine the course along which the extension service should guide the farmer. For example, a dairy

is certainly 'meaningful' research. Such research has not yet been carried out, and is not likely to be carried out given the present situation, because work of this type requires the cooperation of many specialists, the use of large numbers of dairy cattle and extensive facilities.

Or again, we know that under good management in the humid tropics a quarter bred temperate x tropical type dairy cow is likely to be the most productive animal to use, whereas in other areas where management is not so good a half-bred temperate x tropical cow would be the most suitable type. Are we attempting to breed stabilized crosses of this type? The answer is generally no, because this would require large numbers of cattle, very large and expensive facilities and perhaps twenty years of breeding work. Aid admin-

UNCTAD 2

- success or failure?

The outcome depends on the lessons that are learned. The next step: for the United Nations to launch a global strategy for development using the Marshall Plan approach

by JAMEZ STAMOVNt



UNCTAD 2 was considered by few as a success, by some as a limited success, and by many as a failure.

Such divergence of opinion is the consequence of different conceptions and expectations of the organization as a machinery for cooperation, rather than a misunderstanding over the real meaning of the decisions and happenings at New Delhi.

The international economic and financial atmosphere in which the conference was certainly not propitious for bolder action in favor of assistance to the developing countries.

However, there is a general deal that one could say about "joint procedure" and the progress of negotiations at the conference. One must ask what results could have been expected which were not achieved because of such factors. Moreover, before putting the entire blame on an unpropitious atmosphere, this requires some recollections of the origins of the TAP.

For almost the entire two decades of the existence of the GATT, the major trading countries have maintained that the operational aspects of trade and finance could not be handled by a new type of international organization.

They have maintained that they should be carried out in an appropriate framework such as GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade), IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) and IMF (International Monetary Fund).

This was the real reason for the non-acceptance of the idea of the ITO (International Trade Organization), the opposition (to the point of nonparticipation by some countries) to the CIE (Commission on International Commodity Trade), as well as for the resistance to the very idea of the SUNFED (Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development).

The ITO was created willingly. The participants

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to UNCTAD 1 will remember the bitter debates over the principle of "one country — one vote." A reading of the terms of reference will show that the conciliation procedure was elaborated in order to prevent the adoption of decisions affecting the economic or financial interests of the major trading countries without their consent.

Discussion of the Trade and Development Board, preceding UNCTAD 2, on the question of whether it should be a negotiating conference or not, will show that this basic difference over the role of the organization was not resolved.

The major trading countries see in UNCTAD a forum for international discussion where they are open to the impact of dialogue with the developing countries, and even to pressure by them. This process could lead to two positive lines of action in their view.

Firstly, delegates carry home the results of this dialogue and try to translate them, through appropriate parliamentary procedures, into autonomous political action: thus helping the gradual integration of the developed and developing countries.

Secondly, this discussion has a bearing on concerted international action not necessarily operated by the UNCTAD machinery but, in a decentralized way, by IBRD, GATT, FAO and other organizations.

There was, during the year, a slight evolution in this "debating society" approach, but it would be wrong to think that the position has radically changed.

The socialist countries do not regard UNCTAD as an operational agency in the field of international trade. They have repeatedly emphasized the importance of the general and special principles governing international trade relations and trade practices which have met with the opposition of the developed market economy countries. The trade relations of socialist countries with the developing countries are still mainly conducted through bilateral trade agreements.

Whole new philosophy of development*

However, the developing countries are pressing for the transformation of UNCTAD into a truly operational body. This was the meaning of their insistence that the conference be a negotiating conference and that it be a "New Delhi Round," parallel to the "Kennedy Round."

The Algiers Charter* was drafted in this spirit so as to lay the basis for such negotiations. The developing countries recognize that the negotiations cannot take the form of give-and-take, as in contractual negotiations, as the whole structure of UNCTAD rests on the recognition of the principle of non-reciprocity of trade concessions. However, they consider that an agreement on a joint program for development provides a sufficient number of elements for practical negotiation.

But even this type of negotiation did not really get under way in New Delhi, with possibly one exception: the declaration on the world food problem and, in some respects, in the financial field.

This is a matter of greatest concern. The historic mean-

* *The Algiers Charter: a series of recommendations on commodity development financing and world preferences which were adopted by the representatives of the Group of 77 at the Ministerial Meeting of the Group of 77 in October 1967 as a program of action for UNCTAD 2.*

ing of the Algiers Charter consists not merely in the elaboration of a detailed program of action, but in the laying down, in unequivocal terms, of a whole new philosophy of development.

The cornerstone of this philosophy is the recognition by the developing countries that development is their own primary responsibility, and that it must rest upon their domestic efforts.

One cannot help but think, however, that the forces of the past, with their attitude of confrontation, were stronger at New Delhi than those who recognized the new opportunities offered by the Charter of Algiers.

But all chances are not lost. An international conference cannot be judged by its formal decisions but rather by the effect of an exchange of views transmitted to their home countries by the delegates.

Major task ahead for UNCTAD

Raúl Prebisch, UNCTAD's secretary-general, was rightly disappointed that the conference did not pronounce itself on the strategy for development which he expounded with such vigor and persuasiveness. The fact that the conference has not adopted a resolution stating the main future lines for such a strategy should not, however, be interpreted as indifference to this task.

Judging the political will of the conference on the basis of ministerial declarations in the plenary debates, rather than on the basis of expert discussions in the committees, one could come to the conclusion that it strongly supported the main lines of a global strategy for development, and that the lack of a formal resolution was due more to the time factor than to substantive disagreement.

It is clear that the way for elaborating a strategy for development is open and that this is the major task now confronting UNCTAD.

There are several points on which such a strategy could be built:

... the determination of the developing countries to mobilize their own resources and to liberalize inter-trade relations to the maximum extent possible;

... the decision of the developed countries to grant, in general, a nondiscriminatory and nonreciprocal preferential treatment for the imports of manufactured products from the developing countries—there is every hope that the inclusion of processed agricultural products will have its effect in the shift of necessary capital from the developed countries;

... the agreed upon calendar for commodity conferences. It is regrettable that the question of access to markets and a technique for the operation of buffer stocks has remained open, though the outcome of the declaration on world food problems gives some ground for hope;

... the financial discussions leading to an agreement on the yardstick for aid — it is disappointing that there was no agreement on the supplementary financing scheme though it was decided that efforts should continue.

Taking all these elements together, one can see that a decisive breakthrough has not yet been reached; though some basic lines have been drawn up for future action.

The development of an overall strategy should proceed

hand in hand with persevering work on practical agreements in the major sectors: commodities; manufacture; finance; and transportation. Such an overall strategy without concrete action schemes would be senseless, but it should also be recognized that the operation of individual programs outside such a strategic framework would be just as senseless.

The elaboration of such a strategy should rest upon the cornerstone of a joint developed/developing countries¹ venture. It should provide a rationale for such cooperation and should be based on the long-term planning of this cooperation. A long-term perspective would open the way for an outward looking policy and would influence political decisions against concentrating on short-term measures which are too often inward looking.

linking of domestic and international effort*

This strategy for development should adopt appropriate targets in the key sectors of interrelated international economic policies. A financial target was adopted by UNCTAD 2 and some progress has also been made toward agreeing on a target in the developed countries for sharing the increase in domestic consumption between domestic producers and foreign suppliers.

It should not be too difficult, in the light of the present trend, to agree on a target for manufactured products, either in terms of domestic production or in terms of imports, or both. Such targets would serve as political guidelines for the parliamentary organs of the developed countries.

The global and sectorial targets should then, of course, be translated into appropriate instruments and schemes, which is where agreements on individual problems fit in. It is to be hoped that the work begun in New Delhi can be accomplished through a permanent mechanism.

The basic point on which the entire concept and success of a global strategy for development hinges is, of course, the linking of domestic and international efforts.

Development is not only an economic but also a social and political process. There is little use in pumping resources into a country where there is no social change and where aid is dissipated in making the reactionaries and the corrupt even richer.

The scheme of supplementary financing, prepared by the staff of the World Bank, was not adopted by the conference. But its basic philosophy — ensuring the continuity of development plans by new financial action if the trade mechanism fails for reasons which are beyond the control of individual developing countries — was universally accepted. This idea deserves wider application.

Discussions on financial questions at UNCTAD 2 showed that the debt burden and the imposed conditions of aid are among the greatest obstacles to faster growth in many of the developing countries.

The problem of tied aid was widely discussed: while international lending for development is largely tied, repayment is not tied. This leads us into a flagrant contradiction: the developed countries, with considerable production facilities and competitive power, secure for themselves the export outlets with tied credits; the developing countries, already in a weak competitive position, must search for convertible

currencies so as to repay these credits. The way out of the existing situation can only be found through a new kind of payment arrangement.

What is urgently needed now, following the New Delhi conference and in the present world situation, is a new Marshall Plan for the developing countries.

This plan would differ from the first one in being applied through the United Nations and in embracing substantially all the developing and developed countries, both socialist and nonsocialist.

The developing countries would present, in UNCTAD, an outline of their own development policies within the framework of such a plan; just as in OEEC (Organization for European Economic Cooperation — which later became OECD) the European countries elaborated their own plans for reconstruction and regional cooperation. These national plans would then be supported by correlated international measures.

Such a procedure would have several advantages as compared to the present approach:

1 it would guarantee to all countries an equitable international contribution, commensurate with their own efforts and needs;

2 it would guarantee the efficient use of international efforts and resources as these measures would be directed and inter-related;

3 it would alleviate the fears of bilateral interference in domestic affairs as there would be a community of nations examining the performances of individual countries;

4 it would provide developing countries not merely with assistance, by furnishing material and financial resources, but also with the opportunity of economic management and planning through friendly international discussion in a forum where the developing countries are in the majority.

5 it would stimulate efforts for the development of trade and economic cooperation among the developing countries themselves;

6 it would create the economic background for the elaboration of payment arrangements; and,

7 it would provide a framework for the gradual economic integration, on an equitable basis, of the developed and developing regions of the world.

Such an effort would require the increasing adaptation of the production structures in the developed parts of the world as well.

As the strategy for global development would be a planned operation, this would mean that the developed countries should refrain from increasing their production capacity in those sectors where they do not enjoy comparative advantages.

Such an exercise in economic cooperation goes on continuously among the developed countries. An extension of this area of cooperation and integration so as to include practically the whole world is not merely technologically feasible but politically indispensable for maintaining peace in the world.

BURMA

• Tractor* grmduatty replacing thans

An efficient leak and hardwood logging industry is vital to the Burmese economy. Forest products earn an average of nearly \$25 million a year in exports. Some 145,000 square miles of the country (57% of the total area) are covered by forests and 60% of the forest under harvest is suitable for mechanized extraction.

Traditionally, timber has been hauled from the forest by elephants, but powered equipment is gradually taking over. Just before World War II, some 6,500 elephants were working in the logging camps of Burma. When the war ended there were only 2,600 elephants left and this loss started the State Timber Board on the road to mechanization.

in the field
in the field
in the field
in the field

From 1961 to 1966 over \$3 million have been spent on equipment, according to an FAO forestry adviser who worked with the Board. This mechanical power can handle up to 25,000 logs per season, nearly a quarter of the annual timber output. However, the changeover will be gradual for yields per acre and climatic conditions are favorable to the use of animal power for timber extraction whenever possible.

AUSTRALIA

• Mm - rHMt/n lormmtm: a growing wmafllh

There are approximately 81 million hectares of man-made forests in the world today and this area will double

by 1985 according to an FAO world symposium on man-made forests held in Canberra, Australia, last year.

The symposium dealt in detail with questions of policy, silviculture, management, utilization, and integration of planning and financing. It passed 66 recommendations.

Among facts of general interest:

...approximately half the total acreage consists of plantations in Mainland China and the USSR.

...the most widely planted group are conifers — mainly pines — which make up about 70% of the reported total.

...eucalypts are probably the most extensively planted of the broad-leaved species. Others widely grown are poplars.

The fastest growing man-made forests can produce wood for fuel or poles in 5 to 10 years, pulpwood in 10 years or even less, teak in 15 to 20 years.

ZAMBIA

• Live fish airlifted across At He*

Some 250,000 live fish have been airlifted from Lake Tanganyika to stock the waters of man-made Lake Kariba between Zambia and Rhodesia, 700 miles away. The airlift was the latest step in a \$1 million dollar UNDP (United Nations Development

Program) project for boosting fisheries development in the Lake Kariba area. The 1,718-square mile artificial lake was formed by the damming of the Zambesi.

The fish selected for this venture was the small, silvery *Limnothrissa Miodon* which is tasty and a prolific breeder. Lake Kariba is naturally supplied with fish but scientists feel its fishery potential could be greatly increased by stocking it with choice outside species. >

JORDAN

■ Underground water

The UN Development Program has increased its contribution to the investigation of sandstone aquifers in east Jordan from \$173,000 to nearly \$1,400,000 while the Jordanian Government has increased its share from \$1,620,300 to nearly \$4 million.

Ultimate object of this major land and water utilization project is to bring water to a region covering 60,000 square kilometers and noted at present for its aridity and poverty. Urgent tracts of the region have been surveyed both above and below ground and 66 wells have so far been dug. In all, over 21,000 meters have been drilled in the search for the areas where the underground water can best be exploited for irrigation, stock watering and industrial and domestic uses.

Most of the world's man-made forests are coniferous, like this planted forest at Rototua, New Zealand.



INDIA

• **Cutting losses in storage**

A five-year \$1.6 million effort to reduce the large losses caused to stored grain in India by pests and fungi has started with the arrival of Gus Huysmans, an FAO agricultural engineer. The main aim of the UNDP project is to show focal manufacturers how to make storage units adapted to Indian conditions from local materials, and to encourage creation of a stor-

age industry. A grain storage institute will be set up at Hapur, near New Delhi, while two field stations will collect and assess research results and evaluate the nature and extent of losses in storage.

• **Flying cheek on forests**

Initial conclusions of a UNDP forest inventory project being carried out by a joint Indian/FAO team indicate that central India should be able to support a pulp and paper industry.

A jet helicopter has been bought by FAO from UNDP contributions to help verify inventory work done in the course of the survey. The aircraft, which cost \$100,000, is a five seater. It will shortly be used to transport members of the survey team to and from inaccessible parts of the forests.

The first part of the project — training a strong corps of Indian experts — will be completed toward the end of this year, when FAO experts leave them to carry on the survey.

• **Daily protein food for 23 million children**

Alarmed at the grave deficiencies in Indian children's diet, the director-general of India's Health Services has warned that unless successful efforts are made to combat malnutrition, irreparable physical and mental retardation may result for the two thirds of Indian children who are inadequately nourished.

A campaign is now under way throughout the country to give children a proper diet. As one of the first

New funds pledged for agricultural development

New projects approved by the governing council of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) for the first half of 1968. Projects listed are those in which the executing agency is FAO; FAO in association with the UN, or its agencies, or the United Nations, itself, in fields of interest to FAO.

Afghanistan: To assist the government in establishing an organization which will coordinate and control the development of all water resources throughout the country. UNDP — \$1,416,200; government — \$1,020,000. (Four and a half years.)

To prepare detailed plans for the development and expansion of irrigated agriculture in the Kunduz-Khanabad district (in the northeast) with a view to defining the areas investment potential. UNDP — \$671,100; government — \$289,000. (Two years and three months.)

Algeria: To strengthen the government forest service and train professional staff and skilled workers in the course of developing and executing a national forest utilization plan. UNDP — \$1,109,800; government — \$800,000. (Four years.)

Argentina: To strengthen livestock investigation and promotion centers and to train personnel in intensified livestock production techniques. UNDP — \$1,063,700; government — \$5,006,000. (Five years.)

Bolivia: To survey the animal health situation and strengthen veterinary laboratory and field services. UNDP — \$945,400; government — \$1,769,000. (Four years.)

To formulate and implement a program of ground-water development in the Altiplano. UNDP — \$1,479,800; government — \$1,159,000. (Four years.)

Brazil: To establish a farm planning and training service for the Mogiana region. UNDP — \$958,900; government — \$1,350,000. (Four years.)

Burma: To carry out studies to develop the Sittang river valley, deluding general studies of the basin and feasibility studies for the Yamethm and Yenwe Pyuntaza areas. UNDP — \$2,179,200; government — \$1,096,000. (Three and a half years.)

Chilla: To continue and expand the training, research and advisory services of the Institute of Training and Research for Agrarian Reform. UNDP — \$982,000; government — \$1,671,000. (Two and a half years.)

Congo (Brazzaville): To plan and implement a regional program of rural development in the Niari-Loudima area and on the basis of this pilot operation to define a nationwide program of rural development. UNDP — \$1,399,500; government — \$960,000. (Three years.)

Ethiopia: To complete the establishment of the School for Animal Health Assistants, Debre Zeit, by providing additional training, including field programs for Ethiopian veterinarians who will be assigned to take over its operation. UNDP — \$991,500; government — \$808,000. (Five years.)

Gabon: To assist the government in determining the extent and composition of the forests in the eastern zone and in preparing a forestry and forest industries development plan. UNDP — \$1,348,200; government — \$798,000. [Four and a half years.]

Ghana: To increase production of food crops in selected pilot areas through extensive use of fertilizers. UNDP — \$1,188,400; government — \$1,450,000. (Five years.)

Greece: To undertake feasibility studies leading to the development of forest industries, with special reference to possibilities in western Greece, with a view to attracting investment. UNDP — \$301,900; government — \$410,000. (One and a half years.)

Honduras: To establish a forestry school for the training of low and middle-level technical personnel. UNDP — \$938,200; government — \$1,009,000. [Five years.]

India: To develop sheep husbandry in eight states through improved sheep breeding, shearing, collection, grading, marketing and utilization of wool. UNDP — \$1,634,300; government — \$3,245,000. (Five years.)

Iraq: To complete the establishment of the traq laboratory unit for the investigation of animal diseases and the training of veterinary field services through the strengthening of the Veterinary Faculty, University of Baghdad. UNDP — \$1,046,300; government — \$450,000. [Three years.]

To assist in the preparation and planning of a pilot project for soil and water management and in training for irrigated land development and settlement. UNDP — \$203,800; government — \$350,000. (One year.)

Jamaica: To conduct a feasibility survey to determine the economics of production and the market prospects for selected food crops. UNDP — \$110,400; government — \$137,000. (One year.)

Kuwait: To assist in the establishment of a center for the development of Kuwait's water resources, to test and evaluate equipment and materials (or desalination plants) and to train the skilled personnel. UNDP — \$568,400; government — \$1,000,000. (Five years.)

steps, it is planned to distribute a new protein food, *Balahar*, among 25 million schoolchildren daily.

Also in the planning stage is the production of 100 million loaves of lysine-fortified bread. The first of nine bakeries, donated by Australia and Canada and set up by the Indian Government, opened recently and five more will be built shortly.

Says the health service report: "The cost of counteracting malnutrition by raising the nutritional levels of children is far less than

either the cost of the resultant decrease in productivity or the cost of treating malnutrition."

DAHOMAY

• *New horizon* for fisherman*

Today over 3,000 fishermen operate off Dahomey's 75 miles of turbulent West African coastline as the result of three years' intense multi-lateral and bilateral effort to change and modernize fishing practice.

Until a few years ago the bulk of commercial fishing took place in quiet landlocked lagoons. Every year some 20,000 tons of fish were harvested from some sixty thousand acres of calm, brackish water.

Three years ago a new port was built at Cotonou: the construction of these new facilities caused the sands to shift. The lagoons opened up, never to close again, and a large part of the fish population vanished.

This meant a new approach to fishing, new boats, new

men and new training.

Many organizations have shared in the work. Outboard Marine (Belgium) S.A. contributed 50 motors worth nearly \$20,000 to the Freedom from Hunger Campaign fishing boat mechanization project. The Canadian FFHC Committee gave over 510,000.

Dahomey's neighbor, Senegal, provided five crews of expert fishermen with their own canoes to prospect offshore fishing grounds and to train the Dahomeans "in line fishing.

Stronger and bigger planked

Lebanon: To further the planning of hydroagricultural development in Lebanon by carrying out irrigation feasibility studies and related pilot schemes. UNDP — \$1,011,100; government — \$2,378,000. (Four years.)

To complete the current survey and evaluation of Lebanese water resources and to plan their development and utilization with particular regard to agricultural needs and to the water supply for Beirut. UNDP — \$221,000; government — \$240,000. (One year.)

Madagascar: To promote development of the fishing industry by training personnel, undertaking trial and demonstration fishing, and carrying out marketing studies. UNDP — \$966,500; government — \$364,000. (Four years.)

Supplementary assistance for hydrogeological exploration in southern Madagascar, with special emphasis on the Morondava river basin. UNDP — \$245,500; government — \$129,000. (One year.)

Malaysia: To assist the government in strengthening all aspects of its forestry planning and services as a basis for the development of forest industries. UNDP — \$1,221,800; government — \$954,000. (Five years.)

Mauritius: To assist the development of the fishing industry through demonstration fishing and marketing studies. UNDP — \$396,900; government — \$504,000. (Three years.)

To prepare feasibility reports on irrigation development, and to undertake supplementary studies of natural resources. UNDP — \$406,400; government — \$171,000. (One and a half years.)

Morocco: Assistance in the establishment and initial operation of a center for the collection, indexing and dissemination of documents on rural and agricultural development. UNDP — \$174,000; government — \$292,000. (Two years.)

To develop a new curriculum for intermediate-level forest engineers at the Forestry School in Sale. UNDP — \$1,051,700; government — \$887,000. (Five years.)

Nicaragua: To assist the government in developing the pine forests of the northeast and to carry out technical and economic studies for large-scale investment in the region. UNDP — \$1,000,100; government — \$1,551,000. (Four years.)

Peru: To investigate livestock production possibilities and to provide training in livestock production and health techniques in high altitude and tropical areas. UNDP — \$1,124,400; government — \$2,175,000. (Four years.)

Republic of Korea: To assist in providing the expanding fishing industry with trained technicians to operate modern fishing vessels in coastal and nearby high seas areas. UNDP — \$1,117,600; government — \$1,459,000. (Four years.)

To assist in the expansion of the fishing industry through the provision of advisory services. UNDP — \$121,100; government — \$35,000. (One year.)

Romania: To improve, expand and strengthen research on plant breeding and seed production at the Institute for Cereals and Technical Crops, Fundulea. UNDP — \$1,377,200; government — \$5,800,000. (Four years.)

Singapore: To assist in the development of new industrial fisheries through the training of fishing technicians. UNDP — \$1,261,900; government — \$1,481,000. (Five years.)

Somalia: To carry out intensified mineral exploration in two zones; to strengthen the geological survey. UNDP — \$776,600; government — \$977,000. (Two years.)

To assist in the field training of veterinary personnel in the control of rinderpest, contagious bovine pleuropneumonia and other diseases. UNDP — \$158,200; government — \$374,000. (Two years.)

Syrian Arab Republic: To assist the government in implementing an agricultural development program in the Ghab region by helping to train personnel, establishing supporting institutions and creating permanent settlements. UNDP — \$1,313,900; government — \$1,110,000. (Three years.)

Togo: To assist in preparing a comprehensive forestry and forest industries development plan. UNDP — \$877,200; government — \$580,000. (Three years.)

United Arab Republic: To complete the establishment of the Animal Health Institute for the investigation of animal diseases and the strengthening of veterinary teaching at the University of Cairo. UNDP — \$961,400; government — \$654,000. (Three years.)

United Kingdom, Fiji: To prepare development plans and feasibility studies for the rational utilization of forests and for the expansion of forest industries. UNDP — \$238,400; government — \$200,000. (Two years.)

Upper Volta: To improve agricultural productivity by training increasing numbers of agricultural technicians and farmers. UNDP — \$1,129,500; government — \$1,243,000. (Five years.)

Uruguay: To study animal diseases and to train national personnel in animal health techniques. UNDP — \$1,149,000; government — \$2,215,000. (Five years.)

Republic of Zambia: To develop the natural resources of the Luangwa valley through improved wildlife conservation and utilization, and promotion of tourism. UNDP — \$1,056,400; government — \$2,679,000. (Three and a half years.)

Regional: Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Senegal: To promote increased agricultural productivity through a comprehensive program of applied agricultural research and pilot demonstration (see *article by Curtal in this issue*). UNDP — \$1,850,600; governments — \$788,000. (Five years.)

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vessels were designed to cope with the force of the surf. Norwegian and Swiss cooperatives. French bilateral assistance, United States AID and FAO provided a large part of the needed technical expertise and financial resources.

PERU

• *Tunnthm through the Am/urn*

After a three-year survey of the mountain and coastal regions of Peru, FAO has submitted to the Peruvian government a large-scale project aimed at the agricultural and industrial development of the Pampas de Olmos region in the arid coastal belt. The course of the river would be diverted from east to west through two tunnels to be driven 12 miles through the Andes.

This project will also involve the construction of a network of canals, power transmission lines and electrical power station, will permit the irrigation of nearly 90,000 hectares of fertile land. Given enough water a wide range of tropical and subtropical products can be grown including cotton, sorghum, soybean, groundnuts, oilseeds and alfalfa. Livestock could also be increased from the present 15,000 head of cattle to 140,000, including more than 80,000 milk cows.

The three-year survey was carried out for FAO by an Italian firm, Itaiconsult, under a UNDP project. It included investigation into many aspects of topography, hydrology, geology, soil and water and marketing.

SUDAN

• *Timing the water hyacinth*

The water hyacinth clogs up waterways, rivers and lakes all over the world.

• *Country guide for investment*

To encourage foreign private investment in developing countries, the FAO/Industry Cooperative Program is putting out a series of country studies — prepared by the FAO Legislative Branch — setting out in detail for the prospective investor the legislative and administrative measures taken by each country to attract and regulate foreign capital.

These studies deal extensively with investments in agriculture, forestry, fisheries and related industries. The studies so far published concern Chile, Guatemala, Kenya and Turkey. In preparation are studies on Argentina, Colombia, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Madagascar and Morocco. Other studies will also be issued later.

Ninety to 100 million tons of it invade the Nile every year.

Dr. E.C.S. Little, an FAO weed control consultant, has set in motion a project in the Sudan to try to control the weed by gathering it by hand and paying the workers with World Food Program food), drying it and spreading it in the vegetable gardens along the Nile as mulch and for weed control. Tests are also being carried out to see whether it makes good compost. The use of the hyacinth ash, rich in phosphorus and potash is also under study. It may also find use as animal fodder.

Little's victim of the beautiful flower is the island of Jawahar where it is taking over a large lake and stifling fish life. Dr. Little has been assigned to Indonesia to investigate.

ITALY

• *Swiss cheese*

Cheese specialists from 10 countries met in Rome in April at a consultation on how to overcome a worldwide shortage of rennet, used in cheese making, can be countered.

Rennet, an enzyme from the fourth stomach of unweaned calves, is traditionally used to coagulate or "set" cheese-milk. The available calf veal rennet, or stomach lining, which produces it, cannot meet the industry's needs. Delegates discussed whether

artificial enzymes now being tried can be made to act as efficiently as nature's product.

PHILIPPINES

• *Modern fishing vessel*

The Japanese-built fishery research and training vessel, arrived in Manila recently when she will take part in a fishery development project financed over five years with nearly \$4 million from the United Nations Development

fish. The 70-ton vessel began operations in April, joining another research-training vessel taking part in the project, the Japanese-built Maya Maya.

MEXICO

• *Changing the Mezquite*

A number of food-for-work projects have been started in Mexico's Valley of Mezquite under the banner of DESMI, a nonprofit organization founded two years ago to foster the economic and social development of the 400,000 Otomian-speaking Indians who live there.

These people, whose chronic malnutrition and extreme poverty are responsible for one of the highest death rates in the world, still depend on a primitive system of agriculture for their living. Seventy percent of their land only supports the hardier type of cactus life.

One of their first necessities is water and three villages have been enrolled in a voluntary self-help commu-



The Maya Maya, a Japanese-built research training vessel which is being used in the Philippines fisheries development project.

Program and managed by FAO.

The vessel is equipped for experimental trawling and livebait fishing and is fitted with the latest electronic apparatus and fishing gear for locating and catching marine

life. The project to dig a 17-mile long canal which will bring into production 16,000 acres of arid land. DESMI has also acquired a 120-acre farm, started a pig raising program and next plans to build a small meat processing plant.

TUNISIA

• *A model agricultural coflog*

The North African College of Agricultural Engineering, financed by the World Council of Churches, is due to end as a Freedom from Hunger Campaign (FFHC) project next year but the Tunisian Government has asked that the project, instead, be expanded and continued.

Located at Medjez-El-Bab, 40 miles southeast of Tunis, the college turns out every year about 50 specialized technical agents, several from other countries of North Africa. It is the only agricultural college in Tunisia that gives both technical and practical courses in mechanized farming.

These specialists, trained in modern techniques yet working closely with a peasantry still largely backward in its thinking, could become a vital force in the agricultural progress of developing countries. The Tunisian Government is planning to start three more colleges based on this model: one for forestry, another for livestock and a third for horticulture.

COLOMBIA

• *Improving the Nutting industry*

A four-year UNDP fishery development project went into effect in Colombia early this year. FAO specialists are advising the government on strengthening the fishery administration, developing the fishery industry and organizing research. The project, which costs nearly \$2 million, will help to set up a national fisheries research and development center. Plans call for the delivery of a fully equipped fishery vessel for experimental purse seinina and trawling, and for research off Colombia in the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea.

MANY NEW FOOD-AID PROJECTS

A recent count showed pledges to the UN/FAO World Food Program (WFP) for the period 1969-70 amounting to just over \$120 million, some two thirds in commodities, the rest in cash and services. This total represents slightly more than 60% Of the target set at WFP'S third pledging conference held in New York at the beginning of the year.

WFP's governing body met in Rome in April to consider requests for food aid and to examine progress of operational projects. Projects approved, and agreements signed, this year have included:

... \$534,000 to help farm settlement on an Afghanistan irrigation project (three years).

... \$450,000 to help train more teachers in Algeria (four years).

... \$436,000 to help rural development in the Central African Republic (four years).

... \$5.9 million worth of coarse grains to help develop India's poultry industry (five years),

... \$800,000 emergency food aid to Indonesia in the wake of torrential rain and flooding (six months).

... \$876,000 to help expand a farm settlement project in Iraq (three years).

... \$262,500 to help provide meals in Liberian secondary schools (three years).

... \$240,000 to help increase milk production and stimulate livestock improvement in Niger (four and one half years).

... \$480,000 to Pakistan to help raise production sixfold from the Karachi milk plant (two and one half years).

... \$145,000 for vocational training centers in Peru (three years).

... \$672,000 to help increase milk supplies and provide cattle feed in Senegal (four years), with a further \$714,000 going to self-help rural development (two years).

... \$270,000 to help provide meals for trainees in Sierra Leone (five years).

... \$423,000 to help build schools and extension centers in Somalia (three years).

... \$510,000 emergency postwar food aid to Syria.

... \$1,894,000 to Taiwan for an irrigation and flood control project (\$1.2 million - two years; the balance - four years).

... \$747,000 to help voluntary youth work camps in Tanzania (five years).

... \$528,000 to aid the rural self-help movement in Togo (three years).

... \$116,000 to help build small earth dams in southern Tunisia which will allow more cactus cultivation and, thus, more sheep fodder (five years),

... \$840,000 emergency postearthquake food aid to Turkey.

... \$198,000 to further help youth service camps in Zambia (two years).

... \$484,000 to help build village wells, dams and reservoirs in Upper Volta (five years).

GHANA

• *Thirst for practical books*

To help fill the need for technical literature in Africa, FAO jointly with the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has been operating a project for the production and publication of manuals and text-books.

Sixteen titles have so far been released, the latest being an *Introduction to Agriculture in Nigeria* by Professor Oyenuga. Seven more titles will be published during 1968, according to a meeting of experts on book development in Africa, held in Ghana earlier this year.

KENYA

• *4-K clubs show the way to better farming*

More than 60% of Kenya's population is under 20 and one of the major problems of tomorrow will be to keep the country's young people on the land and out of the slums.

One of the ways is through the 4-K clubs. The aim of the clubs: to provide young people in rural areas with sound advice on all types of farming. The ultimate purpose: to prove that farming is a satisfying and profitable occupation.

Modeled on the North American 4-H clubs and started with United States funds. Kenya's 4-K clubs now receive backing from the Freedom from Hunger Campaign (FFHC) through the Unesco gift coupon program.

There are over 1,100 4-K CIU*DS scattered throughout the country with a membership of some 30,000 mostly boys of school age. Club leaders are all volunteers who receive their training from Ministry of Agriculture field workers under an FFHC plan, also financed with Unesco gift coupons.

The four Ks stand for Swahili words meaning unity, self-help, better farming methods and Kenya.

Incomes Triple for Resettled Kenya Farmers

The Mwea/Tebere irrigation settlement lies about 60 miles northeast of Nairobi, close to the foothills of Mount Kenya, some 4,000 feet above sea level, it was started in 1955 to settle landless families from the Central Province. By the end of the first development period in 1960, 5,000 acres of soil had been prepared and di-

vided into single acre units suitable for rice cultivation and had been provided with complete irrigation systems. The project involved a great deal of earthworks, mainly canal excavation and land levelings



The irrigation scheme depends on water from two rivers rising in the Mount Kenya foothills. Water pours through an intake canal from the Thibet rivet

vided into single acre units suitable for rice cultivation and had been provided with complete irrigation systems. The project involved a great deal of earthworks, mainly canal excavation and land levelings

By 1960, 1,200 landless African families had been settled. It was upon these foundations that the United Kingdom FFHC project was launched in 1964 at a cost of some \$450,000. By the end of 1967 more than 2,000 additional acres had been developed capable of settling a further 500 families comprising about 3,500 people. A reception center to handle the rice produced on the new extension was completed in 1968. An efficient development team has also been built up and its ser-

ices will continue to be used on a further extension of 3,000 acres to be financed by German (Fed. Rep.) funds. All the newly settled farmers have built their own houses in a series of new villages on the settlement. To achieve this, a major difficulty had to be overcome — the newcomers were practically destitute. An arrange-

ment was therefore made with a commercial bank for them to be granted \$40 house-building loans, repayable in three years from crop income and unsecured except by reputation of the settlement. By the end of 1967 the farmers on the extension had received housing loans totaling some \$55,000 and so far not one settler has defaulted on his repayments.

By the end of the 1968/69 season when the whole extension will have been fully operational over its entire surface for at least one crop, it will have produced since inception 10,919 tons of paddy with a (gross value of \$750,000. An optimistic estimate of the annual wage in this area for unskilled labor working six days a week

throughout the year (such steady working is, however, unlikely) amounts to \$15.

Tenants on the Mwea/Tebere scheme earn an average of \$350 annually.

In the words of a senior agricultural officer in Kenya, the setting up and operation of this irrigation scheme have been "nothing less than an agricultural and social revolution." When the settlement started, very few people in Kenya knew anything about rice production. With the exception of two senior agricultural officers seconded to the scheme, everyone from senior officers down to the most junior member of the staff had to be trained locally. Not only is the crop new to Kenya, but there is no tradition of irrigation in Kenya. An immediate task was to find men who could absorb the basic rudiments of technology and who also had the personality and the leadership to pass on their knowledge to their juniors and to the settlers themselves.

The people settled under this scheme are a rural proletariat. They have come to these lands with nothing, most have never engaged in anything but the lowest subsistence farming. Now, almost suddenly, they find themselves on an irrigated holding. They are taught to grow a crop they have never seen in more water than they knew existed. They have become members of a team working within a highly organized, centrally controlled agricultural system. They are the targets of a concentrated program of agricultural education and information.

Like many other countries in Africa, Kenya is faced with a formidable population expansion and with land hunger. This scheme provides a partial answer. Irrigation brings new land into cultivation. Just over ten years ago, Mwea/Tebere was a semidesert, seasonally grazed by a few cattle. Today, it supports some 15,000 people

in the field
in the field
in the field

Asian Drama by GUNNAR MYRDAL

This is not a book like other books, which will be read and then put away on the shelf. Gunnar Myrdal's *Asian Drama* will live with us whenever we contemplate, discuss and argue about the problems of Asia and other underdeveloped areas.

It is a synopsis of all the manifold factors which have created south Asia as it is today, and which will shape its future. It is an honest book, written by a western economist who knows the difficulties of objective evaluation and the possibilities of bias, and who feels a compulsion for searching his own soul. It is written on the basis of worldwide experience and with the same methods which made Myrdal's *An American Dilemma* one of the most profound social analyses of its time.

The book will help Asian governments to understand the uncertainty of their present position, which is difficult to defend against the evils of the past and from which it is difficult to ensure the way to a better future. Myrdal says, in the chapter on agricultural policy, that the Asian countries now have the worst of both worlds: they cannot realize agrarian reform and cannot carry out efficient agriculture. In another chapter he talks frankly about the corruption which marks the atmosphere of south Asia (and other underdeveloped regions).

The developed countries will recognize the not very flattering role that they have played in south Asia during the last few centuries, and even today. Myrdal stresses the weaknesses of their present policies and their bias in evaluating the reality of south Asia.

One of the great advantages of Myrdal's inquiry is that he brings out the divergence of western and Asian values and the great differences in development. When the western world understands this fundamental aspect of the development problem of Asia — and when western vested interests, looking for profitable solutions, discipline themselves or are disciplined — then there will be hope that European and American aid and advice will be useful.

Gunnar Myrdal says that, generally speaking, the western approach is ab-

stracted from most of the conditions that are peculiar to the south Asian countries and which are responsible for their underdevelopment and for the special difficulties they meet in developing.

The unique importance of Myrdal's inquiry is the decisive questions which he poses to himself, to the reader, to governments and to the international agencies.

The central concern of *Asian Drama* is with the problems of economic underdevelopment and development, and with planning for development. The starting point of Myrdal's study is recognition of the fact that pure economic analysis can never be successful. Distinctions between "economic" and "non-economic" factors are artificial at best. The only worthwhile demarcation is between relevant and less relevant factors and the line of demarcation will vary with the characteristics of the environment in the study.

The whole inquiry has a strong institutional emphasis. The starting point is the incontrovertible fact that the basic socioeconomic structure of south Asia is radically different from that existing in advanced countries. The problems of development in the region call for induced changes in the existing social structure as a continuous development. As this structure does not change spontaneously, or to any great extent in response to economic policies, far-reaching institutional reforms become necessary.

This point is of utmost importance since the bias for purely economic solutions is very strong in the official policies of bilateral and multilateral programs.

Gunnar Myrdal writes: "The essential first step toward an understanding of the problems of the south Asian countries is to try to discover how they actually function and what mechanisms regulate their performance. Failure to root analysis firmly in these realities invites both distortions in research and faults in planning."

If the United Nations organizations, particularly FAO, were to draw one conclusion from Myrdal's inquiry, it would be recognition of the urgent need for an intensification of institutional research in order to ensure proper guidance for de-

velopment programs. It is not sufficient to assert qualifications and reservations meant to take into account factors left out by conventional economic analysis along western lines; what is needed is a framework of theories and concepts that is closer to the realities of south Asia.

A study by Gunnar Myrdal always begins with a set of selected value premises. Any such study must look at the problems from the standpoint of the interests and ideals, norms and goals that are relevant and significant. Myrdal has selected new values directed toward modernization. This "modernization ideal" was impressed on the nations of south Asia at the dawn of their independence and has become the official creed, almost the national religion; Myrdal sees in it one of the powerful strengths of new nationalism.

An important element is the need to apply modern technology to increase productivity. Other elements which he feels should accompany such modernization include social and economic equality and improved institutions and attitudes.

The last is the most striking for it comprises the ideal of a social revolution aimed at the creation of the 'new man,' the 'modern man' or 'citizen of the new state'. Such a man, he feels, must be efficient, dedicated, orderly, punctual, frugal and honest. He must be able to make rational decisions, be prepared for change, alert for opportunities as they arise, enterprising, cooperative and, most important of all, he must possess integrity and self reliance.

The chapter on the problems of labor utilization is of the greatest importance for all students of south Asia since it places the industrialization issue in its proper perspective. Myrdal states that only intensification of labor in agriculture can take care of the population's surplus during decades to come.

He says that a variety of institutional pressures have coalesced to induce spreading of the workload, while both traditional and modern factors have operated to restrict the members of the population regarded as legitimate job claimants. The net effect of these forces has been

to suppress growth in output per head.

With respect to the population problem, Myrdal does not believe that conditions in south Asian villages are particularly favorable for awakening a desire to limit the number of children. He rightly recognizes that the setting of Asian life is such that children are expected to fulfill obligations to parents more than parents to children. However, he forecasts dramatic changes in Asian governments' interest in the population problem and feels that by the beginning of the 1970s government programs for family limitation will be in force in all south Asian countries.

In his prologue Guriyar Myrdal writes on the concept of drama and explains why he chose *Asian Drama* as the title for his book. He draws a distinction between the classic conception of drama and real-life drama. He says: "In life, while the drama is still unfolding — as in the practical phase of a study, when policy inferences are drawn from value premises as well as from premises based on empirical evidence — the will is assumed to be free, within limits, to choose between alternative courses of action. History, then, is not taken to be predetermined, but within the power of man to shape. And the drama thus conceived is not necessarily tragedy." We can only pray that it may be so.

Erich M. Jacoby

Asian Drama, An Inquiry Into the Poverty of Nations, by Gunnar Myrdal. Twentieth Century Fund and Pantheon, New York, 1968 (three volumes, 2,284 p.), \$8.50 for the three volumes.

Other reviews of ASIAN DRAMA

Herald Tribune

Swedish economist Gunnar Myrdal contends that economic development efforts in south Asia will not succeed until there is a social revolution.

Aid from the west can be of only marginal help, he believes, until countries such as India carry out radical reforms in agriculture, education, population planning and similar areas.

...Basically he believes that the Asian countries have been mistaken in attempting to adapt western approaches to many

problems deriving from their particular historical circumstances.

He is especially critical of education, or what he terms "miseducation," and contends that the emphasis must be on quality rather than on mere quantity.

"Throughout south Asia there is a traditional contempt for manual work, and the educated tend to regard their education as the badge that relieves them of any obligation to soil their hands," he writes, noting that this attitude "is a very serious obstacle to development."

Western countries err in their judgments of Asian socialism, which is a "rather vague term for the modernization ideology," Mr. Myrdal asserts. It applies mainly in areas where there is little private initiative and nowhere has it extended to the collectivization of agriculture. Nevertheless, economic inequalities have increased since independence...

The Times of India

...Professor Myrdal is right when he says that the western concept of employment "has little meaning in a society where, in the absence of a dole, the pressure of economic distress forces everyone to find some means of support, where the labor market is not fluid, where many persons of working age are disinclined to engage in physical labor and where standards of work performance are very low."

What holds down labor input and efficiency is not lack of capital but lack of stamina, ignorance and the deadweight of tradition.

Again, Professor Myrdal is not the first to point out that "without any technical innovation and even without investment other than longer and more efficient work, agricultural yields can be raised substantially."

But who is to provide the stamina? Very often the tenant or the sharecropper is not even sure how long he is going to stay on the piece of land he tills and he is afraid that the more it grows, the greater will be the rent he will have to pay. So he just does not put his heart into his work, much less invest in the land he tills.

Professor Myrdal is not the first man to say that absentee landlordism must go. The planners have said it for 18 years.

But no party has been able to muster the will to define "personal cultivation" in a way which will make it impossible for absentee landlords to resume land only to lease it out to tenants or sharecroppers.

Professor Myrdal is a radical. But out of sheer frustration he concludes that radical land redistribution, however desirable, is not politically feasible in south Asia today. So instead of paying lip service to the slogan "land to the tiller," he tells us, we will do far better by making "a deliberate policy choice in favor of capitalist farming."

Those who invest in land and make a good job of it must be allowed to reap the rewards of their efforts. Absentee landlords must be penalized by "heavy taxes. And nonfarming nonresidents must be barred by law from acquiring land.

The government, is, of course, too timid to admit in so many words that it has made such a policy choice. It is inhibited by all that it has said in the past. But a choice on these lines is already being made, particularly in areas where the new agricultural strategy is at work.

For the first time those who have money know that investment in agriculture, if made with care, can be more paying than in industry.

...Professor Myrdal almost despairs of the system. "Under the present southeast Asian conditions development cannot be achieved without much more social discipline," he writes, and adds that "an authoritarian regime may be better equipped to enforce social discipline." But then even he is careful to point out that the existence of even such a regime "is no guarantee of this accomplishment".

...The question here, as in most democratic countries, is how to make the system more responsive to the true needs of the people. As far as India is concerned the people will accept a far greater measure of discipline if the political parties do so. They have to put a curb on their greed and their petty rivalries and achieve some sort of consensus on issues which have a direct bearing on productivity and efficiency.

Only when they do so and limit the area of political conflict will the open competition for power become meaningful. Until that happens there will be no escape from mushy thinking or mushy planning.

African Economic Development

by William A. Hance

AHUIJMS and forecast arc [the economist's major weapons- Let him rejoice as he opens Mr. Hance's book, for pages 220 and 291 offer magnificent tables listing the symptoms of the ills afflicting Africa: aridity, political uncertainty, lack of roads and tribal rivalries — 33 countries, 10 parameters and the patient is analyzed. Then comes the treatment; agriculture, tourism, water power, each remedy marked from 1 to 4, Finally, the short- and long-term prospects, duly weighed and ready for the computer. If everything were (hat simple, what happened to Kansas and Oregon two centuries ago?

The reader knows from the foreword that this book is based on notes prepared by a study group dealing with United States foreign policy. A good half of the chapters, written more than (en years ago, have been compiled from documents rather than field investigations. **Fad!** and figures are plentiful, though in very extended order like a disjointed course of physical, economic and political geography (North and South Africa arc absent, and countries such as Nigeria, Senegal and the Ivory Coast are given only *J few* paragraphs).

Nevertheless. Mr Hance's book is worth reading despite its overambitious title and lack of homogeneity. Indeed, it includes integrated studies on three big pilot projects for development of the vasi continent — the Gezira-Managii irrigation network in (he Sudan, hydro-electric development of the Volta river in **ObfIM** and the iron mining complex in Liberia.

The Sudanese irrigation system, covering about WHU>X) heel a res. has made ihr

Sudan one of the World's leading producers of long and medium-staple, cotton.

The Akosombo Dam, the aluminum plant and the port of Tema have turned Ghana into one of the world's principal producers of aluminum, Libcrian mines are among the foremost suppliers of rich iron ore for the iron and steel industries of Europe, North America and even Japan. In each case, total investments amount to hundreds of millions of dollars. The author examines the vicissitudes of such financing in the light of fluctuations of world politics and the effect on the infrastructure of the country and its general development (employment, living standards, balance of payments).

Sun, water, earth and the peasants' labor in the Sudan, the power potential of the Volta river in Ghana, the riches of the subsoil in Liberia are supplying the developed world with raw materials and art¹ giving Africans a fighting chance. Here are three examples of development in which Africa is furnishing its riches in the form of raw material to the industries and consumers of the rich countries. They are well chosen as examples, considering their technical success and their value.

But; from the point of view of long-term strategy it is important to analyze how some of these undertakings threaten to increase the vulnerability of the countries benefiting by them because of growing indebtedness and unsettled markets.

To achieve greater independence. Liberia will have to process her iron ore one day, creating a big African iron and steel industry and selling machinery to Africa and the world. Likewise, Ghana which, incidentally, uses kilowatt-hours to process imported aluminum and does not yet **exploit** her own bauxite, will one day have to produce aircraft engines and engines rather than aluminum units.

This poses the problem, among many others, of market size. Mr. Hance's book devotes a very instructive chapter to the integration efforts of East Africa. Kenya. **UfUdl** and the others are endeavoring to set up a viable regional economy amid a thousand difficulties, of which politics is not the (east important.

Strategies defined by the Charter of Algiers, which **pdMCM** the great merit of having been drawn up by qualified representatives of the poorer countries.

illustrate and conclude the data supplied by a hook such as this; which justifies their fundamental claim to recognition and independence.

Taking this into account, Mr. Hance's hook can serve as reference if African leaders will forget his too frequent objections to the Africanization of the superstructure.

Raymond Aubrac

African Economic Development by William A. Hance, Frederick A. Praeger, New York, 1967 (326 p.)

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FAMINE 1975

by William and Paul Paddock

Population expansion and stagnant food production in the underdeveloped nations are on a collision course. Serious famines and political disorders are inevitable by 1975. With the possibility of producing the needed food and no other production to finance importation of it, the hungry nations will have to rely mainly on the U.S.A. for supply of food on noncommercial terms, state the authors. But given the massive production capacity of the United States will be inadequate and hard choices will have to be made as to who does and does not receive food — in other words, what people and what nations may survive?

Statistics and analyses developed in Part I show that the relationship between population and food supply in much of the developing world is already unfavorable. People who are hungry now and by 1975 will be starving — a time of famines, perhaps lasting for decades, will have begun. The authors argue that a past tendency to underestimate population increase and overestimate food production suggests that famine is nearer than some estimates indicate.

While medical advance continues to lower the death rate, the birthrate remains stable or rises. For a variety of reasons, hopes of substantially limiting population growth are something for the future. The authors dismiss the possibility that any of the already known means of increasing food production can have sufficient impact by 1975. They conclude their analysis of the situation in the hungry world by looking at factors outside the agricultural sector which affect food production. Here, they find little ground for optimism.

The possible contribution of the developed world in averting famine is considered in Part II. Potential suppliers are the U.S., Canada, Australia and Argentina but, to date at least, only the United States has shipped substantial quantities on a noncommercial basis. This position is seen as continuing due to the likely availability of commercial markets large enough to absorb the production of the other three countries.

Given the situation of insufficient United States food supplies to meet the needs for shipments to all the hungry nations, the authors in Part II of their book give their views on how the decision should be made as to which nations receive food. Drawing an analogy with the situation at an overextended field medical station in wartime, the authors propose their system of "triage." Wounded coming to such stations are classified as: (1) can't be saved and thus no point in medical attention; (2) walking wounded, in pain but can wait for treatment; and (3) seriously wounded but can be saved by prompt medical treatment.

The real merit of the book is that it draws attention, in dramatic terms, to the increasingly serious population/food supply problem and this is the first step in bringing about action to deal with it. While the various aspects of the problem are extremely complex and difficult to quantify, there can be no doubt about the general conclusion that famines lie ahead — only the timing and extent are debatable.

Unfortunately the text of the book is interspersed with rather **objective** judgments or at least judgments based on inadequate information, on what countries will do, for example, one from the developing world, and one from the developed world, are illustrative: (1) United Arab Republic, p. 48-44 — "The Aswan Dam is only a delusion of progress; its new land will be farmed in the same old ways by the same old families procreating as always without effective **official** support to curtail family size;" (2) With reference to the **Contribution** of Canada, Australia and Argentina to feeding the hungry nations, pages 130 and 131. "(c) Even if they could afford generosity at that level, these countries have not yet developed within their governments and leadership a sense of moral duty, and this comes slowly. There is little evidence

that this exists today even at a rudimentary level. During 1962-64 Canada shipped only 100,000 tons of wheat and Australia only 50,000 tons on a noncommercial basis, insignificant amounts in comparison with the 13,500,000 tons shipped by the United States on a noncommercial basis during the same period." Such judgments can lead to a slightly more pessimistic forecast than may be justified.

More serious, however, they do not add to the reservoir of goodwill among nations which is absolutely essential in dealing with crises of the magnitude predicted by the authors and, eventually, in achieving a better world for all. Nor does an unfavorable judgment, valid or invalid, necessarily lead to the kind of **action** needed to improve the situation.

It is in the third part of the book, where the authors put forward their proposals as to how the U.S.A. should deploy its food resources in time of famine, that is most contentious. Here, the authors seem to be advocating on the part of the United States the nationalism they deplore in the developing countries. One wonders, for example, if it would be in the best interests of the United States, in time of widespread economically, politically and socially disruptive famine, to reserve for itself the decision on how its food supplies would be shared with the neediest nations of the world. Is it possible that the authors underestimate the degree of internationalism prevailing in the United States in suggesting that it would do so?

It is to be considered that we extend the time factor to date 1975 — which leads in the extremely pessimistic conclusion of the book, (judgments in the newly **developing** countries are acquiring increased **experience** and are also increasingly) appreciating the need to give higher priority to agriculture in their development plans and allocation of resources. Their capacity to make use of the findings of studies is, in effect, increasing. Then, too, action initiated in a number of developing countries, including India, in the past few years may begin yielding results even before 1975 and thus the crisis may be on a lesser scale than predicted by the brothers Paddock.

D.C. Kimmtl

*Famine IV?** by William and Paul Paddock
Utik, Brown and Company, Boston. (276 p.)
VBLJU

Weather and Agriculture

Edited by
James A. Taylor

The primary demand for weather information came from agriculture until the sudden needs of aviation in wartime and in peace gave a very expansionist impulse to meteorology.

Those of us who are concerned with food production are, on the one hand, grateful for a tremendous progress in weather observing, reporting and forecasting which could not have been achieved without this outside influence and, on the other, envious of the amount of attention given to this upstart and vociferous consumer of meteorological information.

A result of this new situation is a fairly widespread lack of exchange between agricultural and meteorological services, especially in developing countries.

Efforts are now being made to remedy this, greatly facilitated by a growing desire on the part of national meteorological services* to diversify now that HM aviation pressure is relaxing. Nowadays meteorologists tend to be physicists and mathematicians, rather than naturalists*, but geographers have also come to the rescue. A shining example of the effective help they can render in the development of agricultural meteorology is the work of Dr. James A. Taylor at the University College of Wales in Aberystwyth.

Yearly symposia have been held there since 1958 on various aspects of agricultural meteorology and, from their proceedings (Memoranda 1-8), Dr. Taylor has selected some notable contributions rearranged under the headings of: The Environment; The Hazards; and Productivity.

This is an excellent book, its contents apply primarily to Wales and, more generally, to temperate regions, but there is nevertheless much in it of benefit to

anyone concerned with the rational development of agriculture in warmer and drier climates.

For instance, the climatic factors which favor the incidence of sheep liver fluke or of potato blight are sensibly the same all over the world; and the upper air currents which carry the spores of reagents affecting cereals are part of a global atmospheric circulation which can link the Atlas with the Caucasus.

Developments in ecology (an integrated consideration of all the factors of the environment) and in operational research (which give dimensions to hitherto subjective impressions) discussed in this book, lend themselves to extrapolation for work in developing countries. However, the process cannot be automatic. Sensible adaptation, which requires local knowledge as well as outside know-how, is essential.

LAM. Cochemé

Weather and Agriculture, edited by James A. Taylor.
Pergamon Press Ltd., London. J967, (22J p.l. Vh. (U.K. and Eire) and 93a. (all other COUTV Tries excluding U.S.A. and Canada).

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ceres

Ceres was adopted as the name of this review because of its close association with agriculture, particularly the growing of food crops, Ceres, the Roman version of the Greek goddess Demeter, has its equivalent in most languages just as Ceres herself, symbol of agriculture and representing mother earth, has her equivalent in most cultures.



Roman copy or a Greek statue at CERES of the 5th century B.C.

By the beginning of the Roman Republic, Sicily was known as the center of the worship of both Ceres and her daughter Persephone. Ceres herself was then considered as the most ancient and venerable of all [the gods, and goddesses]. During the famine which [the Romans suffered after the expulsion of the Tarquin monarchy the dictator] Tullius Aufidius consulted the Sibylline books which advised that the worship of Ceres should be established in Rome. A temple to Ceres was therefore built in 493 B.C. on the Aventine hill (near the present site of FAO). Ceres was then regarded as the goddess of food grains and patroness of the corn trade.

Ceres also adopted Triptolemus, the son of Celeus, and initiated him in the arts of agriculture. He became identified as the deity of agricultural crafts, and in some legends is named as the inventor of the plow.

The attributes of Ceres are chiefly connected with her position as goddess of agriculture and vegetation: ears of corn, the poppy, the mystic basket (kalathos) filled with flowers, corn and fruits of all kinds, the pomegranate being especially common. As the earth goddess she is often associated with the snake, myrtle, asphodel and narcissus.

Letter to the Reader

Raising over a million dollars in six years to help thirty leper colonies is not enough for Cardinal Ledger, Archbishop of Montreal. He is leaving his high office and the affluent society to go and tend the lepers in Africa. "Beating the drum to raise funds is easy, it's going down there that's hardest," he toys,

This is an example of self-denial, of starting over from the ground up, that commands respect. The Cardinal is sixty-three years old.

Two authors appearing in this number of CERES deal with the vow problem, but from a different point of view. Jan Tittbergen and Jan Statiovnik believe that development is only possible through the establishment of a global plan. "Coordination and cooperation," they say.

Those convinced of the need for action to help the underprivileged of the third world, honest citizens of the industrialized societies, gravitate toward the kind of immediate and personal solution chosen by the Cardinal. Action, especially if followed by results — however slight — is far more satisfying to the individual than the most brilliant theory.

One of the most frequent criticisms of aid efforts is that local and uncoordinated action is like pouring water into a sieve. Aiding ten families, or a village, to produce more cassava, or rice, falls far short of the takeoff of an entire country. In other words, the act of charity may soothe the giver's conscience, but not the recipient's anxiety for the future.

What should we do then? Which is the right choice?

Above all, we must not try to "hide behind one's finger," as an old Greek proverb puts it. To evade reality through grandiose plans would do as much harm as the lack of a plan at all. The integration of all the significant elements within the structure of a global development plan, handled with realism but with the visionary's faith as well, seems the only effective course open to us.

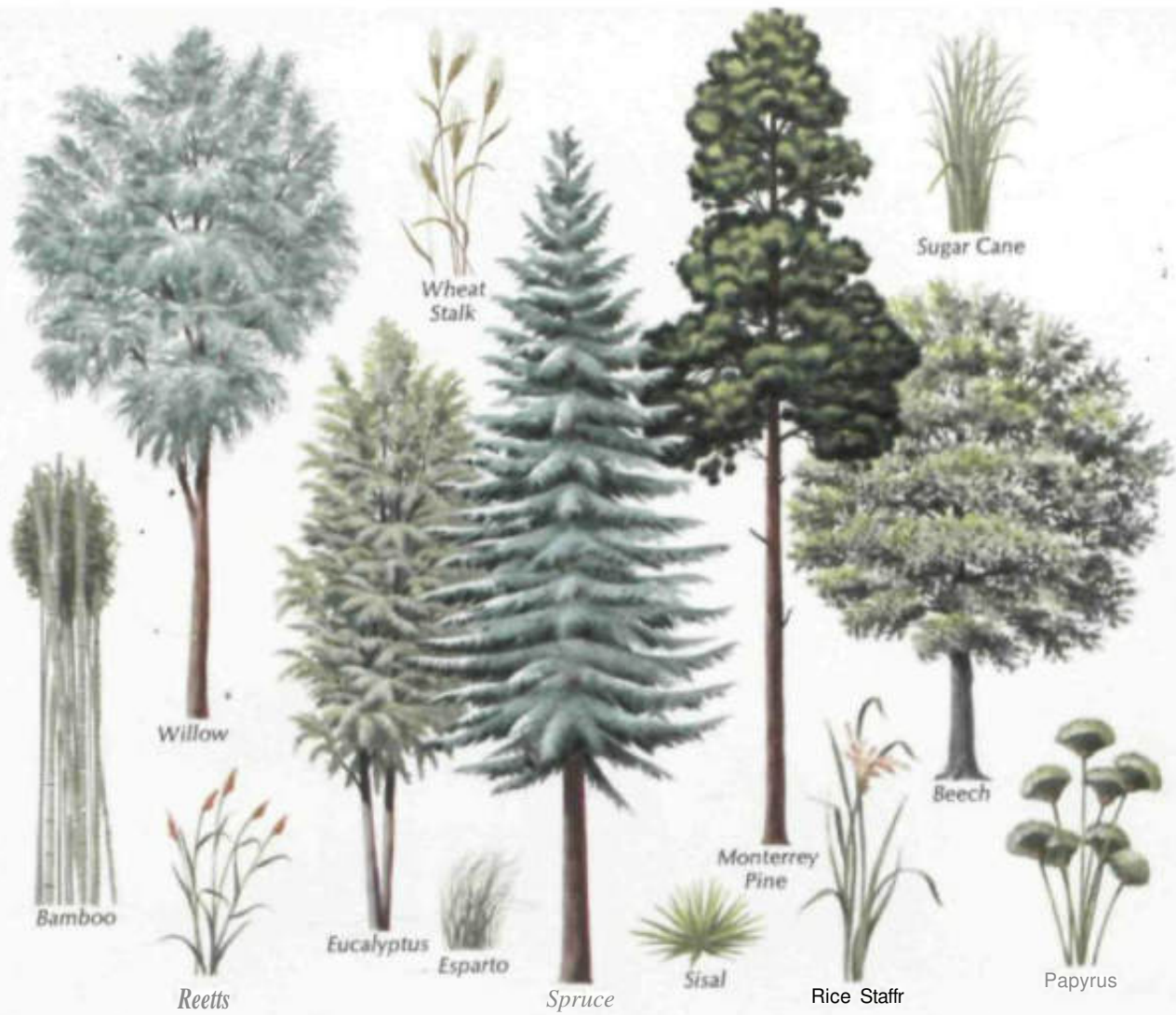
The elaboration of a plan that will be useful to billions of people is an arduous task. We can see from the outset the quantitative problems: gathering an enormous volume of statistical data on a country-by-country basis; analyzing it; determining the order of priorities and objectives.

Yet the qualitative aspects are no less complex. Understanding by the planners of the poorer countries' present and future needs, and of the resources which are, or may be available to meet these needs must form the basis for this development plan. Who can produce such a plan if not the countries themselves, working within the United Nations.

Moreover, now that we have hope of an imminent end to the conflict in Vietnam, the positive factors favoring a worldwide peace acquire a new element; the possibility of an immediate or at least rapid, shift of the forces of destruction to forces for the advancement of the underdeveloped country.

Economists are the first to realize that reality is more complex and more uncertain than the forecasts and target, planner, work with. Unfortunately, the pessimists whom we have often seen proved wrong. The prospect of peace should now give the optimists their turn.

A. Birt



RAW MATERIAL FOR PAPERMAKING

Including the trees and plants illustrated above, some 20 different species of softwoods, hardwoods, reeds, grasses, and agricultural straws and *ca.no.* have been used for pulp and paper production in mills built by the Parsons S Whittmore-Lyddon Organization. While in theory any vegetation under proper treatment will yield cellulose fibers, careful study and analysis are necessary to determine what species are economically suitable for industrial processing.

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From time to time, CERES will issue a special report on major aspects of development, such as regional integration and the role of private investment. These reports will attempt to give an objective appraisal of the topic while, at the same time, raising live, controversial issues. Our first special report is in this issue — India '68.

Why bring out a special report on India when agricultural production has been modernized and the vagaries of weather no longer weigh the balance?

Or is it still the same old story: record crops when the rains come at the right time, otherwise dependence on rapidly-shrinking world grain reserves and tight money markets? Has Indian agriculture changed and, if so, how? Is it possible to transform technology without a metamorphosis of the entire social structure?

We cannot ignore India: its enormous population, its dominant role in Asia, its insatiable thirst for capital and skills, its vast potential as a market for manufactured goods. India demands our constant attention.

Four articles in this issue give some of the answers to these questions and cover some aspects of India in transition in '68.

The government's intensive area development program, in which resources for agriculture are concentrated on 114 selected areas, is described by Claude Moisy on page 26. This program is a gamble — in which there is little alternative choice — which weighs the possibility of doubting agricultural production and creating development 'poles' against potential social and political unrest in the less-productive, low-priority areas.

Two such development areas are compared by Gilbert Etienne on page 39. He suggests that socio-cultural obstacles to new methods are retarding progress and that there is a need to change existing social structures.

Bihar State — associated in the eyes of the world with famine conditions — may soon produce a surplus, thanks to irrigation water and improved seeds supplied under the program. A.S. Cheema, on page 37, foresees that more attention will have to be paid to problems of storage and credit.

A multilateral aid program has introduced higher-quality flocks and more efficient wool marketing to a depressed semi arid area not included in the intensive program. John Williams, in the picture story on page 32, describes the changing life of the nomadic shepherds of Rajasthan State.

How much waste in there in aid programs? H.J. Kristinsson discusses this controversial issue on page 44 and pleads for greater coordination between bilateral and multilateral programs.

The article on page 47 by Pavel Flalkovsky, a Soviet engineer who was project manager of a large multilateral aid project in Ceylon, offers some candid comments on waste — of both time and opportunity — as well as summarizing the accomplishments of this project.

This issue starts off (on page 191 with a philosophical look at the development process by Paul-Marc Henri, a man who has worked for most of his life with bilateral and multilateral programs. He comments on the various kinds of aid and the need for a world strategy, the role of private enterprise and summarizes the main spring of development.

Articles in our last issue on some of these aspects — on a proposed global development plan by J.M.H. Tmbergen and on post-UNCTAD by Janez Stanovnik — are discussed by Ham Linger on page 51. Dr. Singer, instrumental in founding the UN Development Decade, believes that we are on the right path but that national and international aid programs must be coordinated more closely.



Paul-Marc Henri



A.S. Cheema



Gilbert Etienne



John Williams



H.J. Kristinsson

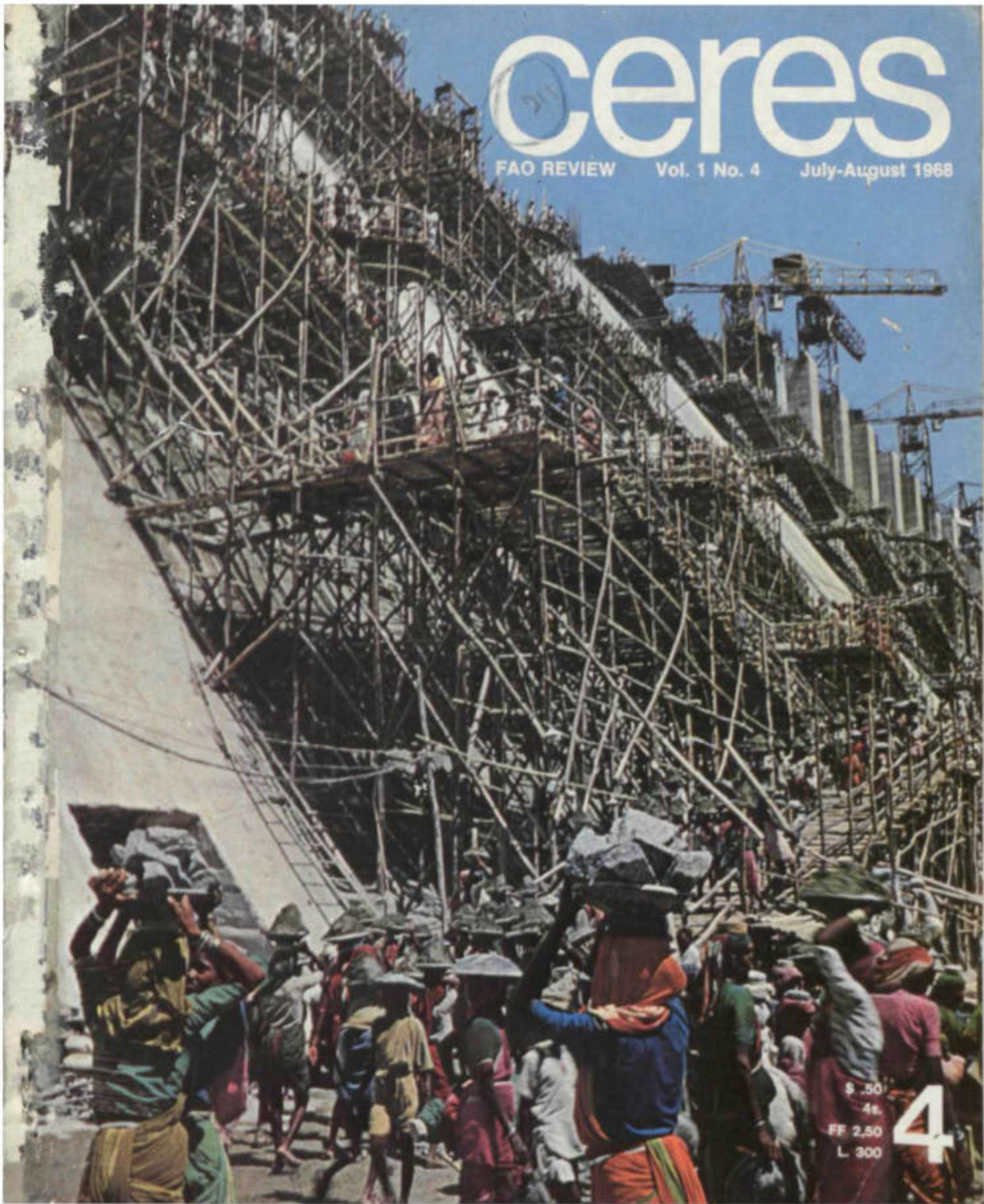


Ham Linger

Ham W. Singer

ceres

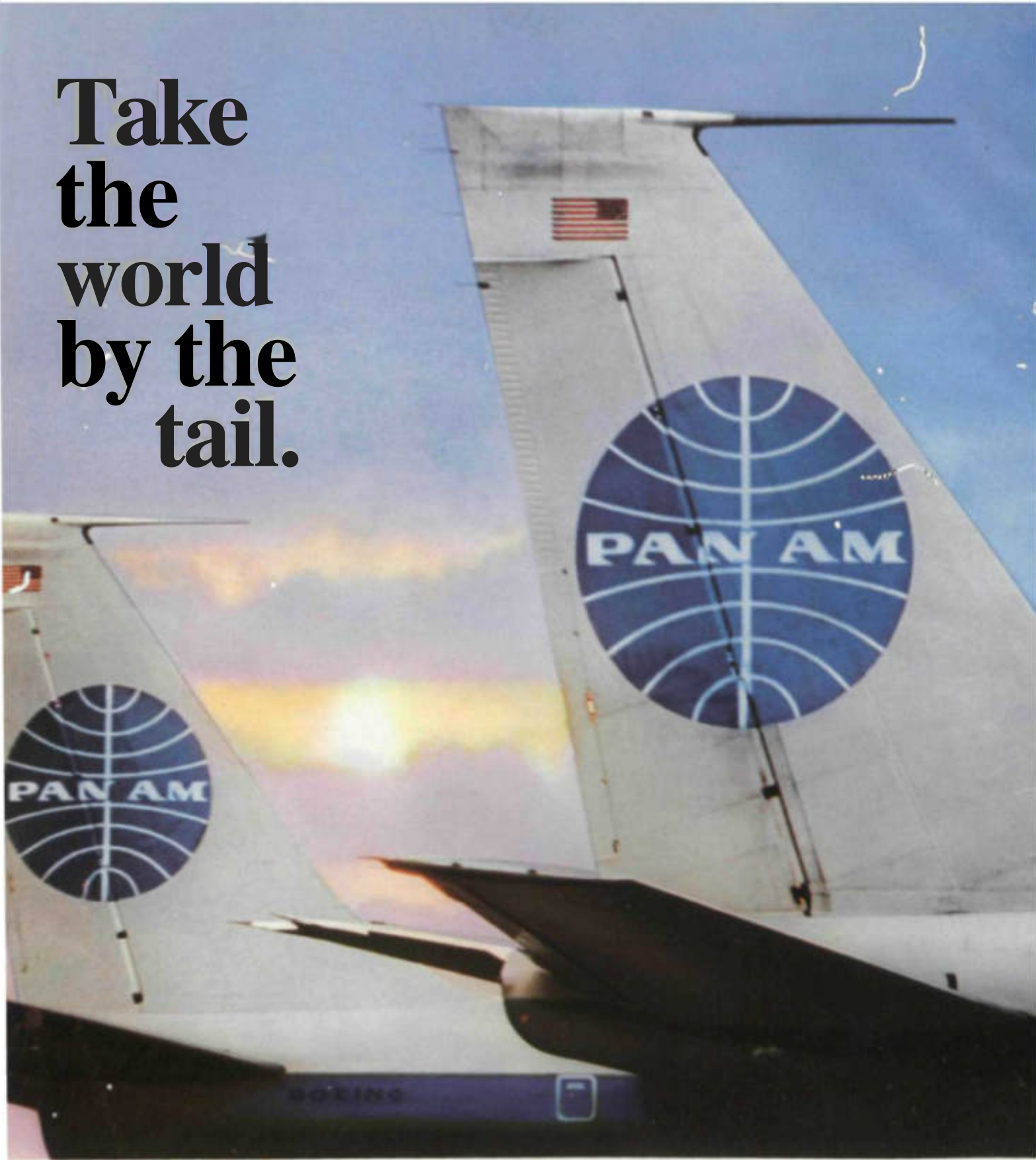
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Take the world by the tail.

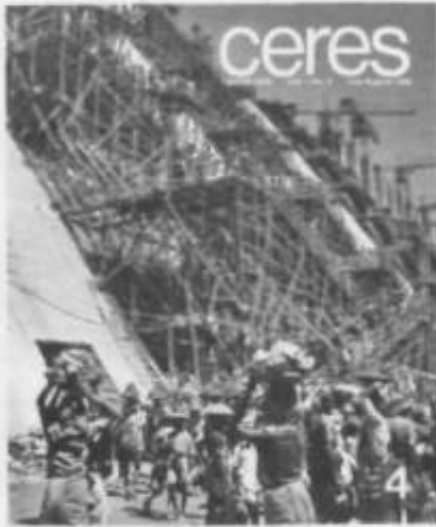


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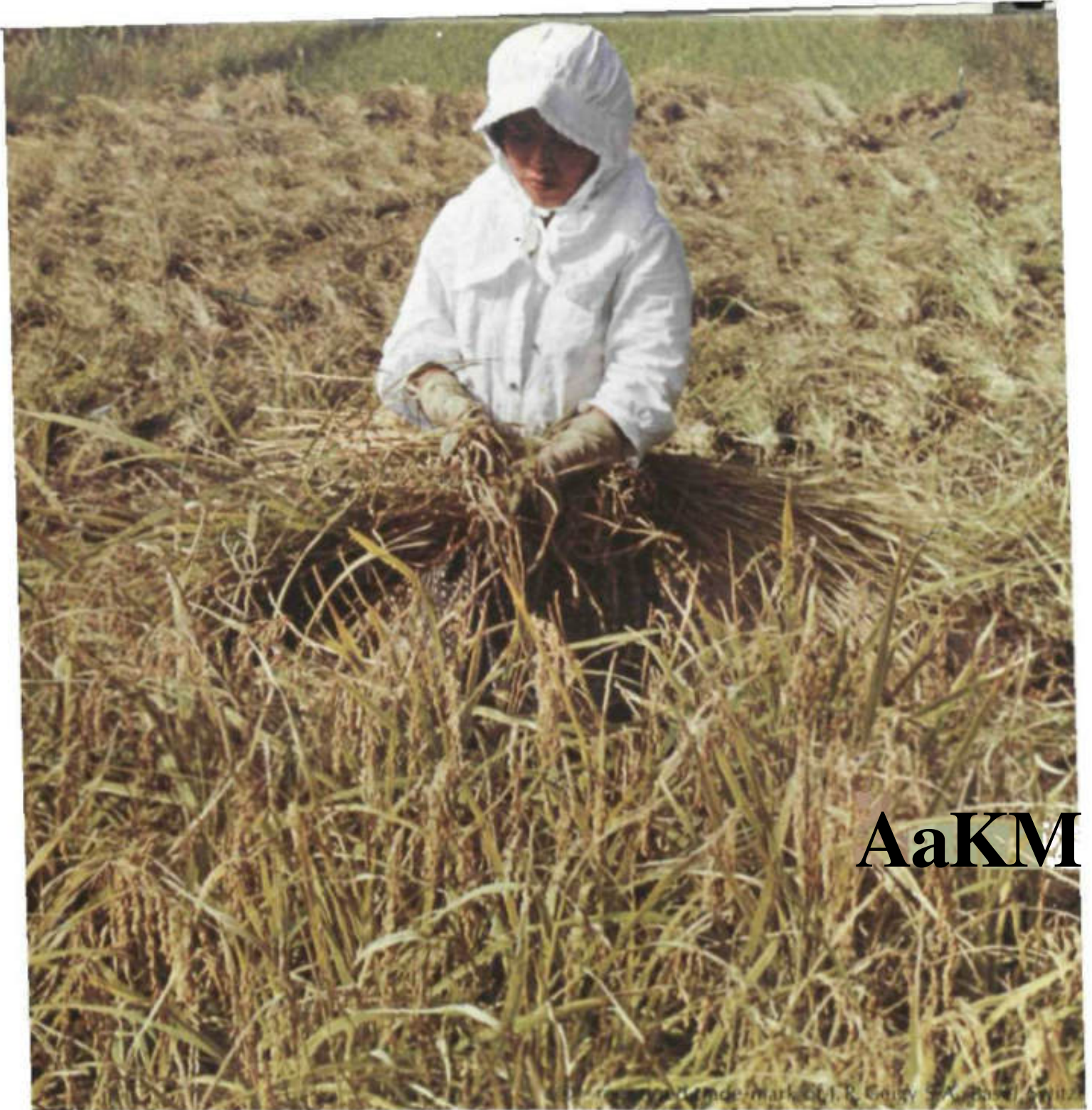
The mass of humanity is India's major natural resource. 520 million people must not only be fed but also gainfully employed.

Here, a natural combination of the two as human labor helps to build the Nagarjunasagar dam on the Krishna River (photo: A Rttet)



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The opinions expressed by the contributing authors are not necessarily those of FAO or the editor* of CtRES



AaKM

The Daily Bowl of Rice

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LATIN AMERICA

• *IDB loan for Mexico irrigation*

Mexico has just obtained a \$426 million loan from IDB (Inter-American Development Bank) to finance 560 medium-sized irrigation works covering an area of 212,000 acres and benefiting 12 million inhabitants.

The overall national development plan calls for an investment of \$3,335 million to increase the productivity of 750,000 acres of arable land.

This latest loan is in addition to \$165.5 million borrowed in 1967. Together, the

two loans are sufficient to finance 48% of the plan's first phase. Over the next four years, a further \$1,225 million will be invested in the construction of 960 small irrigation networks covering an area of 22,000 acres.

• *Cuban government decision*

The Cuban government recently decided to decrease the country's dependence on sugar as the main export commodity by encouraging the production of other crops.

Crops which are completely new to Cuba, including asparagus and strawberries aimed at European markets, are being grown on an experimental irrigated farm covering some 3,000 acres. Vines have been planted with the aim of producing Cuba's first wine.

Some 150 million coffee trees have been planted in the Havana region.

• *Colombia receives aid*

Colombia has been granted \$33.5 million in aid for the coming year by the International Monetary Fund. This opens the way to negotiations for a further \$200 million loan from a bank consortium comprising the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) and the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID).

ASIA

• *Emergency food supplies for Mauritius*

Emergency food supplies — including maize, wheat and oil — have been sent by the World Food Program (WFP) to some 24,000 people left homeless and destitute in the Mauritius area in the wake of two cyclones.

Monique hit Rodriguez Island, close to Mauritius, at the beginning of the year. It decimated the maize harvest and destroyed two houses out of three. At the end of last year, Carmen had already destroyed 60% of the harvest and left four hundred people homeless.

The government of Mauritius has distributed building materials for house construction while the International Red Cross, France, the United Kingdom, the United States and other countries have also offered assistance.

• *Pakistan meets food needs*

By 1970, Pakistan will be able to meet her own food needs and will no longer require foreign aid, President Ayub Khan announced recently.

He stated that rice production this year had increased by 14%, totaling 10 million tons. Wheat production for the same period was 5,400,000 tons — an all-time record.

• *Thailand's population control*

The population of Thailand is increasing by one million people a year at a growth



General Netr Khemayothin

rate of 3.1%. Unless this rate is slowed down, the country will lose its position as the world's leading rice exporter, stated General Netr Khemayothin, secretary-general of the National Research Council, recently.

• *Asian Development Bank loan*

The Asian Development Bank, fresh from awarding its first regular loan — \$5 million to Thailand's Industrial Finance Corporation — is now wrestling with problems of financial support and of restrictions which have been placed on this support.

The success of this regional bank will largely depend upon the amount of its agricultural development fund for "soft" loans (long-term loans with little or no interest charges). Some pledges towards the \$400 million target figure have been forthcoming — Canada \$25 million, Denmark \$3 million, Netherlands \$1.1 million and Japan \$100 million — but the major pledge of 5200 million from the United States is still stalled in Congress and, in any case, will only be released in amounts equal to the total contributions of other member countries. Canada has stated that the interest use of its pledge (apart from interest) must be for Canadian goods and services.

Canada also wants to contribute \$600,000 in technical

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assistance, one sixth in grants and the remainder in interest-free development loans to finance preinvestment feasibility studies on projects involving Canadian firms.

AFRICA

• 130,000 tons* of fertilizer

The first fertilizer plant for French-speaking Black Africa has been inaugurated at M'Bao, near Dakar, by President Leopold Senghor, of Senegal.

The new plant, using phosphates from Taiba and Tries, will produce 130,000 tons a year. This will enable Senegal to export fertilizer to neighboring countries as domestic consumption, at present, is about 60,000 tons.

The plant was financed by the European Investment Bank, the Central Economic Cooperation Fund, the French Aid and Cooperation Fund, the National Development Bank of Senegal and the International Finance Company. Several French enterprises and a German enterprise have cooperated in the construction of the factory.

• Airway* towards the EEC

The July agreement signed by Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania raises to twenty-two the number of African nations associated with the Common Market.

The agreement provides for cuts in customs duties between the three countries and the members of the European Economic Community (EEC). For commodities moving from Africa to Europe this will mean the almost total abolition of customs barriers, though if imports of coffee, cloves and canned pineapple become too high they may be subject to quotas.

For goods going from Europe to Africa, the three countries are allowing cuts of 3 to 5% on 59 products representing 15% of these countries' European imports,

• The four countries* of the Trans-Saharan

Algeria and Tunisia — and two countries, Mali and Niger, separated from them by one of the world's largest deserts — are jointly studying the possibilities and advantages of a modern road across the Sahara.

A preliminary survey costing \$50,000 has already been carried out. It concludes that construction of the highway would require some 5,100 million investment.

From Algiers, the proposed road would lead to Tamarrasset, 1,160 kilometers



to the south, where it would split into two branches: one to Tahoua in Niger, 950 kilometers away; and the other to Gao in Mali, 1,070 kilometers away.

At present, north-south trade does not exceed 10,000 tons per annum: it is estimated that it would have to rise to 50,000-75,000 tons per annum to make the road a feasible economic proposition.

Can the volume of trade amongst the four countries be expanded to amortize the cost of this giant project?

This will be established by a study to be carried out by the Trans-Saharan Liaison Committee. The study will cost \$293,000, of which \$241,900 will come from the UN Development Program, the rest to be paid by the four countries concerned.

• Africa** MHI important

The Zambezi River in Mozambique will soon give birth to a giant hydroelectric plant expected to start operations in 1974.

It is to be built at Cabora Bassa and will be the world's fourth largest with an annual output of 18,000 million kilowatt hours. The Aswan dam produces 10,000 million kilowatt hours. Electric power will be available for cities as far away as Pretoria and Johannesburg.

This amount of power will make possible the exploitation of deposits of coal, copper, bauxite and titanium. Enough water will be caught and held to develop 2,500,000 hectares of farmland surrounding a 100-kilometer artificial lake.

The Zambezi will be made navigable up to the frontier with Zambia for irrigation and land reclamation and development will allow some farmers to settle in the area.

The project will be financed by foreign loans to be repaid by proceeds from the sale of electric power. The first phase of the project is to cost about \$240 million. Three consortia — including Swedish, German, French, United States, Portuguese, Swiss, British and South African Interests — are competing to carry out the project.

• Commercial* foreign-owned firm*

A recent policy statement by President Kenneth Kaunda, of Zambia, places majority shareholdings in 24 foreign-controlled companies — mostly retail outlets and small firms — in the hands of the state-owned Industrial Development Corporation.



President Kaunda

The big copper mining companies are untouched for the moment, except for new restrictions on the amount of capital which can be exported.

Despite this protectionist trend, President Kaunda has urged continued foreign investment in mining, forestry and agricultural sectors.

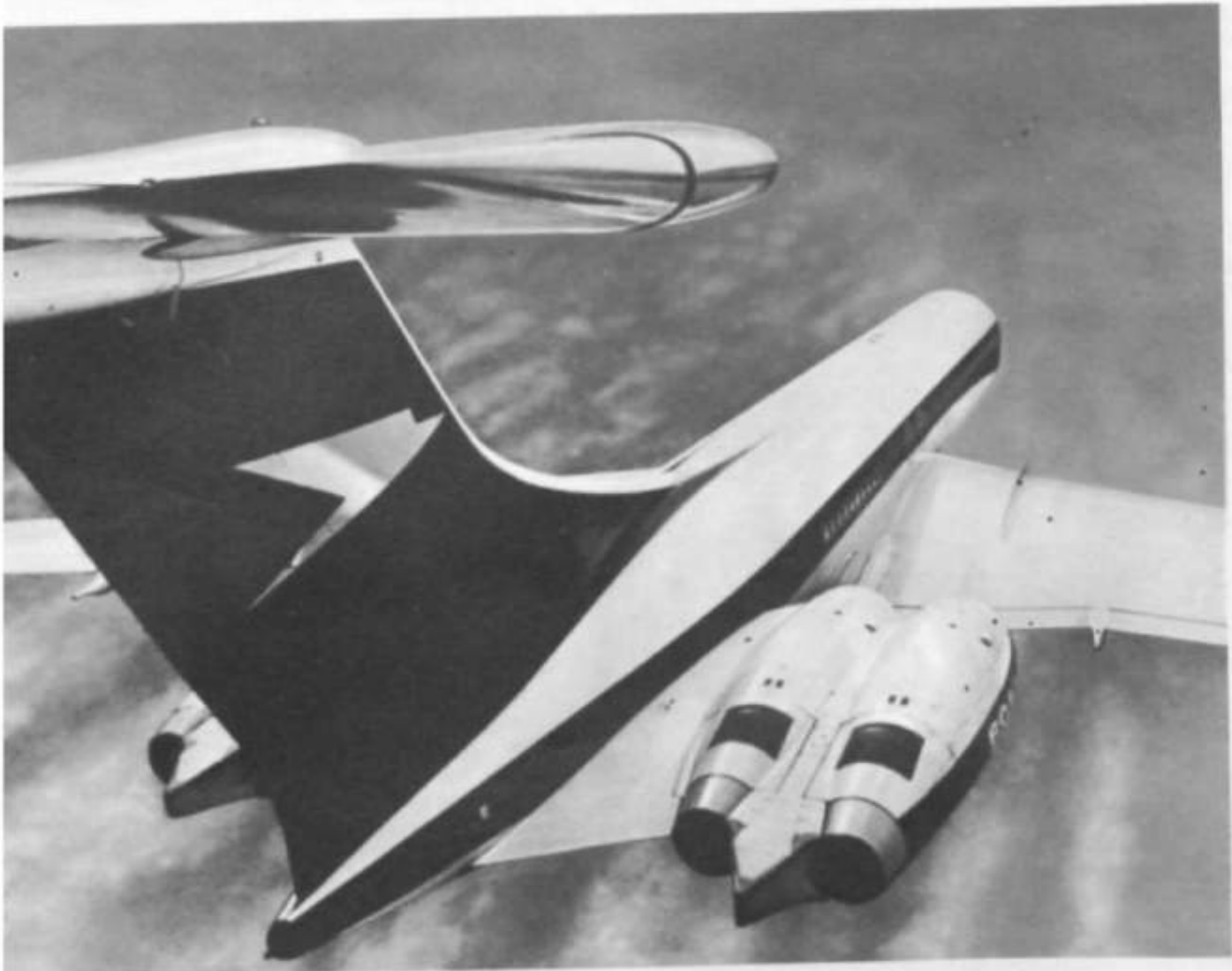
NORTH AMERICA

• 1,000 million dollars* in investment

The lending power of the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) was strengthened in June with a 542 million contribution from the United States as its share (42%) of a \$1 billion increase in IDB capital. This amount, agreed to last year, will increase the "hard loan" lending capacity from the present \$2.15 to \$3.15 billion.

• More* money in the third world* kitty

The developing country members of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) now have substantially increased drawing powers as a result of higher quotas and moderate withdrawals. The aggregate quotas of the developing countries rose from \$2.9 billion in 1962 to \$4.8 billion by the end of 1967; during the same period withdrawals increased by only \$79 million.



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• World Bank's march for more money

The World Bank is having some success with its recently-launched five-year lending projection. A little more than \$600 million a year is at present being lent to the developing countries: it is hoped that this figure can be raised to more than \$1,000 million, and this means finding new ways of borrowing money from the world's money markets.

The new World Bank President, Robert McNamara, has gained assurance from the Federal Republic of Germany that it will buy some \$200 million in World Bank bonds before the end of 1969. Japan has decided to increase its pledge to the World Bank consortium to help Indonesia from \$60 million to \$110 million. The Bank recently borrowed \$15 million in Saudi Arabia and hopes to find capital in other oil-rich areas.

There is also some possibility that three Eastern European countries — Romania, Czechoslovakia and Hungary — may join the World Bank group.

OCEANIA

• A poor 1966 to follow an excellent 1967

Asian countries face serious setbacks to economic development because of the economic problems of the United States and some western European countries, according to the UN. Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), which met recently in Canberra.

The Asian region as a whole showed a probable increase in gross domestic product from about 4% in 1966 to 8% in 1967. 1967 was a year of agricultural recovery for some countries and a somewhat less pronounced industrial recovery (or others according to the ECAFE report).

The situation still remains precarious, the report warns however, and such problems as devaluation and balance

or payment deficits could retard the export prospects of many Asian countries. Of course, balance, and on a cautious view, international trade in 1968 is likely to remain rather stagnant.

EUROPE

• Can GATT help close the trade gap?

A Swiss, Olivier Long, has succeeded a Briton, Eric Wyndham White, as the head of GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade)



Olivier Long, new head of GATT

His main task will be to consolidate his predecessor's achievements, those long-drawn-out negotiations which led to the Kennedy Round agreements for the lowering of international customs barriers. With this result achieved, 'like the mountaineer checking his foothold,' GATT intends to study measures to facilitate trade between developed and developing nations through a system of special concessions.

Mr. Olivier Long, Ambassador in London for the Swiss Confederation since 1966, thinks that GATT has an important role to play in narrowing the prosperity gap.

• Trade agreement among Group of 77

The United Arab Republic and Yugoslavia recently signed an agreement on trade expansion and economic cooperation. This provides

(or the exchange of special tariff concessions on customs duties involving over 500 products of export interest (including processed and semiprocessed fruit and vegetables).

The three signatory countries have left the agreement open on a basis of mutual benefit, to any developing country which is a member of the "Group of 77."

• Boerma predicts a breakthrough

There have been highly encouraging reports, recently, about the development of agricultural production and the possibility that the world food crisis may be approaching a solution.

These reports are circulating at the same time that other voices predict disaster as a result of inevitable famine. In view of this, it is necessary to take stock of the situation and evaluate the implications," said FAO's Director-General, A.H. Boerma, in a statement in June on the world food situation.

"It is indeed true that we may be on the verge of a breakthrough in agriculture. According to FAO's preliminary estimates food production in 1967 rose by about 3% in the world as a whole and by almost 11% in the developing regions. Although these figures reflect the fact that the two preceding years were bad, the 6% rise in the developing regions is nevertheless unusually large. Not since 1956 has there been an increase approaching this magnitude: and then it was approximately 5%.

"Several factors were involved. One was much better weather. Another was that a number of governments in the past few years have been placing greater emphasis on agriculture in their development planning, and finally, through new advances in plant breeding, there has been the introduction of high-yielding varieties of cereals suited to wide areas of the tropics and subtropics. In some places, such

as India and Pakistan, the yields per acre of rice and wheat in certain localities have been more than doubled.

"We are now able to say that there is real hope, given the right conditions and provided the right steps are taken in the right sequence, that the food situation can be transformed at least in southern Asia, which contains the world's greatest concentration of people and where famine has so often stalked the land...

"As production increases, governments and farmers will be faced with storage problems for which they are not now prepared. Storage involves rodent and pest control, which is very difficult and without which much of what is gained can be lost," Mr. Boerma warned.

There is another complicating factor, and that is the threat of continued uncontrolled population expansion, which could make a mockery of all the benefits that technical progress holds out for mankind," he continued. "To prevent this, family planning should become a built-in component of the vast infrastructure necessary for sustained economic development. Otherwise the fears expressed in the past could still come true..."



Francisco Atiumo has taken up a five-year post as Director of the World Food Programme. Mr. Atiumo, formerly technical manager of the Inter-American Development Bank.

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opinion

daring innovations needed

From an editorial in Times of India,

From time to time serious-minded men take a hard look at tomorrow and make logical speculations based on current trends.

What they see often startles the little-informed, which, only shows that all too few people have been able to appreciate the implications of the new technological revolution ushered in by breakthroughs in cybernetics, genetics, climatology, molecular chemistry and biology.

Even those who, in an abundant measure, enjoy the benefits of this revolution have not always correctly assessed its impact on human life, manners and thought.

A group of agricultural experts who recently peeped into the future confidently forecast that in another 30 years we shall have push-button farming. This is not mere fancy; all their arguments are based on facts known today.

Science, they say, will win the battle against climatic vagaries and pests. Fifteen-ton yields of wheat per hectare (four times the normal today), little embryo (replantation, electronic harvesting of crops, timed nutrient release with the help of chemically dressed fertilizer pellets, automated multipurpose machines which will do all the dirty work on the farm, and other sensational techniques are envisaged.

Tomorrow's farmer, in other words, will no longer have to toil hard in the relentless sun or despair of unpredictable or unfriendly weather.

The husk point here is that it is not circumspection and traditionalism but daring innovation that will bring about this further revolution and eradicate the specter of famine as effectively as some of the bacterial scourges have been overcome.

But all this to what end? That is easily answered. First of all, the very possibility of such a transformation in 30 years will eliminate the fear that man will outrun his food resources; it will remove the persisting threat of global hunger...

...Not all our problems will be solved of course, but it will certainly mean turning our backs on the current mood of pessimism and helplessness.



too much of a good thing

From *The Food Problem of the Developing Countries*, by Thoralf Krøstensen, secretary-general of OECD.

...If loans obtained from abroad are used for good investments they should be further, and not jeopardise, development. How, then, can the debt burden become a threat to further progress?

There are various reasons for this. In some cases the investments undertaken are not good, or the capital inflow is used to support an economic policy that permits consumption to grow too fast, so that productive capital is not created to the extent the foreign borrowing would have permitted. In fairness, it should be added that tying of aid sometimes forces the borrowing country to buy capital goods that are too expensive, relative to their quality, or to buy something that is not desirable at the stage of development which the receiving country has reached.

In other cases the rate of interest is too high. This problem is probably less important because good investments will normally yield a higher profit than even the market rates in the lending countries. The case for low interest rates is strong, however, because they introduce into the loan operation an element of grant, and then are very good reasons for this as an act of solidarity between rich and poor nations. In fact, it is regrettable that grants do not represent a larger part of the total flow of aid.

Very often the period of repayment is far too short. The development effort is something that brings about many of its

results only in the course of some decades, or even generations. In the long run every good investment will increase the export capacity of a country, but often it may be in the very long run only.

This brings us to what is probably the core of the debt problem. If the gross flow of aid is not increasing forever, the day will come in many countries when the annual amount of repayment is larger than the inflow of new aid. This means that many developing countries will become net exporters of capital to the rich countries. This does not only appear paradoxical. It will also be felt to be socially and politically harmful, and even unacceptable to public opinion in the donor countries, unless the receiving country has been particularly successful in its development efforts. In many countries population growth is likely to keep the income level rather low for a long time to come and, when social solidarity becomes more international than it is today, rich nations will not want to impose capital flight from poorer nations.

The rescheduling of debts that is now taking place in one country after another will probably, in a number of cases, imply that loans on hard terms are converted into loans on soft terms and then, eventually, into grants.

Today, nobody can tell to what extent this will become necessary or desirable. The important thing in the near future is to keep the doors open by lengthening the repayment period of new loans and by contributing to rescheduling of old debts when appropriate. Debt service should, as far as possible, be prevented from hindering the necessary imports of food or of developing goods.

A developing country can, in many respects, be compared with a new enterprise that is building up its productive machinery by means of capital supplied from outside. Now, the capital supplied by shareholders is not to be repaid at all. It remains in the company. Similarly, much of the capital imported by less developed countries should not be repaid. It should remain as a good investment.

This will happen if capital inflow increasingly takes the form of private investment instead of official loans. Every sovereign country has it in its power to take measures that will prevent this from leading to foreign control of its economy and yet make such investment attractive.

west-east trade

From the Latin-American edition of The Economist.

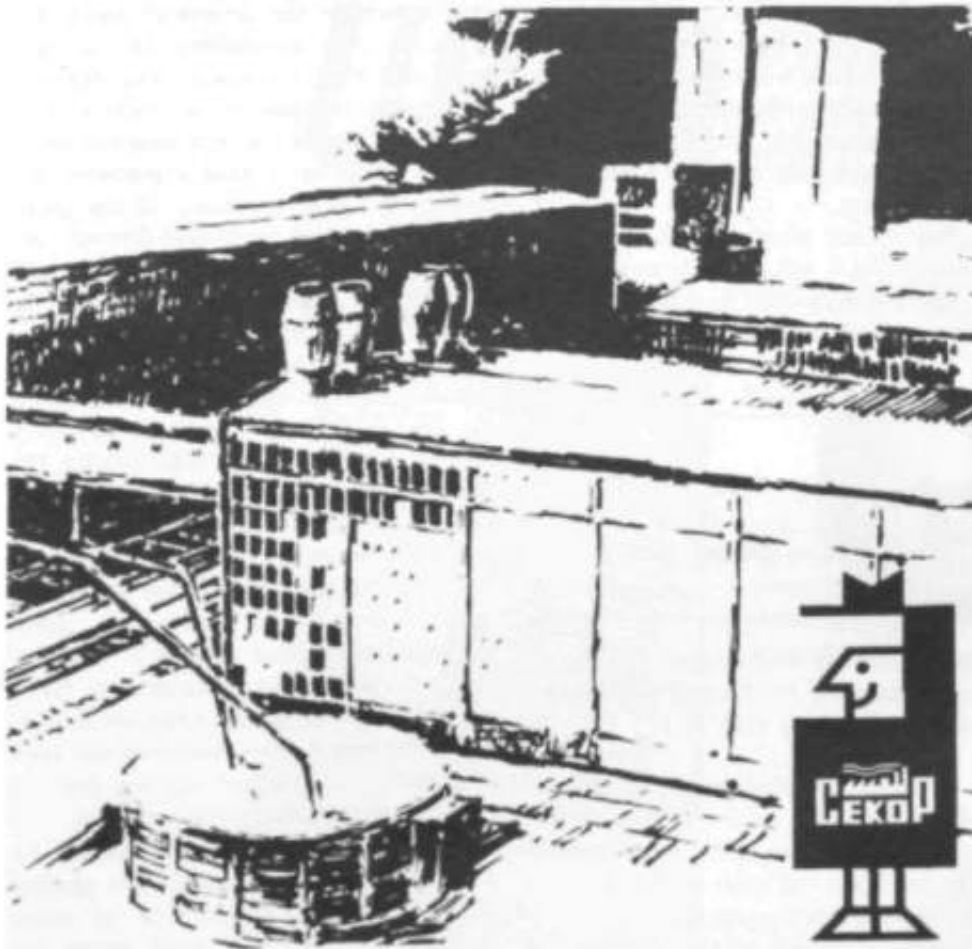
...So far as Latin America is concerned, the only real prospects it can hope for come from increased trade with the socialist countries which are, or are about to become, importers of agricultural products and food commodities. The drawbacks are difficulties of transport and problems of obtaining spare parts.

Furthermore, since the Soviet system being what it is, both parties are obliged to use western currencies; and such currencies are expensive for Latin Americans. The real value of credit depends largely on the value placed on the products of the socialist countries by the countries which purchase them; and this is equally true for the countries with centrally-planned economies when they buy South American agricultural surpluses. An attempt is being made to get round these disadvantages by a proportional mixture of trade and barter.

Moreover, when a Latin-American country signs a contract with a socialist country, it has no way of estimating the actual net price it will receive for its products until it has negotiated the sale.

There is another difficulty: large-scale imports by socialist countries create deficits in the trade balance. Therefore, the Latin American countries are obliged to capitalize their credits: Brazil, for instance, has been able to amend its bilateral contract with the Soviet Union to include the right to use its credit in other eastern European countries; Argentina amassed \$50 million in credits but found nothing that it needed to buy in eastern Europe.

To sum up, any serious analysis must take into account two significant factors: (1) the real possibilities that exist in the socialist countries for absorbing primary and some secondary production from Latin America; (2) the proportion of exports that the socialist countries are willing to finance using assistance credits. Clearly, the future growth of the eastern European market mainly depends on the growth rates of the planned economies and, in the final analysis, on the decisions of the planners.



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down to the bare bones

from the New York Times.

A Congress that is bent on cutting the fat out of this year's federal budget is down to the bones of the foreign-aid program and still hacking.

The House Foreign Affairs Committee has slashed \$600 million from the administration's \$2.9 billion request and Republicans are gunning for further cuts when the authorization bill reaches the House floor.

The committee's reduction is already too much — much too much. The aid agency is even now operating on a budget substantially below the 1% of gross national product pledged for the U.N.'s Decade of Development.

Any further cut in American foreign assistance is likely to be multiplied by similar reductions in the aid contributions of other developed countries which have tended to follow the United States lead. This would aggravate a critical shortage of international development resources when the gap between rich and poor nations is widening dangerously. It could destroy the hopes for agricultural progress raised by the success of new "miracle" seeds and precipitate development crises with serious political consequences in such key nations as India, Pakistan and Brazil.

For all its faults, foreign aid has been a vital factor in preserving hope and political stability in wide areas of the non-affluent, non-Communist world. It would be false economy for Congress to cut deeper into Ait's already "bare bones" budget.

fastest growth in history

From an article in Business Week.

What hope do the underdeveloped nations of the world have of catching up with the 20th century?

In the more advanced western nations, the general public considers the outlook grim. This view is shared by some

economists, including Gunnar Myrdal, whose deeply pessimistic book about the future of South Asia was published recently (see *Ceres* No. 3, p. 60).

But Myrdal appears to be in a distinct minority among his fellow economists. For one of the big changes in the profession in the last few years has been the emergence of a new elite group of economists in the underdeveloped countries. The men best qualified to speak for this optimistic position belong to an elite group of economists at Harvard's Development Advisory Service (IMS).

"The growth rates of the underdeveloped countries are turning in are the fastest in history," says Raymond Vernon, director of Harvard's Center for International Affairs of which DAS is a part. "And a few underdeveloped countries could double those rates in five or six years." adds colleague Richard V. Gilman.

...Between 1950 and 1965, real gross national product in the underdeveloped nations rose by an average of 4.7% a year, compared with 1.7% in the U.S. from 1870 to 1913 is generally considered to be the lowest. What is more, DAS believes that the standards of measurement often understate the true rate of growth.

many ways of betrayal

From a joint statement by the bishops of Chile.

In the spirit of the Encyclical *Papalium* promulgated by the bishops of Chile, wish to draw attention to the two following problems:

Firstly: an urgent appeal must be launched to all those who transfer a large part of their incomes abroad "without thought of the manifest wrong" they do to their country. It must not be forgotten that there are many ways of betraying one's country and this is by no means the least serious.

Secondly: in confronting the complex problem of the flight of specialists we must differentiate between the motives which prompt such acts, although we must refrain from making superficial generalization. However, if a specialist's emigration is motivated solely by the desire to increase his income above the

level of what is really necessary, then this is a wilful limitation of the Chilean community's destiny. It is unjust because it involves a usurpation of rights: engineers or doctors may be better paid in other countries, but they were trained at high cost in Chile so that they could build up the country or care for the thousands of children who have no medical services.

Chileans have the right to enjoy the benefits of such effort, and to demand that right. Certainly, specialists should be paid in proportion to their responsibilities and duties; but they cannot expect the same advantages which they might find in more developed societies.

If our own specialists abandon us while, at the same time, other countries send us specially trained people to help us overcome our difficulties, the result is both confusing and contradictory.

A document recently drawn up by many bishops of the third world contains a statement that concerns all Catholics: "Christians are normally called by God to live their lives in their own land, among their own people, in solidarity."

CREDITS

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RICE

Japan has announced that she plans to export 225,000 metric tons of surplus rice to developing countries out of a rice stock estimated at nearly 2 million tons. The United States has become the world's largest rice exporter (1,638,000 tons in 1967). The Philippines recently shipped 5,600 tons of rice to Indonesia.

Korea or North Viet-Nam, represents a 13% increase over the 1966 estimate of 160 million tons and is 5% above the previous record level of 171 million tons.

More than four fifths of the overall increase has been in the developing countries and is due to increases in both acreage (due to higher prices) and yields (due to favorable weather and improved techniques). Some of the delegates reported that the development of new high-yielding varieties had opened up possibilities of increasing production.

World rice exports for 1967 were provisionally estimated at 6.8 million tons (milled rice equivalent) compared with 7.1 million tons in 1966. The volume of world exports in 1968 is likely to be slightly higher than last year, according to the FAO study group.

Record crops in Ceylon, India, Pakistan and the Philip-

East and the centrally-planned economies was also higher. There were record crops in Japan, the United States and Australia as well as increased harvests in France and Italy.

Mainland China's exports of rice in 1967 have been estimated at slightly more than 1 million tons, about 13% lower than in 1966, according to figures compiled by FAO. This decrease was due mostly to lower sales to Japan, Ceylon and Hong Kong which more than offset increased imports to Malaysia and Singapore. Mainland China, nevertheless, ranked as the world's third largest exporter of rice, after the United States and Thailand: its share of total world rice exports amounted to one sixth for the second successive year.

The 1968 outlook for Mainland China was equally optimistic. The 1967 rice crop has been estimated at about

the first "official" rice exports (Or a country which seems well within reach of self-sufficiency in rice. Some 40,000 acres of land have been opened up in Malaysia's Sarawak State under a \$1 million fund to start irrigated rice production.

All these events illustrate the changing world pattern of rice production and exports: new producers are coming to the fore, some countries are about to reach self-sufficiency and demand is rising rapidly in others. The severe world shortage of rice over the past two years has been eased by a substantial increase in 1967 rice production. The volume of international trade in 1968 is expected to be slightly above the low levels of the preceding two years though, as demand is still strong, prices are likely to remain relatively high.

World production of paddy (rice) for 1967 is estimated at a record 180 million metric tons, according to FAO's study group on rice, which met recently in Rome. This estimate, which does not include Mainland China, North

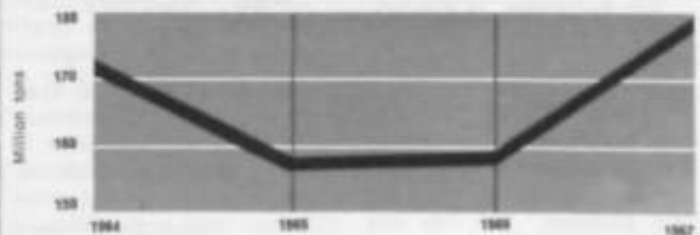
Philippines more than offset declines in Malaysia and the Republic of Korea. Output increased in Burma, Cambodia and Taiwan, though not in Thailand. Production in Latin America, Africa, the Near

8% higher than that of the previous year, and rice exports for 1968 were expected to be maintained well above the 1 million ton level. Mainland China's export earnings for 1967 were estimated at

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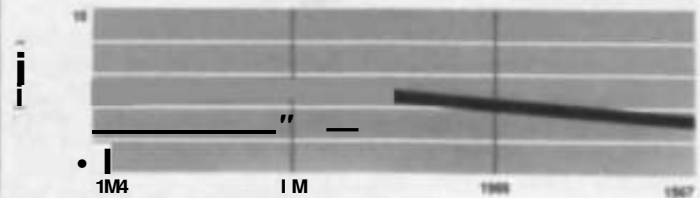
World paddy production

Excluding Mainland China, North Korea and North Vietnam



World rice export

Milled rice equivalent — Excluding Mainland China, North Korea and North Vietnam based on rice importing countries



ed to have reached an all-time high of \$165 million, due to higher prices on the world market, compared with \$154 million in 1966.

The supply and price of rice in late 1968/early 1969 will be determined by the size of the 1968 paddy crop. Acreage allotment in the United States, now the world's biggest exporter, has been increased by 20% and Australian production is to be maintained at the previous year's level. Given normal weather, rice output in Asia may be expected to resume the long-term upward trend, especially in view of new varieties and higher prices.

TEA

India and Ceylon, the world's two largest tea exporters, have agreed on a common approach to marketing. The two countries will set up a corporation, or consortium, through which they will collaborate in blending, packaging and bagging tea for overseas markets.

The agreement is the outcome of a series of meetings which the two countries have held since September 1967. Promotion and advertising will be stepped up and a fixed percentage of export earnings will be allocated for this purpose. The two are also in favor of continuing the work of the Tea Council in the United Kingdom and of promoting tea through Tea Councils in other countries.

Ceylon and India, together, produced nearly 600,000 metric tons in 1965, according to FAO statistics, more than half the world total of 1,160,000 tons. The two countries exported 430,200 metric tons in the same year out of total world export tonnage of 613,000 metric tons.

Total world tea production by 1975, outside the centrally-planned economies, has been estimated at 1.32 million tons, while demand has been estimated within the range of 1.14 to 1.20 million

tons. Thus, while production will rise at the rate of over 3% per year, demand is only expected to rise by a little more than 2% per year. This gap may be reduced by the proposed new methods of marketing and tea promotion.

UNCTAD

Various resolutions were passed at UNCTAD 2 which helped the cause of development, over and above the general agreement on 1% of the gross national product (GNP) being a reasonable aid target.

Some progress was made on such aspects as: preferential tariff arrangements; shipping, insurance and tourism; and regional economic integration. Agreement was also reached on a program of negotiations and consultations involving 19 specific commodities, including:

...**Cocoa:** reconvening of negotiating conference aimed at an international cocoa agreement.

...**Sugar:** negotiating conference to lead to an international sugar agreement.

...**Oilseeds, oils and fats:** FAO and UNCTAD secretariats invited to complete a study of possible solutions to trade problems (by end of October 1968) to be followed by the establishment of an intergovernmental consultative committee if considered necessary.

...**Rubber:** International Rubber Study Group and its consultative committee on natural and synthetic rubber producers, together with the UNCTAD permanent group on synthetics, to hasten implementation of measures recommended by an UNCTAD exploratory meeting on rubber in December 1967.

...**Sisal, henequen and abaca:** informal arrangements — conducted under the auspices of FAO's study group on hard fibers — to be evaluated and further steps, includ-

ing the possibility of a formal agreement, to be considered.

...**Jute:** informal arrangement — under the auspices of FAO's study group on jute, kenaf and allied fibers — to be continued and strengthened. Possibility of a buffer stock scheme to be explored.

...**Bananas, citrus fruit, tea, wine and cotton:** various interested bodies — FAO's study group on bananas, study group on citrus fruit, consultation on tea, and ad hoc meeting on wine, as well as the International Cotton Advisory Committee — were asked to transmit their conclusions and suggestions for remedial measures to the UNCTAD committee on commodities with a view to arranging intergovernmental consultations.

...**Pepper, tobacco and shellac:** commodities studies were called for these items, for which no study groups exist, to be followed, if necessary, by appropriate intergovernmental consultations.

WINE

The first major step toward setting up a continuing international forum on industries based on the grape was taken in late June by a 26-nation ad hoc consultation on wine and vine products. It was recommended that FAO establish a formal study group to deal with problems besetting international trade in vine, dried vine fruit and fresh table grapes.

The proposal will be considered by FAO's Committee on Commodity Problems in September. If approved, it would be charged with providing "a forum for consultation and studies on all aspects" of these products, including the economic aspects of production and conversion of vineyards to more remunerative crops.

Among the matters the group would consider would be prices, trade barriers, distribution systems, ways of

improving wine quality and possibilities of increasing trade and consumption. One important investigation would be on the problems of wine stocks, particularly in relation to Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia; at present Algeria alone has a surplus of some 14 million hectoliters. The proposed group would also analyze the situation for grape juice, dried vine fruit and table grapes.

In reviewing the marketing prospects for dried vinefruits, delegates noted that the best prospects for trade exports in the future for raisins and currants, which also suffer from surplus stocks, lay in the Soviet Union, eastern Europe and Japan,

COPRA

World copra production fell in 1967 to 3.2 million tons, 250,000 tons below the 1966 level. This was mostly due to a sharp drop in Philippine yields resulting from insufficient rainfall during 1966. Indonesian production improved marginally, but there were declines in Ceylon and in New Guinea.

The 1967 shortage resulted in a sharp increase in the price of coconut oil in western Europe, the United States and Japan which, together, account for about 80% of world imports of copra and coconut oil.

Prospects for 1968 point to another year of reduced output, again on account of the Philippines, due to insufficient rainfall and typhoon damage. The long-term outlook is also dependent upon the Philippines. This country has, however, proved to be the most dynamic among coconut-producing countries and acreage has increased some 62% from 1957-65. Philippine copra production should soon begin to show a sharp upward trend and by the late 1970s should top 2 million tons compared with the present level of 1.5 million tons.

Development means willingness to participate

A man who has spent his life directing bilateral and multilateral aid programs is interviewed on the motivation

by PAUL-MARC HENRI and philosophy of development



Q> What do you think of the effectiveness of development programs?

I recently read in *the New York Times* an extract from one of the debates in the United States Congress. One of the questions asked was: "How much has the United States contributed to international aid?" The response stated that U.S. aid programs starting in 1941 including the Marshall Plan, had totaled \$90,400 million, not counting military aid. The countries that received most included the United Kingdom (\$7.7 billion), France (13 billion), and the Gambia (\$1 million).

What has been achieved? I would reply that the United States has achieved a great deal. The Marshall Plan (1948-1954) is not simply an expression of goodwill to Europe;

it is a major step in the development of Europe. Even now and then, the Marshall Plan has a political purpose. On the one hand, it is a political program. On the other, it is an investment to obtain a specific and immediate interest.

There is a difference in the philosophy of participation in the United Nations: on the one hand, the criteria are economic; on the other, the criteria are not really economic but which reflect a general desire to do something.

'Doing something' is an excuse for what we have failed to do — a sop to a guilty conscience over the military burden (the world economy) — the price of fear? There has been some talk of transferring money spent on armaments to development — it is, in fact, an official tenet of the United Nations — but we live in a dualistic world and the idea has little chance of acceptance.

Paul-Marc Henri, formerly Director of the United Nations Office for Africa and the Sahara, is currently Director of the United Nations Office for West Africa.



lieve that what we are doing cannot be analyzed, cannot be broken down into politically, economically or philosophically motivated ends. But, at least, we act.

The development of international programs is astounding compared with the prewar situation. It is a major historical phenomenon. Even if the amounts involved are relatively insignificant they are, nevertheless, enormous compared to what was negotiated before the war.

Q. What is the reform-value of bilateral and multilateral programs?

I was administering bilateral aid to countries outside the French community before I worked with a multilateral program. At that time, I had certain views on the problem, more recently, seeing it from a multilateral standpoint, I have different ideas. In any case, I think the question is somewhat irrelevant.

First, let us consider the question of *Social and Economic*. Three years ago in Washington, **Rests** said to me: "When you can prove to me that aid in multilateral form is more effective than bilateral aid, I recommend in the right quarters that the amount of aid to the United Nations be increased." But that's not the point. Our experience in the field is not enclosed in a vacuum. Bilateral and multilateral aid are often motivated differently but both deal with a living environment: they are constantly interacting. Effectiveness, in the true sense of the word, is not necessarily the best criterion and there is no effectiveness in the commercial sense.

We try, for instance, to establish a connection between the proportion of costs for investment and pre-investment. We work it out this way: we take the existing investment and then, counting backward, determine the pre-investment necessary for undertaking the investment. We decided, empirically, that we would give 1 to 2% to pre-investment, and, therefore, 98% to the investment itself. I find this form of calculation fascinating but, of course, it's completely wrong since the decision to invest has already been made in advance and the pre-investment is dragged in afterwards.

True, when the Special Fund was created our experience tended to prove, and may still prove, that investments were too often made without pre-investment and that, as a result, they were often faulty or unsuitable. But do not also assume that we need only undertake pre-investment studies and that investment will automatically follow. Unsound.

Investment depends on many more factors than a mere pre-investment study. Insofar as such a study is successful and results in implementation it is already part of a complete and integrated decision-making procedure. We don't automatically touch off a trigger mechanism by saying: "Here's a study — lent me 10 million dollars." It is true that we are more likely to get 10 million dollars by submitting a good study than none at all; yet there have been cases where we advised against investment and, three months later, the government borrowed 40 million dollars, although naturally under unfavorable conditions. I find it difficult to judge the whole pattern of effectiveness.

What is important, however, is the release of potential energy resulting from technical assistance or pre-investment efforts. It is significant that there is now a sort of major interest in development all over the world, a keen awareness of the need for development and, often, of its pitfalls,

This is mostly due to the technical market operations. When I say large-scale I am not exaggerating: it is not to be compared with those begun 15 or 20 years ago. We are only now reaping the fruits of a new realism on the part of governments over the possibilities of investment and of mobilizing both domestic and foreign resources.

Only now have they acquired a keener awareness of the time and space factors, of the negative factors of development and the necessary counter measures. This new awareness is due, to a large extent, to the patient, hidden educational effects of international technical assistance.

Frequently, bilateral donors become impatient with inadequacies or outright failures of their *aid* program, cannot resist preaching to the recipient: "I told you so. You shouldn't have done this or that. . . you should have organized your land reform. . ." being extremely irritating.

Bilateral and multilateral aid

Investment and pre-investment

Releasing potential energy

The dialectic of bilateral aid

At the opposite extreme, though stemming from the HUM latitude, hut fur demagogic reasons, there has been a readiness to dispense with conditions and to give whatever is asked for, which is equally reprehensible. I think that a truly reciprocal relationship — the check and countercheck afforded by commissions and sub-commissions — with all the necessary apparatus of democracy, which seem on the surface to be costly in time and money, bring us closer to an objective evaluation of reality.

Q. To what extent can development tie to RI rolled?

The World Bank is rather rigorous in its decision-making process. However, by listing the various limitations to development and by stressing the principle of reimbursement it avoids over-optimistic predictions.

It has introduced a healthy note of realism in the preparation and conditions for loans compared to the way loans were handled even in Europe, between the two world wars, above all in Germany. There has been a veritable loan craze and certain developing countries have not been exempt from it. Yet the craze was restrained by the constant realism of the World Bank. I feel if there were any honors list for which the Bank should reach, first prize.

By now, thanks to detailed studies and a steady improvement in statistical methodology and in practical technical means of assessing resources, we have acquired a considerable knowledge of economic phenomena.

We are much better qualified to judge the physical and objective limitations to development than we used to be. We now know practically all the negative factors and forces opposing development: we are thoroughly acquainted with the problems of population, soil erosion, water and air pollution and the misuse of mineral resources. Still, some aspects continue to elude us — usually those leading to a positive rather than negative interpretation. We can only guess at these optimistic aspects.

There are the still-undiscovered resources, fifteen years ago no one dreamed that Libya possessed oil, for instance. Technology undoubtedly opening up new channels to needed resources. Our time is truly a time of transition: we can imagine anything and everything when the future is concerned.

We can say that the world is heading for a disaster because of the sheer inadequacy of resources in proportion to population and our inability to organize a rescue operation, yet we must agree with Piul Hoffman that there are exceptional opportunities to recoup our situation, provided we act with sufficient tact and skill keeping in mind the need for an overall approach (though good mensural will, *ip, w/mio*, engender counter-forces).

The leaders in all countries are in exactly the same position. We can, from time to time, find every one of them expressing completely pessimistic views.

It must be admitted that the present administration of public affairs and development does not work, or works badly. In many developing countries, following the development models, believed, in good faith, that it was only necessary to set targets, make too approximate assessments of their natural resources, estimate the difference and say: "We have this much, you must give us that much." Nigeria's plan, and those of many other countries, were established this way. But every year the demands on foreign aid grew larger in relation to supply. The developing countries cried: "You promised this. . . you haven't done it. . . we are not responsible for our failures."

This was a painful period with many crises. Undoubtedly Indonesia's and Nicaragua's tragedy, and others I could mention, were the result of this situation: their aims were extremely ambitious and now they can no longer even function properly.

Q. What are the motivations of development?

We must distinguish among the different types of projects we support. Some are optimistic projects, opening up new perspectives and leading to new solutions. Others are projects applied to systems which are already virtually wiped out, where the factor of development, the decay of the system, threaten to outweigh the development (action). The development is unstable and international action can only

The attraction and danger of loans

The realism of the World Bank

A disastrous or an exceptional future?

A partial understanding of objectives,

Some progress, win, (often) lose



help to balance it: the absence or inappropriateness of it may lead to a downward spiral and complete collapse.

I don't know which will prevail, the positive or the negative forces. What I do know is that, in the final analysis, the force which drives development is provided by the will. By will I mean the firm intention, from an international point of view, not to be paralyzed by the debilitating powers of bureaucracy. They are considerable and are inherent in any organization, whether civil, political, military or religious. There are also forces of scepticism and destruction within government themselves: the impatience of the younger generations who are ready to demolish the established structures which were longer ago. Nothing has been prepared to tackle these enormous, unresolved problems, in this respect ours is a dangerous time, but there have been plenty of ages like it.

Q. In what form should aid be given?

Development implies, by definition, an inter-disciplinary approach. It does not concern merely inanimate objects but living beings as well. As everyone knows, in any plan, even a physical one, you always have problems of feedback, of correction and adjustment. We may also say that, by definition, any system [that works] is one where the feedback is sufficient to allow the mechanism to adapt itself to new tasks.

When there is no feedback the result is entropy and, sooner or later, the system stops functioning. That is, if we fail to constantly correct our operations (and by 'we' I mean governments as well as international organizations) we are in constant danger of finding ourselves in a condition of stasis, or static balance, and, often, even profound deterioration. In the case of the multi-disciplinary approach, I believe we must submit to an imperative need; we must apply system analysis to a given situation while remaining fully aware of its inherent limitations.

We are dealing with the fate of millions of people, free units possessed of an independence of thought and action. They behave even less predictably than meteorological phenomena. We cannot continuously feed all these variables into a computer. There are limits to our analysis but, nevertheless, we must define an objective. An engineer at the California Institute of Technology, for instance, recently suggested applying systems analysis to the United Nations. He proposed the following study: first construct an ideal model of the city as you would like it: compare it with the present plan, and then, sector by sector, analyze the differences between the reality and the model, finally, assuming the model is accepted as the ultimate goal, rework the final plan through a series of sector studies. Naturally this is a hypothetical plan, but the logic behind it is sound.

We know what we want: to enable 3.5 thousand million people in a dynamic state of population growth to co-exist within a limited area.

The world is a closed system, at least at the moment. In a closed system, by definition, all negative and positive actions and aspects must cancel each other out. **Consequently**, by examining our **world as a whole**, global in the true sense of the word, we can readjust the national plans, which are organic units of building blocks of decision. **These are based on other blocks with even wider objectives**.

Q. How should development be applied to a completely changing world?

We can reasonably assume that there will be a worldwide **communications network** in ten years — it is being organized at the present time. We are already **bringing national projects to international objectives** and, logically, in 10 or 15 years a practically complete **network will exist** on a worldwide scale. With all the necessary feedbacks and corrective mechanisms. We can predict that such a system will also be created for the world's air communications. In these sectors the application of the principle does not encounter much resistance.

On the other hand, matters are not going so well so far as the organization of the **world economy**. This question is complicated by problems of **international exchange**, currencies and economic disintegration. **Under the old system**, one lives within a structure of co-existence rather than integration. Apart from the **Mark and immediate problems of subsistence**, there are educational and sociological questions — **the progress has broken down**.

Development must constantly be adapted

3.5 thousand million people

Human society is a closed system

National projects, international objectives

Everywhere we come up against an earlier system, so solidly fix'd that we find it only at the regional level but even at the national level. Here too, we are confronted by an accumulation of faults, or if not strictly speaking faults, of the overwhelming dominance of the archaic system.

When western Europe colonized America it was a system in its own logic on virgin soil. We have now reached a remarkable point in human history when it has become impossible for co-existing systems to ignore each other. We are forced to set up a system of inter-penetration. The difficulty is that most of the decisions concerning biological, ecological and other factors lie in the national sphere and will continue to do so. I do not, flatly and absolutely, see any authority issuing binding orders in these fields.

It will become necessary to compromise between the will of national units and the needs of the international system. Viewed from this standpoint, the action of the international organisations becomes meaningful. What we call the Indicative World Plan or the World Employment Plan are simply attempts to define a common objective for the system.

Q: Can national initiative and inspiration be reconciled with a 'strategy'?

I believe that the U.N. Development Programme is moving in this direction. We have drawn the attention of governments to the fact that whatever decisions they make at the national level have an international impact. They set off forces and counter forces, correcting and readjusting forces which, unless guided in the right direction, have a negative effect.

International trade is a classic example. I once asked a mathematician: "If you look at the payments balances of the various countries, there are virtually no creditor nations. The deficits are larger than the credits. How do you explain this in a closed work system?" The answer was that the total sum should be zero but, in fact, it is not because the vectors do not always move in the same direction. We have a system of dynamic imbalance.

It can be explained like this; while the absolute volume of foreign trade is increasing, the participation of the underdeveloped countries is decreasing. The more developed part of the world is producing more, while the less developed part is experiencing under-production and under-consumption. This is not a new phenomenon but it is a far more integrated world. The mutual dependence and interdependence are much more immediate. The process of correction is, however, more developed.

It is true that the United States contributes in aid to the rest of the world 19% of the total amount being spent by the UK this year. Roughly \$1,000 million annually going to the developing countries — as an absolute figure, not counting the billions of dollars — the international world, that is the World Bank Group and the UNDP, account for only \$1,000 million. It must be mentioned, however, that most of this flow of capital is artificial: consisting mainly of compensations in order to avoid a worsening of the situation.

For instance, if a certain country gives \$100 million (which, moreover, it does not have itself but borrows elsewhere) to provide goods or equipment, it knows very well that it will not be reimbursed within, say, twelve years, but it believes that new balances will be created in that time which will enable it to obtain a new loan. It is quite natural, and I am not criticizing the way of doing things. I am merely saying that it is a difficult way and accumulates apparent deficits.

Q: Under the 'development' policy?

Our situation is not altogether clear and the decisions remain wholly artificial. By definition, a decision is artificial, otherwise we would be living in Adam Smith's world. Therefore, we live in a universe of artificial decisions. A discretionary world where, in most cases, exchanges are maintained by specific kinds of discretion. The whole problem is to decide whether we should accelerate in our present direction toward the more distant future. Should we go further still, or stop? Of course, change is inevitable. Should we stick to palliatives, which is what we are doing all the time now, through banking and credit channels, bilateral agreements in barter or other forms? Or do we intend to apply realistic remedies for instance,

The transition from co-existence to inter-penetration

The force of inertia of the former systems

The example of World trade

The imbalance is more obvious today

A flow of loans

The whole system of compensations rests on an a priori assumption



to create a large-scale increase in the developing countries' purchasing power?

Whatever we undertake must fit into one overall plan. In short, if we are willing to help maintain the discretionary movements and increase them, we will be contributing to development. It doesn't matter that, taken separately, project by project, the impact is imperfect. What does matter is the whole, the overall picture, and not the particular action. This does not mean that we shouldn't employ rigorous methods of analysis. We need a certain discipline for every move we make.

However, the point is not in any one action, but in the whole. If we contribute to these different currents, we are participating in development. If, on the other hand, we create opposing currents, we are against it.

Q. What role can private capital play in the process?

Private capital already plays a sizable part which is not often correctly analyzed. We interpret private capital as movements of international capital but there are also substantial movements of national, or marginally international, private capital as in Brazil and India.

It must be clearly understood that when we speak of private capital we mean all of it, not just international private capital, such as that of X, a large company which is interested in establishing a subsidiary in another country. The real criterion is the role of private capital in each country. I feel that in most countries the role of private capital should be increased. However, the supply of private capital itself depends on government decisions. Take the United States at present, for example: the supply of private capital has been reduced by a policy of taxation and distribution of costs and profits resulting from other external factors. We might even say that as long as private capital continues to operate within these limits it will not have the same opportunities for expansion as it has had in recent years. In the same way, in a country like Brazil, the relation between government and private capital is unstable and uncertain, with inflation also playing a large role as a factor of adjustment.

In western Europe, too, there are countries where one can predict with certainty that the future economy will be mixed, that is, based on both state and private capital: this has already happened in many places.

We are moving toward the kind of world where the relations between the state and the private sectors will be extremely numerous and complex. Our analysis of any future private capital movements as part of the movement of official international aid will have to take into account the mixed character of the operation from the outset.

Private capital is often criticized. We say to government: "What you are giving is not aid — it is an encouragement to your exporters and bankers." In that sense even aid provided by governments is private. On the other hand, certain governments employ private channels in order to act discreetly and avoid political commitments.

What do we mean then when we say that, in a period of transition, multilateral aid offers more advantages than bilateral aid? If we mean that private decisions (as distinct from the general political position) must continue to play a role in development, I would agree because this is still one of the best mechanisms for adjusting to circumstances as we find them. It is not a perfect mechanism. It needs improvement but, so far, private initiative is still, unquestionably, the most flexible and effective means of adapting to the changing needs of consumption. It is the best solution for handling commodities and even for certain capital goods. I think everyone agrees with this. In the RMB countries it is considered that certain economic sectors should be left to individual initiative.

Here too we can apply the swan analysis concept. It would be visionary to suppose that the adjustment resulting from individual decisions of a private nature would be enough to run the world. The imbalances are too great, and the adaptive mechanism of private initiative leads to increase them. But if we try, in one way or another to O.K. them by government decisions, we then have a situation of near equilibrium and private initiative again comes into its own.

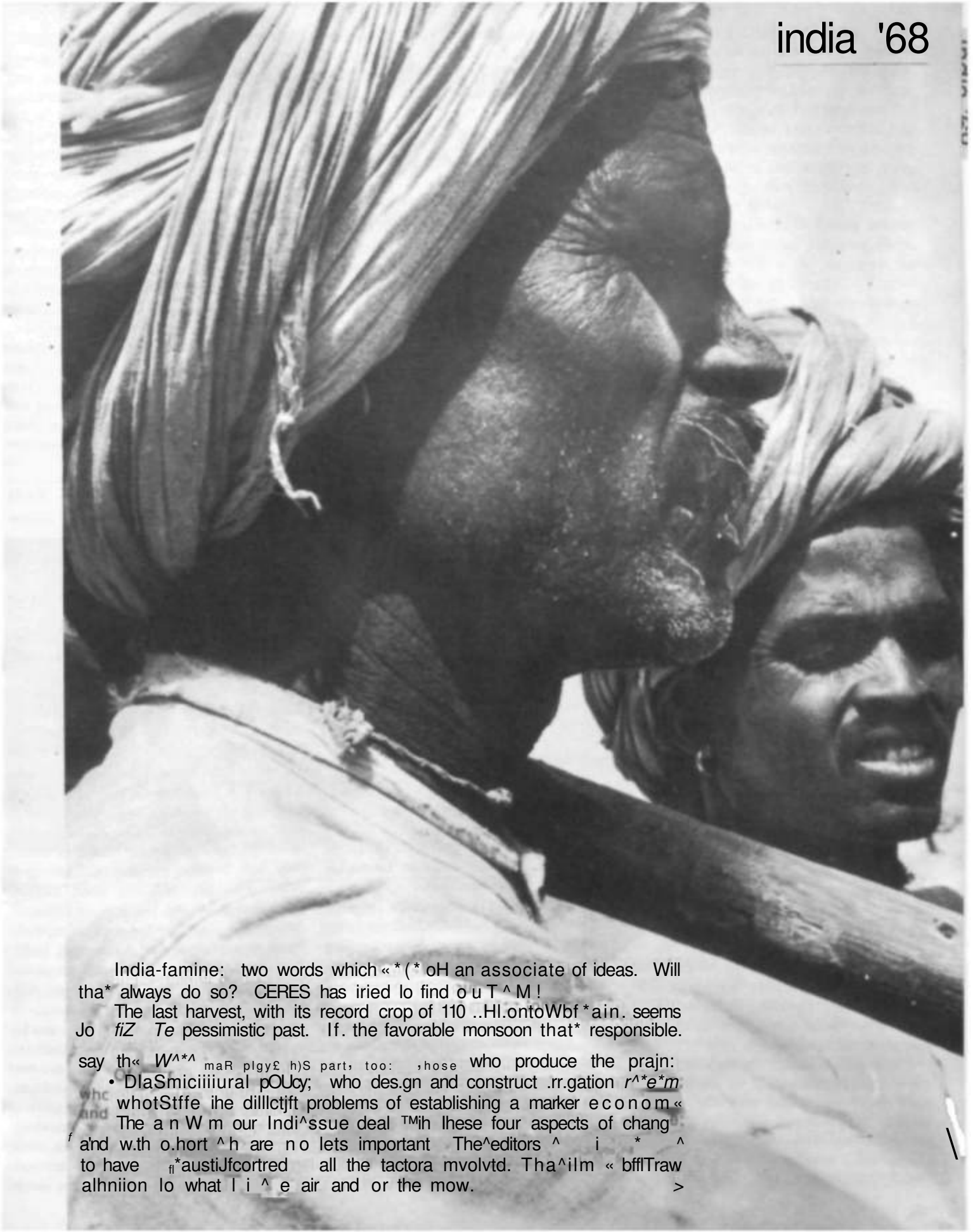
What is meant by private capital

National policies and private capital

The advent of a mixed company

Private initiative in transition

The dialectic of private initiative and state control



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Enough wheat for export?

An important choice has been made: government spending is being channeled into selected areas as the quickest way of increasing production

by *CLAUDE MOISY*

Today, Shri Jagjivan Ram, India's Minister of Agriculture and Supply, radiates confidence and satisfaction. This year, the official estimate of his country's grain crop is 95 million tons, 6 million more than the record set three years ago.

But, sometimes, good news carries its own dangers. Coming after two years of shortage due to droughts in the main production regions, this unprecedented success has prematurely convinced many people that, after twenty years of stalemate, India has finally solved its agricultural problems.

Optimism is at a new high. Speaking recently before a gathering of farmers in a village near Delhi, Mr. Jagjivan Ram unhesitatingly declared that the worldwide famine, which the experts predict will threaten the world by 1975, will not affect India. "Long before that we shall certainly produce enough to feed ourselves and, if all goes well, we shall have a wheat surplus for export."

This is the theme that the Ministry of Agriculture's information services stress and vary with mounting enthusiasm in articles on what they now call "the Green Revolution."

For the time being, the rigorous *Economic Survey*, submitted by the government every year along with the budget, is more reserved: "the large increase

in grain production for 1967-68 is chiefly the result of favorable weather conditions as compared to the two preceding years. However, a considerable part of the increase can be attributed to the governmental measures taken to raise the production capacity of Indian agriculture... Assuming the crop season proves normal, India will have passed the critical stage... and it will be possible to rationalize the food economy and reduce the recourse to imports."

Now agricultural strategy

What is the new agricultural development strategy? How was it arrived at? What are its chances for success and its hazards? These are some of the questions which have recently assumed enormous significance for Indian public opinion.

The Agricultural Intensive Program (AIP) is based on a fact which may run counter to many westerners' preconceived ideas, but which the experts do not challenge: if Indian agriculture is stagnant it is not because the 350 million Indians who work on the land are lazy or backward, but because they lack the means to work more effectively.

The new strategy, therefore, consists of making available the technical means for achieving higher productivity to the greatest possible number of farmers, by providing them with irrigation, high-yield seed, chemical fertilizer and pesticides.

Until now — that is, until the severe food shortages of the past two years — agriculture had never seriously received priority in India's development plans. In a country where over 70% of the population depends exclusively on farming the land, the Department of Agriculture's allocations, up to the end of the third five-year plan (1965-66), never accounted for more than 9% of equipment expenditures whereas industrial investments often came to over 20%. Irrigation outlays fell from 9.26% (1960) to 6.5% (1966).

In fact, in the period immediately following independence, agriculture was unfashionable. Nehru's India surrendered to the spell of heavy industry, like many other former colonized countries once they had become masters of their own fate. This situation was soon further complicated by the problem of bilateral foreign aid which always goes more readily to prestige projects. As a result, India now has a steel industry with an overcapacity of about 50%; while it must still import two-thirds of its **fertilizer**.

There is another factor which works against the development of agricultural production. An admirable desire for social justice, after centuries of feudal exploitation, gave rise to the oversimplified idea that agricultural progress required each Indian farmer to possess his own small plot of land. We have witnessed a proliferation of family farms too small

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to make ends meet, even if the necessary financial and technical means enuld. by some miracle, have been given them.

Moreover, we have seen private cspkal. that of the former large landowners and local dignitaries, turn away from agricultural activities just at the time when stale funds were being directed toward other priorities. The palliative of agricultural credit **cooperatives**, which was timidly introduced, only produced disappointing results. In a system which, for political reasons, operates without obligations or sanctions, too large a share of credit, cx- prided¹ by favoritism, was sidetracked into aon-agiicultural expenses: purchases of consumer goods, costs of weddings or **religious** ceremonies.

It must be admitted that, throughout this period, the small financial and technical means made available to agriculture were not put to optimum use either. A

counter to the practices pursued for **fifteen** years. Putting efficacy first, it concerned the development factors (credit, fertilizers, selected seed, pestj- ddes) on those few already-favored agricultural areas which were best quali- fied to obtain results from Them.

SHU 4mmn*mmt am exports

" Doon'i iliv adoption of the package program as rhc basis of the government's agricultural policy mean ihc sanctioning of inequalities existing between producer regions?" asked critics of the system.

Certainly *the* controversy that was to break out on (his question in the Indian government and ruling circles in 1964-65 did not stem from political motives alone. The members of the Plan Commission, inclined, to dogmatism, were thoroughly convinced lhal a balance in the rate of

million tons the following year. This meant a set bat-k of tun years. And it was all (he nmrc acute because the coun- try, economically weakened by the Sep- tember 1%5 war with Pakistan and the suspension of foreign import crcdils that went with ii. was in absolutely no position Co deal, through its own resources **done**, with the shortage that threatened, first Orissa, and then Bihar.

It was a rude shtn:k 10 Indian leaders, to find that, after three five-year plans, agriculture was still at the mercy of the harvest and. when it failed, of United States food surpluses. This psychologi- cal factor was decisive.

The United States wheat imports — presented as exceptional and temporary measures when the first P.L. 480 agree- ment (deliveries payable in Tupccsj'w signed in 1956 — had constantly increas- ed. Such imports had risen from 2 mil-

YEAR	POPULATION <small>(Um.nni)</small>	GROSS PRODUCTION OF FOODSTUFFS <small>(Million metric tons)</small>	NET PRODUCTION OF FOODSTUFFS <small>(Million metric tons)</small>	IMPORTS <small>(Million metric tons)</small>	AVAILABILITY PER HEAD <small>(Grams per day)</small>
1951	363	55	48	4.8	304
1956	399	69.2	60.5	1.4	430
1961	443	82	71.7	3.5	465
—	—	—	—	—	—
1965	467	89	77.8	7.45	475
1966	499	72	62.9	10.3	400
1967	511	75	66.6	8.7	400
1968	525*	95*	83*	7.5*	430*

Source: Economic Division of the Indian Ministry of Finance

concern **for** equality, vimelime not free from a strung dose of demagog), provoked a tendency to split up irrigation budgets and to assign fertilizers so thai **tnetytmt gM His iban**. The importance of maintaining a regional balance wnhin 'he central government of New Delhi, and a balance among the diMriets within each *•*, loo often lc;id to an atom i/iit ion of ercdhs and capital goods which undoubt- edly injured their effective nets.

We can hardly wonder that, in this **peftkal** conical, the packigc-progrant experiment aroused many ijoutHs. It w. " based on a pragmatic approach running

economic development had to be **main-** tained between the serious **fevdl** of **w-** **ejety**. They felt ihal **ooocemdag** the **me:ISI si** improved agricultural pruden- tii.n jri a few prixilened iirea* might offer short-term advantage, but thai it could **involve** inliniuMy greater danger to the aionlrs^ **MOW twillinn fa** ihc lon^ run.

The debate would still be going on were it not fur the catastrophe of the iwo successive drought years of 1965 and 14MI. **The** country was literally on lhc brink of economic disaster. Grain out- put, which had attained a record ft9 mil- lion ions in 19M-65, abruptly fell lo 72

.....tuns in **1951** to 4 million in 1960 and **am** 5 million in **1964**, according to **(be** otiiuul M.ii-itks n([IK- Ministry of Agriculture. F he\ reached 7 million tons in Whf> and 10 million in l<ta7, follow- ing the jireai droughts.

Ever>K>dy agreed that the situation could continue no longer, above all the Anicrtans themsdve*. whose surplus stocks were becoming exhausted. In India the 'assisted' imports under the P.L. 480 were criticized more and more vio- lently, in Parliament and the press, as lhc; proved more and more indispens- **•bk, N-H only the Sociilfc and Com-**

An Indian opinion on P.L 480

" Beginning in August 1956. India entered into a series of agreements with the United States providing for the import of surplus agricultural commodities, chiefly wheat, under the United States Public Law 480...

" A major objective of the special economic aid under P.L. 480 was to help newly developing nations meet the strains of the transitional period and enable them to stand on their own feet... The P.L. 480 aid was first made available to India at a time when she was beginning to feel the strains of this developmental effort on her food front. The inflationary pressures generated in the economy during the subsequent years could not have been contained with the help of domestic production alone, which had not been increasing steadily and fast enough...

" By themselves, these are solid achievements on the credit side. However, it is necessary to assess the role of P.L. 480 in India from the point of view of long-term perspectives and policy... It needs to be recognized that these imports were meant to help tide over difficult periods. For India it was meant to provide the necessary ballast to her food policy over the difficult years of development. It is not an interminable flow, in the context of long-term policy. Therefore, any rise in consumption, aided by P.L. 480, which cannot in the long run be sustained by India's ability to produce at home and/or buy from abroad, would not be real and helpful. Nor can a price policy based on such a short-term approach be sustained in the long run, and be conducive to development and growth.

¹¹ Judged from this point of view, India's food policy in the context of P.L. 480 imports would appear to have been far short of the desired... In the first place, large additional imports have become a normal feature of the Indian food economy... There has been no significant effort at stock-piling: whatever stocks are there would not suffice even a year's requirement of imported grain on which the market has now become dependent for maintaining the related levels of price and consumption... Secondly, the pricing and manner of distribution has resulted in a very much larger consumption of wheat and wheat products in urban areas. A large part of this has been by middle and high income groups... In an economy where food supply is not plentiful, to put it mildly, the justice and propriety of subsidizing consumption of such classes is not at all clear.

" Indeed, there appears to have been no effort made to price food grains appropriately at different levels. Even the government's price policy has refused to take advantage of the differential preference of the consumers for red and white imported wheat. The large and assured supplies under P.L. 480 appear to have created almost complete dependence on these, as can be seen from the fact that some efforts in regard to internal procurement, price regulation, etc. were made in the case of rice, while none of these has been a serious feature of the wheat policy.

" In regard to measures other than prices, there is evidence of a lack of sense of urgency. In general the needed structural and technological changes in agriculture, and the larger supply of new inputs have not been undertaken at an urgent pace. Specifically in food grains, the relatively greater attention to rice than to wheat is an indication that large P.L. 480 supplies have created a sense of relaxation. In all this, the sense of urgency, spurred by the realization that P.L. 480 is not an unending stream, is not evident.

" It suggests, therefore that India cannot afford to be wasteful in the use of P.L. 480 resources, nor can it relax on its oars, thinking the P.L. 480 breeze will blow for ever. The imports under P.L. 480 can play their proper role only in the context of a more realistic price policy and a more judicious use of these resources on the one hand, and a sincere and much greater effort at increased production on the other."

Impact of Assistance under PL. 480 on Indian Economy, by Nilakanth Rath and V.S. Patvardhan.

Asia Publishing House. London (for Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics. Poona), 1968, 202 p. 45s.

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Cumulative value of United States agricultural exports to India (government and commercial for the years 1954-55 to 1965-66 under PL 480; \$3,171.4 million
The Food Aid Program 1966 - Annual Report on P.L. 480.

munist leftwing, but those within the governing National Congress Party itself, denounced the heavily dependent position in which this regular recourse to surpluses placed India vis-à-vis the United States. At the same time, the orthodox financiers of all sectors of opinion were uneasy at the inflationary effects of a system whereby the local currency product of the sale of grain imported on long-term loans extended by the United States was coming to occupy an increasingly large place in the national budget.

It would be pointless to deny that the United States used food aid to influence its relations with New Delhi. But it did so mainly to convince Mrs. Indira Gandhi's government that it must change its agricultural policy: to give agriculture higher priority in the national budget as compared to industry; to produce more chemical fertilizer as rapidly as possible; and to use it on a massive scale where this could significantly increase production immediately.

Paradoxically, these American pressures, which were immediately denounced by the left, were in line with the views of those who wished to free India from United States influence. In that critical hour, as pragmatism became the chief hallmark of the policy of Jawaharlal Nehru's heir, the then Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Chidanbarum Subramaniam, finally overcame the reluctance of the Plan Commission.

Aid to select areas

In the middle of 1966 the go-ahead signal as given the new agricultural strategy which Mr. Subramaniam, swept out of office by the D.M.K. Tamil regionalist party's election success in his own state of Madras, would soon no longer be there to apply.

Agriculture's share in the 1966-67 budget rose to 12.1%, as a first result, reaching 13.29% in that of 1967-68. If the credit appropriated for irrigation and community development is included, one fifth of the plan's resources will now be devoted to agriculture and related sectors.

The Agricultural Intensive Program, broadly inspired by the American package program, has been gradually established. Its objectives are ambitious. It has set a production target of 125 million tons of grain for 1971, so that India may then be able to feed itself.

To meet this target, 114 selected districts, covering about 37 million acres (out of a cultivated area of 227 million acres), are to be given high-yield seed (Taichung Native 1, Tainan 3, ADI 27 for rice; Sonora 63, Sonora 64 and Lerma Rojo for wheat), and a concern of almost 2 million tons of chemical fertilizer. In addition, 210 million acres, or almost all the cultivated land, is to be progressively treated to combat the insects and diseases which habitually destroy 20% of the standing crop.

How far has the program gone? The government itself admits in the 1967-68 *Economic Survey* that the hatching has been slower than expected. In the first year (1966-67), 6.2 million acres were to have been sown with "high-yield" seed. Actually, less than 5 million acres were sown. It is unlikely that the 15 million acres target for 1967-68 has been met — the real figure is probably somewhere between 10 and 12 million acres.

There was a similar lag in the use of fertilizers, for which the distribution methods and the consumption targets were over-ambitious in view of the supply.

Recently, Mr. Jagjivan Ram's Ministry organized a seminar in New Delhi, assembling outstanding personalities in the field of agriculture, to discuss the application of the new agricultural strategy. The prevailing trend was optimistic in the light of the early results, but cautious regarding the outlook for the future. The discussions between those working in the field and the bureaucrats brought out some weaknesses in the program's execution.

The program's progress was slowed down, they all admitted, by the insufficient number or the incompetence of the intermediaries between the agricultural technician in the laboratory and the farmer in the field. Too often, the distribution of the high-yield seed, fertilizers and pesticides still suffers from the shortcomings of rural bureaucracy, partly local quarrels and the lack of qualified agricultural extension agents.

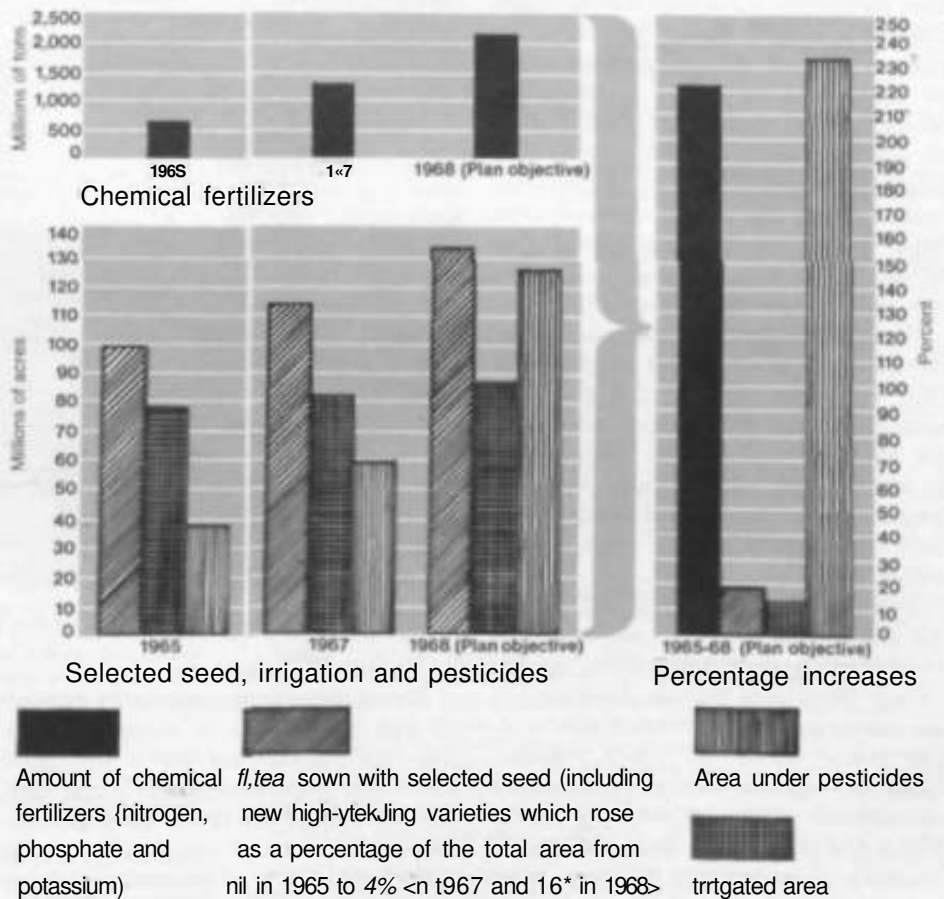
An official from Uttar Pradesh pointed out that in many villages theoretically covered by the program, the "high-yield" seed had not arrived in time (before 15 June for the summer sowing and 15 October for the winter one), and the farmers had to use the traditional seed which, he said, does not respond as well to fertilizer.

The repercussions of the political instability prevailing in many states in northern India (which the Minister of Agriculture is inclined to minimize) were highlighted by the director of agriculture in West Bengal. The frequent battles that broke out between landlord and landless peasants at the time of the rice harvest in 1967, he pointed out, did nothing to create a favorable atmosphere for the normal development of the program.

estimate that the 95 million ton crop expected this year exceeds the present stocking and maintenance level. This indicates that the rice yield, after the harvest, officially assessed as 10% higher this year.

But the most serious weak point in the new agricultural policy is the inadequate output of chemical fertilizers. This aspect of India's agricultural problem is all the more significant because

Dramatic rise in agricultural inputs



In general, the absence of storage facilities for fertilizer, selected seed and pesticides in the village and even village block scale still acts as a brake on the successful operation of the program. Thus, the already overloaded administrative machine will hear the heavy responsibility of getting fertilizer supplies delivered everywhere in time for their optimum utilization.

The states usually lack the stocking and transport infrastructure required for quickly speeding up the agricultural inputs program. Many experts even

it reflects most clearly the political reservations and consider a lions which, too often, hamper the best of economic intentions.

Although the sacred cow plays practically no part in this stage of agricultural development, nevertheless, even today, the Indian farmer lives in the "cow-dung" age. It is curious to note, in 1967, that the rising traditionalist Hindu party, the Jana Satish, unquestionably one of the rising forces on the Indian political scene, has openly spoken out in

Essential facts on India

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India forms a natural subcontinent, flanked by the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, with the Himalayas to the north. Its neighbors are Mainland China and Nepal to the north. Pakistan to the northwest and Surma to the east. East Pakistan lies wholly within Indian territory, except for a short frontier with Burma in the east. The Constitution of India was inaugurated on 26 January 1950 on which date India became a sovereign democratic republic.

Government: The Union of India comprises 17 states and 8 centrally-administered territories. The President is the head of the Union, exercising all executive power on the advice of ministers responsible to Parliament. He is elected by an electoral college, holds office for five years and can be re-elected. The Parliament of the Union consists of the President and two Houses: the **Rajya Sabha** [Council of States] and the **Lok Sabha** (House of the People). The first of these consists of not more than 250 members, each state's legislative quota being elected by the members of the state's legislative assembly (with 12 members nominated by the President). The second consists of not more than 525 members elected by adult franchise. The states' governmental machinery closely resembles that of the Union: all have bi-cameral legislatures except for Assam, Gujarat, Kerala, Orissa and Rajasthan (uni-cameral). At the last general elections, in February 1967, the Congress Party was returned, with Mrs. Indira Gandhi as Prime Minister.

Population: estimated at 520 million (1967) and expected to reach 550 million by 1970/71 and 630 million by 1975/76. Between 1950 and 1966 the population increased at the rate of 25% per annum. Population density is 424 per square mile/163 per square kilometer; 82% live in rural areas; 85% of the population is Hindu with Muslim, Christian, Parsee and other minority groups. India's family planning program's target is to reduce the birth rate from 41 to 25 per 1,000 within the shortest possible time. To reach this target 50% of the present 90 million couples in the reproductive age groups in India should practice contraception regularly, rising to 70 million in 1970. The third development plan (1961/62-1965/66) provided \$57 million for family planning and the projected fourth plan provided \$306 million (highest priority after agricultural production).

Language: The Constitution provides that the official language of the Union be Hindi. English continues as an associate language. About 180 languages (exclusive of dialects) are spoken in India.

Area and land use: total area (1964) is 784.3 million acres/326.8 million hectares (including Kashmir-Jammu and excluding Goa, Daman and Diu). Of this total, 51% is classified as arable and under permanent crops; 4% as permanent meadows and pastures; 18% as forested land; 5% as unused but potentially productive area; and 22% as built-on areas, wasteland, etc.

Climate: ranges from temperate to tropical with an average summer temperature over (the plains of some 85°F/27°C. There are heavy monsoons from June to August but annual rainfall varies widely: in 1966, for instance, between 666.4 mm and 3,211.2 mm.

Economic development: the economy is predominantly agricultural. The most important products are tea, sugar, cotton, groundnuts, linseed, jute, rice and wheat. The principal minerals are coal, iron, manganese, copper and bauxite. The chief industries are cotton textiles, jute, iron and steel, sugar refining and chemicals.

Five-year plan*: the first plan, inaugurated in 1951, covered a total investment (government and private) in the region of Rs. 38,500 million and concentrated chiefly on agriculture and irrigation. Under the second plan (1956/57-1960/61), total investment exceeded Rs. 70,000 million with the major emphasis on heavy industry and transport. In the third plan (1961/62-1965/66), a program of Rs. 116,000 million was envisaged with Rs. 75,000 million in the public sector. Actual public sector expenditure is estimated at Rs. 86,300 million over the plan period, deficit financing accounting for the difference between original estimates and final resources available. The emphasis during the plan continued to be on heavy industry and transport. The fourth plan (1966/67-1970/71), ran into difficulties and an interim annual plan for 1966/67 was drafted. The crop failure further worsened the position and the fourth plan has been postponed until April 1969 (and will cover the period April 1969 to March

1974). During the interim period the Planning Commission will draw up annual plans. Growth of national income in 1966/67 is estimated at 32% while in 1967/68 it is expected to go up by nearly 11% due largely to a 20% rise in agricultural production.

Agricultural development: agriculture contributes almost half the national income and some 40% of export earnings. The average farm is less than 5 acres in size. About 84% of the cultivated area is sown to food grains, 10% to oilseed and the remainder to other cash crops. Main crops (1965 - in metric tons) — tea, 365,000; sugarcane, 117,606,000; cotton lint, 847,000 (official) and 997,000 (ICAC); groundnuts, 4,022,000; linseed, 503,000; jute, 805,000; paddy, 45,921,000, and wheat, 12,290,000. Animal production (1965 - in metric tons) — beef, veal, pork, mutton and lamb production from indigenous animals, 535,000; cow, goat, sheep and buffalo milk, 23,029,000. Fisheries production (1966 - in metric tons) — nominal catch (liveweight), 13,674,000; marketing fresh, 9,698,000; curing (sun dried), 1,582,000; curing (salted), 1,415,000; freezing, 262,000, and canning, 78,000. Fish imports in 1966 totaled \$330,000, exports totaled \$171,230,000. Exports of forest products in 1966 totaled 551,000,000.

Trade (1965): total exports amounted to \$1,821.6 million; total imports to \$2,990.1 million; total agricultural exports amounted to \$690.9 million; total agricultural imports to \$1,041.5 million. Break-down of agricultural exports was as follows: raw sugar (272,500 metric tons - \$22.9 million); tea (199,365 metric tons - \$241.4 million); raw cotton, other than linters [41,220 metric tons - \$22.4 million]; and jute (26,046 metric tons - \$6.5 million).

Foreign aid: external assistance is extremely important in financing economic development and covering India's endemic payments deficit. The Aid India Club, a consortium of countries and agencies that agreed to assist India during its second plan balance of payments difficulties, provided the bulk of the foreign exchange requirements of the third plan (\$5,472 million between 1961/62 and 1965/66). Last year, the consortium agreed to a \$900 million non-project aid and in May 1968 the United States gave some \$225 million as its share of this commitment (\$100 million to be used for essential agricultural requirements, the rest for essential industrial commodities).

Education: each state is responsible for education under the overall supervision of the Central Ministry of Education and, where possible, is both free and compulsory. In 1961, 72.2% of the population over 15 years of age were classified as illiterate while 91.3% of the population over 25 had completed less than primary education. 62% had completed primary and 2.5% had completed secondary and above. In 1962, an estimated 40 million children were enrolled in 367,676 schools for primary instruction; 13 million pupils were enrolled in 76,816 secondary general schools; 300,000 were enrolled in 2,769 secondary vocational schools; 150,000 in 1,150 secondary teacher training colleges and 1,207,511 in 2,633 institutions of higher education (of which 36,000 were studying in the field of agriculture). In 1962 the public expenditure on education totaled Rs. 4,365,720,000 representing 2.8% of the national income.

Labor: in 1961, the working population was estimated at 188.4 million. There were an estimated 10 million unemployed (75% in the rural areas) in 1966, expected to rise to 14 million in 1970/71.

Communication*: the transport system is well developed but large areas of the country are still inaccessible by rail or modern road vehicles. Railways (36,200 miles/58,200 kilometers of track) carried 205 million metric tons of freight in 1965/66. There were 595,000 miles/958,000 kilometers of roads in 1968. 250,000 trucks and 70,000 commercial buses. Three government-owned shipping corporations and a few private companies operate a total of 1.54 million gross tons of shipping.

NOTE: Pre-June 1966, 1 rupee equaled 0.21 (1; post-June 1966, 1 rupee equaled 133 f.

SOURCES: *Europa Yearbook*, *Demographic Yearbook*, *Unesco Yearbook*, *FAO Trade Yearbook*, *FAO Production Yearbook*, *FAO Yearbook of Forest Products*, *FAO Yearbook of Fishery Statistics*, *The Economist's EIU Report on India*

its electoral program against the use of chemical fertilizers and in favor of natural manures.

When India became independent in 1947, the use of chemical fertilizers was virtually unknown. Even by 1960 it had reached the trifling figure of about 20(1,000 tons. We need look no further to explain why the yield per hectare in India has risen only 20% in 15 years.

Danger* of priority

There have been substantial efforts in both the state and private sectors to increase domestic output of chemical fertilizers so that the success of the new agricultural strategy need not depend on an excessive volume of imports, which would be ruinous to the scarce exchange reserves. But, at present, output falls short of the estimates. In 1967, India produced only 400,000 tons of fertilizer despite a plant capacity of about 700,000 tons. Nearly 1 million tons have had to be imported to meet the rise in consumption required by the intensive program.

Theoretically, various projects now in the planning or execution stage should triple production by 1971. It would be more reasonable to assume that the output will be doubled at best. The recourse to imports will continue since the program foresees that, by that time, India's total consumption should come to 3.5 million tons.

It is constantly observed that one of the obstacles holding back the execution of projects necessarily involving private foreign investment (mainly American) is the Indian government's reluctance to allow foreign firms too much freedom, either in the conception or realization of fertilizer plants. Conflicting views within the government itself, on the advisability of authorizing U.S. companies to import liquid ammonia from the Persian Gulf for fertilizer production, has already delayed several large projects.

Everyone recognizes that, in two or three years, local naphtha resources will no longer suffice to meet both the demand for nitro products and those of the expanding fertilizer industry. But an instinctive fear, combined with a fear of being accused of selling out a key sector of the nation's economy to foreign interests, frequently leads the government to refuse the concessions requested by foreign investors.

Yet the long-term social danger men-

tioned earlier persists. In spite of his optimism over the gains made in less than two years, Mr. Jagjivan Ram realizes that the program may run into serious obstacles unless the spirit and concept are modified.

In the application of the new agricultural policy, the concern with efficiency has led to priority being given to the lands capable of getting the maximum results out of the concentration of additional technical equipment. These are usually the largest farms which already have the advantages of operational irrigation systems and adequate financial resources.



If the green revolution is to succeed, more modern methods will have to gain acceptance

Should the government, in its attempt to gain all chance¹ of success, pursue this type of selection for a few more years, the gap between the large agricultural enterprises of the most productive regions, on the one hand, and the small family farms of the underprivileged ones, on the other, will automatically grow wider. The same disparity threatens to arise even within a single district where the smaller holdings, for lack of the necessary financial means, will continue to be left out of the intensive development program.

The Minister of Agriculture proposes to give fresh impetus to the Cooperative! to forestall this danger. But, because of the bad reputation of the agricultural credit cooperative, the efforts already made by the government in past years to convince the commercial banks to demote part of their loans to these agencies have

had little success. Therefore, the national budget alone — which already has a large deficit — would have to undertake the financial effort needed for expansion of the agricultural program.

The government has no choice. The chief danger of the course to which it is now committed is that, even with a crop of 120 million tons, the risk of famine pockets in the regions left out of the program cannot be excluded. Indeed, during the two drought years it was amply demonstrated that the shortcomings in the nationwide grain marketing and distribution system left the regions where the impact was worst, destitute, even in the

immediate vicinity of surplus areas.

Such a situation might also become a grave threat to the social and political balance of India's rural areas. So far, their comparative loyalty to the Congress Party has kept them as an element of stability in the country's political life. The pro-Chinese Communists have already been able to exploit the frustration of the most neglected backward tribes to provoke minor peasant uprisings, similar to "Jacqueries" in West Bengal, Orissa, Bihar and Andhra Pradesh, during the past year.

An agricultural development policy that would continue to neglect the "unprofitable" farms (that is, over half the rural population) could undoubtedly increase production to 120 or 125 million tons in 1971. But this "Green Revolution" must not be allowed to touch off another, different one.

An auction

Modern methods of grazing, shearing and selling wool have been introduced into Rajasthan; the nomadic shepherds are changing from a subsistence to a market economy

by JOHN WILLIAMS, photo* by TOMAS SÆITHET

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Rajasthan, in northwest India, is a semi-desert region. It seldom rains, but when it does the two-month monsoon **HMht** away the good soil. During the other ten months of the year the sun dries the ground far below the surface and bakes the green plants. The temperature ranges from **SQ°C** to freezing.

It **leased** impossible to break this cycle of desolation five years ago. ***hcn** David Scott, an Australian, arrived in Rajasthan to head the **P**o side of a joint India/FAO team earning (but a **United Nations Development Program** (UNDP) project. Their assignment was to rationalise the local wool industry. Faced with this vast area and the enormous numbers of people involved, they applied their efforts on a limited **task** in the hope that their work would spread.

Scott and his team of Australian experts brought with them a miraculous grass which they were actually bringing **back** to India. A century and a half after it had been exported from that country: buffalo grass, which grows on even the poorest soils.

In the 14th century, when **CUKb** were imported to Australia from India, they arrived complete with their saddles. One of these saddles fell to the ground in the desert, the sun **Lr.t.ked** the leather and the buffalo grass seeds, used as stuffing, spread over the ground and sprouted. By a frequently observed phenomenon of **imobility**, as the grass flourished in Australia it disappeared in India. Five years ago, a new era began for the shepherds. With the new **grass** the sheep grew fatter, the **lecc** thicker.

Sheep are shorn as much as three times a year. Always in debt, the shepherds cover their most urgent needs by selling wool to chance buyers, [interest rates constantly increase **their** debts and they are caught in a vicious circle **which,** despite all their efforts, only makes them poorer, never richer.

John Williams 11 London **ntittr** (p) the Melbourne Herald.



in the desert

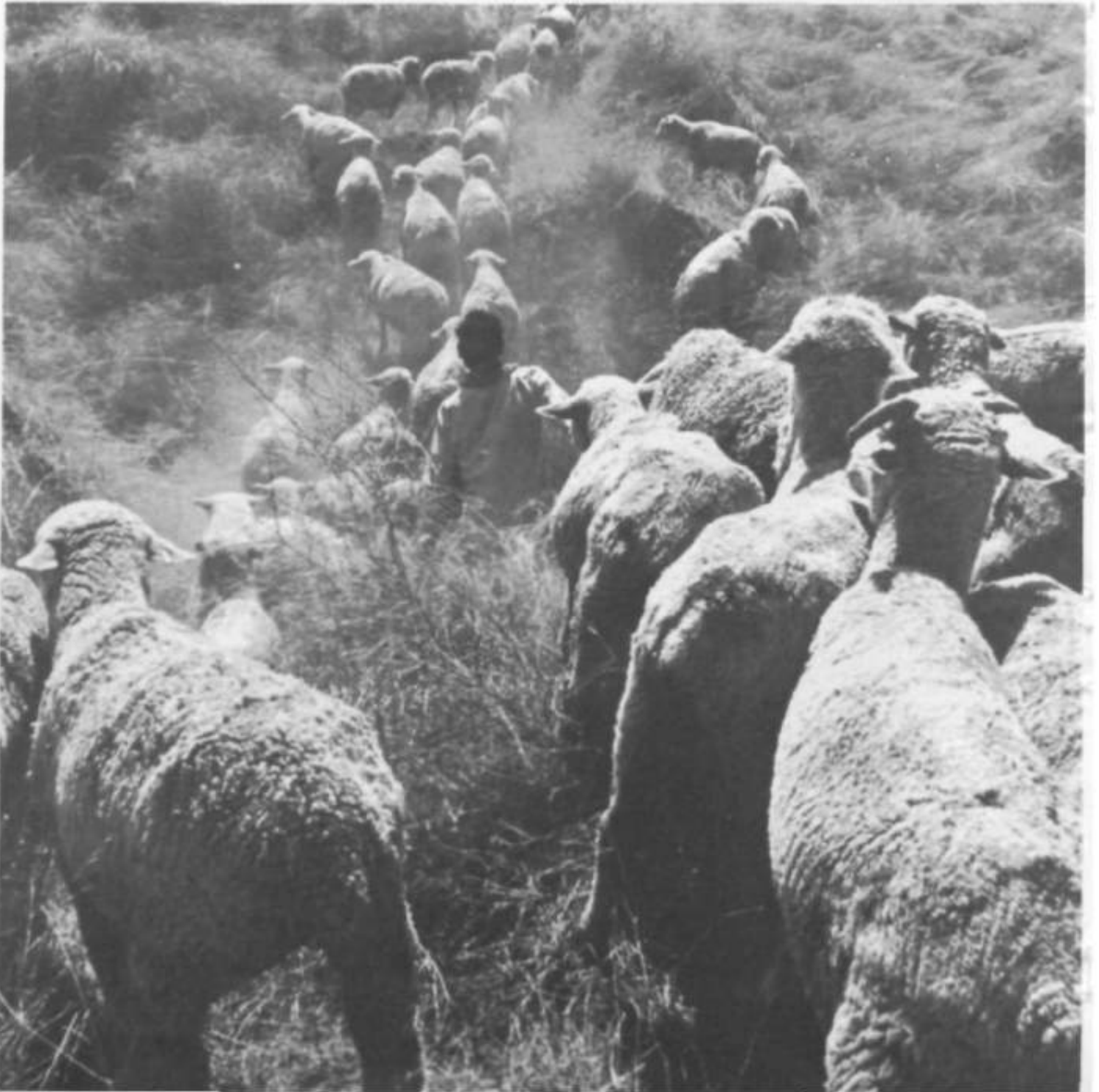
india '68



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The nomadic shepherds, constantly traveling in search of scanty pasturage, have never received any education or training.

Experts taught them to distinguish 100 different wool qualities meeting **tatenuitana** standards whereas, in the past, they had considered wool merely as wool and nothing else.



The experts first concentrated on the improvement of **wool** quality. They opened vocational training centers, teaching the shepherds *to care (or their animals* to practice tdectvts* breeding and to improve (heir shearing methods.

When a modern **ft&K** center was established to auction the wool it started a real revolution.



The wool market is in the hands of a host of middlemen, from the village grocer who trades flour and rice for wool to the broker who supplies the wool itself. Each of them **CB&I** a itztabk protit (a family of wool merchants is reputed to make as much as \$2 million per year). Those who make the most are the shepherds,

As the shepherds heard bids seven times higher than the prices they obtained for their goods, they discovered **two new** concepts: price and quality. The kilo of wool they had sold at between 2.5 and 1 rupee in 1963 sells for 5.3 rupees today. The auction at first confused Indians by its speed, but they quickly adapted to it. At Jaipur it formerly took a day to sell 80 Bales: now thousands are sold off in a few hours.





Outlets are available immediately, since the Indian wool industry still has to import at high cost the quality wools it needs for local **manufacture**.

Here, as **elsewhere**, the concept of quality is indispensable in **meeting** the competition of synthetic fibers.

The shepherds' education and training, reorganization of silks methods, sheep selection and soil reclamation must all **be carried** out together.

This could mean that in the course of a few years the transition **is** made from a subsistence to a market economy. ■



Water invested to bring in the greatest interest

The package approach - water, fertilizer, improved seed, tools, credit - could make Bihar self-sufficient

by **ANIL K. SIMON CHEEM***

Water, improved seeds, fertilizer, pesticides are the key words in any vocabulary of agricultural development. Even in India, which has to import such enormous quantities of food, these same key factors have been responsible for considerable progress: a near-doubling of food production over the past 15 years.

Irrigation projects have been given high priority in India's five-year plans. One such project is centered on the Kosi river, popularly known as the "river of sorrow," in Bihar State, close to the Indian-Nepal border,

The project is aimed at irrigating the Kosi by completion of 150 miles of levees and a barrage near Patna, 40 miles long. A canal system has been started which should irrigate more than 2 million acres by 1970-71. The project is also designed to protect a 100-mile-wide strip of land from annual flood inc. A hydroelectric station capable of generating 20,000 kilowatts, is in an advanced state of construction.

The use of Kosi water started in 1964-65 when 15,000 acres were irrigated during the Kharif (monsoon) season. This was extended to 60,000 acres in 1965-66 and to 200,000 acres in 1966-67. By

the following year some 350,000 acres were being irrigated during the Kharif and a similar area during the Rabi (winter) and summer seasons. Thus, the total acreage under irrigation in 1967-68 amounts to 700,000 acres. Some 2,000 tube wells are also being dug to irrigate a further 1,00,000 acres.

The area under annual irrigation should total some 10 million acres shortly and should reach 20 million acres by 1970-71, according to the project manager. About 50% of the cultivable area of the Patna district and 50% of the Saran district will benefit from the Kosi canal after completion of all the distribution systems, including the Rajpur branch canal.

The intensive area development program has been introduced into sections of the Patna and Saharsa districts. The area development committee coordinates the activities of the irrigation and development departments. An extension agency - which provides guidance, facilities, funds and incentives to the farmers - works at the village, block and district levels to help bring about rapid transformation of agricultural production. Meetings and demonstrations have provided to be the best way of bringing extension messages to the cultivators.

Land development will be required for optimum use of the irrigation water and a reclamation and development scheme

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has been approved by the Agricultural Refinance Corporation, Reclamation is being carried out by the cultivators themselves and, so far, about 60,1X1(1 acre) have been reclaimed out of a target area of 300,000 acres.

The level of agricultural production in this area was traditionally very low. Large-scale flooding did not permit growing **Crops** during the rainy season, **mceptl** on high beds where paddy and maize were cultivated. The construction of river embankments and a canal system has changed all this out of recognition.

High-yielding varieties, **together** with the use of irrigation water, have brought about a significant upturn in crop yields per acre. Takhung Native 1 paddy and Lerma Rojo Mexican wheat were introduced only two years ago but, already, paddy yields have gone up from 0.3 to 2 tons per acre, while wheat yields have increased from 0.4 to 1.5 tons per acre. These varieties, together with multiple cropping, are enabling Kosi farmers to reap an average of 3 tons of **ft**!** grains per acre per year as against the 0.5 to 0.75 ton per acre that they achieved before the project started.

The acreage under high-yielding varieties has increased rapidly. The area under high-yielding paddy rose from 30,000 acres in 1966-67 to 120,000 acres this year. Similarly, acreage under the new dwarf wheat varieties increased from 10,000 acres last year to 100,000 acres this year: there was also considerable expansion of the area being cultivated with hybrid maize.

Another notable innovation in cultivation practices has been the change in the farmers' cropping patterns. Prior to the Kosi project, cultivators used to grow one crop every one or two years: farmers are now taking in two to three crops each year. Cropping patterns at present are paddy or maize in the *Kfirif* **MMOO**, wheat in the *Rubi* season and paddy in summer. Most of the irrigated fields have a two or three crops usage. That these patterns have changed so dramatically and so rapidly is due to the availability of irrigation water and high-yielding varieties.

Jute is normally cultivated in the low-lying lands. The intensity of cropping **b** likely to increase here, too, with the **further** development of irrigation, for the area is ideally suited for **two** **<** thru: crops a year



Two or three crops written one grew before — hybrid sorghum on land irrigated by the Kosi

There has been heavy use of agricultural inputs in the project area. The use of improved seed, for instance, has grown from just over 2,000 tons in 1964-65 to nearly 29,000 **TOOS** this year. Application of fertilizers **bat**, similarly, risen from just over 1,000 tons in 1964-65 (more than 22,000 tons this year. Also pesticides, the use of which has increased from 200 liters of liquid and 175 quintals of powder in **1964-65** to nearly 12,000 liters and nearly 4,000 quintals.

Modern machinery has had to be brought into the area in order to ensure that multiple cropping is a success. The demand for improved plows, hand-hoes, thrashers, scrapers, sprayers and dusters is rising rapidly

Irte river of sorrow may yet become the river of happiness for the Kosi farmers



The demand for agricultural credit has gone up commensurate with the growth in agricultural technology. The cooperative **organizations**, which WCTC weak in this particular area, have shown signs of reviving: more than Rs. 10 million were **advanced** to the farmers during 1966-67. **and** the demand is much greater this year. It is expected that more than 90% of the loans will be repaid in full.

The economic condition of the farmers has much improved, evidenced by a 400% increase in the business of the Life Insurance Corporation of India in the area. Sales of cars, jeeps, scooters and transistor radio sets have increased considerably. House building activities are **evident**. A number of graduates — lawyers, professors and doctors — have found it more lucrative to work **farther** at agriculture.

The rapid progress achieved so far has, however, posed a number of problems for farmers and administrators alike:

...Considerable marketable surplus has been created. Facilities are needed — good communications, warehouses, marketing centers and processing industries — to deal with this surplus.

...The use of high-yielding varieties necessitates an increase in agricultural inputs — agricultural credit, fertilizers, improved seed, irrigation water, tractors, power and pesticides. — which the small farmers cannot afford. Organizations are needed which can provide credit, rent machinery and offer marketing facilities.

... Farmers are getting overdoing irrigation and are creating a danger of waterlogging the soil, as happened in the Punjab where drainage became necessary following excessive irrigation.

...The project is aware that it must create opportunities for the kind of capital investment which can help build up a sound agricultural development program.

The Kosi river project will provide irrigation, electric power and flood protection to more than 2 million acres of Bihar State. If properly handled it could **create** a major food producing center in the area which is **typhoon** **UM** **u** **ii** **h** **famine** both inside and outside India **fu** **W** **l** **ty**. **it** **is** **expected** **in** **the** **project** **area** **will** **attribute** **to** **the** **project** **and** **the** **additional** **rain** **in** **the** **Hilwari** **Slate**, **the** **area** **is** **ideally** **suited** **for** **two** **or** **three** **crops** **a** **year** **and** **have** **an** **excess** **of** **food** **crops** **which** **will** **bring** **a** **few** **years**, **•**

Manchala and Pilkhi - techniques are not enough

The negative attitude to manual work, the right to own the land are among the sociological factors which can influence progress

by GILBERT ZIHHI



... of the world's developing countries are so widely understood as India. Apes, cows, raw, the funeral pyres of Benares and, of course, beggar* are thought xA fit India's typical features: while its starving masses are supposed to be constantly increasing. It ihts how h is?

Take two phases of the food production-population race, 1951/1961 and 1961/1966. India won the But: production MM well ahead of ihc rise in population and (he growlh of food imports was checked India I mi the second phase: the population growth rate accelerated reaching 500 million in 1967, production remained stalk for three ycMrs. en joyed an exceptionally good year in I4M 65b, but was then hit by lwi> successive waves of severe il rough I. Tht result was a sharp rise in grain imports, with totals tripled reaching In mi 11 inn tons in Vihb 6? I hough ntou, the situation was not as dart, tt it appeared lor production statistics were too low.

Since 1967 India has entered a ihiril, vitally important. phase Ia r-reaching trends are emerging in the rural areas as government measures to promote agriculture become more effective. Thus iht-race is far from OKT.

The word "famine" in India, judging by past euprience, means wholesale deaths numbered in terms of tens and hundreds of thousands, or even a million. By tins definition, thanks to Amer-

ican grain and the Indian authorities' effort! to distribute it, there was no real famine in 1966/67.

Although this is somewhat reassuring, it in no way lessens the seriousness of the long-term outlook. In ten to twenty years, when India will have a population of 600 to 700 million, all foreign aid, together, will not suffice in the event of •even natural disaster. The need for a sharp rise in production is urgent.

It is oftM said of India that no progress is possible without completely upsetting the present agricultural structure. It must be admitted that within the existing social and political framework it is difficult to foresee any profound changes. But these structures do not constitute a major obstacle to agricultural progress.

White one can sec a proliferation of liny, and therefore uneconomic holdings, BM often forgets that mosi of ihe land under cultivation is divided into farms which ir<\ or could be. profitable. The smallest farms range between a little over three acres to ten to twelve acres in size, depending on types of soil, irrigation and crops, hut this does not give a complete picture. The farmers' grasp of farm management, closely linked to the HMi swem. muM also be considered. Where the castes eserdw a decided influence on agriculture, as in Andhra state, then development is comparatively simple. When the dominant castes do nut engage in agriculture, as in Hih.n, then progress is in it impossible but it is slower.

Sharecropping and tenant fa*TMing arc another source of misunderstanding:

Gilbert Fitzkrtne it professor of development txorttttnh i at ihr (iatalutir Initutit of littr-MICOMkf Sfuliri. in ienna. He ii ihf uulktt of Studio in Indian Agriculture and uihrr books on lieveltxpmritl.

contrary to certain highly debatable opinions, on a national average a very large portion of India's bud is cultivated by farm owners.

Physical conditions are another basic variant. Enormous stretches of the Deccan consist of poor soils exhausted by onwion. where rainfall is low and the irrigation potential slight. On the other hand, the Ganges basin, the Coromandel delta and the southern pan of Gujarat contain good alluvial soils. well watered by rains, and here irrigation could be greatly- expanded. These regions will play a decisive part in the battle for agricultural development. This explains why only about half of India's 330 districts produce a grain surplus,

India has carried out pioneer work in community development and administrative decentralization (**Pmrtaajwri Raj**) in order to arouse givaier mass participation iit agricultural expansion, but it has had to learn some bitter lessons in the process. A multi-purpose approach was, at first, overemphasized. Agricultural strategy has had hi gradually change so as to establish an order of priority in productive activities.

The package program formula was introduced in 1960, involving a special jifon in the potentially rich regions where progress could he quickest. Thi- has meant combining the major input factors to the utmost extent: small-scale irrigation, fertilizers, selected seed, and pesticides, all accompanied by an extended agricultural credit system.

It is natural that such a policy has **taken** time to spread in such a vast country. Progress was also, hampered by the exceptionally heavy natural **dfaMUS** of 1965 and 1966, and the large-scale opr;liki|i;il phase only began in 1967.

Manchal;i is a typical village of the Krishna delta in the district of Guntur. Its population was 1.426 in 1961; the total area was 783 acres, of which 266,4 were cultivated; the population density was *ItKI* per square mile. The *Kapu* arc the leading caste. There are only a few *Htirijtutx* (former untouchables). On the other hand, (he majority of landless agricultural laborers are drawn from the *Yanadh.* of remote tribal descent who in at Ibe bottom of the social scale at Manchala. The area, as a whole, is irrigated by canals issuing from the Krishna river, dating back to Sir Arthur Cotton's Ijm-sc-ile improvement works huili

in the middle of the nineteenth century.

This water, and **the** quality of the alluvia) soil, permit intensive rice **cultivation**. However, water is only available from June to January, providing a paddy crop which now totals 2,5(10 lbs. per acre or an increase of 50% over about 15 years. During the dry season some 45(1 acres arc used for raising chick peas

two striking features emerge: the high quality of the technical methods used; and the comparative prosperity.

[was at Manchala in the period when the paddy was being transplanted: the men pull out the **sprouts** and the women transplant them, in rows of ten to twenty.

Almost all the farmers are familiar with chemical fertilizers and even the



It msy soon be gone. Pumps m»y take the place o. • • • water-wheel driven by ammat power ro irrigate rice-Holds in Uttar Pradesh

giving extremely low yields (310 to 360 lb/acre). About 148 **KIM** are suited to forage and fiber crops.

The two largest landowners have 30 acres ci*eh. There are alioul 30 farms measuring between 4 and 20 acres: the remaining 140 holdings contain less than 4 acres each.

After many days of close observation

owners ol il.'s i run three acres use ihm regularly: many use pest itides. In 1963/ '64 I met h.irdly any small-farmers with sullicical means to buy chemical fertilizers in Uttar Pradesh or in Ihe Cauvery delta in Tinjor district.

Last year, a few farmers tried sowing the new Taicfnmg Native 1 rice variety, but it was not suited lo local conditions

and proved unsatisfactory. Another variety, IR 8, seems more promising, although it has not been used at Manchala.

Living standards of the medium-sized farm owners are high, naturally enough, but the very small-farmers and the landless workers are also far better off than those in other regions I visited. Almost everyone eats three meals a day: rice with peppers and vegetables, sometimes a bit of meat, fish and fruit. Both men and women appear to be in good health and live in a normal way, a far cry from the harsh poverty I found in Bihar.

The *Yenadis* and the *Kapu* landowners spend between two and three months a year on rice cultivation. The rest of the time they practice all kinds of small trades which provide free rein for their resourcefulness: besides rat hunting, they make chignons for sale in the cities, help in the textile factories (riding their bicycles to and fro) and work at terracing of the land. Wages for rice cultivation in 1967 were usually three rupees for men, two for women.

Agricultural credit operates mainly through cooperatives. A cooperative society was formed at Manchala in 1964: it has 21 members and, in 1966/67, granted 2,000 rupees on short-term loans. In addition to this very small amount, credit in kind is extended to farmers under the Intensive Manuring Scheme, even though they may not belong to the cooperatives.

*Unsatisfied demand for fertilizer**

Manchala is part of the Tenali block which covers a total area of 103 square miles and has a total population of 108,194 (in 1961). The package program formula has gradually spread in Andhra, reaching 144 blocks in 1966/67, of which Tenali was one. However, the program does not advance easily: the increase in output of chemical fertilizers falls so far short of the demand that some cooperatives engage in a flourishing black market, a widespread phenomenon through Andhra and other states as well.

As for credit, the funds granted in medium- and short-term loans show a downward trend between 1964/65 and 1966/67. In the latter year, Andhra did not manage to use all the funds loaned to it by the Reserve (Central) Bank. Many societies are already so far behind in their payments that they cannot obtain

new loans. Another, though less important, cause for this trend lies in the adverse climatic conditions which prevail in some parts of the state.

*Credit against future harvest**

A new "crop loans" formula was set up in 1966 to improve credit and avoid losses. It aims at broadening the conditions for cooperative credit by no longer accepting only land or land mortgages, but also future crop harvests, as security. In this way, production can be stimulated while the small farmers can obtain loans which they were unable to get due to their lack of means. This type of credit is granted in three installments, two in cash and one in kind in the form of chemical fertilizers. The system was meant to be applied throughout India beginning with the 1967 *Karj* (monsoon) season, but, welcome as it may be, it has met with inevitable problems in execution. I did not find it widely available, in Andhra, Bihar or other states.

Another marked trend that emerged from my talks with people in Tenali and Guntur was the growing awareness of agricultural problems. In 1963/64 I was struck by the extent to which community development was still unable to shake off the multi-purpose approach.

What are the prospects for the future in the Krishna delta? The Nagajunasagar dam was inaugurated in August 1967. The area it irrigates is not yet being entirely utilized since many canals and other improvement works must still be built. Meanwhile, however, the stored water will be used during the dry season making possible a second paddy crop. Afterwards, the underground water table will provide a similar reserve, thanks to pump operated tubewells. The first of these, which I saw at Manchala, produced excellent results due to a very quick rotation of rich crops: paddy, sugarcane, vegetables. The dynamic nature of the leading castes favors increasingly wide use of these possibilities.

The village of Pilkhi lies along a secondary road leading to Muzaffarpur, the district capital. It had a population (in 1961) of 2,471 and a total area of 1,210 acres. The population density was 203 persons per square mile, and (the cultivated area (including 64 acres of orchards) covered 1,111 acres. In the monsoon season, paddy is the main crop.

together with maize; in the dry season, wheat and some barley are grown. Small quantities of sugarcane, tobacco and peppers are grown in a few places.

Large landowners are comparatively numerous in this region of India. A leading landowner, *Bhumihar*, owns 100 acres at Pilkhi and 200 elsewhere: another possesses 200 acres. About a third of the cultivated area in the Muzaffarpur block, which includes Pilkhi, belongs to farmers owning over 50 acres. At the other end of the scale, there is a proliferation of farmers who own an acre or less.

Why is the present paddy yield only 800 to 1,000 lb/acre on these fine alluvial soils? Firstly, along the middle course of the Ganges and in the delta the riverbed is lower than the field level. It is impossible to build gravity-flow canals like those that existed even before British rule in the Punjab and the southern deltas. Irrigation using pumped water from the rivers was only begun after the end of the last war, following India's independence.

Forbidden to touch the plow

I wondered whether the farmers could have bored wells as they have done in Uttar Pradesh and in the Punjab; but I saw practically none. This is where the human factor comes in.

For centuries, Bihar was one of the seats of Indian civilization. Life was easy, the area was not highly populated, and the land was fertile. Normally, the rains were sufficient for rice cultivation, the moisture remaining in the soil even provided for a crop in the dry season. So why bother boring wells? Moreover, the high caste *Bhumihars* and *Brahmans* observe the taboo forbidding them to touch the plow: they take little part in agricultural work and use low caste labor.

From the 19th century onward, the comparative balance between population and resources (which had only been broken previously in times of extreme natural disaster) was permanently and increasingly disturbed. The population began to grow but no one did much about it: the result was increasing poverty. At Pilkhi, scenes of Indian poverty are widespread among the families of farm wage workers and very small farmers. Social tension is high, and during my talks with the poorest people discussions quickly grew heated. Many of them

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barely get two scant meals a day.

The difference in technical methods used in the area are striking. The rice fields are *ksdly leveled so thai share is too much water in one corner of the field while in another the sprouts are dry*. Only a single hoeing is performed during the growing period of the paddy. The apathy of the upper castes even seems to have spread through to the lower ones. At Pilkhi, even the *Chamar* (former untouchable) women do little agricultural work, only picking forage grasses to feed the cattle. The transplanting of the rice is performed by three or four men who work in a disorganized way in sharp con-



The *no question at farmers' acceptance of fertilizer as a short-cut to higher returns*

trast to the rows of women in the rice plantations of the Krishna area.

One might think the situation desperate but the outlook is slowly becoming brighter. The 1966 drought shook agricultural life from top to bottom. Both rich and poor were finally concerned about the problem of the water supply. "What do you need most?" "Water, Pant, *sinthai*" (water, irrigation) was the farmers' automatic reply.

Until 1966, the state tube well which had been installed at Pilkhi in 1954 had hardly been used: now it no longer meets the demand. The new varieties of wheat, maize and rice need more water. Some of the landowners are beginning to pull their weight as they see some of the *nmbs* of the pilot plots.

The new crop varieties are beginning to attract attention, Mexican wheat sown

at Pilkhi on a test plot of 4 acres in 1966/67 proved successful. In 1967 the area under hybrid *MAVC* totaled 11 acres, compared to 22 acres in 1966. Meanwhile, the first paddy fields (Taichung Native 1 and Magina) are spreading in the midst of impoverished rice plantations. The maximum yields in the initial stages come to about 2,700 lb/acre for paddy, 2,500 for wheat, and 2,700 for *maize*.

This trend coincides with the advance of chemical fertilizers, and is equally marked at both the block and district levels. The authorities can no longer meet all the farmers' demands for the installation of *private pump wells*. There is not enough drilling equipment.

But Indian agriculture, as a whole, can hardly be judged on the basis of only two examples, however contrasting. Let us look briefly at a few others.

The *Coimbatore* delta in Tanjore district resembles the Krishna arid *Crodaia* delta, marked by irrigation works and rice cultivation. It differs, however, in many features of the delta because of the prevailing influence of the *Brothmans* who are *not* as enterprising as the *Kapus* of the Krishna delta. In 1964 I saw that the package program had made far less progress in Tanjore than in the West Godavari district, though these were the first two districts to adopt it in 1960.

Nevertheless, despite a less enterprising spirit and a great deal of share-cropping, between 1964 and 1967 the Tanjore farmers have built many small tubewells for use in the dry season when the canals are low. Of the 3,000 they have put in, 2,000 are now in operation while 1,000 are still waiting to be connected to the electric grid.

Two crop instead of an**

There has been another change in methods as well. Formerly the local *Maddur* (rice). *Maddur* had a long growing season lasting from August to September. Now it has been replaced by a quick-growing *Maize* (rice) allowing two crops on the same land within the same period.

The southern part of Gujarat, the uninhabited areas of the Punjab and of western Uttar Pradesh are making equally quick progress. The village of *Khandoi* in the *Buttard* district between the Ganges and the Jumna rivers, a

good example of this trend, has a population of 1,227 (1961) and a total area of 600 acres, of which 618 are under cultivation. Since 1964 when I left, eight new private tubewells have been installed by farmers owning 15 to 35 acres, in addition to the distributary *well*, the State tubewell, other private tubewells and oxen-drawn wells, all substantially improving irrigation.

Tests earned out in 1966 with hybrid *maize* proved unsuccessful because of the poor quality of the seed used. On the other hand, the *Sonera* and *Lerma Roja* Mexican wheats were very successful on the test plots. In 1967, farmers were planning to plant most of the wheat-growing area of the village, 100 acres, with these selected seeds: this should raise yields from 1,150 lb/acre (with the local variety) to over 1,800 lb/acre initially.

While consumption of chemical fertilizers is increasing, there have also been some serious setbacks. The Third Economic Plan originally set a total consumption target of 1 million tons of nitrogenous fertilizers (N), of which 800,000 were to be produced in India; 400,000 tons of phosphoric acid (P₂O₅), all to be domestically produced; and 200,000 tons of potassium (K₂O). In 1965/66 output of the first two totaled 344,000 but by 1966/67 it had only reached 453,000 tons. Imports have risen sharply since 1965 to fill part of the gap.

Since 1967/68 production has entered a new and important phase. Many of the factories under construction are almost finished, and when they begin their annual production capacity will reach 681,000 tons of nitrate fertilizers (N) and 419,000 tons of phosphate fertilizers (P₂O₅). But despite these advances there will still be problems in organization of production. The big question is whether the recent delays will be made up in 1970-71 output to reach the planned 2 million tons of nitrogenous fertilizers and 1 million tons of phosphoric acid. *KTOVO*.

Development problems must also be considered. The government has freed this sector, withdrawing the virtual monopoly it had granted the cooperatives, enabling private enterprise and *cooperatives* alike to participate in the marketing of fertilizers. Nevertheless, bottlenecks remain, of which the following is an example.

• Cf. *World Report, Crra No. 2*

ample: The government-operated fertilizer factory at Sindri in Bihar in August 1967 had 20,000 tons of ammonium sulphate reserved for the local government, which failed to have it delivered.

Production of selected seed is another rapidly expanding sector. One example is the program of the University of Pantnagar in Uttar Pradesh. It is directed by D.P. Singh, former under-secretary of the Plan Commission. As a higher civil servant, and a man of strong character, with a thorough knowledge of agriculture and farm life, he is managing Pantnagar remarkably energetically. More and more of the 1 million acres are

Short- and medium-term loans granted by Cooperative societies totaled 4 billion rupees in 1960/61, compared to 2 billion in 1960/61 (\$1 = 7.50 rupees).

These efforts reflect a greater awareness of agricultural problems among the authorities, a definite investment in this sector and to release foreign exchange needed for the import of equipment. The trend toward increasing production factors in areas where progress is particularly likely is showing results.

Another significant development is taking place at the farm level. In a great many regions the problem is no longer one of stimulating the farmers to increase

However, it is important not to go from one extreme to the other in the light of these encouraging observations and assert, as some prominent Indians have done, that the country's food will have been eliminated by 1971 and that they will soon be able to export grain. These people dangerously underestimate the problems of execution. Development appears comparatively simple viewed from their offices in Delhi or Bombay. In the field, all programs run into a multitude of practical problems.

I have already cited some examples in discussing crop loans and could add many more. For instance, the use of the additional credit planned by the Reserve Bank far exceeds demands based on high-yield varieties was disappointing because of weaknesses in the cooperative structure, overcomplicated formal procedures and lack of coordination. "Accidents" have occurred, like the failure of Taichung Native 1 in the Krishna delta and of hybrid maize, in 1966, in western Uttar Pradesh.

These growing pains are hardly surprising in a country stretching over 1.2 million square miles with 565,000 villages. Any idea, or decision, takes some time to reach the Tank-and-Rule. But what counts, rather than the arbitrary fixing of 1970/71 as the end of the food shortage, is the realization that a far-reaching trend is underway. Regional differences in pace do not matter, provided the nationwide growth rate overtakes and keeps ahead of the population rate.

This strategy might be challenged on the grounds that it is antisocial, since it benefits mainly the more favored regions and the middle classes of farm society. Wages of the agricultural workers are lending money in the comparatively advanced regions like Punjab, but only by stages after intervals of time.

Can we approve such an agricultural policy? Yes, for this is the only way out, even from the social standpoint. Concentration of investment in the most backward regions and among the poorer farmers would inevitably slow down the growth rate. Unless production picks up quickly, providing the government with needed reserves, there is a risk that famine may indeed strike some day. Should that happen, it would not affect the rich or the middle class farmers so much as those who live on a tiny plot, or have no land at all.



The untouchable plow — social and cultural attitudes toward farm inputs can make or break governmental plans to expand agricultural production

being used to increase the new seed varieties. Between 1965 and 1967 the area under hybrid maize increased from 300 to 3,000 acres. Mexican wheats and paddy are increasing. Pantnagar is launching activities on a large scale with the aid of the World Bank and FAO: in five years 50,000 acres are to be used to increase seed, which should meet the needs of Uttar Pradesh and other states as well. Other research stations are also more active.

On the pest-killing front, there has been progress both in research and utilization. Small-scale irrigation works are gaining ground at a steadily accelerating rate. In 1966/67 no fewer than 200,000 pumps were installed beside 100,000 wells, and 20,000 tubewells were bored.

The Reserve Bank and the cooperative banks are expanding their activities.

But their methods of meeting their increasing pressing demand for fertilizers, pumps, seed, etc. The rate of change varies widely, as can be seen from the two examples I have described in Andhra and Bihar, but it is significant to note that even in a lethargic state such as Uttar Pradesh a similar change is taking place.

Following all these steps, however, one can state that, providing the present agricultural situation is continued and the political situation is not deteriorate further, whether Indian or foreign, shared opinion, especially those working with the Ford and Rockefeller Foundations and U.S. AID. There is a fair chance that in 1964-65, despite unfavorable natural conditions.

The waste in aid

The future will bring greater demands on aid, necessitating even closer cooperation at all levels

Ay HAMS JOROEM KRISTEMSEtt

Much has been said over these past few years about the need for increased **Mafatanoe** to the developing countries in the field of agriculture. **Dfecusskxu** at UNCTAD 2 showed that the 1st goal does not meet the need* of developing countries.

Recent data from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development statistics on assistance to agriculture disclosed that this **trilateral** assistance, and 18% of total multilateral assistance, plus the indirect benefits from assistance in infrastructure which may often be of substantial importance to agriculture, not least in the marketing of commodities.

These figures give a somewhat clearer picture of the progress of events over the past few years, but they do not tell us whether such assistance is contributing to a balanced development of the **fallout** of the economy of the countries concerned.

We cannot know even more than this. As the planning of agricultural development becomes more accepted, it should become possible to define the need, of assistance in the agricultural field and to outline priorities. It should also be possible to establish the role of agriculture in the **caataa** of **genets!** development. We can only hope that (hitherto) work being undertaken by the Indicative World Plan for Agricultural Development (iwj) will give us the needed answers.

HJ. KriMcnvm it **camuHar** M the **liaahh MIH-** **iNrv** of Agriculture, **rmni.tlfrti rrpctciimiv!** **int the lhimN HiHiiit jin Isth'tiat Cotiprr-** **uk/m f'fh Drrrtopinji Comma ami t huh man** **uf (if < li i an * >WIMI in AyauiUre.**

There is another task which is as important as efforts to **Sugmeo** the present level of assistance. Are we — both developed and developing countries as well as the **intemMiona]** nations—doing what we can to make assistance as effective as possible?

Let me begin with an obvious statement which is all too often forgotten: there is a percentage of waste in all human effort. We must carefully scrutinize the ways in which things are done but we must also remember that there **Ut dL-tintie** limits to the efficiency of any **performance**.

The bulk of efforts aimed at making assistance as effective as possible must come from the country concerned, and **efficiency** in local administration is **therefore** a key element. Assistance from outside (UMi.ill) comes from a large number of more or less unrelated sources: bilateral from individual donor countries, multilateral assistance from a variety of partially interlinked international organizations. This presents a risk that assistance is given piecemeal with due consideration being given to priority needs.

The usual response, **wheatVW** lack of coordination of aid efforts is discussed, is that this is the responsibility of the recipient country, and that only the country can say what are its **priority** needs in the agricultural field. This would be true if the country concerned had the people **UMJ** the machinery to define and execute a sound development plan of sufficient local-range character: but, in practice, very few countries can all the time meet this standard.

An important element in **outside** agricultural development, therefore, con-

sis-i of strengthening the administrative machinery, particularly at the planning h[;i]EC. Let us be realistic and acknowledge that people able to carry out such work are not easily found, even in the industrialized countries. Useful work might be done by the FAO country representatives in their proposed new set-up, in which one of their main functions will be to assist in planning agricultural development.

It is my opinion that a good deal of coordination will be undertaken from the outside for years to come. But such efforts must be in close cooperation with LHO recipient country. What we need are practical solutions to practical problems:



Multilateral and bilateral aid 13 improving nee-growing areas its West Africa

we do not want situations where outside forces try to direct development.

As of ensuring coordination it agricultural assistance will vary greatly according to the type of aid and the practical problems involved: financial assistance, often part of more general aid, falls in one group; technical assistance normally knits itself to a different procedure; while economic aid lies somewhere in between. The sheer size of a particular effort may well influence the practical approach.

All this leaves the question of overall coordination hanging in the air. The

answer for the best that can be offered is an individual case.

Co-ordination efforts in the field of financial assistance are, and should be, centered around the World Bank group. This work is of high-level competence and it is important that the World Bank experts be fully utilized. Co-ordination between major donors are becoming of increasing importance and the World Bank group has wide influence in this context. For smaller donors, though, that greater efforts must be exercised at overall coordination.

One of the first arrangements for coor-

melhtology upon the recipient country. Let us mention, moreover, which are inherent in the giving of assistance to one particular stage of a process (leaving the remainder of the chain to itself) and in training people without afterwards giving them the funds to put their new knowledge to practical use.

Strangely enough, it is in the technical assistance field that the willingness to coordinate assistance seems to be at its weakest, particularly on the part of the major bilateral donors. The results are sometimes shocking: stories about the duplication of effort between bilateral expert missions.

This problem is partly a question of the efficiency of the international organizations. Criticism is leveled mainly from two angles: such organizations are expensive; and they have not solved the problem of coordination among themselves. The first point seems to me of lesser importance, but the second touches upon a sore question.

Agencies at various purposes

FAO, which should be at the center of coordination in the agricultural field, is the best qualified to fulfill this role. We hope that the present reorganization of FAO, and the IWP, will put this organization in a better position to shoulder this responsibility. But it is not enough, many aspects of agricultural problems are, at least partly, the responsibility of other agencies such as UNCTAD, ILO (International Labour Organisation), WHO (World Health Organisation), UNIDO (UN Industrial Development Organisation), or of the United Nations itself. And let us frankly admit it: the United Nations has not, so far, managed to solve its own coordination problems.

Rather than wailing for perfection of the international organization — we shall never get that far, partly because of the sheer pressure of work — let us see how technical assistance can, in practice, be coordinated through FAO.

It is quite clear that small donors, who are nowadays rapidly increasing their aid efforts, have a particular role to play in technical assistance from international organizations. The preparation of projects under the best possible conditions in the recipient countries. Advice from an international orga-

nization often allows a shortcut, resulting in both **increased** efficiency and **lowered** costs. These countries all have a serious shortage of expertise. So far, comparatively limited use has been made of such **international** facilities.

Hybrid aid project*

Sweden and Denmark are probably the two countries which have gone furthest in their cooperation with PAO.

In the case of Sweden, it is interesting to note that efforts have been concentrated on a few major projects. An FAO study on agricultural **cooperative** credit in a number of countries was financed from funds freely made available by SIUA, the Swedish International Development Agency: one result has been the detailed preparation of a large integrated project in Afghanistan, also wholly financed by **SIDA**. Such assistance is based upon a policy which combines bilateral assistance

Danish authorities this means, *Inter alia*, increased aid without any major increase in administrative activities in Denmark. One of the largest private aid agencies, the Danish Inter-Church Aid, is also partially using **PAO** channels in its work.

Clearly, the employment of FAO expertise may vary greatly: financing **projects** through **FAO** (with or without providing the experts needed); using FAO project proposals in bilateral assistance; or, more modestly, using FAO as an information center for bilateral activities in the agricultural field. Even the last possibility is used sparingly by most donors.

It may be argued that such information assistance is ensured within the recipient country from the local resident representative and, possibly, the FAO country representative. But I have doubts both as to the extent to which this is actually happening, and whether it is enough, considering the centralized character of an organization like FAO.

tion and coordination activities? The United Nations Development Program/FAO have provided a partial basis for discussions on the three countries of East Africa (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda) through the East African livestock survey of 1967. Kenya has maintained contact with a number of donors: why not attempt a broader exchange of views at regular intervals involving FAO, OECD and other interested organizations?

Food aid is mmmfmm

Food aid, which is a special — and highly useful — extension of financial assistance, is probably the field in which coordination has so far been most **satisfactorily solved**. The reason for this is **obvious**: 95% of bilateral food aid stems from one donor country which has, at the same time, been very active in promoting the **World Food Program**.

But this is no guarantee for the future. The surplus — in the Common Market countries, for instance — become a permanent feature, will the **World Food Program** be used as it should? Recent discussions concerning wheat deliveries under the three-year, 4.5 million tons Food Aid Convention warns against having **too** high hopes. The bilateral approach appeals to many.

My conclusion is that we are not doing our best to ensure that our aid efforts in the agricultural field are used to maximum effect. Donors maintain little contact between themselves and they do not profit **enough** from the expertise of international organizations, to which they are the major contributors.

This problem will be greatly aggravated unless new attempts at coordination and integration of assistance are made.

Assistance in the agricultural field will become a very complicated business over the next 10 to 20 years. There will be a continuing and increasing need for short-term food aid. This must be intimately combined with assistance to promote **local** agricultural production, both through the provision of production requisites (imported and locally produced) and by means of technical assistance.

If donor countries do not improve the means of coordination they will find themselves faced with a **critical** situation. Let us try to find practical solutions, beginning now.



forests are a renewable resource which can be managed to perpetuity. Colombia is using multilateral technical assistance to attain self-sufficiency in forest products

to a very limited number of countries with assistance through international organizations benefiting a wider **group** of countries.

The concept of multi-country projects was introduced a few years ago in Denmark. The Danish Board for Technical Cooperation with Developing Countries has financed a number of long-term food aid project proposals, mostly by providing the funds and/or expertise through **FAO**. As examples may be mentioned a rural youth project in Liberia, **COMIFOP** (organization of bore holes in Malawi and a dairy development **center** in India. To the

[It is worth mentioning that President Johnson's Science Advisory Committee recently expressed the wish that FAO be increasingly used as an informational and coordinating agency. It is to be hoped that this will start a new approach in this problem, particularly on the part of the major donor countries.

Let me add that in Denmark it has considered quite natural to keep FAO informal about all major bilateral **activities** in the field of food and agriculture, as well as where advice is needed in the planning of projects.

Why do we not try out such informa-

Diary of a Soviet engineer in Ceylon

by PA VCL FIALKOVSKY



Do the large dam projects take sufficient account of the social consequences of change? What is the best way of carrying out such projects?

Eight hundred years ago in Ceylon, King Parakramabahu I decreed that "not even one drop of rainwater will flow into the ocean without being made useful to man."

An idle boast, perhaps, but it reflects the level of agricultural engineering attained in ancient Ceylon which reached its height in the 12th century and has not improved since.

ancient civilizations were centered on the northern plain where the art of irrigation (water control) (netted back to at least 500 B.C. One of the earliest of the so-called tanks — which are actually lake-sized reservoirs kept filled by river diversion — was built in 300 B.C. and can still be seen near the ruins of Anuradhapura, the old capital city.

These civilizations decayed under the impact of war and disease. The land gradually fell into disuse and reverted to jungle. The remains of the population, plagued by malaria and typhoid fever, fled into the mountains and settled there.

Today, population is rising sharply and with it the need for food, satisfied only by expensive imports of foodstuffs. There is an evident need to increase agricultural production, particularly in the dry zone so that people could be resettled

there from the overpopulated wet zone. This need is becoming more and more acute each year and is the driving force behind the Mahaweli Ganga development project.

This is the project which brought me to Ceylon three years ago as the project manager, heading a team of soil scientists and engineers.

Since then our team of FAO and Ceylonese specialists has carried out an irrigation and hydro-power survey. We then produced a master plan for development at the project — involving dams, power stations, canals and hundreds of thousands of acres of irrigable land — and, finally, a feasibility study for the first phase of construction.

As a Soviet hydraulics engineer it was interesting to observe at first hand the larger kind of U.N.-sponsored development project now being carried out by national and international experts working together in many countries of the third world, and to see the economic and social problems which they sometimes generate and which, perhaps, even more important than the technical ones.

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Ceylon lies like a pear-shaped drop in the Indian Ocean, some 100 miles north of the tip of India. A mountain range, the Western Ghats, covers the southern bulk of it, falling to a vast coastal

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plain which encompasses the northern part of the island. Ceylon is some 25,000 square miles in area, roughly equivalent to Ireland, Panama or Sierra Leone.

Ceylon is divided into two zones by the effect of the twice-yearly monsoon. The southwest monsoon is partly screened by the mountains and, as a result, rainfall is very unevenly distributed between the two zones. The wet zone, in the southwest, receives 150-200 inches of rainfall a year and covers a third of the land area, on which live three quar-



ters of the population. The remainder of the island, the dry zone, receives 30-75 inches of rainfall a year and agricultural production is largely dependent upon irrigation.

At the present time, enormous volumes of silt-laden water flow into the sea. It has been estimated that the Mahaweli (which means, literally, "big sandy river"), has a flow of 6.5 million acre-feet at its mouth, enough to irrigate nearly a million acres, most of which is lost without being used.

Main crops are paddy, tea, rubber and coconut. The Jasi three commodities account for nearly 15% of the country's

exports. Proceeds pay for most of the imported foodstuffs: rice, chilies, onions and milk products.

The cash crops are grown mainly on large estates, such as tea estates in the western basin, near the town of Kandy. The bulk of the population are peasant farmers, living in mud-walled, palm-leaf thatched village houses, with a few acres to cultivate on a share-cropping basis. The diet is mostly rice, with local vegetables cooked in curry, dried fish, tropical fruits and, occasionally, meat and milk products.

Agricultural production has risen considerably in recent years. In fact, due to the efforts of the government and aid agencies, such as the Food for Peace program to increase fertilizer use, rice production has risen to the point where rice imports have steadily decreased over the past few years. Last year, adverse terms of trade and population growth (2.5% per annum) have counteracted this progress to the point where real per capita income has hardly increased.

Population growth and income are expected to raise demand for fertilizer to 10% per annum. Agricultural production will have to be greatly increased if the country's economy is not to be warped by increased food imports. It has been estimated that if rice production was not increased, such food imports, might amount for as much as \$40 million per annum by 1990.

Attention was drawn to the Mahaweli (which is a prime source of water for power and irrigation) in 1961 by an IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) mission. Separate surveys were carried out the same year by the US (United States Operations Mission) and Canadian Hunting Survey Corporation. Discussions between the UN (United Nations Development Program) and the Ceylonese government went on for nearly two years before the Mahaweli project finally became operational.

The ultimate aim of the project is to produce food, cash crops, agricultural raw material for industry and electrical power. The first phase of the project over the next thirty years should solve the country's food and power problems. It would also bring large volumes of unused water and land areas of unused land into production. It would provide employment to a million people in agriculture and industry.



More than a million acres of land are irrigated.

The project was supposed to be carried out over four years. It was, in fact, completed in three years largely because the Ceylonese government greatly increased their assistance to the project. At one point, half of the entire survey department was working with us.

As it was we lost a great deal of time collecting statistical data which was essential to the survey but which was not envisaged as part of our task. It is not unusual for survey projects such as ours to spend the first year on pre-survey work which, sometimes, could have been carried out in advance by the country or by the IBRD.

The project area covers nearly half of the country and shows on the map as a shaded area which covers the northern end and the top of the central mountain range. It extends over some 10,000 square miles, including more than half of the dry zone.

Whom is it for?

The international team included five experts from the Soviet Union, including myself. Altogether there were 14 on the team including British, Dutch, Israeli, Japanese and Swiss experts. The total team included 15 Chinese experts under the direction of Mr. K.S. Cook, an irrigation engineer who was co-manager. More than 200 local agronomists, engineers and technicians worked with the team for most of the time.

The decision to carry out such projects raises some interesting questions. The first is, for instance, the relative effectiveness of international, national or sub-contracted teams. All our work was done by our own mixed team, apart

The second phase follows the first without interruption, bringing water to 2,10,000 acres from storage reservoirs constructed during the first phase. The third and final phase provides for irrigation of 342,000 acres in the northern part of the island and completion of hydro-power development.

The Ceylonese government has decided to start construction in 1969 of the barrage and irrigation canal system which forms the first step in this long chain of development. The contract for final engineering specifications has already been awarded. The World Bank is interested in investment and has another mission to Ceylon to investigate. The French bilateral aid program may also help the project.

I am an engineer. From my point of view there was a problem — the need to greatly increase food production through irrigation — and a possible solution — storing and using river water for irrigated agriculture and power production. As an engineer I enjoyed helping to put the two together in the most professional way possible.

What happens next?

So many of the large engineering projects tend to neglect the end use aspects, and ours is no exception. There was no budget for pilot irrigation projects, experimental farms, or basic research into problems of credit and marketing. An IBRD team of extension and marketing specialists has, however, just visited the area and there might be a LINDP project to cover some of these aspects.

The first phase of the project will mean considerable resettlement from the north in order to cultivate the new land. The problem is that, although paddy rice has been the traditional crop of the area, the soils are of excellent quality and would be much better utilized growing cash crops which will bring in higher returns to the farmer.

The Ceylonese have had little experience in growing these new crops and there will have to be a great deal of extension effort in order to demonstrate these new methods. At the same time, there will have to be a considerable investment both in skills and capital in establishing settlements and building up an infrastructure of roads, schools, stores and clinics.

The team sociologist carried out a study of previous colonies, one of which was started almost thirty years ago. He found that, generally, yields were below the national average, that improved seeds and insecticides were used by only half of the farmers and improved paddy practices by only a quarter. No particular system of crop rotation had been adopted and there was a very low standard of animal husbandry. He also found that most of the settlers earned less than \$400 a year and that two thirds were in debt. Most of them felt that they were lacking veterinary, education and health services.

He recommended that priority should go to those settlers who had had experience in growing needed crops and that colonization officers should be given more extensive training. He also urged youth schemes, and the availability of good housing, drinking water, stores and dispensaries.

Of course, he only studied three communities. At the same time, if these established settlements lack such essentials it emphasizes the need for a great deal of planning, improved extension services and capital investment which must go into the new settlements.

The project has been designed so that it fits in with Ceylon's own five-year development program. Even so, it is only feasible if certain conditions are met. There has to be a progressive increase in the rate of land development during the first few years so as to build up the capacity required to develop 20,000 acres of new land annually. Settlers must be provided with all the production requisites they need — improved seeds, fertilizer, pesticides — in such a way that they can buy them when they need them. An immigration agency must be established and there must be a network of extension services, pilot farms and experimental centers.

We engineers have done our work as best we can. Ceylon needs this project but skill, energy, drive and money are needed to carry it out. This seems to me to be the big gap in our present attempts at international development. Proposals are left to the vagaries of international financing and political decisions, or to sometime inexperienced, or ill-equipped, national effort. We have organized teams to carry out natural resource and preinvestment surveys but we lack a satisfactory follow-up procedure •



from water nbw pouting useless!)/ into the SM H&rt, an existing rsetvou scheduled to be improved

from some geophysical investigations which were subcontracted to a French firm.

There was a language problem, though we managed alright with interpreters. Our working language, between ourselves and with the Ceyloncsc, was English. I personally prefer the **International** team because there is an intermixing of training and disciplines. One can compare various viewpoints and decide on the best approach.

Need for full-time economists

Our team was large but should have been larger. We should, for instance, have had a full-time economist advising on the technical recommendations. [It is not sufficient to rely on occasional visits from consultants and it is a waste of time to wait-until the project is finished before subjecting the results to economic analysis.]

I realize that dams are sometimes built which are uneconomic and that, if some economists had their way, there would be no dams at all. There has to be a compromise between the two and it might as well be done while the project is in progress.

The value of short-term consultants is rather dubious as we found that it took our own experts three months to understand the problems involved. I see little use in consultants who come for a short visit to advise and recommend, unless they are on very specific assignments.

I do not believe the argument that large consulting companies have no contact with the country in which they work: they can have as little or as much contact as any international team. My main objection is that most consulting companies

use the same system of short-term visits by high-level consultants, and, again, such visits seem to me of dubious value.

It is, however, probably better to use subcontractors for detailed studies. Our own team suggested lining the canals to prevent seepage, for instance, but the detailed costing would best be done by a consultant subcontractor.

We are facing a worldwide problem to find good experts, no matter whether for national or international teams. PAO has difficulty enough getting good men for its own headquarters staff and this is certainly a good argument against decentralization into regional offices, and for an interdisciplinary, interdivisional approach to field project.

I also feel that project managers must be primarily scientists or technicians who can understand the problems involved and who are in a position to assess results as they come in. It is undoubtedly helpful to have administrative staff but I cannot go along with the view that the project manager should come from business administration or industrial psychology.

More than a million acres

What did the project team find out? We found that by regulating the flow of the Mahawdi Ganga, its tributaries and the Maduru Oya, it would be possible to store some 7 million acre-feet of water, in 15 multipurpose reservoirs, sufficient to irrigate 7 (HMHK) million acres of paddy, or 1,300,000 acres of cotton, groundnuts, chilies and other high-value crops, on a two crops per year basis.

At the moment some 250,000 acres are partially irrigated from available reservoir water. The survey team found that there were some 650,000 additional

acres of good land which could be irrigated, with a further 570,000 acres which should be reserved for forest use.

We found first-class soils and favorable conditions for irrigation. The master plan calls for 40 hydroelectric plants with an installed capacity of 917 megawatts and a potential average annual output of nearly 5,000 million kilowatts.

Flood protection was another aim of the project and we drew up plans to stop inundation around two townships in the upper reaches and over some 200 square miles in the lower flood plain and delta.

The cost of land clearance, irrigation, drainage, flood protection, land development and power stations has been estimated at Rs. 4,664 million. Total capital costs, including such items as power transmission lines, comes to Rs. 6,703 million, about \$1,125 million.

On the other hand, the total value of irrigated agricultural production at world market prices, following completion and development of the entire project, has been estimated at Rs. 1,240 million, plus another 110 million for value of power generation. This means that ten years at full production could wipe out the preceding thirty years of financial drain.

Even so, this is far too rich for Ceylon's blood and financial aid of this volume cannot be visualized in the foreseeable future. The project has, therefore, been broken down into three phases covering 27 years from 1970 to 1996.

A feasibility report has been prepared covering the first phase which, in itself, consists of three major subprojects. The first of these would consist of a concrete barrage upstream at Kundy. Water would be diverted through tunnels, canals and interconnecting rivers to bring some 1,100,000 acres already under irrigation to an all-year-round basis, also adding a further 84,000 acres.

The second subproject would include a high dam, second largest in the project, and would allow 74,000 acres of irrigation in what is now jungle area. The third envisages the largest dam, or multi-storage reservoir, in the project which would bring another 76,000 acres of new land into irrigated production.

Altogether, this first phase would improve 144,000 acres and would add 1,400,000 acres of new land. Hydroelectric installations would produce some 1,000 million kilowatts per year.

Debate on the next development decade

Further thoughts on a global plan for development and on the success or failure of UNCTAD 2

by HANS W. STMGCR

Jan Tinbergen's article in the last issue of *Cures* reminds us once again of his status and of the tremendous contribution which he has made (to development **aOQBOMJa**

Wulc I **cannot** really disagree with anything he says, there are two **aspects** of his article **oo** which I would take a somewhat different attitude. To start with, he **Mem** to imply that: ;ill has not gone well with Development Decade I. Certainly we have not done as well as we might have hoped: but the current fashion of talking of a "decade of frustration" is somewhat **iuJfiQQUtcd**, although it may serve useful political purposes in reminding us of the continued urgency of the development problem,

It is true that progress in the development decade of the 1960s has been slower than in the preceding decade of the 1950s — judging by **tfas** Oenur.il Assembly's standard of a national income rise of 5% per annum — but we must immediately make two reservations:

...Firstly, our knowledge of national income statistics in developing countries is **h>** no means sufficiently **pndtt**, it is sufficiently **idvmoid**, to be certain that **I pewth** rate of **4'*** **U>4M** per annum. **rhMTi*—>.*>** of **4a tattf** 1%(K. i*. really a deterioration compared with the **pama** rate of **4W** **txt .%*** per annum characteristic of the early **19501**,

...Secondly, there is **eonWanbtB** doubt whether the hallmark of national income growth is really **ihc** best index of

the progress of underdeveloped countries. When we substitute other more direct indicators, such as improvement in the literacy rate, increases in the stock of educational capital within the population, or health indicators such as the incidence of certain diseases, the picture of the 1960s is by no means one of slower progress than in the 1950s; rather the

It is a deterioration in the international position of the developing countries, rather than a deterioration of internal **taeUMI** within them, which accounts for the apparent slowing down of the growth rate of aggregate national incomes.

The terms of **trade** — the relationship **bctMMfl** prices which the poorer countries obtain for their exports and prices which they **hsvo** to pay for their imports — have sharply and almost continuously deteriorated during the 1960s.

At the same time, the volume of their imports, consisting mainly of primary commodities threatened by **lymfaeUc** substitutes and not in highly elastic demand, has failed to keep in step with the increase in **voluaw** of world trade in general. The developing countries' share in total **world** trade has continuously diminished.

Aid in nominal terms has stagnated at the same time and, in real terms, has sharply declined in relation to the national income of the richer countries. And this in spite of the unanimous resolution of the (non-ruling **A^scmbty** accepted by the richer countries themselves, who have indeed tried in **OKD** (Organizational for Economic **CooptMikm** and **IX^clopnictl**) and other organizations to carry out the intention declared in this resolution — to devote **ITr** if the rising national **hWOOMt** of the richer countries to aid.

H.W. Sin **err it reconomir** **ndrhr** on **d*v\Apm***** **phmninw** » **tht** **United Nations** and **w>/TMw** in **ih** **grtuluat** **lotn/IT** **<>f** **thf** **N?<*** **Sch** ***t** **far** **Social** **Knrttnh**. **Sew** **YorL**. **Hr** (l **the** **<inltt>** **T** **"t** **Imcrn*** **Unnal** **Development**. **Growth** **'mm**) **CIUAfC** and **a** **nrrtt>** **f** **of** **other**

A rough statistical analysis leads one to the conclusion that, in the absence of this deterioration of international relations in the developing countries, the growth rate of national income in the underdeveloped world as a whole would have been quite substantially in excess of the target of 5%.

I cannot help but think that this peculiar combination of the 1960s — faster internal growth than in the previous decade hindered by unfavorable international factors — is intrinsically more encouraging than the opposite situation would have been: slowing growth of internal capacity compensated by favorable international factors.

Two-pronged MtlMCK: global and mmtamml

In the long run, it will be the *internal* capacity of the developing countries for growth which will count: the international situation will not, and cannot, continuously deteriorate to the disadvantage of developing countries.

This leads me to my second reservation concerning Professor Tinbergen's article. Despite all the emphasis that is placed on the limitations of the nation state as an instrument of international and development policies, we cannot disregard the objective of creating and strengthening national identity as a force in development, nor can we disregard the crucial role of national governments.

It is because of the progress which we have made in national planning, and in the development of more coherent and better national policies toward development, that we find a strengthening of internal capacity for growth inside the developing countries. The planning ideas of Professor Tinbergen himself can take no small part of the credit.

Yet these national procedures and policies are still capable of very considerable improvement. The development of 'global' strategies should not place us in the position of paying less attention to those improvements in national planning and policy formulation that are still crucial factors in the progress of the developing countries.

Good national planning must be combined with international action designed to stop such factors as (the deterioration in terms of trade, the concentration of exports of underdeveloped countries on commodities with a low growth potential, the effect of their increasing indebtedness, the erosion of aid in volume as well as quality and the strain on international monetary liquidity).

There is no contradiction between the two approaches but the continuing importance of good policies and good planning procedures inside those individual nation states which constitute developing countries. **BMWM OOMtUI** emphasis.

There are also important tools of international cooperation, such as financial aid and technical assistance which, at the present time, fail to make the full impact which they could have as the result of better planning and coordination on a national basis.

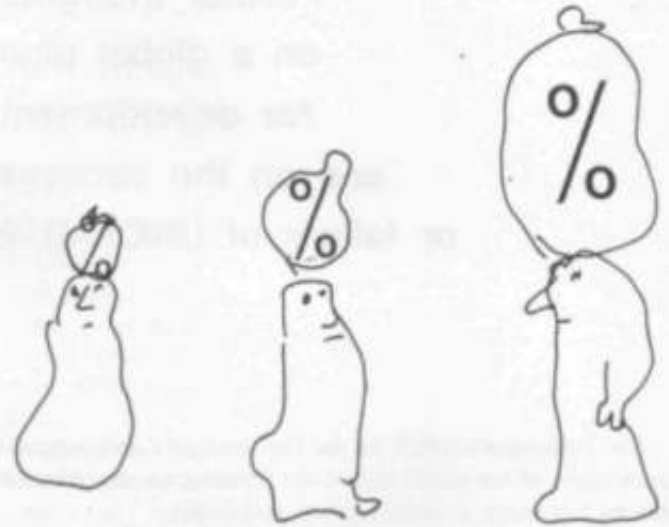
Our attack must be two-pronged: the supra-national, or global approach, must be synchronized and **hwilffill red** with the national approach.

In one sense, however, the description of the 1960s as a decade of *Trust rat km* and retrogression is accurate. It is clear that the target laid down by the General Assembly, a certain growth rate of aggregate national income, is less appropriate than a target of per capita income would have been.

Essentially, economic development is concerned with (the welfare of the people: our objective should be some index related to people).

While the rate of growth in *aggretatr* incomes has been slowing down, subject to the statistical uncertainties already indicated, the rate of population increase has been speeding up. Here also, our suite of knowledge does not permit us to be quite sure to what extent the data represent statistical reality rather than illusion. It is at least possible that recent figures reflect better coverage of new births and a fuller coverage of the existing population.

However, taking the figures for what they show, the combined effects of the slowing down of the rate of aggregate income growth and the speeding up of population growth, has resulted in a situation where the growth of income per capita



"... Firstly, our knowledge of national income statistics in developing is now only at about half the rate of that of the earlier 1950s: a growth rate of 4.1% to 4.7% per annum, characteristic of the early 1950s, against 4% to 5% per annum characteristic of the early 1950s. On this basis we are half way back to stagnation.

is now only at about half the rate of that of the earlier 1950s: a growth rate of 4.1% to 4.7% per annum as against 4% to 5% in the earlier period. On this basis we are half way back to stagnation.

Again, however, if we ask ourselves what the rate of per capita income growth would have been in the absence of unfavorable international factors, my own estimate leads me to believe that the per capita growth in the 1960s would have been faster than in the 1950s, even if we accept the data showing a speeding up in population growth.

In any event, the emphasis on per capita incomes, while providing solid ground for an unfavorable assessment of the *Qevihopment* Decade I, also places the emphasis on the population element, and thus reminds us strongly of the significance of family planning as an addition to more traditional approaches to development.

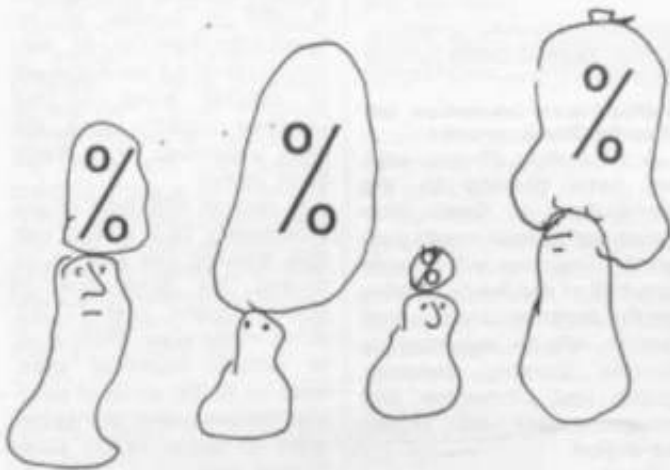
The *trick* of *Jane/ Stanovnik*,* with whose basic concepts and objectives I find myself in utter sympathy and indeed complete identity, allows me to develop these comments a little further, and in a different context.

His basic point provides a striking parallel to what I was trying to *MtabtU* a little earlier in relation to *PfohMOI J m*

* "UNC RAO 2 - Smrn, ,,t FMfw?" At pot* JO if C t m He I

bergen's article. It is now fashionable to proclaim UHCTAO 2 as a failure, as "an i NCTAD "f frustration." In RDM respects (his is undoubtedly true, yet lei us nut underrate ihu- ^it^iiffi- cance of Mr. Stano\nikS observation that one uf the main values of such confrontations is that they result in new views which [he delegates take home tti their iwn countries, and which help, often in inciinyihlc WMS. in shaping future Jecisions.

We halt gradually learned in development *economics* that the biggest impact does noi necessarily Qg in the t.mpeife and dramatic concrete capital prnjects V'e have, insicjd, learned to attribute more and mure importance to ih;!' T- tenths of the iceberg which is invisible, the human investment, intangible, not easily quantifiable (in spite of many valtaaj cflbrtt at ^uanification) and yet mure important (as we now know and can even prove) and more fundamental than thr



trios is by no meat* sufficiently precise, or sufficiently sdvaiMed, to >e later 1900's. it realty a deterioration compared With the statistical

capital investment.

When we speak of en "IINCTAD of frustration," are we not making the sanij n&teks in identifying development with concrete tangible happen!ngs?

Mr. Stanovrik like PfofaaM linbeisen. -peaks of an "overall orates <f development." As he deacrfoei It, this consists of (he interplay bettHMa wpff** targets nabtfaq to the growth of incomes and ,iid and trade, and more concrete sectional UfgptB relating to industry and agriculture. I his. Wihole series ol lurrziv. RgF<gttE ^d MKtnrtiI, II th-n u. interplay in its lurn with lhu nolkmal efforts, national achie\c- menis and njitnnjl targets of the dtvelnpinj; COMttDM

Mr Sttaovafll tBtpbaifaa lhat natinndI elTori und Mtiaa- al pulicis are more fundamental ED development, while the international tar^eis iind polkfcI lire derigWid 10 create a favorahk scUinj in which indispncsabl natinu.il effoti Ls gi^en a maximum ctanoB "" succeed.

Uui tae HDtslion which I want to rai>e is whether, here again, we are not in danger of underrating ihe potential ;im! Khteveaieaai of wtau has happened since Development De- cadc t w;^ Inached wme ievta or eight years ago,

Lei OK' explain this. We have established the t'i lid target and iflevfeabt) qaertknw .irisc. such as: should not

trade concessions to underdeveloped countries be counted U part of ihis I'/r akl (arpei"; should tied aki be really counted as aid when in some respects it resembles trade more than did?; what about supplcnwnlary financing which, in fact, provides a direct bridge between trade and aid?

DDt: taut/mark ot international cooperation

Scm in the liphi. the wnplc targcti of Development De- cade 1 are found to conuin the perm ot the fJotwl strategy which »c arc »«king. Th» » indeed rccopiucd by Pro- fessor Tmbcgrti. *ho calb the I** aid tarpci A " landmark ol imoraaaioBri coopefa»i-r U k tm ^ut il is also more than that: it is a poim o(depanure toward newer and broader efforts.

Mr. Suntrruk describes the approach to economic de- veloped as symbolized by UNCTAD as a joint venture of "de- veloped and developing countries; Professor Tinbcrgpn would, no doubt, fully accept this sis practically identical to Ms tHWetneul that the approach to development must be on j supra-national or global tmfe. I still prefer (o define the profess of devclopmeni as essentially a national \cniurc. which can either be frustrated by lack of intern at ional cooperation (as happened during Development Decade II or which can be fK-fpcd fiirwarJ b> luppfc—Of> MKmtiaoaI action (K we hope will happen during Development Decade 21

When I ajaj Mr Staamsflc'k propoial lor a Marshall l'ian approach to the devdopin f cuntrm, and *hen I read his description of the proposed prweedure b> which the de- veloped and de\tli'pmg countrie* would captain to each othci thuir mutual prohtcms and concessions. I could not help being siTuck by the similarity between what he proposes and what is actually happening within international consortia and con- sultative groups.

It is true that in these groups the recipient underdevel- oped country is in a minority position, whereas Mr, Stan- ovnik emphasizes (haL he wanis lhttr diveussion in take place within the United Nations where the developing countries tumid be in the majority. I am not certain how imponant thai distinction rcally b KcctniK, a coanitadvc group met rCpttSCnling the entirt- new I jst Mntjn EcODOiaic fommvi' ntty: the developing countries an no) in the minority ai such meetings.

Is ii not worthwhile to plow further alon^ the familiar furrow of iht Lunst^rtiuu ^nd ninsulative gmup technique on • imliofkil basis' \^hy not build on wfaal we have got? Why in it dewop these grojps into diKusaion foruiDs in which trade ;is ajajj as .(id tan be ili\cussed. nni u> mention technical iissis- taOCe, CrOMfiH %f ldbne< and tCChnoIQSJ and questions Of international migration

This would, in no way, deflate or iuperst-de ihc value uf liiMuder international (fiacunkmi in forums ^uch as ihe United Nations, t sf i \n, the International Bank or the inter- national Monetary f^und. It docs sectn to me H provide a natural alternative, or at least a complementary approach.

National planning, contortfal and consultative groups, i M i AM. t!li*Lil strategics, world btdkatfve plans, largcls b>ir the devclopntcnt decade — atl these BTC not diffcreot themes. I hey arc bul variations on the same theme.

ZAMBIA

• *Frozen elephant for dinner*

A game-cropping project in Zambia is providing badly-needed protein to combat widespread malnutrition, preserving wildlifp species and fostering an important money-making industry - tourism.

The scene is the Luangwa valley in eastern Zambia, one of the richest game areas in thB world. It is, however, overstocked with elephants, buffalo and hippopotami to the point where vegetation cannot support the animals. Over the past two years, 1,000 elephants have been killed

Last year. 278 tons of game meat was brought to Lusaka and this year production will be even higher. Experts have estimated that it will be necessary to reduce the elephant population from 23,000 to 6,000 while some 12,000 buffalo, and some 5,000 hippos will have to be culled.

\$7.5 million is being spent by the government in expanding tourist facilities, including a 400-bed luxury hotel at Lusaka and a 100-bed lodge in the Luangwa valley itself.

COSTA RICA

• *Boot and banana* on World Bank credit*

A \$53 million 20-year loan has been granted by the World Bank to Costa Rica for an agricultural credit program. The loan will provide one half of the funds needed for the program under which credits will be extended to farmers growing bananas, cotton and pineapples and producing beef cattle, mostly for export.

MALAWI

• *IDA loan* for irrigated agriculture*

Agriculture accounts for almost half of Malawi's gross national product: the key to

its economic progress lies in agricultural development. Two zones have been selected for priority development using United Nations funds and technical expertise. One is the plateau area of the Lilongwe, Oowa and Dedza districts (where population density is the highest of the central region) which is suited to intensive production of crops and livestock: the other lies in the hot, humid lowlands of the Shire Valley below Chikwawa in the far south.

The International Development Association (IDA) agreed in 1968 to provide an interest-free loan of \$6 million to carry out development of 500,000 acres in the Lilongwe region along the line suggested by a World Bank report.

A second IDA loan of approximately \$35 million was approved in 1968 to increase production of tinned cotton over 171,000 acres in the lower Shire area, to include improved practices on 22,000 acres of existing farmland and the settlement of some 15,000 acres of new land.

Still being investigated is the irrigation potential of a further 130,000 acres of the lower Shire Valley. The first development area of 10,000 acres has been selected and work is proceeding on the engineering drawings (or an irrigated agricultural development project). The report on this first phase should be completed by the end of 1968; the final report on the entire 130,000 acres will be ready by May 1969.

ECUADOR

• *More forest will increase* export earnings*

An investment of \$10 million over the next five years in forest industries in the rain forests of northwest Ecuador may eventually bring in an estimated \$20 million a year to the country's foreign earnings.

A joint Ecuadorian FAO

in the field
in the field
in the field
in the TIP
in the field

and taken 50 miles through the bush to a modern abattoir at Mfuwe, the project headquarters. The carcasses are cut up, chilled and transported in 50 lb blocks in refrigerated trucks 400 miles to Lusaka where they are sold.



Wildlife can, through certain circumstances, provide more protein per pound than domestic cattle. Game cropping of elephants, buffaloes and hippos is resulting in more meat in Zambia.

team has begun a pre-investment study of some 3,460,000 acres of forest in the north-west after completing an extensive forest inventory and an aerial photographic survey of about half the area. The government has now signed contract concessions with 14 locally-based companies to develop some 1 million acres of forest land.

IRAQ

• **Food aid being timed to help land reform**

Additional food for settlers improving land being opened up under Iraq's land reform program is being provided by the World Food Program (WFP). The farmers are planting trees and windbreaks, building storage facilities and roads, desilting irrigation and drainage works, establishing fruit tree nurseries and vineyards and developing the livestock industry. Cost of the food aid is \$876,000.

CEYLON

• **Onions and Chilies in the highlands**

Some 6,500 acres of high land will be used for the irrigated cultivation of onions and chilies with the help of a \$2 million credit from the International Development Association (IDA). The government is providing a further \$1.3 million for the four-year scheme,

ITALY

• **World fish catch nearing UN limit**

Fishery experts recently warned that the world cannot expect to catch more than two to four times the annual output of types of fish now commonly harvested from the oceans.

The FAO Committee on Fisheries, meeting in Rome, was told that estimates of potential catches of these fish range from 100 to 200 million metric tons a year,



Commercial fishing continues to increase as the present late 1960s will (in 1967) their full potential by 1988

and even these could only be realized if there were successful agreements on international management and protection measures

The present world marine catch is about 50 million tons. Annual catches have been doubling about every ten years. If this rate continues then the present known resources would be fished to

the limit in 15 to 20 years. Catches could then only be substantially increased by shifting to other, as yet unused, marine resources, such as krill — the small shrimp-like fish on which whales feed — plankton and other similar marine animals and plants. Estimates of krill potential alone run to more than 50 million tons.



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MADAGASCAR

• **Training local people to omrry on**

The four Misereor-supported projects in Madagascar, costing altogether more than \$700,000, have in common an integrated approach to rural development. In each area of operation a pilot zone has been established where the particular problems of the region are identified and tackled.

In Ankerika, in the northwest, primitive agricultural methods were pinpointed as the chief obstacles to good farming. Over the past five years farmers were taught how to train and use oxen for plowing, were introduced to improved tools and were demonstrated irrigation techniques for rice production in the dry season. The project has been so successful that it is being extended for another two years.

The most pressing problem



Primitive farming methods, such as trirs enclosure lor ZBbu califs. are being discouraged in rthe pilot areas supported by MisarSor in Madagascar

in Sampona. in the south, is lack of water. Various solutions for trapping and conserving rainwater were studied in the pilot zone as were ways of protecting the soil against erosion and introducing dryland farming techniques. This project is also being extended for another

two and a half years

The third project is at Androvakely, in the west, where improved varieties are being introduced and better storage methods are being developed to reduce food losses. As in all the Misereor projects, local artisans are taught to make and maintain im-

proved agricultural implements and local people are trained for extension work.

This year a fourth project got underway in the Antanimarina area. Improved methods and equipment for rice production and processing will be introduced over the next three years

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New projects established with FFHC funds

GHANA: A new type of collapsible poultry house costing S90 (as compared to S400 for standard models) has been specially developed for the pilot backyard poultry project to which the Austrian FFHC Committee has given \$9,700. Feed for the hens is being supplied through the World Food Program.

CHAD: The poultry scheme supported by Swiss Aid Abroad (SAA) to the tune of 5136,757 (reported in CERES No. 1) has been extended until April 1969. A plant which will convert waste from a nearby slaughterhouse into feed for poultry is being built near Fort Lamy at a cost to Swiss Aid of \$55,000.

PHILIPPINES: A freshwater fish culture development project supported by the Australian FFHC Committee (\$62,554) has shown that at least 3,000 kg of fish per hectare per year can be produced in freshwater ponds (6 times greater than present production). As a result, 31 private projects, covering an area of 600 hectares in 10 provinces, have applied for assistance.

TANZANIA: 1,800 drummed DM Own dtWOUPO to farmers' cooperative in Doome, Inng* and BM*#J# to populate a storage mtrtoO which m-conamtaUy and technically within the grasp of ail dr n m This project was supported by S17,405 (frv*n by tn* Austrian FFHC Committee. A day care center has tm n opened at «h# Mu&oma home economics training center, supported by SJDA (Swedish International Development Authority) to the tune of S1,056,315 An advisory council, composed of regional representatives* of all mtmttnH concerned with women's programs has been set up to ensure more organized contact between regional officials and the center.

LESOTHO: A \$20,000 program to teach agriculture and home economics to rural young people is being partly financed by the U.K.'s Christian Aid (S12,265). The money will be used to strengthen existing youth clubs, to start new clubs and to train government extension staff and youth leaders. An associate expert, made available by Finland, will help with vegetable gardens, woodwork shops and fertilizer trials and demonstrations.

CAMEROON: A project to assist young carpenters has been adopted by Entraide et Fraternite (Belgium) for S5,200.

DAHOMY: Further funds have been received for the animal draft power project (described in CERES No. 2) \$20,000 from Fonds national pour la coopération au développement (Belgium), and \$29,000 from Misereor (Germany).

The Canadian Freedom From Hunger Foundation has contributed \$6,000 toward the fishing boat mechanization project.

The U.K. Oxford Committee for Famine Relief (OXFAM) earlier this year donated \$10,000 for a center to teach illiterate Dahomean boys and youth-club members to grow crops and raise animals. Four more centers are to be set up under a three-year FFHC project to which the Government as part of its back-10-the-land campaign, will contribute £37,000 of the total 595,000 cost.

IRAN: \$32,000 has been donated for the second phase of the Ousadj project by Nebula, Novib and WCC-Netherlands.

PARAGUAY: The World Council of Churches has contributed \$5,000 to a rural extension project.

SENEGAL: Entraide et Fraternite (Belgium) has given \$5,200 for a hay-making and cattle-feeding project.

PAKISTAN: The vaccination campaign to eradicate Newcastle's disease and fowl-pest among the 20 million poultry of East Pakistan—to which OXFAM donated equipment.



Tamara, first of the oil drum will produce a low cost storage for farmers' cooperatives.

ment for producing vaccines — has shown excellent results. By the end of 1967 half of East Pakistan had been covered and the percentage of immune birds rose from 17% to 68%. The program will be expanded this year and the Austrian FFHC Committee has donated S17,600 for additional laboratory equipment. The Irish FFHC Committee has donated 596,300 to pay for the laying down of sprinkler irrigation in Rawalpindi while the Danish Board has given \$52,500 for the control of animal parasitic diseases in Comilla.

GUATEMALA: The Catholic Relief Services seed project has changed dietary habits in the Nahui region. A CRS grant of nearly S1,000 provided seeds for carrots, peas, radishes, cucumber, beet and broccoli.

KENYA: Three U.K. FFHC projects totaling £78,000 will soon become operative. The largest (£49,000) is to provide mobile veterinary units to serve African smallholders who own European cattle. The aim is to prevent losses of meat and milk from cattle diseases. Another project (£24,000) is for the improvement of grain storage at farm and village level where pests can devour as much as one third of the crop. Also £6,000 has been allocated to train small traders to protect their grain and to supply them with simple storage protection equipment.

VENEZUELA

• *S 5.4 mi than for better timing*

A five-year fisheries research and development project for Venezuela got under way this year. The project calls for international experts, fishery surveys and experimental fishing as well as the framing of Venezuelan personnel in research and fishing techniques. FAO is managing the project and is supplying a fishery research vessel for experimental purse seining and trawling in the Caribbean Sea and Atlantic Ocean. Venezuela is paying for more than \$4 million of the \$5.4 million UNDP project.

FERTILIZER PROGRAM STARTS UP IN ASIA

Demonstrations of how to apply fertilizer are being carried out in 25 countries under the FAO program financed by the world fertilizer industry. Latest developments:

...In Kenya, a country-wide program of trials and demonstrations on maize and other crops will start in September.

...In Tunisia's northern region, trials and demonstrations on wheat and citrus Crops Started in June.

...in Ethiopia, the Danish government is financing a pilot fertilizer credit and marketing scheme to begin this coming summer.

...In India, more than 1,000 tons of urea fertilizer, supplied by the U.K. fertilizer industry, are being supplied to community development blocks in Uttar Pradesh.

...In Indonesia, the Centre d'Etude de l'Azote has agreed to give \$30,000 to start a fertilizer demonstration program.

PHILIPPINES

• *Better cowm and more milk reported*

Farmers at the Philippine Dairy Training and Research Institute have reported that milk production per acre has risen by about 200% in the five years since the FAO/UNDP project started. The number of artificial inseminations to improve private herds has increased from 150 in 1963 to 7,000 last year.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

• *Haw 'forent* for old*
A Si million UNDP forestry project aimed at restoring the lost forests of the Dominican

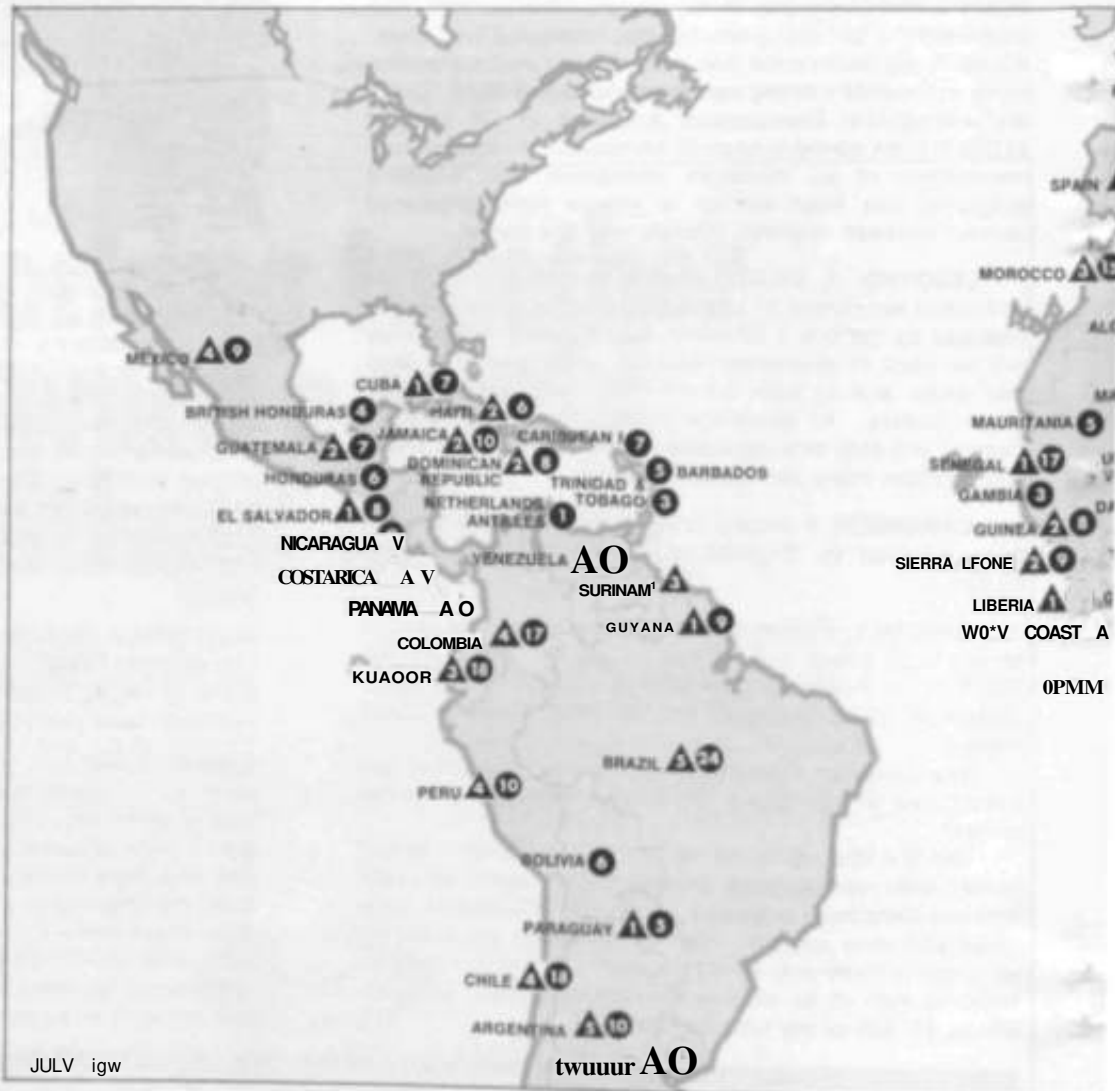
Current FAO projects

A ON Development Program (Special Fund) projects

0 All other technical assistance projects being carried out by FAO: U.N. Development Program (Technical Assistance); World Food Program; Freedom-from-Hunger Campaign; Trust Funds; FAO UNICEF and other joint projects.

REGIONAL AND INTER-REGIONAL PROJECTS (not included on Wi* map)

- Africa A©
- Latin America ▲22
- Asia & the Far East ▲16
- Near East ©
- Pacific Territories ○
- 1 rtier-regional A©



Republic will soon be fully operational. An inventory of the country's forest resources will be carried out over the next four years, together with the establishment of demonstration areas, and of the country's first forest training school.

SUDAN

• Food aid helping to sustain Ethiopian*

Nearly \$1 million-worth of food aid is to be used to help feed 20,000 Ethiopian refugees living in camp at Kasala and to rewrite them some 300 km³ in from the border. The project will help

sustain refugee families until they reap crops from land provided by the Sudanese government. The World Food Program (WFP) has already provided \$344,000-worth of emergency aid.

NIGERIA

• Canadian* train Nigerian* to man the dam

The first dam on the Niger river, at Kainji about 300 miles north of Lagos, is being internationally financed by loans from the World Bank (\$72 million), Italy (\$22 million), the United Kingdom (\$12 million), and the United States (\$6 million).

The Canadian government

has provided a grant of \$1.4 million and \$167,000 for technical assistance. A team of experts from the Ontario Hydroelectric Power Commission is to oversee the running of the electricity plant and will also train 200 Nigerians to take over the plant at the end of the three-year project.

CHILE

• 1,000 trained for agrarian reform

A loan of 3660,000 has been granted by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) to the Agrarian Reform Training and Research Institute, established under a

UN Development Program (UNDP) project.

The second phase of this project was recently approved, which means that the present training, research and advisory activities will be extended and expanded till the end of 1970.

So far, nearly 1,000 Chilean technicians and professionals have undergone training at the Institute in the fields of sociology, project planning and farm management, credit and cooperatives, rural labor, agrarian legislation, social and community development, and training methods and extension. (See the article by Jacques Chonchol on page 41 of CERES No. 3).



Africa and the Common Market

by P.N.C. Okigbo

The roller-coaster relationships between **VariotO** Africa's countries and the European Economic Community (EEC) and between African states not associated with the Community, are explored in this book. It is undeniably a topical book at the present time in view of current negotiations to renew the Yaounde Convention.

Mr. Okigbo is one of the best of Nigeria's university teachers and economists. He has been an economic adviser to the federal government for many years. In the latter capacity he negotiated special provisions for a privileged agreement between Nigeria and the EEC which was signed at Lagos in July 1966, but which, unfortunately, did not come into force because of the constitutional crisis and the secession of Biafra. He was made a member of the African Scientific Council in 1963.

Mr. Okigbo devotes three **Qbaptert** to the EEC machinery and the principle governing (the Convention of Association with African **countries** with the aim of enlightening Anglo-Saxon readers. He might, perhaps, be criticized for being too didactic and for giving insufficient emphasis to various political problems which have marked the growth of **uao** ciatkw between African countries and the **Commodity** of the Six.

His book does refer, on the other hand, to the delicate problem of stabilizing the prices of raw materials, which was the stumbling-block during negotiations on the second European Fund and **over** the new **Convention** of Association which came into force for the 1964-69 period.

Negotiations, among the Six and the African countries, took a very long time. France had **KJtwd** the problem of price **rtabffiatiofl** in a very simple way; by creating stabilization

funds and letting her former colonies benefit by higher **prices** which protected them against **Bwctaatioit** in the prices of the main tropical products. The French market was, also, a preferential area for African and Malagasy produce.

Other countries, such as the Netherlands and the **Federal Republic of Germany**, would not grant unqualified preference to African produce because of **possum** from their traditional customer, in Latin America and the **Middle East**. France, therefore, had to undertake to gradually abandon the system of higher prices, at which the African states asked (or some compensation for the losses caused by the relinquishment of this system.

The Yaounde **Convention** provides for the creation of a **HJHC** for the free traffic of goods, including free access by the associated states to the Common Market, on the one hand, and the opening-up of their markets to the products of the Six, on the other.

As head of Nigeria's delegation to EEC, Mr. Okigbo deals with the problems of association of other African countries, particularly Nigeria, with the EEC. His book contains two excellent chapters showing how Nigeria has to compete with the **BB&MOdMed** states in the field of various products, such as **cauxia**, **pulm-oU**, **peoadfloti** and **limber**.

Mr. Okigbo thinks that, under present technical and administrative conditions, the agreement between Nigeria and the European Community poses **lvvond** the framework of a **prcfctMal Mac aad** corresponds to the **niiblnhtncot** of **free trade** **KM**. In the **cod** of his **book**, he hopes that **riitcwwwi** over **rrtrw*** of the **Ywom&H** - **xvtmkm miU dm** the principle of **free trade** area over the principle of **association**, thus, echoing one of the first **Hrywrina** of the British government on his European problem.

Unfortunately, the flaw in Mr. Okigbo's work, as in many books on present-day Africa, is that history flows faster than commentary: one can already imagine renewal of the Yaounde Convention without such fundamental changes.

It is not to say that **TIC** got into it in the coming months will not be difficult. In fact, the African countries, particularly the **IK** we belonging to the African and Malagasy Organization (**OGAM**), have pertinent **ertddm** to present the Six, which is not emphasized enough.

The **OCAM** countries are dissatisfied: they think that the **dauscs** of the Yaounde Convention have not been sufficiently **observed**. Imports by the Six from other countries of the third world have been much greater than those from the African and Malagasy countries.

In most typical examples imports of bananas from Latin America, the value of which is said to have soared by nearly 644% between 1964 and 1966, as against an increase of about 11% in sales of African bananas, **OCAM** also harbors a grievance against the Federal Republic of Germany because German importers prefer to continue buying from their traditional sources of supply.

The second criticism by the African countries refers to the prices of tropical products which have been constantly dropping over the past ten years. For instance, the price of a ton of bananas (Ivory Coast), which was \$131.32 in 1958, fell to \$87.39 in 1965, a drop of 34%. Cameroon's cocoa sales declined by 55% in the same period.

At the **HE** tune, remuneration of farmers' work has declined between 1958/59 and 1965/66. For example, in a "rich" country such as Ivory Coast — where 7% of the coffee and 1% of the cocoa are produced by peasants on small holdings — income went down from \$0.47 per kilo of coffee in the (before 1958) season to \$0.30 in the 1965/66 **MMBJ** cocoa dropped from \$0.36 a kilo in 1959, to \$0.22 in 1965/66.

The third criticism, incidental to the **other two**, is the **CDOSUM** deterioration of the **ICFIH** of **mdb**. A ton of Ivory Coast **cdbc** would buy 18 tons of **œmeat** in 1965, **cowpwcil** with 24 tons in 1958. A ton of **Ivory Coast** cotton paid for about 14 tons of **«mc»** in 1965, as **film** **lome** 20 tons in 1958. A ton of **SiMeiW** men bought only 50 meters of cloth in 1965, whereas the same ton could buy 271 meters in 1961. It is regrettable that Mr. Okigbo did not deal with these problems, but he lacked data gathered by **OCAM** at the end of 1966 and during 1967.

In the last analysis, what **OCAM** wants is the slogan "fair trade is better than aid" should be applied in practice.

At all events, Mr. Okigbo's book gives food for thought and poses problems, although the statistics in his book are not conclusive, one cannot but praise his analysis of the important problem of

JORDAN

• *Network of animal health centers*

The network of animal health centers in the Near East has been expanded with the establishment of an Animal Health Institute at Amman. About 25% of potential animal production in Jordan is lost each year through disease.



The L&non unit SfxZ -Jze in detection ana control Ot poultry diseases*

The new Institute will emphasize animal disease diagnosis and vaccine production and will have facilities for training and research. It will cost the Jordanian government £446,000 and the UN Development Program (UNDP) \$810,000. Its activities will be coordinated with other similar UNDP-aided establishments in Iran, Iraq, Lebanon and the United Arab Republic.

TOGO

• *Choosing the land rather than the city*

In order to encourage young Togolese to become farmers, rather than emigrating to the cities in the hopes of white-collar employment, the government-backed youth movement, Jeunesse Pionniere Agricole is selling up clubs in villages throughout the country where young men are taught modern farming methods.

The center of agricultural operations of the JPA is the farm training school at Glidji, about 40 miles from Lome.

The farm has 100 acres under cultivation. Poultry, oxen and goats have been supplied by Israel as the first phase in teaching animal husbandry. Food is provided for the first year of operation by the World Food Program. The students receive a six months training course and then return to their villages to put into practice what they have learned.

The JPA encourages youths to form agricultural clubs in upcountry villages, some of which are run on a cooperative basis. In Togoda, in southeastern Togo, 50 Glidji graduates have reclaimed 150 acres of dense bush which is now about to produce its first crops. Efforts are also being made to include girls in this pioneering work.

DAHOMY/NIGERIA

• *Investigating taboos and food habits*

Mixed gardens, in which all the plants are grown together often in a semi-wild state, are typical of the humid tropical lowlands of southeast Asia.

They are being introduced into West Africa for the first time through NEDERF, a Dutch Foundation, which has given more than 3500,000 for two home garden projects: one in Dahomey and the other in Nigeria.

This year, a Dutch sociologist will spend nine months at each project studying local food habits and their relation to superstitions, taboos and other social factors as a part of the attempt to encourage consumption of nutritious indigenous foods.

The Nigerian project has led to the establishment of a mothercraft center, in cooperation with UNICEF and the Dutch 'Gast aan Tafel.' Women whose children have been hospitalized for illness due to malnutrition are given lessons in hygiene, nutrition and home economics. The children themselves are given daily medical attention.

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Inter-African trade.

Any observer of African problems cannot help realizing how small this volume of trade is. Imports of African products by the Equatorial Customs Union, which groups the countries of former French Equatorial Africa, totaled only 7.7% of total imports in 1965; exports amounted to only 1.6%.

As Mr. Okigbo says, the problem of the African common market cannot be taken as a whole. It must be tackled on a regional basis. This points to the experience of East Africa and of French-speaking countries in West and Equatorial Africa.

He ends his book with an analysis of prospects for tightening economic and commercial bonds, and voices the hope that African economic integration will come about soon. In this he foreshadows the initiative of Moktar Ould Daddah, President of the Islamic Republic of Mauritania, who organized a first meeting of heads of state of English- and French-speaking countries in West Africa at Monrovia in April 1967. He discusses an economic community. The next conference, to be held at Ouagadougou, will show whether French- and English-speaking countries are really anxious to cooperate, and whether an African common market is feasible. There is no doubt that a very long road lies ahead.

Guy de Lusignan

Africa and the Common Market, by P. Okigbo.
Oxford, Longmans, London, 1967 (183 p.). 27s. 6d.

NO EASY HARVEST

by Max F. Millikan
and David Hapgood

Of making many books — on world agriculture and its relation to the ominous problem of world hunger — there is no end. It is perhaps one sign of an awakening world conscience that it should be so. In the course of the last few years there have been numerous admirable publications in this field; some have been coldly factual and scientific, others have set out deliberately to create alarm and apprehension in the reader and, by so doing, perhaps to perform a service. The subject, after all, is of vital concern to everyone alive today, and it can certainly be numbered among the most important of the many problems confronting our beleaguered and harassed world.

No Easy Harvest carries no apocalyptic pronouncements of impending doom. It is a reasoned, well-written and informed presentation which recognizes the magnitude of the problem, but which avoids both polemics and hysteria. It is careful in its approach to economic forecasting, and it tries — for the most part very successfully — to indicate the paths which must be followed if the underdeveloped countries are ever to move out of their deepening slough of despond.

The authors went about their task by consulting specialists in a wide variety of technical fields: it is interesting to note that — in addition to agronomists, soil scientists, specialists in plant production, fertilizers, water conservation, pesticides, land reform, agricultural economics and other relevant subjects — they included anthropologists, sociologists, and psychologists. Such experts are all too frequently ignored by agricultural planners, though they can un-

doubtedly make a notable contribution when great schemes are being formulated which are likely to affect the lives and the social conditions of tens of thousands of people.

Having picked the brains of all these experts, the authors were then successful in persuading the U.S. Agency for International Development, in cooperation with the Center for International Studies at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, to establish a study group to deal with problems of agricultural productivity. The book is in large part a product of that exercise. It is a volume which will be of interest to everyone concerned with the complexities of agricultural development. It will, with benefit, be consulted by specialists. It is unfortunate that its message is unlikely to reach those who are not already converted to its thesis.

The scope of the book is wide and it involves searching examinations of land reform, the rice areas, the rain-forest tropics, the monsoon regions and the high altitude zones. It avoids clichés and euphemisms: an underdeveloped country is precisely that and should not be designated as "less advanced" or given any other appellation which might tend to detract from the grim realities of the situation.

Recurrent themes include the imperative necessity of improving and extending education at all levels, and the dangers of transplanting technologies to environments in which the ecological circumstances may militate against their success. The authors comment soberly: "the long record of failure in such transplants is a warning that the process is not as easy as it appears. Time and again, crop varieties, cultural practices, credit schemes and organizational patterns have failed to produce the expected results when introduced into a new environment." To that brief list they might well have added breeds of exotic livestock, the introduction of which too often results in costly and even spectacular failure.

The authors draw attention to the fact that — as is very right and proper — all specialists regard their own specialization as the most critical to any form of development. The standard prescription is "Do something about my factor first — and the others will follow."

Animal production scientists will feel that it is a matter of regret that the book does not deal in greater detail with animal

husbandry and the important and no lot easy harvests of meat, milk, and eggs. The integration of livestock into patterns of agricultural development deserve*, attention in an important work of this nature.

The formidable list of names who contributed to the substance of the book includes many professors, senior government officials, international civil servants and representatives of foundations active in the underdeveloped areas of the world.

With such a wealth of information and informed forecasting before us we may veil the statement of St. Thomas Aquinas that "a shepherd who cannot read will know more about sheep than the wisest bookworm." It is among today's great tragedies that there are so many shepherds who cannot read, and so relatively few wise bookworms.

No Easy Harvest has a useful index, a lack of which is all too common in books of this type. A selected general bibliography, in addition to the scrupulous references which are made throughout the text, would have been of value to the serious student. The anonymous **HIM** is to be commended for an effective jacket.

The message of the book is summed up in its final paragraph: "The key to agricultural development lies less in any specific projects than it does in an approach that combines sound technology with social strategies. Such an approach requires a high degree of creativity and determination on the part of both agencies of change and the political leadership of the underdeveloped nations."

W, Ross Cockrill

No Easy Harvest: The Pi Umma of Agriculture in Underdeveloped Countries by M. F. Millikan and David H. P. S. Little, Brown and Company, Boston [178 pp \$3.75]

The Rockefeller Foundation Approach

CAMPAIGNS AGAINST HUNGER

by Skirmun Brundage and Mangelsdorf

The "campaigns" of the title of this book are the agricultural development programs carried out by the Rockefeller Foundation. The first of these, which began in Mexico in 1943, helped to raise the country's production of maize, wheat and beans — the three staples — by 300% in 20 years. In the same period Mexican population increased by 70%, but despite this Mexico changed from a rain-deficient country to one with a slight surplus for export. This astonishing achievement encouraged the Foundation to turn its attention to other countries, where it is still hard at work.

The philosophy behind the Rockefeller Foundation's agricultural programs is to bring about increases in per-acre yields by carrying out research, and by then exploiting the results of the research through education and extension. Their research is, at all times, practical and has some outstanding achievements to its credit, particularly in terms of plant breeding. The development of high-yielding, disease-resistant crop varieties was the key to Mexican success and Mexican dwarf wheats, developed with the help of the Foundation, are now also giving excellent results in many other countries.

Rockefeller Foundation scientists have produced, and still are producing, spectacular results. For example, there are new rice varieties (developed at the Rockefeller/Ford Foundation International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines) which can yield 8-10 tons per hectare, instead of the Asian average of 2-3 tons, and millets and sorghums that yield 70-100% more than the local Indian varieties from which they were bred.

These unassailable achievements compel admiration, but obviously the results of research alone, without complemen-

tary education and extension, can do nothing to overcome a nation's food shortages. And one gets the impression (that is, complementary aspects of the foundation's programs are not yet gaining momentum within other countries) that they did in Mexico, despite the fact that, for example, wheat yields in Colombia have been doubled since 1950.

The authors are optimistic about extending the Mexican pattern to other parts of the world, but perhaps they underestimate the difficulties that lie ahead, for they give insufficient credit to the very special circumstances that favored the Mexican program. It must have been considerably helped, for example, by the simple factor of the country's (geographical) proximity with the United States: to have such a technologically advanced next-door neighbor is bound to stimulate a country's interest in progress. Mexico was also unique in having completed its land reform and thrown away the yokes of *latifundia* and punitive share cropping — some of the greatest obstructions in the path of agricultural progress.

Private institutions, such as the Rockefeller Foundation, do have a trump card in their hands: they can involve themselves in aid programs purely on a basis of where they think they can accomplish something, and they are less bound by peripheral interests to continue the program if it is not going well.

The Rockefeller Foundation's successes to date are aptly described by the authors, the Three Ancients* of the Foundation's agricultural development programs (their long association goes back to 1441 when they went to Mexico to assess how the Foundation should apply its efforts to agricultural development there). The story they tell might have benefited by a greater lightness of touch, and the writing is often self-conscious: one occasionally gets the impression that the scientist authors were striving for literary **baroque**, and they have, as a result, developed a Mannerist stylistic mannerism, that is, a somewhat irritating. These are small points, however, and, on the whole, the book is immensely informative — a must for anyone seriously interested in agricultural development.

Colin Fraser

Campaigns Against Hunger, by Skirmun Brundage and Mangelsdorf. Rockefeller Foundation, Harvard University. 1957 (128 pp, \$7.50).

NEXT: FRESHWATER FISH

Two reference books to
S.L. C. C. J. U.K. R. K.

With our oceans reaching near-capacity for fish production, the move to freshwater fish is inevitable, and there seem to be good prospects for increasing the catch.

The International Biological program (IBP) Sectional Committee on Productivity of Freshwater Communities (PF) is attempting to provide the stimulus and act as a focal point for the needed research. The challenge to meet human needs for food is a struggle one and must be met immediately.

Two recent complementary volumes on freshwater fish production, published as a result of IBP initiative, should prove exceedingly valuable to fishery officers, especially in developing countries.

They are the result of a technical meeting sponsored by the IBP Committee and held at Reading University, England. The meeting was divided into two parts: a symposium produced the volume *Handbook of Freshwater Fish Production*, and a working party which compiled IBP Handbook No. 3, *Methods for Assessment of Fish Production in Freshwater*.

The symposium, consisting of 21 papers by invited contributors, was divided into five categories: (1) vital statistics of populations, (2) relations of fish population, (3) the food supply, (4) competition and behavior, and (5) the contribution of freshwater fish production to human nutrition and well-being.

The first category deals with various subjects which enter directly into the calculation of production, such as recruitment, growth, mortality and population abundance. The next three categories are concerned with the methods they represent

represent a variety of factors tending to limit one or more of these basic requirements. The last category is a look at the contribution which fishwaiculture production is making to human nutrition, health and well-being and at what the prospects are for future improvement.

The papers present an excellent review of the current status of knowledge in the field covered and suggest profitable lines for future research; they also provide a background of information for the methods given in the handbook.

The handbook contains 13 chapters dealing with: capture; sampling and identification of fishes; identification; marking and tagging; age and growth; estimation of population number and mortality rates; eggs and early life history; production; food analysis and utilization of digestion; estimation of food consumption; causes of mortality; appraisal of a fishery; and the management approach. A useful appendix gives a list of symbols and scientific fish names used in the text. Tables of equivalent values and exponentials from e^{-1} to e^P are also included.

It is to be emphasized that the methods described are recommended for the purposes of IBP work, but are not universally applicable.

Methods, of course, change and must change with further investigation and accumulation of data and experience and are thus not to be considered sacrosanct. Nonetheless those presented can be recommended as a starting point.

Both books should become a standard addition to all fisheries libraries, and most workers will wish to have their own copy.

As a part of HAOS contribution to the IBP it is undertaking the translation (of the handbook into French and Spanish. It is not known at this time when the translations will be completed and published. Meantime, perhaps, libraries in the French- and Spanish-speaking countries might consider acquisition of the English version to assist their workers pending translation.

W.C. Beckman

The Biological Basis of Freshwater Fish Production, edited by Shelby D. Gerking, and *Methods for Assessment of Fish Production in Freshwater*, IBP Handbook No. 3, edited by W.L. Ricker. Blackwell Scientific Publications, Oxford and Edinburgh, 1967 (W. p.), 1968 (S. p.). 41*.. respectively.

International Agricultural Institutions

A handbook
by J. Innes and A. M. Taulier

The two authors set themselves a task that has only rarely been tackled. Their book, translated from Czech into German, is the only up-to-date handbook giving an overall view of international agricultural institutions. The last work published in this series was published in France in 1951. The fact that this handbook has been published in German will certainly limit the number of readers, but attention should be drawn to it because of its unique nature.

The handbook combines information and analysis. The authors evaluate the major guidelines of international collaboration in chapters on: the origin and development of the first international agricultural intergovernmental summit organizations; and, international institutions dealing with general agricultural problems.

The work of FAO, the International Union of Agricultural Producers and the European Confederation of Agriculture, as well as the part played in agricultural matters by international organizations such as the United Nations, OICD and Comcon. It also looks at solutions to agricultural problems offered by the European Economic Community.

Following this group of 21 general institutions, the book reviews 159 specific international intergovernmental and nongovernmental institutions. They are grouped according to their activities. Their program of work is outlined and other aspects are mentioned, such as their objectives, their competence, composition of membership and cooperation (or association) status) with other international institutions.

The book is a valuable contribution to the

ship tees, period kill publications, dale of foundation or reorganization and similar information which helps the reader to place each institution in perspective.

An effective compiled index enables each institution to be quickly located by means of four different enws refcrnnts.

While granting that works of [his kind are rare, I should like to complete the documentation listed at the end of the volume by adding the three tyaoptic works offering an overall analysts of international agricultural institutions which, to my knowledge, appeared prior to this handbook: *L'orgenttttiaH internatiortalv (lff'aitricttbur?*, by F. Houillicr (Paris, 1935-K *Vade-mecunyjics principals organisations intrnntidpatvs* by Andre" L. Gcisendorf (Vol. 5 of the publkiitiun of the European Confedcraton uf Agriculture, llrugg, 1951) and *L?i institutions de la cooperation imtrmnkmaic dam la domains de Vagricuiiure*, by (he author of I his review, published in German (Winlcrthur, 1960-

The first mill third of these studies do not claim to be complete and are largely economic analyses of the activities of various institutions. The second work deals with about 100 internatiortal institutions and is in the category of handbooks.

The main difficulty in compiling Midi a work, as the authors point out in their foreword, is in gathering together the vast amount of data and keeping it up to date. It would be dtsir;ible. precisely for this reason, for a limited circle of researchers to cooperate in a subsequent edition under the sponsorship of an international organLcation or foundation.

Marcel 6. L'Hpiatttniet

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ceres

Ceres was adopted as the name of this review because of its close association with agriculture, particularly the growing of food crops. Ceres, the Roman version of the Greek goddess Demeter, has its equivalent in most languages just as Ceres herself, symbol of agriculture and representing mother earth, has her equivalent in most cultures.



A terracotta of the goddess and her daughter which was made in Corinth about 620 B.C.

At the beginning of the Roman Republic, Sicily was known as the center of the worship of both Ceres and her daughter Persephone. Ceres herself was then considered as the most ancient and venerable of all the gods and goddesses. During the famine which the Romans suffered after the expulsion of the Tarquin monarchy, the dictator Lucius Postumius consulted the Sibylline books which advised that the worship of Ceres should be established in Rome. A temple to Ceres was therefore built in 493 B.C. on the Aventine hill (near the present site of the Vatican). Ceres was then regarded as the goddess of food grains and patroness of the corn trade.

Ceres also adopted Triptolemus, the son of Demeter, and initiated him in the arts of agriculture. He became identified as the deity of agriculture. In some legends he is named as the inventor of the plow.

The attributes of Ceres are connected with her position as goddess of agriculture and vegetation; ears of corn, the poppy, the mystic basket filled with flowers, corn and wheat of all kinds, the pomegranate being especially common. As the earth goddess she is often associated with the snake, the aspidochelone and narcissus.

Letter to the Reader

The debate on the present development decade and on the future world plan, hunched in our previous issue, is now in full swing. With this number, Professor Singer enters the fray: is the growth percentage of the gross national product the proper criterion for evaluating a country's progress? Which is the more suitable level for planning economic growth — at the nation-state or at the global level? These questions dealt with by Dr. Singer rise whenever development, the basic theme of our half-century, is discussed.

The most serious danger lying in wait for us is to abandon ourselves solely to a sense of justice. It has become commonplace by now to state that the gap between rich and poor countries is widening, that the rising birth-rate keeps down the standard of living and that there is an evident disproportion between effort expended in development and its effectiveness. We despair, without letup, at the lack of cooperation and action motivated by narrow political and national interests. Heedless of the international manager of 'Operation Development' because of their lack of boldness, their flight-salaried staff and their petty jealousy over selfish prerogatives. All this disturbs our sense of justice and forces us to admit that, even if results are achieved here and there, they are minuscule compared with the enormous imbalances that continue to plague us.

But while we are paying our tithe to a sense of justice, we are ignoring that of reality.

This leads us to one of the main points in our dialogue on development planning: the fact, the reality of nation states, in preparing a world plan, one has to reckon with facts, such as these: Mauritius — the smallest independent state, and the latest to join the United Nations family, with some 800,000 inhabitants living over an area of 1,600 square kilometers; the Soviet Union, one of the founders of the U.N. with 200 million people spread over 22 million square kilometers; annual per capita income in 38 dollars in Malawi and 2,030 dollars in the United States.

These facts, however well known, are not only a political, demographic and economic: historically, they are also a challenge to national sovereignty. Sovereignty is not quantifiable; it is the most propitious framework for economic growth and development.

Yet it would be proof of short-sightedness if we mopped here. Development, today, cannot be envisaged within the framework of a single country. The process is marked with the need for national interdependence; and this involves voluntary limitation of sovereignty for all nations, both large and small. Those countries which have long enjoyed their sovereignty, are obviously more inclined to grasp the new countries which are jealous of their recent independence. Thus, we face the need to work out a global plan which marries principle of sovereignty that in the last two centuries with the need for international interdependence. Each of these two aspects of sovereignty, each of the two facets of sovereignty, each of the two facets of sovereignty, each of the two facets of sovereignty. To find the point of juncture, to expound the advantages of each of them — this, in our opinion, merits a high place amongst our priorities in working out a plan for tomorrow. A. R. M.

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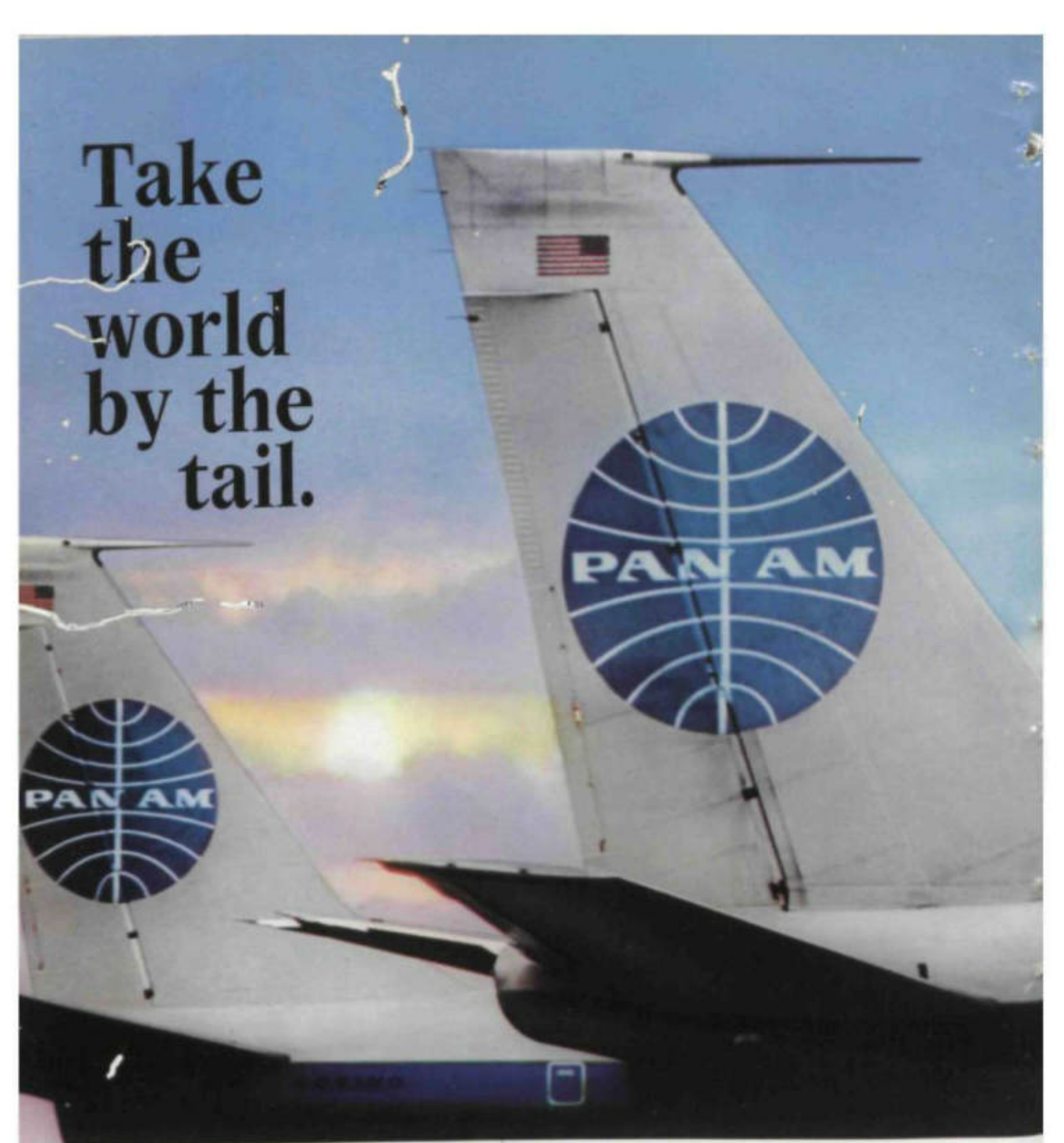


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P.A. Forthomme

The desert locust deviated Moroccan orchards in 1957. But the locust has no regard for rational boundaries and it created equal or greater havoc in every country from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. Finally it disappeared, but in 1968 it reappeared once more, like the phoenix. Nearly 40 countries are involved in a life-and-death struggle to track down and control this new plague. See the article by Stanley Baron on page 32 and the photographic essay by Tsd Pa sea and Gianni Tortoli on page 38*

Having one's feet on the ground is a touchstone of western civilization and of those countries who wish to present a similar image to the world. More specifically, in the field of research, Dr. N.W. Pine, a biochemist, talks to planners, economists and other specialists (page 26) telling them that the need of the developing countries is for simple, practical solutions which are immediately usable.

It is not always the most spectacular efforts which are the most useful. In improving transport and communication facilities, the roads themselves can signify new beginnings for communities which have been isolated for centuries. Peyton Johnson went up into the Peruvian Andes (page 22) and talked to villagers who were moved to fears by the new roads.

Development is still a vast, chaotic movement about which one can only hope that it moves two steps forward for one step back. In many countries one cannot even predict whether the next harvest will be too much or too little; or if one is going to be faced with surpluses or piles of malnutrition. Again, the situation can change with startling rapidity. It now looks as though some countries which have been dependent on foreign aid will soon be able, through the use of improved techniques, to produce surplus crops. Einar Bowrup, a Danish economist (page 19), poses the question of surpluses to both the developed countries, who already suffer from this problem and to the developing countries who have to find new markets for their product.

Solutions to such problems can only come from organization on a World-Wide scale. A place has to be found to store both raw materials and manufactured products from the newly independent countries. Anjan Datta, an Indian economist (page 41), thinks that this problem must be solved otherwise both halves of the world will suffer in the long run.

One way of avoiding the possible pile-up of surpluses is to diversify. Thailand, which has hitherto depended upon rice-growing for much of its internal and external needs, is now widening its agricultural base in case the growing self-sufficiency of its present customers endangers the trade balance. John Stirling (page 43) reports on successful attempts to change Thailand's agriculture.

Finally, if immense stocks of agricultural raw materials become available without any immediate market why not have the authority to treat them for what they are: chemical building blocks. If one can produce protein from a petroleum base why cannot new materials, new energy sources be made available from feed crops, asks P.A. Forthomme (page 50).

The claims of agriculture are quite as strong, if not stronger, than industry when it comes to financial investment for development. During the three years of its existence the joint FAO-World Bank programme has raised \$320 million for 27 agricultural development projects. Alain Hervé (page 29) describes the way in which this cooperative programme works in bridging a gap between two worlds: international finance and agriculture.



There are many ways to get more food from earth. The simplest is to provide the crops with the right nutrients without useless waste.

Feeding the crop is a key: there are lots of good fertilizers on the market. To avoid waste, it is important to choose the right one. Only a complete granular fertilizer can provide all the nutrients needed in a definite form. In a Seifa fertilizer, for instance, the plain nutrients are mixed in a definite chemical synthesis. This gives the plants the right amount of nutrients at the right moment. The granular shape of Seifa fertilizer allows easy and even broadcasting and, at the same time, avoids their being blown away by wind or washed away by rain. Being more concentrated, they are less bulky; this means less transport, storing and broadcasting expenses. Even the package can be special: you may find

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Seifa fertilizers are the most modern and effective to Self complex fertilizers. Further to the above, Seifa manufactures all types of straight fertilizers.



A plague of desert locusts is upon us and some 40 countries are preparing to do battle (see pages 32-42). Here, an Ethiopian field worker, garbed like some Medieval warrior for the lists, sprays locust hoppers with insecticide (photo: Gianni Tortoli)

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The opinion* expressed by the contributing authors are not necessarily those of FAO nor of the editors of CERES



V / *

The Daily Bowl of Rice

Every second two babies are born.
One of them in a rice-eating country.
More mouths to feed mean hunger.
It's **not** enough just to plant more acres.
Bigger and better yields also claim for
efficient pest control.
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Geigy's contribution to raise the yields:
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million dollar plan is expected to take at least three decades to complete.

The timetable agreed to at Santa Cruz called for a formal treaty to be signed by the five foreign ministers within 120 days and, two months later, the establishment of a regional organization to carry out the programme. Differences of opinion on the ways in which the project would be financed and carried out are likely to delay this schedule.

• Literacy training during military service

A law has now been passed which makes it obligatory for all young male Brazilians to obtain a certificate of literacy before being dismissed from military service. Literacy schools are "being set up in the armed forces and any young person who is not (iterate at the end of the normal period of military service will have it prolonged for literacy training.

AFRICA

MCImCtriO pdirfr, road; tohoolm and tna

Four African countries — Ghana, Ivory Coast, Kenya and Sudan — are to benefit from a series of loans from the World Bank group totaling more than \$37 million. The loans are for the development of agriculture, education, roads and electrical power.

A loan of \$10 million has been extended to Ghana by the International Development Association (IDA) to improve and expand the electrical power grid stemming from the Upper Volta complex.

In the Sudan, an IDA loan of \$8.5 million has been offered to cover 50% of the costs of an improved schools system.

Some 26,000 small farmers should benefit from a \$7 million IDA credit to help Kenya diversify its agricultural output and, in particular, to develop tea-growing. Some

37,500 acres have been set aside for tea production which should, eventually, produce some \$11 million a year for Kenya. A further credit of nearly \$11 million has also been granted to Kenya by IDA to part-finance the construction of 300 miles of roads, ten new bridges and the planning of a further 300 miles of secondary roads.

A World Bank loan of \$5.8 million has been granted to the Ivory Coast to pay for the construction of a road link between the northeast and Abidjan.

tent negotiator'. It forms a logical development from similar agreements now in force: the Yaounde Convention with 16 French-speaking African countries; and the Lagos Convention with Nigeria.

These agreements provide for free entry of African products into the European member countries in exchange for tariff concessions on a limited number of products from the EEC countries.

Mr. Ivan Majugo, the minister responsible for EEC relations and economic affairs of the East African Com-

million while the value of exports to the Common Market countries has decreased from \$67 million to \$52 million."

• The kilo continues to Kenya

Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania have decided to adopt the metric system. The decision was announced in July by Mr. William Kaiema, Uganda's Minister of Trade and Industry, and president of an *ad hoc* commission representing the three governments, in Uganda, next season's cotton crop will be weighed in kilograms and quintals.

• African bank* moot at Accra

Twenty-five governors of African banks met together recently at Accra, Ghana, under the theme of economic cooperation. Participating were banks from west Africa including Ghana, Central Africa, Algeria, Libya, Madagascar, Mali, Morocco, Sudan and Tunisia.

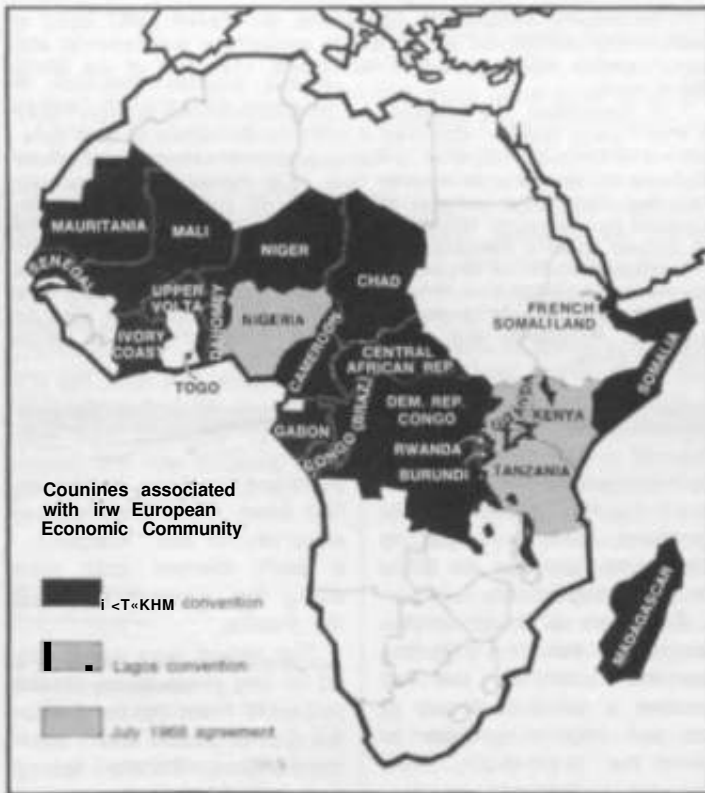
During the opening session General Ankrah, president of the Ghana National Liberation Council, said: "The necessity for close economic cooperation has never before been so evident in the history of the African continent."

• U.S. road and Chinese railway for Tanzania

A first group of 150 technicians has arrived in Tanzania from Mainland China to start planning and construction of the Tan-Zam railway. The railway's main purpose will be to transport the output of Zambian copper mines to Tanzania and the coast. The 1,000-mile iron link between Lusaka and the sea is being financed by Peking to the tune of \$250 million.

At the same time, the Tanzanian government is negotiating with the United States for a loan of \$13.6 million to construct an air route along the same stretch.

The proposed communication links, lying parallel to



• Agreement on Arusha Convention

The representative of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda and of the four members of the European Common Market — Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands and West Germany — met together at the end of July to sign the Arusha Convention. This new extension of EEC-African relations establishes preferential tariffs among the various countries.

The final agreement comes after three years of informal

negotiation. Mr. Kibaki, Kenya's Minister of Trade and Industry, said: "I hope that the agreement will give us the opportunity to reverse the direction in which trade has flowed since 1963. Since then, the value of imports from the six EEC countries has doubled from \$52 million to \$110 million."

one another, are symbolical of the political viewpoint of Tanzanian president Julius Nyerere, who said in 1965: "We wish to be friends with everyone but will never permit our friends to choose our enemies for us."

ASIA

US \$ 14 million loan for land reclamation

Malaysia's first large-scale land settlement and development scheme is to be assisted by the World Bank to the tune of \$14 million.

The Jengka Triangle covers some 300,000 acres of land 120 miles northeast of Kuala Lumpur. Half of the land remains undeveloped and the programme is aimed at bringing this area into production while, at the same time, diversifying Malaysia's crop economy, increasing the country's foreign exchange earnings and using the pool of unemployed labour to carry out the project.

The World Bank loan will help to finance the first stage, to cost \$23 million and to last four years. The entire programme, to cost \$116 million, is aimed at resettling 9,000 farm families on 93,000 acres of oil palms and rubber. A forest products industry is also to be established, based upon 47,000 acres of permanent forest.

Scintillating new role for Asian development

In 1965 there were 867,000 scientists and engineers in 15 Asian countries serving some 1,000 million people; yet there were over 1,200,000 in the U.S. scientific manpower pool alone that year. In Belgium there are three times as many scientists and engineers as in Pakistan, which has ten times more people.

These figures were reported to Unesco's conference on the application of science and technology to the development of Asia, which was held in New Delhi in August. This was the third regional conference of its kind in Africa



Indonesia's Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Toyeb Helu looks at work being carried out at the Bogor agricultural open-air station, together with Mr. Robert McNamara, President of the World Bank.

In September 1966, the World Bank (IDA) announced a \$14 million loan to assist the Indonesian Government in carrying out a land reclamation project in the Jengka Triangle. The loan is part of a \$100 million effort to diversify the Indonesian economy to an extent that will help to increase foreign exchange earnings and to create jobs for the unemployed. The loan will be used to finance the first stage of the project, which will cost \$23 million and last four years.

Indonesia's three largest and most important irrigation systems on Java will be the first to be rehabilitated while a completely new irrigation system now under construction on Sumatra will also be assisted; altogether, the total irrigated area amounts to some 500,000 acres.

and Latin America were covered by two previous conferences held in Lagos in 1964 and Santiago de Chile in 1965, respectively.

Emphasis at these conferences has been on planning so that scientists are not trained at great cost only to go out into a vacuum or down the 'brain-drain.' The present conference examined an Asian plan which calls for a six-fold increase in Asia's scientists and engineers by 1980. This would bring the region, in terms of the proportion of scientists and engineers in the total labour force, to the level achieved by western Europe and the Soviet Union in 1950.

OCEANIA

Importance of tuna fishery in the Pacific

A subtropical countercurrent in the western Pacific that may be of economic im-

portance to tuna fishermen has been discovered during a survey of the 'Kuroshio,' a Swift current that runs along the western edge of the Pacific.

The region was investigated for two years by seventeen ships (10 from Japan, 6 from the Soviet Union and 1 from the United States) taking part in a co-operative survey sponsored by Unesco. Their observations showed that currents 100 miles wide, 300 metres deep and heading east at a speed of 1.3 to 2 knots, roughly along the Tropic of Cancer, running counter to the North Equatorial Current.

The countercurrent could transport tuna juveniles, larvae and eggs into the central and eastern Pacific, and could be an added factor to support the argument that tuna caught in various fishing grounds in the Pacific are related. If this were so, tuna catches on one side of the

Pacific would affect those on the other side.

Private enterprise to spur development

A new organization — the Pacific Basin Economic Cooperation Committee (PBECC) — has been formed, in the words of its covenant: "To help private enterprise cooperate with governments and international institutions in overall economic development of the Pacific Basin."

The organization, representing businessmen from Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States, has met three times in 1966 and plans its fourth meeting for next year. Shigeo Nagano, president of Fuji Iron and Steel Company Ltd., of Japan, is the current president.

The committee is looking for opportunities of expanding investment, tourism and cultural and scientific exchange among the member countries and between them and the developing countries of the Pacific Basin. During the last meeting members discussed the repercussions of sterling devaluation and dollar defence measures, investment possibilities and the organizational aspects of a proposed joint private investment company.

NEAR EAST

Fertilizer plant for Saudi Arabia

A \$50 million 350,000 tons per year urea fertilizer plant is to be built at Dammam by SAFCO, the Saudi Arabian Fertilizer Company. The United States Export-Import Bank has authorized a \$12 million credit to help finance the project.

SAFCO is partly owned by the Saudi Government's General Petroleum and Mineral Organization and by private Saudi investors. Technical and marketing assistance will be available after start-up from Occidental Petroleum's Subsidiary, the International Oil and Fertilizer Corporation.

NORTH AMERICA

More than \$2,000 million raised

The UN Development Programme has helped to stimulate more than \$2,000 million of public and private investment in the developing countries, according to the UNDP annual report. More than \$1 billion of this was raised in the same low-income countries where the money is now at work to promote progress in key sectors of the development drive.

By the end of 1967 the programme was helping 137 countries and territories to carry out 600 major pre-investment projects, as well as supporting 2,556 small-scale technical assistance operations. The UNDP received \$1.3 billion in voluntary contributions from 117 countries in 1968 but the UN Secretary General, U Thant, has urged that the figure be increased to \$350 million by 1970.

Grand mission on midgut* underway

Lester Pearson, former Canadian Prime Minister, has been appointed to head an international commission which will look at the past



Canada's Lester Pearson

experience and future problems of economic development.

The appointment was recently announced by Robert McNamara, new head of the

World Bank, which is financing the project. The idea of a grand assize on past and future aid to the third world was first suggested by George Woods, Mr. McNamara's predecessor. Mr. Pearson's small but select commission is to report its findings sometime in 1969.

In his reply to Mr. McNamara, Mr. Pearson said: "I do not think it is possible to exaggerate the importance of this problem; or the danger to peace and stability of the world becoming increasingly divided into rich and poor developed and underdeveloped nations."

Industrialized countries' low birth rate

During the last decade the birth rate in the United States has declined 28%, and in Canada 30%. It declines in industrialized countries. In 1967, the United States birth rate was 25 per 1,000 while in the USSR it was 25.4. In 1967 the US rate had dropped to 17.9 while in 1966 the USSR rate had sunk to 18.2. In Japan, the rate dropped from 30.2 between 1945-49 to 13.7 in 1966.

EUROPE

Letter from Rome On birth control

The encyclical letter of Pope Paul VI on the regulation of birth was made public from the Vatican at the end of July.

The Roman Catholic Church's position on birth control is obviously of great importance in relation to the demographic problems of development within the third world.

Reproduced below are two key paragraphs of the original dealing with the point of view which is opposed to birth control and the Church's position on birth control itself. (In the 'Opinion' section of this issue we are also publishing a selection of pro and con

viewpoints of the Pope's statement):

"Fear is shown by many that world population is growing more rapidly than the available resources, with growing distress to many families and developing countries, so that the temptation for authorities to counter this danger with radical measures is great. Moreover, working and lodging conditions, as well as increased exigencies both in the economic field and in that of education, often make the proper education of an elevated number of children difficult today.

"In conformity with the landmarks in the human and Christian vision of marriage. We must once again declare that the direct interruption of the generative process already begun, and, above all, the procured abortion, even if for therapeutic reasons, are to be absolutely excluded as licit means of regulating the number of children."

Equally to be excluded, as the Teaching authority of the Church has frequently declared, is direct sterilization, whether perpetual or temporary whether of the man or of the woman. Similarly, excluded is every action which, either in anticipation of the conjugal act, or in its accomplishment or in the development of its natural consequences, proposes, whether as an end or as a means, to render procreation impossible. "

Norway increases* mid to third world**

Norway is the second country to announce an increase in its contribution to the replenishment of the international Development Association (IDA) resources. Norway's contribution now totals the equivalent of 512 million bringing that country's share of the proposed \$2.00 billion fund from 0.89% to 1%. Sweden was the first country to announce an increase in its original contribution to IDA.

It was recently announced

in *Far East Trade and Development* that Norway is planning to considerably increase its flow of aid to the developing countries. The present budget appropriation of around £23 million might be increased three times by 1973, and a special Ministry for international Development Aid might be set up to administer this amount.

Now laws to modernize Polish farm*

Three new laws were passed by the Polish Sejm (parliament) in 1968 which, when put into effect, should increase output from Poland's private and state farms.

The first law provides for pensions and other compensations for farmers 60 years of age or over who voluntarily transfer their farms to the state.

The second law states that farms which are neglected, or where production is unacceptably low, can be put up for compulsory sale.

The third law provides for the consolidation of small, scattered privately-owned farm plots into more rational farm units, and for the exchange of land between state and collective farmers and private owners.

Protein plant for Scotland

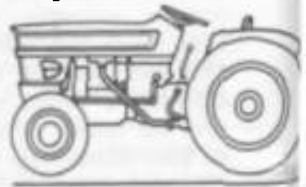
The second commercial factory to produce protein from petroleum has been announced by British Petroleum. The plant will be built at Grangemouth, Scotland, and will be on stream by 1970. It will differ from the plant now under construction at Manigues-Lavera, France, by using paraffin as the base rather than petroleum oil.

The idea of producing protein from petroleum was first mooted in 1959 and became actuality in 1963 with the startup of several pilot plants. For the moment, commercial production is limited to producing protein for animal, rather than human, consumption.

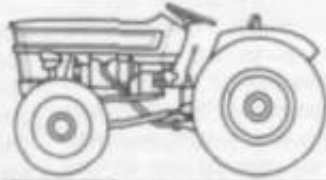
Fiat's new farm

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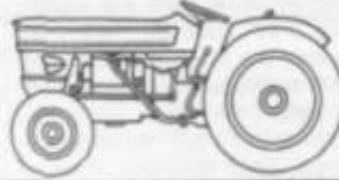
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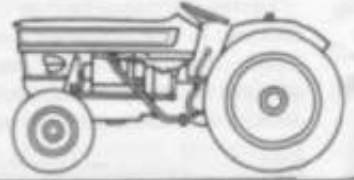
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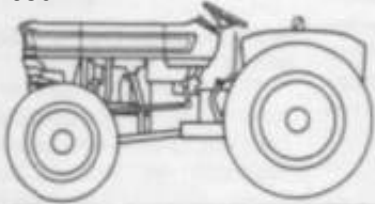
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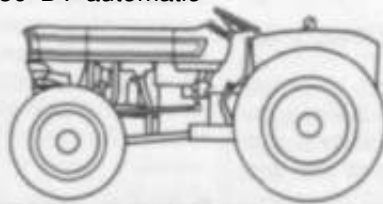
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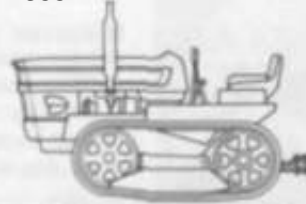
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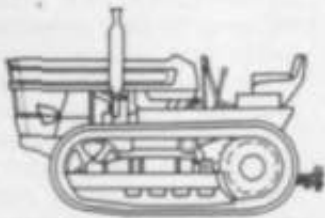
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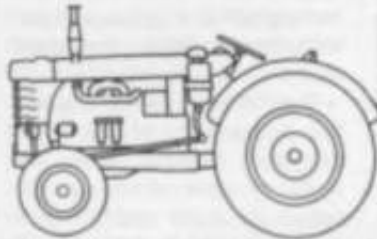
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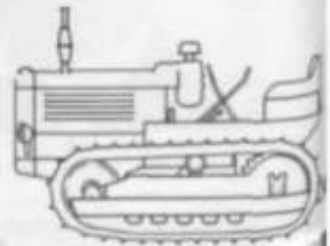
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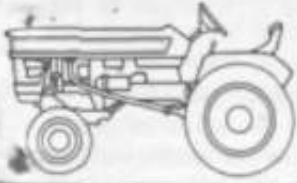


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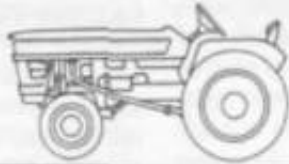


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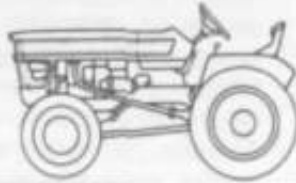
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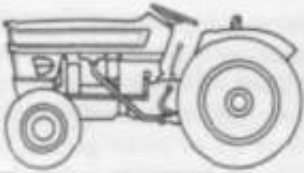
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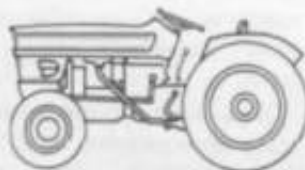
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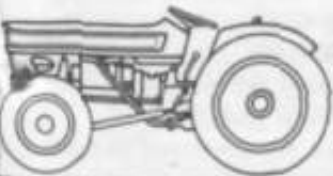
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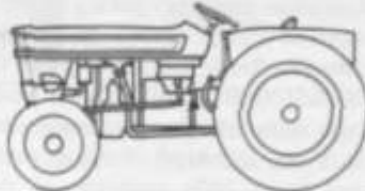
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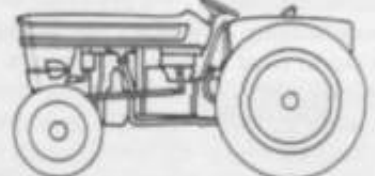
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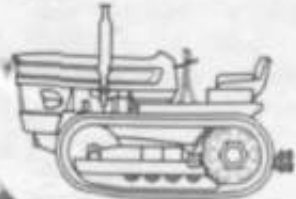
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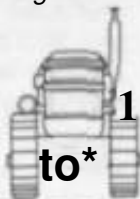
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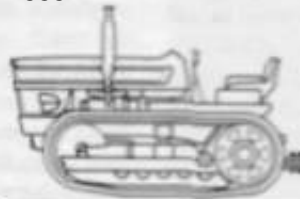
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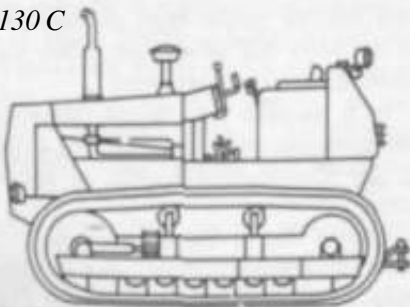
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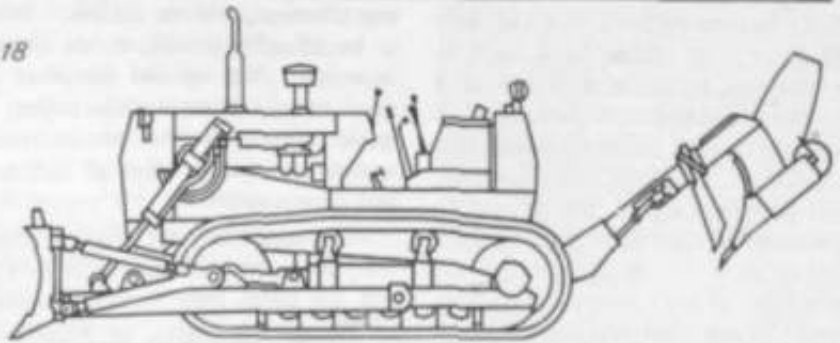
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opinion



tied aid or not?

From an address by Pierre Trudeau, Prime Minister of Canada.

... Never before in history has the disparity between the rich and the poor, the torment of the rich and the starving, been so extreme; never before have mass communications so vividly informed the sufferers of the extent of their misery, never before have the privileged societies possessed weapons so powerful that their employment in the defence of privilege would destroy the haves and the have-nots indiscriminately. We are faced with an overwhelming challenge. In meeting it, the world must be our constituency.

Any discussion of development assistance tends to lead eventually to a complex of issues which can conveniently be grouped under the word 'strings'. The very mention of this word prompts cries of foul from those whose interest in aid programmes is essentially philanthropic. That it suggests Machiavellian political motivation on the part of the donor, I know. As with any problem which has defied final solution over the years, is very complicated...

We all feel instinctively that our help should go to those in the direst need, to those who will make the best use of it and to those making an honest effort to promote democratic institutions and personal liberties. Beyond this, however, difficult questions arise. Should aid be given unconditionally or should it be dependent on some concept of performance? For example, if land reform or tax revision are, in our view, necessary for economic or social development in the recipient country, should this be attached to our aid? More difficult, perhaps, in domestic terms at least, is the

problem of Canadian content. It is widely held that tied aid diminishes the real value of development assistance by increasing L.W.L.S. Yet an element of tying, with the immediate benefit it implies for Canadian production, may be an important factor in assuring wide domestic support for the tied programme...

The long-range benefits cannot be over-emphasized. As CMWAMM we must realize that international cooperation, particularly in the field of economic assistance, in order to remain effective must take on a new form. From the present pattern of commodity and food assistance, of gift of manufactured goods and km of money, we must, in response to the economic needs of the developing countries, turn more and more to preferential trade arrangements. The two United Nations conferences on trade and development have made clear that economic aid, in order to be effective, must increasingly take the form of trade...

This kind of aid, these preferential trade arrangements, have no glamour attached to them. They cannot be illustrated by stirring photographs of rugged Canadian engineers posing before massive dams in remote places. This kind of aid doesn't offer a ready market to Canadian manufacturers, nor does it reduce our IWO metal or other commodity surpluses. In short, this kind of aid is competition, and bears little evidence of the NMI philanthropy which we have sometimes employed in the past to coat the cost of our aid. Unless Canadians are aware of the vital goal our aid is seeking to achieve, they may not be sympathetic to a change of this sort. It is my opinion that our government will understand, and will accept the challenge. Economic aid, unless effective, will be useless. In order to be effective it will, in all likelihood, be costly. Yet we and the other developed nations have no alternative. The world cannot continue to accommodate mutually exclusive trioci of rich nations and poor nations.

We must recognize that, in the long run, the overwhelming threat to Canada will not come from foreign investments, or foreign ideologies, or even — with good fortune — foreign nuclear weapons. It will come instead from the two thirds of the people of the world who are steadily falling farther and farther behind

in their search for a decent standard of living. This is the meaning of the revolution of rising expectations. I repeat, this problem is not new. But its very size, involving some two and a half billion people, makes it qualitatively different from what it has been in the past...

aid or take-over?

From an article by L. K. Gyasi in the Ghanaian Times.

... In the first place, considering the abject poverty and the needs of developing countries, we do not receive enough aid to enable us to make any encouraging dent in the thick wall of poverty that surrounds us...

Secondly, considering our poverty once again, the period of repayment of loans is often too short. Worse, short-term loans carry too high an interest, sometimes as much as six or seven percent. . .

Thirdly, the donor nations, whether east or west, give loans generally on **IVO** conditions: that the receiving country use the loan to import goods needed from the donor nation only, or use the loan to carry out projects agreed on before the loan is given. . .

Naturally, when the developed nations give loans or invest in a developing country they look for political stability and even more important, a "friendly" policy. A "friendly" policy is, of course, a policy that suits the donor country. It is in the interest of the donor country to see that the receiving **count!** remains friendly. If the receiving country tries to be hostile it may be abandoned as not worth saving, or it may be brought into line by gentle hints of displeasure. If the hints fail to register, other harder methods may be employed.

In a nutshell, this virtual take-over of the government of the receiving country, is the phenomenon known as neo-colonialism...

Unless the developed nations tear off the veil of hypocrisy and give us genuine help we must expect in due course some expression of cynicism and indifference towards protestations of friendship. The rich and poor belong to different planes and are not true friends.



computers
and
credit cards

From an interview with Chow Kwanyinn, director of the Thai Oil Refinery, in the Bangkok Post.

... To transform Thai agriculture, education and credit must be brought to 42,000 villages across the country. A program reaching this many people in a short time approaches to improve education and credit. . .

... In the past, thousands of draftees completed their two years of military service. Over 80% of them return to their home villages to begin farming again. Yet they do not resort to traditional farming techniques. Soldier could learn better farming methods in an intensive agricultural training programme. Selected trainees could receive instruction in agronomy and farm management at training centres particularly suited to the farming conditions of their local areas.

Such a programme could train as many as 10,000 soldiers each year, (in less than a decade, well-trained farmers could see widespread agricultural change in every village in Thailand. . .

To stimulate agricultural change, a credit system must be linked to agricultural education. Farmers who learn about new techniques are most apt to adopt them if they have cheap credit available. . .

A military credit card programme would meet all of these needs. Credit cards for the purchase of agricultural farm inputs could be issued to soldiers receiving intensive agricultural training. These cards would put cheap buyer's credit in the hands of trainees, encouraging them to use new know-how on their farms. . .

Computers must play a vital role in the proposed credit system. To provide abundant, low-cost credit, one must overcome many difficulties of directing farmers' credit and devising ways of reducing the risks for lenders. Computers can help to overcome many types of difficulty; without them the cost of lending credit to farmers on a widespread basis would be prohibitive.

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pro and con the encyclical

- **From Vision.**

It is not thought likely that Paul VI's recent encyclical *Humanae Vitae* will affect the birth control programmes which, officially and unofficially, are being carried out in various Latin American countries. This belief is founded, among other things, on the attitude taken by the advisory committee on population and development of the Organization of American States, which brings together outstanding demographic experts of the hemisphere.

The committee, meeting in Washington in the time when the Pope published his encyclical, rejected it completely and declared that the application of its premises and vetoes on birth control: "would result in greater affliction, misery, sickness and despair for millions of Latin Americans."

- *From a statement by Nicamor Costa Mendez, Argentine Minister of Foreign Affairs, in Croissance ties Jeunes Nations.*

Argentina has always expressed at international gatherings a point of view on birth control which is similar to that of the Church, now confirmed in the papal encyclical.

I believe, speaking personally, that our position is based on the fact that juridical or moral standards cannot alter the forces of nature, and that the demographic explosion is not one of the gravest dangers facing the world today. This is certainly true for our continent, particularly for Argentina.

- **From Jeune Afrique.**

The scarcity of population in the countries of black Africa is being quoted by the Vatican to justify the condemnation of birth control by Pope Paul VI in his encyclical *Hmimmtr Viiac*. In spite of the opinion of sociologists and demographic experts that the use of contraceptive methods is necessary for the greater part of the third world countries, orthodox (alcoholic specialists have objected on more **TOW** one occasion in the general use of birth control can only harm the musily underpopulated countries of black Africa. It is to be hoped that the marked

attention given on this occasion to Africa by Roman prelates will soon be extended to 10 other fields.

- *From an interview with Philippe de Seynes, United Nations assistant general for economic and social problems.*

"The United Nations is now engaged in a limited number of assistance projects undertaken at the request of certain governments anxious for more precise knowledge of their demographic problems with a view to undertaking birth control programmes. These activities have received considerable encouragement and some collaboration from member countries. . . It is extremely difficult for me to calculate the effect which the new papal encyclical will have on the attitude of governments. It may be that the reconciliation of extreme positions which we thought we could discern will be slowed up by it. . . I do not think, however, that our practical action programme can be reduced. . ."



**poverty
is the
enemy**

- *From M article by Artthro Frondi, former President of Argentina, in The Student.*

. . . Those of us who live in the southern hemisphere, inhabited by two thirds of the world's population whose social level oscillates between absolute poverty and a degree of want that is just bearable, look on with astonishment at the youth of Europe and North America for whom welfare, the fruits of civilization, the feats of science and technology, constitute a threat to liberty of the spirit. For our young people of the so-called third world do not accept material well-being as being the enemy of the spirit. Their experience tells them, on the contrary, that it is poverty which is the enemy. . . They **reflect** the notion that industrial and technological civilization will finish up by destroying man.

But those of us who are living in the underdeveloped parts of the world are not indifferent to the unrest of the young people who are criticizing (and some-

times using violence in doing so) the dehumanizing features of modern society. . . The young people of great nations have our sympathy when they struggle for racial equality, the raising of the workers' living standards, and peace among nations of all ideologies and all kinds of political systems. They are beginning to grasp the fact, too, that the greatest contradiction, the most notorious injustice plaguing the world today is the abysmal difference between the developed nations of the northern hemisphere and the underdeveloped countries south of the equator.

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1967: a good year

World production of food rose by 3% in 1967 after two years of poor harvests. In the developing regions hindered by the reverses of 1965 and 1966, the overall increase was about 6%.

FAO's annual report for 1968, *The State of Food and Agriculture*, published in September, says the preliminary food production estimates compare with an average world population increase of 2.2%; individual national rates of population growth in developing countries ranged as high as 3.6%. More than

increased rapidly and high-yielding varieties of cereals are beginning to be introduced on a large scale.

LATIN AMERICA

Food production rose by about 8% and total agricultural production by about 4% in Latin America in 1967.

Cereal production increased substantially, large increases in the production of wheat (especially in Argentina) and of rice more than outweighing a decline in maize production. For most other major crops the preliminary data indicate only small changes in 1967.

FAR EAST

In the Far East, excluding China (Mainland), agricultural production increased by 6% in 1967, after making no progress in the two previous years. Much better weather was a main factor, but the high-yielding varieties of cereals, introduced on about 9% of the total cereals area in India and Pakistan and about 10% of the rice area in the Philippines, also contributed substantially. India's food-grain output in the 1967-68 crop season was expected to exceed 95 million tons, in comparison with 76 million tons in 1966/67 and 72 million tons in 1965/66. Pakistan expects a food-grain output of about 24.0 million tons (21.7 million tons in 1966/67).

Rice production increased by about 12% (in spite of declines in Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and the Republic of Viet-Nam), but was only about 3% more than the previous record in 1964.

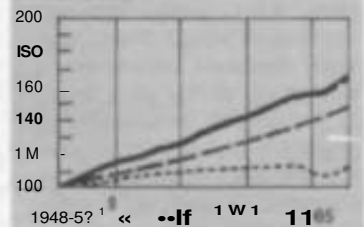
NEAR EAST

In contrast to the developing regions, agricultural production in the Near East has continued to increase at a rapid rate. In 1967, it rose by thirty per cent in some countries and in 1967 it rose by thirty per cent in some countries and in 1967 it rose by thirty per cent in some countries.

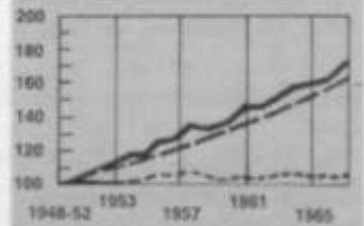
Food production and population in the developing regions

Legend:
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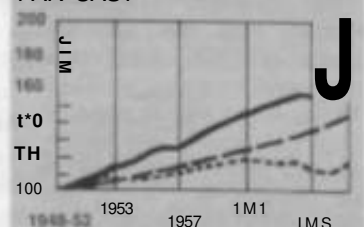
ALL DEVELOPING REGIONS



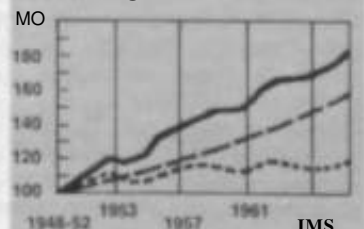
LATIN AMERICA



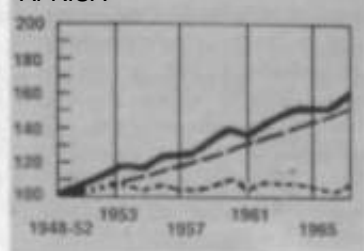
FAR EAST



NEAR EAST



AFRICA



commodities
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half the losses suffered in food production per person. In the developing countries in the two preceding years were recouped in 1967; it was the largest rise in these regions for many years.

The excellent production results in the developing regions in 1967 were to a large extent due to much better weather than in the two previous years. But other factors also contributed. A number of development plans now place more emphasis on agriculture than in the past, while in some cases long-term investments in agricultural infrastructure. Under various plans now beginning to give concrete results.

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her rso Ol 4th/o. The increase was entirely in food products, however, and (mainly because of the stagnation of cotton production) the output of nonfood products remained below the high level of 1965.

Grain production increased sharply as a result of favourable weather almost throughout the region. There were large crops of wheat and barley in Iran. Jordan Syrian Arab Republic and Turkey: in Turkey some 200,000 hectares (2°/t of the total wheat area) were under Mexican varieties of wheat. The United Arab Republic harvested a large crop of rice as a result of the greater availability of irrigation water. Rice production also increased considerably in Iraq, with some shift of area from barley as a result of higher rice prices, Tjie region's cotton crop was about the same as in 1966,

AFRICA

The increase of 6% in agricultural production in Africa in 1967 was the first substantial expansion for two years.

Grain production recovered sharply from the very low levels of 1966. The wheat crop was a record in South Africa, there was a good recovery in Algeria and Morocco, and good crops in Ethiopia and Kenya. South Africa harvested 9.9 million tons of maize in 1967 as compared with 5.1 million tons in 1966, and its sorghum crop nearly trebled. The 30% increase in sugar production in 1966 was followed by only a moderate rise in 1967, largely because the Rhodesian crop was halved. Groundnut production rose by 12% to a new record; in Senegal production was 50% above the drought-affected 1966 crop, and in South Africa the crop was doubled, but in Nigeria there was a slight decline. There were considerable reductions in the production of palm oil and palm kernels, mainly because of developments in Nigeria.

PULP AND PAPER

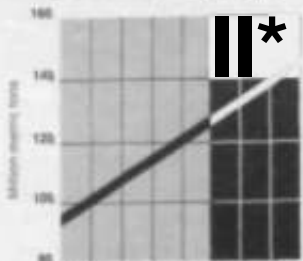
World capacity to manufacture pulp and paper now stands at 127.6 million metric tons of paper and paperboard and 109.6 million metric tons of pulp. This includes 22.2 million metric tons of newsprint.

These figures come from FAO's survey of world pulp and paper capacities for 1968-71, which is broken down into countries and categories of manufacture.

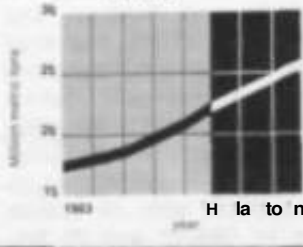
The estimates show that world capacity to manufacture

Growth of the world's paper manufacturing capacity

Total paper and paperboard capacity



Total newsprint capacity



paper and paperboard has expanded by some 5.8% per year since 1963 and that it will grow at a slightly lower rate until it reaches 145.5 million tons in 1971. Total pulp-making capacity has expanded by 5.9% per year since 1963 and is expected to reach 122.1 million metric tons — also a slightly smaller growth rate — by 1971.

Plant capacity to make newsprint was capable of producing 17.5 million tons in 1963 and this is expected to reach 25.1 million tons in 1971.

The FAO advisory committee on pulp and paper was

recently told that a surplus of capacity to make some major grades of pulp has had a depressing effect on investment in the less-advanced countries, and that pulp manufacturers might extend their interests in making paper in these countries — as they have increasingly done in Europe and North America — so that they become a market for their own pulp.

POLYPROPYLENE

Hard fibres and jute, important sources of export earnings for developing countries, are being threatened by a new cheap synthetic material, polypropylene, which may replace them on the world market.

Two studies on the impact of polypropylene on these natural fibres have just been completed by FAO's Commodities and Trade Division. The twin reports, prepared at the request of the FAO study groups dealing respectively with jute and kenaf fibres, will be distributed by these two bodies in late 1968 and made available to the public after revision in early 1969.

The studies show that in many developed countries synthetic fibres are already competitive with jute in two of its main markets heavy-duty sacks and woven carpet-backing. Synthetics are also well established in the markets for ropes and packing twine, major outlets for hard fibres — sisal, henequen and abaca. In addition to their price advantages, tapes made of polypropylene, and to a lesser extent high density polyethylene, are lighter but stronger than jute and hard fibres. In one particular market that of harvest twines, polypropylene does not appear to be competitive because of the low prices of sisal and henequen twine.

Prices of synthetics are expected to decline further in the future, because of cheaper raw material costs and improved manufacturing

techniques. Unless corresponding reductions are made in the prices of natural fibres, there is likely to be further substitution of synthetics for natural products.

The reports estimate that if natural fibres cannot compete with synthetics in the majority of developed countries the loss in potential sales may total about 650,000 metric tons of jute and £50,000 tons of hard fibres in 1975. At that date, demand from developed countries could be for only 150,000 tons of jute and 50,000 tons of hard fibres, compared with today's market of over 600,000 tons of jute and about 400,000 tons of hard fibres.

According to the studies there are indications that the trend toward synthetics is also taking place in some developing countries particularly in the case of heavy-duty sacks for commodity shipments.

Synthetic competition with jute and hard fibres is likely to have more effects on the world income and balance of payments of the major fibre producing countries Pakistan, India and Thailand for jute, Tanzania, Brazil, Mexico, the Philippines, Kenya and Angola for hard fibres.

BUTTER

World stocks of butter reached 450,000 tons by the end of 1967, an increase of about 200,000 tons over the previous year. This total is considered to be about 100,000 tons above the stock level regarded as "sufficient". The 1967 rise in stocks was mainly due to increases in the United States and France. Some 230,000 tons are now located in European Economic Community countries. In September, the EEC Commission authorized member countries to sell some of this surplus at a loss.

The future outlook is for increased butter production in 1968 and a persisting surplus.

Surpluses in the third world # — who wants them ?

The developing countries have surplus disposal problems too —

¹ which will grow as new techniques are adopted.

Outlets must be found, either in the developed countries

¹ or within the third world itself

by ESTER BOSCHUP

Propaganda addressed to a broad audience is most effective if it can avoid complicated issues and can stick to a small number of very simple ideas. One such simple idea is to explain rural poverty, malnutrition and famine in developing countries as the result of rural overpopulation.

This idea has been widely propagated as a means of obtaining popular support for birth control programmes and for programmes of food aid. But a public which has been taught to accept this explanation of rural misery is ill equipped to understand the needs of those developing countries which are saddled with problems of surplus agricultural production for which they are unable to find remunerative outlets. It is necessary to abandon such oversimplified ideas in public discussion of agricultural problems and in trying to explain why it is necessary not only to help the developing countries to produce more food, but also to help them find outlets for food surpluses.

The first step towards a more complete view of the agricultural problems of developing countries than the simplistic identification of rural misery with rural overpopulation is to distinguish two possible causes of rural poverty: one is low labour productivity which reflects the use of unsuitable farming techniques, primitive techniques, and lack of capital; the other, an excessive number of people engaged in the cultivation of a given land area.

It is true that the rural population in some developing countries with a high population density suffers from chronic malnutrition, and that famines may occur in years of bad harvest.

But these phenomena are by no means restricted to the densely populated countries; they are found in many developing countries which must be characterised as underpopulated. In fact, droughts seem to be the most frequent cause of famine, and droughts are far more common than the harvests in underpopulated countries where only rainfed land is used for cultivation, than in countries where heavy population pressure has brought most of the land under artificial irrigation. Thus in areas where population pressure on land promotes the application of artificial irrigation it may serve to forestall famines rather than to foster them.

This is not to deny that, in some cases, population pressure can be identified as the chief cause of the lowness of rural incomes in developing countries. But it is important to remember that population pressure is a highly elusive concept. Its existence and degree cannot be gauged simply by a consideration of the ratio of rural population to existing land resources, without regard to the prevailing agricultural system.

In a very sparsely populated country, the increase of population may depress rural standards of living if the rural population is unwilling to give up the traditional system of shifting cultivation. But in other cases, when the increase of population density leads to more extensive provision and use of irrigation facilities, the result of the demographic expansion may well be to raise per capita rural income. And since multi-cropping of irrigated land requires several times more labour than extensive dry farming of the same amount of land, even with an increase in population there may still be a shortage of labour.

Thus, land improvement schemes, such as irrigation or the draining of swamps, may change a region which was hitherto overpopulated into a region of scarcity of labour. Indeed, in regions where major schemes for land improvement are under-

¹ V. Vierthaler, *Who wants them? Surpluses in the Third World* (London: V. Vierthaler, 1974). See also *World Development Report 1975* (Geneva: United Nations, 1975), p. 114. The author is grateful to the staff of the Centre for International Development Studies, University of Cambridge, for their helpful comments.

[a lcon, decades may pass before the population has grown sufficiently, by natural increase and immigration, to ensure the proper use of all the improved land.

The basic cause of rural poverty in developing countries is low investment in agriculture and **little** use of industrial and other purchased inputs per worker. This is true of densely as well as sparsely populated **countries**, and it is (the main feature which distinguishes agriculture in developing countries from that in industrialized countries. The gap in agricultural labour productivity and rural incomes as between developing and industrialized countries has become wider still in recent decades because the industrialized countries have increased the use of capital and of modern procedures at a rate which the developing countries have been unable to emulate.



¹¹ *Wtiete population pressure on land promotes W» application Of artificial litigation it may serve Jo forestall taming '*

Many **industruined co—trki** — imotf them the United States, France and **the NethertaiKb** — **which** face the problem of disposing of **btmkfiaome rarpfi** of food, have reached their high level **el aarkwtmral** production by means of large public **inv«tmcflt* at land impiuvtacni** in the past. Owing to the long **tine lag from the JtLhimi to c w i f t** major worts of this kind to the **tmc** they come **into full** use. the fruits of these **imeumcnii** have often ripened *t a time when *t was impossible la **J&poae of the nnVHrimil output 21** remunerative prices. Man> developing **coyntrie* BOW** have large-scale schemes for **land tmpnwacni in the oAof and** it is possible that some of **then miB ran iate ahaato dMaculties** in disposing of the increased output **in (hear hone — t a l i**. Their access to export market* w|] then **be rrwial)** important.

Generally **speaking, the aim of agricyfcwai** policy in developing countries should not be seen as that **vi Datdfeg** increasing number-* "t subsistence prudu^ers. hut r.iiher ,i\ I hat of improving rural incomes by higher per capita output in agriculture. This implies that investment in land **irnpnve-** ment so as to create employmcni .md subsistence for increasing numbers of producers must be supplemented b) investment in improved equipment, seeds, livestock, fertilizer. etc; i.e. by the type of investment which raises output not only per unit of land, but .t Iso per worker.

If a developing country succeeds in such an investment policy, by its own financial efforts or by loans and grants from abroad, its farmers will produce an increasing surplus of agricultural products over and above their own needs, and outlets for this surplus must be found either by sales to the urban sector or by exports.

Export outimt* mpgmmily needed

In many developing countries at a relatively advanced economic stage and with a fairly large urban sector, the disposal of a steadily growing marketable surplus of agricultural produce may create few problems and be a great help in improving urban living standards, or providing the food basis for an expansion of non-agricultural employment, and /or reducing food imports.

But in developing countries at the early stages of economic development, where the urban sector is tiny compared TO the large numbers of rural subsistence producers, U is impossible to find sufficient consumers in the country itself for a surplus large enough to permit a significant increase in rural incomes. In such countries, average output and incomes of farmers cannot be improved significantly unless a large share of the additional agricultural output is exported.

Even those least developed countries which can provide the necessary foreign exchange for expansion of the urban sector by exports of minerals, forest products or services, need to sell increasing agricultural surpluses in export markets if the average output and income of the agricultural sector is to be improved, since the absorptive capacity for food in the urban sector is very limited, and since a rapid large-scale transfer of agriculturists to non-agricultural employment cannot be envisaged.

Thus, in the least developed countries, the hope of improving average rural incomes, and thus of reducing the incidence of rural malnutrition and famine, depends upon the development of exports of food and other agricultural products to other developing countries, or to industrialized countries.

High-yielding vmrtmtftm m*y m*mo* *****uses**

It is frequent l v stated in books on **economic** development that developing countries may be well advised to limit their efforts to expand agricultural exports and, instead, to speed up industrialization with a view to exporting manufactures. This may be sound advice in the case of some economically advanced developing countries where further expansion of agriculture would require heavy investment, but it is wholly irrelevant as a recommendation to developing countries at the early stage of economic development, where a great majority of the population will (or a long time continue to be engaged in agricultural pursuits. In the latter countries neither birth control nor food aid will **provide** the solution to rural poverty. The only efficient assistance to the rural population in such countries is to help them produce larger marketable surpluses and to help them dispose of those surpluses at a fair price.

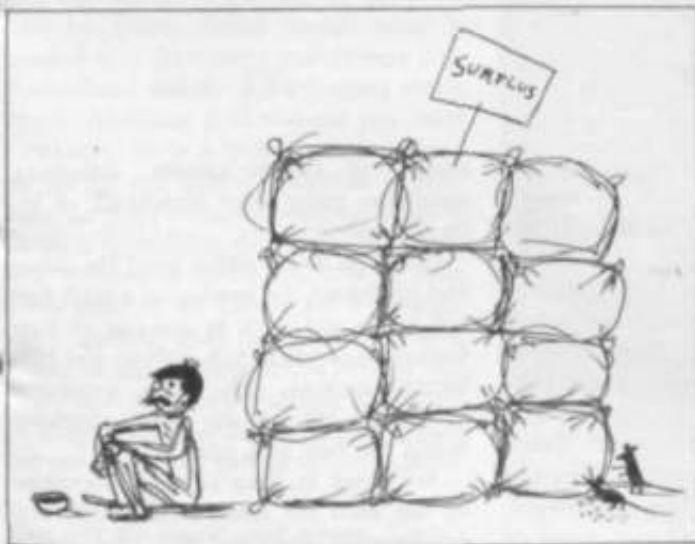
Recently, some important **scjenhfii improvement*!** no-1 labk the development of high-yielding varieties, of wheat a⁰ . rice, have become available for producers in developing CO** (rict. In has thereby become possible with quite m^lt'n"

increases of inputs to achieve spectacular increases in output both per hectare and per worker. One probable result of this is that in the near future many more of the poorest countries will develop surpluses which must be exported in competition with the surplus disposal of industrialized countries.

Here, then, seems to be a problem that should be tackled forthwith at an international level with a view to finding politically acceptable solutions of an expansive kind. Otherwise, it is only too likely that solutions of a restrictive kind will be imposed when the problem becomes acute. It is also urgent that the public be informed about the true nature of agricultural problems of countries at different stages of development and with different degrees of population pressure. In other words, we must get rid of the oversimplified picture of the overpopulated poor world depending on the food surpluses of the rich countries.

We have now made a distinction between one group of countries, which must increase production in order to get food enough for domestic consumption, and another group of countries, where the income of the rural population may be raised by the production of food and other crops for export. But this, is only the first step towards a better understanding of the agricultural problems of developing countries. A further important distinction is to be made between countries which have temporary surpluses of food in years of good harvest, but are dependent upon food imports in other years, and those countries which produce surpluses. This distinction is important because the two types of surpluses call for different kinds of policies.

Just now, in 1968, the problems of a temporary surplus are highlighted by events in India. From one year to another that country moved from near-famine conditions in certain



* It is necessary not only to help the developing country to produce more food, but also to find the outlet for food surpluses.

areas to being a surplus producer. This is not solely the result of improved conditions, but also of the rapid spread of the use of improved seeds and other economic initiatives in response to the increase, long overdue, in agricultural prices which came about during the years of scarcity. The present situation is in some ways similar to the temporary

surplus production in Indian agriculture which occurred after a very good harvest year at the beginning of the nineteen fifties. At that time, the temporary surplus caused a collapse of agricultural prices which seems to have had a deterrent effect upon the agriculturists who had contributed to the increase of production investment in the preceding years. It is much to be hoped that, this time, the programme of government purchases of cereals for stocking will prevent similar unfortunate effects of the abundant harvest. It is generally agreed that for half a decade or more India must continue to be a deficit country in years of average harvest, so that any Indian surplus can be disposed of by stocking and by an appropriate reduction of imports. Therefore, barring the particular problems of certain crops, the need to find export markets does not arise.

Short-term needed to avert collapse

In view of the rapid increase of output now made possible by high-yielding varieties, we may expect, in years of good climatic conditions, to see other developing countries in the unaccustomed role of surplus producers. It is important to foster awareness of this possibility among technical advisers and national civil servants in such countries, so that administrative and political preparations can be made for meeting this problem when and where it arises. Otherwise, a collapse of prices of an unexpected surplus of food crops will be the incentive for their return to modernized and expanded food production.

In addition, some developing countries already produce a surplus in all normal harvest years, and with the new agricultural techniques more countries may be expected to join that group in a near future. In such countries, programmes of stocking of course provide a solution to the surplus problem and room must be made in the world market for regular forthcoming exports from these countries.

The Indicative World Plan of FAO may make an important contribution to the solution of this problem because it will throw light on the prospective pattern of deficits and surpluses of food in both developing and industrialized countries.

To be sure, in a world market already burdened by agricultural surpluses it will be no easy task to provide such regular outlets for exports from developing countries. The crucial preconditions are: (1) that food-importing industrialized countries show willingness to buy from other than their traditional suppliers, within their own regional groups, and; (2) that developing countries with favourable possibilities for expansion in other sectors than agriculture show willingness to relax their protectionist policies of food, so that they may be able to purchase food from, and sell agricultural products to, developing countries which must base their development policy upon the import of exports of agricultural surpluses.

For such policies to be acceptable, however, world opinion must be enlightened by realistic analysis instead of being misled by a picture of the world in which all developing countries are "hungry" countries which need food imports. Industrialized countries as needing to get rid of food surpluses.

"Another Peruvian, half in laughter,
told how the night they had finished
the stretch of road that
ran below his house he had gotten drunk
and slept in the newly-turned
dirt of the exact middle,
the better to hold it to him...

He said:

Road, I have awaited thee all my life

by PEYTON JOHNSON

All Peru is divided into three pans and people from any two of them seldom meet. Why? Because the mountains, the mighty Andes, they split this South American republic into coast a, the narrow coastal plain, sierra, the harsh chilly highlands, and selva. the sprawling irnpkra) jungle, are too rugged and too high. **Htd** the roads through the mountains are too poor and too few.

Peru is a big country: twice the size of Texas and larger than France, it joins the Low Countries, the United Kingdom **to d u>^i QMMMJ HMMMA** Vet ii hi* but 2,121 miles of paved roads, less than Denmark, or Delaware. And so broken and divided by the terrain that for many Peruvians it is easier to spend a few days in Paris or New York than to visit their cousin in the next province, around the mountain or across the valley. 50 miles away.

Roads and more roads, high roads and low roads, dry roads and all-weather roads, national roads and local roads, are (the crying need of Peru

If you go to Peru, as I did recently, you are convinced of this need before your feet touch ground. Flying in over the Andes, great white peaks come thrusting up on every side. Geography here is written in vertical symphony. Down below, as far as you can see, a rocky and warlike mass of earth heaves skyward. Burnt browns and parched reds, (ones of the middle altitudes, leap to the eye, disturbed occasionally by the noising green of one of the brief scattered valleys, The patchwork blurs in a bank of cloud until the mountain light breaks free again over the cold blues and purples of the upper reaches. The single note of a river, ribbon of wet fire in the Andean tunnel, slices east in search of the Amazon. The

shadow of a lone condor, disturbing somehow, glides over snowfields of incredible purity.

Here and there, pitiful amid the chaos and splendour, the hairline of a road dips **lid** twists and turns in and out of view through the endless hills, valleys and high barren meadows. The roads, occasional in the extreme, are the merest scratches across the face of a giant.

No group in Peru is more convinced of the need for more roads, and rural development generally, than the young men of Cooperacion Popular, the agency set up four years ago by Peru's young architect-preiideni, Fernando Belaunde Terry, Cooperacion Popular's philosophy, a deliberate reconstruction of the old Inca concept, of "brotherhood through work," is summed up in the phrase "seW-help." The agency's red and white sign* **ii pueblo lo *iso, or *** the people huili

In a village of Huancavelica they were building a district medical post for a *Doo-custeni di>ctor. It did not matter. With the building done, now they had a road, a doctor would surely arrive. *At Acostambo. on the edge of the dismal Puna, jubilant villagers worked in the rain, to the beat of a drum and the hypnotic note of an Inca flute, to put finishing touches on their whitewashed school of nine adobe classrooms*. Raul gave them their *ei fniebro lo hizo* sign and we watched as they scaled it into the wall beside the entrance.

"Nine classrooms!" an old man croaked. "We will be in the envy of these hills and that is why we are inviting the Sumif Presidents to the inauguration."

The old man led us to a ravaged desk in the school's office and, with trembling hands, brought forth an oversized, ornate and handmade invitation, it one in archaic script and with a grace that no machine could hope to match, bearing greetings from the *vecinos* of Acostambo *o] moy vstintado excelent'issimo srnor arquittro tott* Fernando Bclaunde Terry.

Everywhere we saw the red-and-white signs and everywhere medical posts, bridges, drainage canals, schools, community centres, and, above all roads, were *obtrifctog*,

lotting blunt flow

The aim of all this. Raul explained, is not just to improve communications and services, but to start a new blood flowing through the long-stiffened limbs of the isolated sierra. The World Food Programme's role is to help Cooperation Pipullir sustain the villagers' determination to keep at it. Some 4,000 men, with their families about 20,000 people, get incentives in WPP rations for work on roads totalling 870 miles through 37 sierra provinces. The food — wheat, and wheat flour, dried skim milk and vegetable oil from the United States; dried fish and eggs from Canada; canned meat from Denmark — is the best they've ever had and most will work hard to earn it over the maximum term of two years, nine months.

The food is distributed fortnightly and, as Cooperacion Popuiar's transport and wherewithal are more limited than its energy and will, in some provinces villagers must walk many miles to get it. We saw two distributions of WFP rations.

"Look at those," Raul said nodding toward the first of 100 families in line. "They come from a village 14 miles and nine hills away, but they are always here hours early."

We watched them, children and mother and father wait with hum expression until the first name was called. Then the man quickly went forward to make his mark and the woman bundled the food up into



Tiil W-ytMf Old ft Timoiao Ramos Cabriol H hti been werrkffiff m'tfi ΔJ tatfywf and grtn&Bihet an a S-mite tMip If cm it*ir vil-IMQ* ol Tathuls lo Ihm nBighbouriny village ot Ftaquina*

(the big many-coloured, once-bright shawl every Queehua woman wears round her shoulders.

"The flour and the oil and the wheat are pri/cil -tuples." Raul said. "But the codfish and live tinned meal are great

delicacies. We remove the labels so there will be no temptation to sell such costly luxuries."

The East day we drove on a new road with a median altitude of 12,500 feet that connected, for the first time, the villages of Sincos, Aramaehiy and San Juan de Mir allures with each other and the valley of Jauja. There were drainage works and a sturdy bridge too, but the J5-miJe road was the pride and glory. In celebration we took refreshments with the town council of Miraflores. The mayor passed round fat bottles of good Peruvian beer, ice cold without benefit of refrigeration, and thinner ones of fiery *Pisco*, clear to the eye and harsh to the taste, to go down in small pleasing explosions.

A young-old notable's voice broke as he recalled how hard it was, in the old days before the road, for a man to carry to market on his back enough llama and alpaca wool to buy his family a decent Christmas. Now buyers would come in trucks and there would always be a bus, still *ih: wa>* from Juuju.

Another man, half in laughter, told how the night that finished the Wretch of mud hut ran below his house he had gotten drunk and slept in the newly-turned dirt of the cut middle, the better to hold it to him. "Road. I said." he told us, "I have availed the* all my life. Thou CMIKSI late, but I will love thee."

Then we went all misty-eyed and the *ouBdL* man by man, inured an embracing the food link *fft* Raul and the skilled *CL>lonero* MejmdBB and myself, visiting (hem on behalf of the mysterious World 1 IHKJ Programme, who had made their road possible,

Such *rOKk* are *hudjj* more than rough *t.Δiipjh¹*. to I *BIOORO* and North Anicrkan eyes, They are spectacular only in the *pnindtur* and incredible difficulty of the *firruin* they must conquer. They figure large in the august parlance of foreign aid agreements, but without such roads people like the villagers or *JTaDmfe* and San Juan de Miraflores can never enter the mainstream of their nation's economy and culture. Such roads are their highways, however narrow, not only to market, school, and health dink, but to hope itself. Building such roads is the *ullpgers'* first step in linking themselves and their children with their kinsmen, and the alien world, beyond the high uncaring mountains.

it," about 2,000 so far. arc going up throughout Peru.

Cotipcradon Popular gets help — \$1.5 million in food and services — from the World Food Programmer a deve-lopment-lthrough-food venture of ihe¹ U.N. and FAO. On walking into Cooperación's headquarters in Lima, you are struck by the youth of its officers. Most arc in their twenties or early thirties. Raul Gonzalcs Vigil, a 29-year old civil engineer, heads all the agency's projects using WFP aid.

I asked him what he thought of this aid: "The *food is as good as money," he said. "Maybe better. With this high quality food, we compensate villagers for badly needed work of importance to their own community, and also improve local nutrition."

J asked what he considered Peru's biggest problem: "To unite-the country, We haven't had unity, in trulh, since Inca days, The Inca, please note, had an CALL-lient road system. Without better communications, particularly in the sierra, unity will remain a dream in PCTU."

Raul Gonzalez Vigil is a smallish young man of raven hair and quick, questioning eyes. Though good natured, he is **tone** and serious and tends to reserve his smiles for the end of a long day's work. His features owe something to the hawk and his slight, almost boyish build is packed with the energy and stamina of a professional athlete. Like so many young South American professionals you meet nowadays, he is a technocrat, consumed by his job and largely indifferent to politics. In supervising a couple of hundred projects throughout the sierra, he spends half his time in travel and. though from Lima himself, he knows the wild highlands north to south as do few Peruvians. •When he joined Cooperacion Popular two years out of Lima's National University of Engineering, he had a fear of horses, but now rides well and. of necessity, often,

*Cut off by rock mntf *now*

"You will understand our difficulties better after a few days in the sierra, We leave fur Huancayo tomorrow," he said.

That evening I pored over Raul's voluminous reports and charts. His preoccupation with the sierra, seerTn,d well •taken for though ii occupies bui 26% of Peru's 496.000 square miles, the sierra holds 60 % of the country's 12 million

inhabitants. At an average elevation -of 13,000 feet, the sierra is the very heart-land of the Andes, a mountain chain seven times the length of the Alps and three times longer than the Himalayas. Along ihe Andes' 4.500 mile stretch 4<) silver summits lift to above 20,000 feet,, ten of them in Peru.

The clusters of population-arc so scaled inward and shut off from one another by soaring walls of rock and snow, that the horse, burro or human fool is often the surest — and sometimes the only — way of getting from one place to the next.

Up is the right word to describe the drive from Lima to Huancayo. We left at dawn and the driver, Alejandro Salazitr, put the four-wheel drive pick-up jn low gear just outside the city limits and we started climbing. By noon we had



A young Peruvian who has been working on the roads lot Cooper scion Popular signs (or the tood which fie is receiving from the World Food Programme.

passed a herd of llamas and the heat and humidity of sea-level Lima gave way to cold; and up above ihe first snows spread grey-white over sharp slopes the colour of rusted metal.

"What do you think of (his road ? " K;uil asked.

"Good, But no superhighway, "

"It is the best we have into the central highlands. "

World'm MghOmt railway

At Ticlio we crossed the world's highest railway passage, at 15,688 feet. The Andes, frozen and gloomy, loomed up all about us now. The railway from Lima to Huancayo, Raul explained, is the most important one in the country, It is also the world's most spectacular The ruling grade is almost 5% and along its length the line traverses 66 tunnels, 59 bridges and 22 flying zigzags whepe the train seems to run suspended on nothing more solid than blue Andean air. Tourist, who seldom take this train twice, often faint a couple of times before getting off to embrace the sweet earth on hands and knees at Huancayo.

We strained up through another high pass and came down into Huancayo, a provincial capital of 90.000 inhabitants, as the last blue light flooded with rose and the mountains turned a deeper purple. We were at the relatively modest elevation of 10,700 feet now and breathing was easier. There was an edge of snow in the wind that blew down from the darkening sierra, Alejandro, wooden-faced all day, now said his right leg •H cramped

"Because of the brakes," he said. "They have been slacking off these last three hours."

Raul and I looked at him Alejandro gave I slow grin: "No use to mention it. There w_{ti}s nothing we could have done and it would have slowed us down." We had covered IV2 miles over the best road into the sierra: the irip had taken 11 hours with slops.

Peru's 24 departments arc divided ink) 140 provinces, and the provinces into 1..12l districts. Junin is one of the most mountainous departments and Huancayo one of Junin's most mountainous province*. The district of Pucara is in the middle of Huancayo and the village of Talhuis, atop a 12.000-foot mountain, is IN remote and poor a place as there is in the district. We spent a day. half of it getung there, visiting Talhuis.

"From up here," Raul panted, tracing with his ringer a crazy red thread thai wound drunkenly up from the Tumpclcd

green valley 3,000 feet below, "you can see most of the road, It will run five miles and they have finished more than four. Here road-building is hard work."

" I betteve it "

We sat in the sun, sweating and breathing hard from the climb, and 100 yards on up. if we could ever make it. all the 40 families of Talhuis, some 200 people, worked on the road that was to link them with the neighbouring village of Raquina and both villages with a wider road that ran to the market centre at Huancayo.

" These people never had a mad, " Raul said. " Only a path barely wide enough for a burro. For lack of a road, they had no market for their wool and sheep and the potatoes and qurnoa. "

We Ood see men hard at work with shovels and picks. Others, their bodies rising and falling in rhythm, sliced away earth with the long polc-and-blade *chaquiadta*, I he Inca h;md-pli)Ugh that is the universal implemment throughout the sierra. Farther up an improbable Cooper.icion Popular bulldozer broadened a ledge that looked no wider than its own treads.

"" How did They get that *maquim* up here! "

" They ran cables from the top of the mountain, and the machine, thus steadied, employed its own power. The operator is a man of great skill. "

We staggered on up the mountain and **bWECD** children, unheeding of the sheer drop lo the valley, scampered effortlessly before us. their dark eyes dashing in young fire as they giggled, whispered lo mie another in QlirtlHI The sun wa> strong but if you stopped in the shade ~~the~~ sweat went eold on your h;itk in A second. Raul, a man of mercy, took my ton-heavy 35 mm cameras. The villagers came down (he road to meet us and there was much bowing and lifting of hats unti shaking of hands and everything was very firm.il in Spanish and Quechua. The **adults**, though many were barefoot and their clothes so patched you tried not to stare, were of a dignity to daunt Queen Victoria, They palled Raul on the shoulders, and adduced him as **fpMM** patron and *jtft'iitu*. The road-work foreman **CHM** up. a young man elected for his fluency in Spanish: " If it pleases you, " he said. " we have prepared a *puthanMML*" Pachiunanai is a kind uf *icrra meal; it comes from the Quechua words:

Pacha, earth, and *mania*, jar. The women dig a hole and build a fire in it, then cover the fire with stones. Over these they place the food — various types of potato, beans, peppers, meat, whatever — covering it all with stones, then earth. • We were many that day and this was a big and formal *puchamanca*. We ate with our fingers, decorously, and without the rudeness and distraction of speech.

it were possible to have two such signs, one for the valley beginning and the other For where the m;id ended in the village. Raiil took a notebook from his pocket and scribbled. " It is a possibility, " he said.

The rest of that week we got up each morning with the mountain light and piled into the truck to visit similar small, vital projects throughout Junin and neigh-



fiosds and more roads, national roads and local rends, are \t> crying newt of Peru.*

When we had eaten our fill, the **foreman** cleared his Ihroal and inquired politely about ihe tillage's promised red-and-white sign for the finishing of the road. W *pueblo lo hizo*. " Yes, man," Raul \;iid. " It is ready in Huaneayo, "

The young foreman looked away, spoke to an elder in Oueehua. then, smiling shyly and with great sweetness, asked if

bouring Huancavlica. Often we crossed the bleak tredess Puna, thai I:IM /on* of water-logged and freezing plains, grazed by wandering llama anJ alpaca and barren of all else, before the snowline, tf 14,000 to IG.OOO feel, where the only sound is the unnatural ness of your own **woke** and the brooding of the Andean wind.

Down-to-earth research

A sometime-critic of FAO and its conventional viewpoint talks of the need for a new, practical kind of research which would include non-traditional food sources

by M. W. PIRIE

Every organization inevitably develops a characteristic style. This is imposed partly by history, and the factors leading to its initial establishment, and partly by the attitudes of mind of those who are influential at the beginning.

During the 1939-45 war, the Atlantic Charter defined one of the four freedoms as freedom from want and, in pursuance of this, there was a food conference at Hot Springs. The delegates agreed that a new organization was wanted, but disagreed over whether it should be a fact-finding body, or a body with actual control over food supplies. This disagreement persisted during the 1945 Quebec Conference which established FAO. In the end, the fact-finding faction won.

Lord Boyd Orr, FAO's first director-general, commented sadly: "The hungry people of the world want bread, and they are to be given statistics." If he had had his way there would have been a world food plan which would have ensured that need, not the ability to pay, would guide the distribution of available food supplies. In his autobiography, Orr emphasizes the discreditable machinations by which food was preserved as a domain for unstricted commercial scrambling.

Various research projects were discussed at Quebec. Many of these had been conceived, or concocted, by people with little understanding of the nature of real research. They consisted largely of pro-

posals to survey issues that needed no surveying. A tidy mind is naturally attracted to the idea that an essential prelude to action is a precise survey to find out what particular action will be most advantageous. It would, for instance, be useful to know which region is in the state of greatest need and what it is most in need of. But any observant traveller can recognize, in a few days, the existence of urgent needs about which something can be done while the survey is getting under way.

Survey are often conducted to postpone decisions on action rather than because the information is actually needed.

A tmtmo policy?

In 1946 (here was considerable justification for a policy of neglect of, or even hostility towards, research. Stockpiles of food existed and it was reasonable to assume that, with the labour and materials released for productive use at the end of the war, supplies would be abundant in some countries.

Unfortunately, a policy was established then that still persists, even though stockpiles are shrinking and annual food production hovers uneasily parallel to, or below, population increase.

Established policy depends on the assumption that food production can outstrip population growth if conventional agricultural methods are applied more intensively and over a greater area. It may be that this assumption will prove to be correct; but it is prudent to recognize that it is just an assumption and that it may be erroneous.

An international agency concerned with improving the standards of nutrition in the world is called on to do many things: to advise on, and if possible control, trade and the distribution of commodities; to compile statistics; to spread information about improved methods of agriculture, organize training courses in them and encourage their more general adoption; and to cope with emergencies and crises such as drought, earthquake and flood.

The last is the activity that the public thinks of first, though it absorbs only 5% of FAO'S present budget, according to the 1965 report on the World Food Programme, and it is not expected to absorb more in future.

In the present political state of the world, no organization that lacks executive authority can be expected to control trade and distribution to a much greater extent than is outlined in FAO'S program of work; and in the report of the World Food Programme, which has \$120 million worth of services and surplus food to help labour-intensive projects for rural improvement, or for use as emergency relief.

Few would criticize the comprehensiveness or quality of the statistics that are collected by FAO, though their accessibility is sometimes commented on (see *World Crops*, 19, No. 6, 1967).

All these activities presuppose the continuance of styles of agriculture that are essentially the same as those adopted now. As a result of training courses and the spread of information, the character of agriculture in many developing countries is being radically altered. But it is being altered by the adoption of methods that have been developed elsewhere, and that seem to a visiting expert to be adaptable. The alterations are often enormously valuable, but this method of improvement is far from ideal.

Every symposium dealing with the problems of world feeding contains comments on the inexpertness of some 'experts,' and jokes abound at their expense; the most charitable being that an expert is any scientist away from home. **This** may be unavoidable with the present system of short-term visits, but a more serious objection is that techniques developed in Wisconsin, or Worcestershire, may **not** be ideally suited to (the wet tropics; and

N.W. Pirie's research on plant viruses led to his present work at the Rothamsted Experimental Station. U.K., *teher* he is head of the BitKhemistry Department. He is a pioneer on the use of I feel protein us human foot! and h the author </> mtiny icienlific papers.

these are the regions now in most need of food.

In the past, there were periodic famines in temperate regions that are now very well supplied with food. Their present favourable position is the result of more than a century of intensive research on all aspects of agriculture and food technology.

It is excessively unlikely that the ideal crop and techniques for one region will be discovered as a result of research done in another. The necessary research on agriculture and food technology will, therefore, have to be done in the regions where it is to be used. It will have to be extensive; at least as extensive as the work that has been done on cash crops in these same regions, though probably not as extensive as the sum of all the research on which agriculture in the temperate zone depends. A lot of this is universally applicable.

Need for more research

The need for research and novel forms of development is now gaining recognition. The U.N. committee responsible for the booklet *International action to avert the impending protein crisis* (1968) recommends the setting up of five new training institutes, and many multi-disciplinary research institutes. Unfortunately, it does not specifically state that some of these should be in the wet tropics; it is hoped that this was assumed to be obvious.

The committee is imprecise about where the money for these institutes is to come from. At first sight, the U.N. Development Programme would seem a likely source, but this hope is dampened by a glance at the list of projects approved up to 1964. The closest these come to research is the category "diversification of crops," with 1% of the total; only "land reform" got less. The 1968 lists of projects approved by the United Nations Development Programme and by the World Food Programme (CERES 3) include nothing that could properly be called research.

This form of comment may be unfair, for FAO, apart from the Freedom-from-Famine Campaign, can only deal with governments and must depend on a request for help. But this restriction is, in itself, symptomatic. By the time a request is made, even in a technically advanced country,

it is known that it needs some research, the point has been obvious for years to scientists working on related subjects,

The position is not likely to be better in developing countries. A recent study (Paddock; *Animal Review of Nutrition*, 5, 375, 1967) in Latin America which had taken an undergraduate course in animal husbandry and the others came from law and the army. These are not the best people that will tend to make a minister think that research is not done.

Furthermore, if my thought is not likely to be put into his head by a visiting adviser; the study showed that only three of the sixty-eight top men in the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID) have had scientific training. Luckily pressure is being put on the United Nations Development Programme not to be a passive instrument for meeting requests by governments of developing countries for assistance in dealing with their protein shortages. Rather, it should stimulate these governments.

Research is not an activity that produces a return which is realistically measurable in financial terms. It is not, therefore, reasonable to expect such organisations as the World Bank to finance it. Similarly, it cannot be left entirely to commercial concerns; their contribution — notably in the development of fertilisers, herbicides and insecticides — has been immensely valuable, but, not unexpectedly, tend to be restricted to projects that will call for the continued use of a commercial product, furthermore, big business, like the heart of a machine, is not the reason for a project.

We look next to the Foundations (Ford, Nurnfeld, [Till tuft in. World Bank, etc). Our indebtedness to them for such contributions as the International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines* and research on wheat in Mexico, is enormous and is likely to be increased. But they cannot carry the whole burden. Not only would they. Among the many merits of a foundation is the ability to act quickly: this enables it to initiate projects which this ability would be lessened if a large proportion of its funds were devoted to the continued maintenance of institutes.

Ideally, FAO should assume responsibility

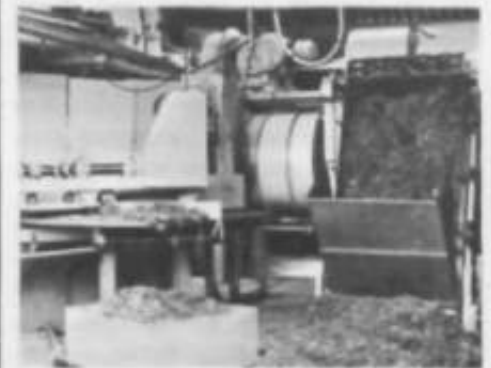
Protein from leaves

Leaf protein — by which is meant protein extracted from leafy matter — is one of the novel protein sources on which much more research is needed, and which would fit into the kind of project suggested by Dr. Pine. In many parts of the wet tropics it is probably the protein that is best adapted to local production for local use.

A project to establish two or more production and imitative units for leaf protein concentrates in wet tropical zones has been launched by Find-Your-Feet Ltd. a UK research organisation. This project would use the extraction process developed at Aotomsted Experimental Station under the direction of Dr. Pine.

The project, which can use a wide variety of lush leaves, has a capacity of one ton per hour, with a yield of some 20 kg of pure protein per ton of leaves.

The process, essentially, consists of: 1) a pulper which can be adjusted for different crops and which can handle 1 to 2 tons (wet weight) per hour; 2) a press capable of pressing out 90% of the juice contained in the pulped mass; 3) a coagulator which uses steam injection for continuous running to form a curd; 4) a curd separator which filters out the alkaloids and produces a final product with the keeping qualities of sauerkraut or cheese.



The system can be more clearly seen in this photograph of the 1961 model than in the later integrated units. Pea canner waste is being fed into the pulper and from there to the press. Juice containing leaf protein runs off into a tray.

Trials using Pine designed equipment to produce dietary additives from leafy crops have been going on for some time in India and New Guinea.

bility for financing and managing the necessary institutes. It already advises the U.N. Special Fund and, on this advice, institutes — such as one dealing with food technology in Ghana — have been set up. The process could go very much further, but more direct involvement seems to be impossible under the constitution that FAO has been given. Constitutions are not unalterable, and their interpretation is flexible, so this may happen; but it will not happen quickly.

In many developing countries where research on food production is needed, large, sometimes lavish, laboratories already exist of which much more practical use could be made.

There is an extensive literature of caustic comment by visiting scientists from industrialized countries on the impractical, 'prestige' research activities of such laboratories.

For example, McMeekan (*Finance and Development*, 2, 1965) comments that scientists from developing countries see those in industrialized countries: "Exploring the mysteries of metabolism of plants and animals with elaborate and expensive radio-isotope techniques... What they do not see, and are not told, is that this kind of research — research for the distant future — has been made possible only by successful accomplishments in a much less exotic area of activity — the solution of immediate problems hindering development." Balogh and Payne commented in similar vein in the second and third issues of CERES.

The rules are simple: Projects that need expensive pieces of imported prestige equipment should be embarked on only when the research is useful and cannot be carried out in an industrialized country. There are few such projects, so the rule can be further simplified: "If the work can equally well be done elsewhere, it should be". If that rule is adhered to it will ensure that most of the work will be novel, to a considerable extent, and will therefore produce some quite unexpected results.

This suggests a second rule: By concentrating on phenomena that cannot be studied elsewhere, and by allowing some latitude for fundamental research, such work should be ahead, both in concepts and results, of the rest of the world. This rule calls for the exercise of as much intellectual skill as can be mustered and

should make it easier to discourage emigration. If vigorously applied it will lend further force to Sir William Hardy's classic comment: "You know, this applied science is just as interesting as pure science, and what's more, it's a damned sight more difficult."

There is immense scope for fundamental work on agriculture, plant physiology, plant breeding, pest control and biochemical engineering, none of which demands, of necessity, the use of electron microscopes, ultracentrifuges, etc. These instruments could, of course, be used but, for many years to come, any specimens that it would be useful to study by sophisticated techniques could be posted to laboratories elsewhere. Competent scientists seldom find any difficulty in getting cooperation from their more favourably placed colleagues.

Dietary changer inevitable

Investigations that are both novel and useful are being organized under the aegis of the International Biological Programme. Research on pest control and on plant breeding is already under way; the latter has concentrated so far on cereals and legumes. It is hoped that the potentialities of other seed crops will be explored, so that buck-wheat and quinoa lose their lonely position, and that a search will be made for tubers more nutritious than existing potatoes and yams. Research is beginning on methods of handling and processing oil-seed residues, leaves and other materials so as to make human food.

All this is, at present, being done in and by industrialized countries. If extended quickly enough to suitable developing countries it would not only be of immediate practical use but would also act as a valuable stimulus to their scientific advancement.

FAO could encourage developments along these lines in two ways, without becoming responsible for the actual research: It could arrange conferences in institutes where useful, practical research was being carried out; and it could invite **members of the staffs of similar** institutes to them, so as to make the existence of this type of research more widely known.

An even more useful service would be performed merely by refraining from so tediously pointing out all the possible hazards and difficulties inherent in any pro-

posal that a novel form of food should be used. Those concerned with food production know the difficulties; they also know that some dietary change is inevitable if everyone is to be properly fed.

What is needed now is research on the most effective ways of promoting change, rather than flat-footed assertions that people are very conservative in their food habits. It is encouraging to find this need recognized in paragraphs 125 and 126 of the 1965 report of the World Food Programme.

From most points of view, rural depopulation and the drift towards shantytowns on the outskirts of cities and in the neighbourhood of factories are pernicious. This is recognized in the provisional outline of the Indicative World Plan (*World Hunger*, 1, No. 3, 1968), which stresses the need for more rural employment and the local processing of foods. It is also recognized in the development of the concept of intermediate technology, which aims at bridging the gap between peasant methods of farming and production, and large-scale industrial techniques.

It must also be recognized that people living in unfamiliar surroundings, and eating in municipal or factory canteens, are no longer able to eat in their traditional manner. This may well be unfortunate but at least it facilitates change. Employment may be the main factor causing the drift to town but another factor is that nutrition is often better there, partly because imported food is more likely to reach towns than villages, and partly because politicians are more aware of conditions in and around towns.

Particular attention should, therefore, be given to methods for producing food, and especially protein, in villages. By this criterion, the management of fish ponds, the fermentative up-grading of cassava or coconuts, the preparation of leaf protein and the development of improved strains of vegetables are more valuable than the production of fish protein concentrate or microbial protein; for these processes are, and are likely to remain, technologically difficult.

Down-to-earth research is concerned with the welfare of that large group of humanity which lives at the end of a long and inadequate rural road, for urban populations seem, at the moment, to be getting more attention.

Multilateral investment in agriculture

In the three years of its existence the joint FAO-World Bank programme has generated \$320 million to finance 27 agricultural development projects, and has shifted the emphasis of development finance toward agriculture



Constructing the Rosettes dam across the Blue Nile with the help of World Bank financing

by AIAAtM Hiftvi

Tokyo — 11 a.m. on Monday, 9 September 1964. President George Woods is making his (broe-poiffil HafMIWI — review of the past year, forecasts, changing conditions in which the bank is working — to the authorities of the World Bank assembled for their annual meeting.

He presents statistics, practical considerations, judgements, the results of long, collective labour. His style is tanewfad laconic but it does not hide the strength of his conviction*

He reviews the bank's policy concerning two major problems of the third world — agriculture and education — and reports on discussions held with two other bodies: the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco). And, finally, he announces a programme for cooperative agricultural and educational development.

The idea of cooperation between IBRD

(International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, otherwise known as the World Bank) and FAO had been in the wind for some time. The bank **ratted** **it** **expend** its **tctivitfci** while FAO was looking for new financial resources for its action programme. The heads of the two organizations exchanged ideas whenever their paths crossed.

If one could attribute a symbolic character to these great international agencies the World Bank would be the power of money: its wider rule is profitability; its principle, prudence. It would be know-how in the hand: its main business development; its principle, promotion.

High officials conceived a programme for joint action. The idea gathered strength and led to summit talks between the heads of the two agencies. An agreement was signed on 2 April 1964.

The bank had had its own agricultural department (or MM time) and was financing a few projects — road construction

in undeveloped areas; canals and irrigation systems; support of farm credit.

The bank was dealing with high-value products in relatively rich countries where **money could** quickly be reckoned; Malaysia, for **example**. But it was also operating on a large scale in countries with **extranet** **disadl** repayment **coafilionv** such as India,

The bank's interest in agriculture remained rather limited until Mr. Woods announced the new **poncj of NHMg** support for agricultural development. The bank felt that it could develop the agricultural sector — of prime importance to many of its member states — with I-AO's help.

Why did the bank turn to KAO? The official answer is that it wished to avail itself of the organization's experts and their work, especially that resulting from Special Fund pre-investment projects, to compare experience in the field of investment; and to widen the bank's role

toward new operations such as the development of forestry and forest industries, fisheries, crop planting using improved seeds, and agricultural training.

Serving as a trail-blazer

In his Tokyo speech, Mr. Woods had this to say about the philosophy of joint enterprise: "I have no doubt that in putting increased emphasis on agriculture and education, we are following the right course. Lagging production of food, the lack of diversification within the agricultural sector itself and the shortage of skilled people at all levels, in both government administration and productive enterprise, are holding back economic growth in far too many countries.

"But let me add that, in view of the magnitude of the financial requirements for adequate educational and agricultural development, the bank can do little more than serve as a trail-blazer. We can point the way for others by supporting a few pilot projects and by helping to identify, and to move toward solution, a few of the key problems.

"But these efforts will be useful only if governments follow through by focusing more of their attention on the critical needs of agriculture and education and by according them appropriate priority in the allocation of available resources, both domestic and foreign."

In 1964 the first joint projects, serving as prototypes, were launched. The bank and VAO started to define more clearly the concepts of short and long-term profitability and to develop methods for project appraisal (see reviews of books by Hirschman and King on page 59 of this issue). This programme started to help governments identify and prepare agricultural investment projects.

The bank has the right of final approval, for it is the bank loans which make projects possible. The bank bases its appraisals on a multitude of factors: the country's economic and financial performance; its balance of payments; and **at trade**; and the country's capacity to administer and carry out projects. The bank also goes into fiscal policy in deciding on what terms it can expect reimbursement.

If it is a loan, it will be granted at 6.25% per annum over 20 years, if not the bank will offer credit from IJIA (In-

ternational Development Association) funds at 0.75% interest repayable over 40 years, with 10 years' grace. IJIA is a bank subsidiary which grants 'soft' loans to developing countries, credits on much more lenient terms of reimbursement than is normal financial practice.

A group of high-ranking specialists from FAO's technical divisions was formed to implement the cooperative programme. It includes agronomists, irrigation engineers, economists and other specialists in fisheries, forestry, farm credit

IBRD Investment Bank for Reconstruction and Development and International Development Association

	1963-64		1964-65		1965-66	
	to	la	to	la	to	la
LTM (million dollars)	2	34.2	2	40.0	1	75.3
Bo (million dollars)	2	MO	2	1*0	1	25.0
Agricultural credit	4	45.0	2	50	1	50
Other credit	1	29.2	1	10.0	1	25.3
Other income	—	—	1	10.0	—	—
Loan disbursements and investment savings	—	—	2	60.0	2	75.3
Total operations	6	73.4	5	110.0	3	150.6
Grand total of projects	48	1,125	47	1,280	—	—

* In millions of dollars.

and agricultural education. In fact, the group is capable of dealing with problems in all the fields in which the programme operates. Missions sent out to survey a potential project are relatively small in number but the team specialists are able to solve problems that go beyond their own fields of specialization: they practice what FAO has been advocating for a long time — the integrated approach.

Their main task is to help countries identify projects which can be financed by the bank. If a country wants to receive a loan, it must be able to submit an application backed up by solid arguments. It must prove that the project can be profitable, that it is technically sound and that it can be efficiently managed. The country must also furnish financial details on how it plans to repay the loan.

Under the IBRD-FAO agreement, a project has to pass through five stages.

Identification is the first stage after a government has submitted its application. This can be a fairly easy task if it is a

fertilizer plant, for instance, but a complicated proposal like a dam is more difficult, as can be seen in the interview with Mr. Fjalkovsky (CERES No. 4). A dam means construction, machinery installation and power distribution. It means land redevelopment, the building of canals and training in irrigated agriculture. A whole country, sometimes a group of countries, will feel the effect*. The team must find out exactly how far the project must go to control all these repercussions.

One team recently identified three possible projects in Chad, for instance; animal husbandry, farm credit and irrigation. It quickly decided that the livestock project had the greatest chance of success and the government was asked whether it **agreed**.

If the government does agree, the project will pass on to the second stage — preparation. FAO experts in the second stage select and analyse the technical, economic and financial data on which the project is based; then they return to Rome and draw up a report. They send their report to the bank; "This is what we recommend. If you agree, we are ready to send a mission to prepare the project." At this stage, the government concerned may take the place of the experts and the report thus becomes a direct request, that is, an application to the bank for a loan.

If the bank agrees, the third stage begins — appraisal. The bank sends its own team to the country: KAO may join in but without direct responsibility. The team has to evaluate the data gathered during the appraisal and preparation, work out the financial arrangements and define the stages of execution. This is the crucial phase in obtaining a loan.

A team effort for the pipeline

The bank also considers the country's capacity to manage its own project. Projects sometimes come to nothing because there is no responsible administrative authority to manage them.

Negotiation is the fourth stage. This is carried out directly between the bank and the country concerned.

Implementation of the project starts after financing has been approved — this is the fifth stage. The bank pays out the loan or credit in staggered instalments.

It is then up to the bank to check on working progress, though it may enlist a team from the cooperative programme as a supervisory mission. Under the agreement, the bank can finance personnel for certain kinds of technical assistance to help the government launch its project during this fifth stage; FAO may supply the necessary staff.

After four years of the FAO/IBRE) cooperative programme, 27 projects, totalling about \$380 million have been completed or are in progress in 17 countries. In addition, a very considerable number (more than 100) are in the 'pipeline'. These are being prepared by FAO, or being evaluated or negotiated by the bank. The five stages may take eight months to one year, or even more. Everything depends on the countries' capacity to prepare projects and to decide on policies that will ensure their success.

Amount of \$200 million in 1967-

FAO contributes 25% and the bank 75% of the programme's funds. The amount of future work depends on reservation of IDA's financial resources, hard hit by the world economic crisis.

George Woods, Mr. McNamara's predecessor, would have liked the bank's funds to be raised to \$200 million a year but he was not able to get approval in principle that aid should be increased to \$400 million a year, to be raised to a higher figure after further negotiations with donor countries. The immediate goal is to reach \$700 to \$800 million a year compared with IDA's ceiling of about \$300 million over the past three years.

It is probable that there will be a considerable increase in lending for agricultural projects financed by the bank. At present such loans amount to \$520 million (1967); this should increase in the years to come.

The cooperative programme has passed its trial period now and has proved its usefulness; its future lies in expansion. Its most immediate benefit to FAO is that it has enabled the organization as a whole to become aware of financing problems which, previously, it approached in terms of pre-investment work.

The programme is now preparing the ground for an investment centre which would group the activities of FAO with the World Bank and the regional development banks.

\$16 MILLION FOR ANIMAL HUSBANDRY IN COLOMBIA



This project is the practical application of a theoretical ideal. At the outset, the Colombian Government, the World Bank and FAO agreed on the terms of the project - it is to fit into a larger plan which places the emphasis on improvement of meat cattle, milch cows and sheep. The project includes all kinds of work - land clearing, enclosures, water supply, livestock installations, grazing improvement and a breeding programme.

The \$16.7 million loan is being used to help finance the first three-year stage of the ten-year plan. The bank loan covers 60% of the total costs of about \$28 million. The Caja de Credit Agrario, Industrial y Minero, an autonomous credit agency which organizes and manages the operation, is contributing 22% while the rest comes from farmers and cooperatives involved in the project. About 900 ranches, 250 dairy farms and 35 sheep stations are taking part.

the desert locust

A plague that could last a decade affecting millions of people is rapidly spreading over the vast area from Casablanca to Bombay. Many countries are working together to control this ancient menace

Not a country within the whole range of the invasion area escaped. Individual catastrophes, when swarms settled on subsistence farmers' land, were too many to count.

Scistocerca gregaria, the desert locust, is one of ten main species, subspecies and varieties of locust, and is one whose outbreak areas have not yet been tracked down. Part of the reason is indicated by its common name. It is a creature of the desert, or to be more accurate of the desert wadis whose sparse vegetation makes occasional scribbles of green in some of the loneliest country in the world.

Having no specific breeding grounds, it can break out in any one of a thousand or more places strewn through 5 million square miles from the western Sahara to the western desert of India,

Since the first requisite of a good breeding habitat is rain to moisten the sands for egg-laying and to produce enough vegetation for food and shelter, and because rain in the deserts is highly sporadic and may fall at intervals separated not by months but by years, many, probably the majority, of these local population flare-ups come to nothing. The insects then revert to their solitary, harmless phase, scattered in insignificant numbers, which may again build up if rain comes, only to die down once more if they are not renewed.

These are the recession periods. During the 58 years from 1910 to 1967 there were five such recessions. The longest lasted only seven years, the shortest only two. Altogether they have totalled only 19 years compared with 39 plague years. The brevity of their duration compares strikingly with that of the plagues, none of which has been shorter than seven years — the longest,

mentioned above, being fourteen. Equally striking is the immense contrast between the numbers of locusts in plague and non-plague years. Probably the biggest swarm ever recorded was one which appeared in East Africa in 1958. So dense that aeroplanes at an airport where it settled were unable to take off, it was estimated to measure 400 square miles and contained about 40,000 million locusts of a tonnage equal to the liner *Queen Mary*. Yet in the recession which followed there was scarcely a locust to be seen.

Nevertheless, it is the evidence gained during recessions and transitions that is most likely to provide the answers necessary if man is ever to gain the upper hand against this most enduring and intractable of his insect enemies.

How did it happen?

Since 1952 FAO has been coordinating international and regional efforts to survey and control the desert locust. The anti-locust programme, inaugurated in 1960 with the aid of the United Nations Development Programme (Special Fund), has been carried out mostly during a period of recession and transition. It has included widespread ground and aerial surveys and, perhaps most important in the long run, an ecological survey directed specifically toward gaining more knowledge of the desert locust's life cycle and habitat preferences. The latter was a seven-year undertaking during which the length and breadth of the outbreak areas were traversed in journeys totalling 68,000 miles.

In addition, coordinated research programmes have been encouraged and expanded and 19 new national research stations built and equipped. National reporting and forecasting services have been given financial help and the Desert Locust Information Service (operated by the British Anti-Locust Research Centre on FAO's behalf) has been strengthened. Ve-

hicles, locust survey equipment and radio for field communications have been issued. Some 400 locust officers have received some form of training, either at seminars or in specially arranged courses.

Existing international locust-fighting organizations, such as the Desert Locust Control Organization of East Africa, have been supported and regional defensive groupings encouraged.

Why, then, has another plague occurred?

One answer is inescapable: there was a lack of information at a critical time from physically and politically inaccessible areas.

Another, interlocked with the first, is that the desert locust is a supreme opportunist. Requiring rain for the creation of its habitat, it needs only three sustained downpours in three suitable breeding areas to enable it to begin the successful migrations and multiplication which can lead to an incipient plague.

The second of these conditions was satisfied when, in November 1966, a cyclone moved from the Arabian Sea into the coastal hinterlands of southern and southeast Arabia, bringing with it such torrential deluges that in one district alone nearly four inches — more than the normal average for a year — was recorded. This was followed by rainfall well distributed through 1967's rainy season.

Its effect was to transform the desert from a scene of total aridity into a swiftly flowering wilderness in which the locust population quickly bred and thrived. Partly no doubt because of the wild nature of the country, their existence went unreported.

In this and other respects the outbreak bore a remarkable resemblance to that of October 1948 when a cyclone, similarly occurring in the same region and at much the same time of the year, was believed to have set off the last great

Stanley Baron, formerly a feature writer for the *News Chronicle*, is a freelance writer, author of *Road to Rome* and other books.

No frontier in the fight against

by **STANLEY BARON**

At the end of last year the governments of more than 40 countries were warned that the desert locust, which had so often afflicted them in the past, was again on the increase.

The upsurge in numbers was known to be particularly heavy in Arabia and, upon fresh news came in, it was clear that there were also dangerous infestations in African countries on the other side of the southern end of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. If successful spring breeding occurred, they were warned, a plague could follow.

Spring breeding did occur, on a large and grave scale. Not only was it confined to Arabia and east Africa for 3,000 miles away in west African countries bordering the Sahara, there were also serious outbreaks in Iran and Pakistan. Too, weather conditions favour-

ed the locust. By early August, in spite of the most vigorous efforts of locust control teams, swarms had been reported from every major summer breeding area between western Africa and India. Breeding had begun in most of them.

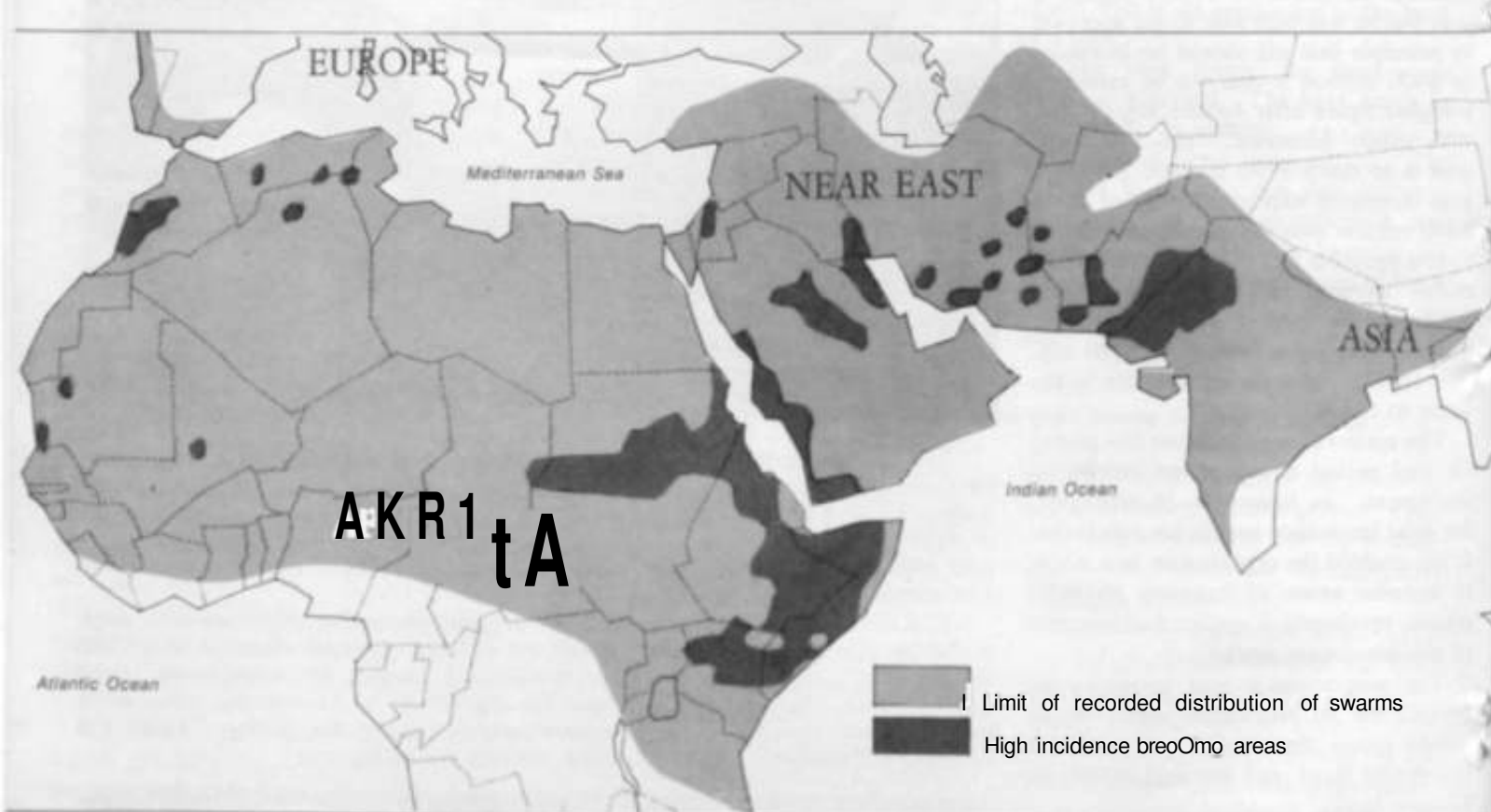
It now seems certain, therefore, that 1968 must be added to the list of years that have already ushered in four major plagues during little more than half a century.

The possible consequences need no underlining to peoples of the countries who have suffered in the past. Even to others far from the affected areas the very name of the locust is synonymous with destruction, hunger and famine. From biblical times and earlier the recurrence of these plagues has brought calamity both to nations and individuals.

But one need only go back to the last

plague to realize the magnitude of the locust which now hangs over the crops of more than 40 countries. Ending only five years ago, it ran for 14 years and, in that time, invaded more than one fifth of the world's land surface and affected one tenth of the world's people. Areas where the swarms struck stretched from northern India to west and north Africa; from the Near and Middle East to Kenya and Tanzania; and the whole of Arabia.

Ethiopia, in 1958, lost 167,000 tons of grain, much of it in the single province of Eritrea. This would have been enough to feed more than a million people. Four years earlier Sudan had lost 55,000 tons. In 1957, when the locusts invaded Senegal, they consumed 16,000 tons of millet and 2,000 tons of other crops. The orange orchards of Morocco and Guinea were devastated, as were the Libyan vineyards,



plague. Then, too, great stretches of desert extending into central Saudi Arabia exchanged their normal desiccation for mantles of unaccustomed green. On both occasions the swarms and their progeny must have moved through, at least a couple of thousand miles of wilderness before emerging to sew the Red Sea coast with their eggfields.

There is another unfortunate parallel. In 1950, when the swarms had penetrated Iran, Pakistan and India, FAO prepared a plan of campaign which might have curtailed the plague: but no funds were then available and the chance was lost.

During the present outbreak the defences have again been overwhelmed, allowing the desert locusts' unique power* of long-distance nomadism again to come into play. The swarms have the ability to cross deserts, mountains and seas, covering distances of many hundreds of miles.

In laboratory wind-tunnel tests locusts have been known to keep flying, continuously flapping their wings, for 17 to 18 hours, a record for any insect. Over land a normal migration between one suitable breeding area and another may advance them from 8 to 200 miles a day, depending on the winds.

The logistic difficulties of a locust control organization trying to keep up with such a rapidly moving target are all too obvious. To be fully effective in such a case total destruction is necessary, but in practice there are bound to be escapes and, given the fantastic fecundity of the insect, swarms can rapidly build up again.

During the present plague it is obvious that there have also been many escapes of hoppers — young locusts before they have taken wing. Marching bands up to three miles in length — sign of a very heavy infestation — were seen early this year in the south Tihama, the long stretch of desert between the Red Sea and the towering mountains of Saudi Arabia 20 to 30 miles inland. In spite of energetic control operations with good results against the younger and smaller hoppers, it was all too clear that many of the older ones had failed to take the bait, or were insufficiently harmed by sprays applied to vegetation.

The result, unfortunately, must have been that many achieved adulthood and were able to fly off inland to breed again before migrating back to the Red Sea countries or eastward across the Persian

Gulf to Iran and Pakistan, where an outbreak flared in July,

in the Sudan the invasion began with the arrival, in June and July, of six or seven swarms which came from Arabia after crossing some 200 miles of sea, or

— many of them already beginning to shimmer with the leaping bodies of countless baby hoppers — to marching hopper bands and bright yellow copulating swarms.

A veteran locust officer, taking a spade



Collecting *Uv* locusts in Ethiopia — body measurements are clues to breeding density and, with other field observations, may indicate their place of origin.

from Ethiopia. There must also, certainly have been some scattered locusts in Sudan's own coastal IRIS only waiting for the rains which would rocket their numbers. These duly occurred and, by the end of July, five provinces* were infested.

In the large Wadi Bafajil, near Shendi on the Nile about 100 miles north of Khartoum, these took every form of eggfields measuring several square miles

marked out a square foot of eggfield and dug up 41 eggpods capable of producing, at a conservative estimate, 3,200 nymphs. If only 10% survived to adulthood the increase, unless it could be effectively controlled, would be certain to mean a new population of many thousands* of millions in this Wadi alone. Probably 200 square miles in this province were equally badly infested, as well as a*

other districts and regions where hatchlings are now emerging.

¹ The danger is always, in such cases, that there may be enough escapes to set off new waves of swarms which will in due course either return to the Red Sea coast or shift westward on the first stages of the long trek south of the Sahara into west Africa.

To "lose" a swarm in these great areas is all too easy. The locusts' need of rain does, nevertheless, give a broad indication of certain zones where breeding is likely to occur and control, if applied in time, can be most effective.

Rain and wind

One such zone, the spring breeding belt, runs through northwestern and northern Africa and the Near East to Pakistan. A southward bulge in the middle includes parts of east Africa. Breeding follows the occurrence of cyclonic rains associated with westerly disturbances and is confined to the first half of the year. It has not yet occurred during the present plague.

The second main zone of breeding is a summer and autumn one and is confined to an equally vast belt of the country lying along the southern part of the Sahara from Senegal and southern Mauritania through the mainly desert lands of Mali, Niger, Chad and Sudan to Ethiopia; thence on through southern Arabia to West Pakistan and northwest India. There has been breeding nearly all the way along this belt, and this is where most of the battle has, up to now, been fought. Its rains, normally sporadic but this year exceptionally heavy in many places, are the outcome of a meteorological phenomenon known as the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), where the southwest monsoon winds meet the northeast trades.

Finally, there is a very large and important winter breeding area which includes the Somali Peninsula, eastern Kenya and northeastern Tanzania, with a northward extension along the coastal hinterland of the Gulf of Aden and the southern Red Sea. This, too, is closely affected by the ITCZ. Often the opposing winds approach so close together that pilots flying through the zone of convergence in east Africa find themselves exchanging a south-wester for a north-caster within a couple of minutes. The

movements of swarms being invariably downwind, they can naturally be found most often where the winds converge,

The rain-bearing winds, in other words, provide the locusts with a convenient means of transport and also create their needed living and breeding conditions. On the other hand, if the rains fail, the locusts' quest for new breeding sites is likely to fail also. Deprived of food, shelter and moist soil for their egg-laying, they are then at their most vulnerable to human counter-attack. It was probably a combination of drought and a well-timed attack by Pakistani spraying planes that finished off the last plague in 1963.

In the present one the role of FAO has again been focussed on the coordination of national and regional control efforts and the provision of material assistance up to the limits of the funds available.

Last May the United Nations Development Programme allocated \$285,000 for emergency action under the UNDP Desert Locust Project, which has been running since 1960; and has since made a further \$70,000 available. At the same time U.S. AID was asked to provide any help possible and has already contributed \$200,000 to the Desert Locust Control Organization of East Africa. Individual government gifts have included 50 tons of pesticide and five spraying vehicles supplied by U.S.S.R. to Ethiopia. Pakistan gave 1,000 gallons of liquid insecticide and 34 cwts of BHT dust to Saudi Arabia.

Countries must cooperate

Among the endangered nations there has been a welcome acknowledgement that in fighting such an inveterate internationalist as the desert locust, to whom frontiers are no impediment, a high degree of mutual help is needed. This has enabled FAO to arrange for the loan of spray planes from one country to another and for the transfer of experienced locust control officers to areas where the need is greatest.

Given continued cooperation and new techniques of control such as the ultra-low-volume spraying now being practised successfully in east Africa, there is hope that the plague can, at least, be curtailed and its catastrophic consequences minimized.

What of the future?

It would be blind to ignore the fact

that the desert locust seems to thrive best where there is human distrust and unrest. In this respect it is both a symbol and a challenge.

Scientific observations of an outbreak in west Africa have shown that detection and effective control in the early stages are possible, but require the prompt location of habitats by air observation working closely in cooperation with ground observers. Both air and ground surveys need to be done by trained personnel with knowledge and experience of locust ecology and behaviour. From an aeroplane it is easy to quickly see where rain has produced new vegetation encouraging infestations of locusts which might otherwise be overlooked. If they can be attacked then, without regard for frontiers, incipient plagues may be stopped.

Emergency fund needed

This means that the cooperation of the plague periods must be extended into the recessions. The object of all reconnaissance is to extend the recessions as long as possible. It must therefore be as efficient as possible. Within the limits of political realism it must also be as international as possible.

Another vital lesson of the present plague is that aid, to be effective, must be prompt. Once an outbreak has occurred the locusts' rate of multiplication is so fast that, within the three generations, the swarm population can increase by between a hundredfold to a thousandfold, even where there is control.

At present, before international action gets into its stride, there may be a delay of several months, equal to at least two generations. Pesticides have to be ordered and delivered and arrangements made for men and machines to be moved. All this takes time, while the locust, regardless of protocol, waxes fat at the farmer's expense.

What is urgently required is an international emergency fund permitting rapid "fire brigade" action immediately on news of future outbreaks. The sum of \$500,000 has been suggested. Applied, as needed, it would be a small insurance premium to pay for the protection of threatened crops whose value has been estimated at \$20,000 million annually. A small price, too, for averting so much misery.

The teeth of the wind



by T.M. PASCA. photo* by GIANHI TORTOU

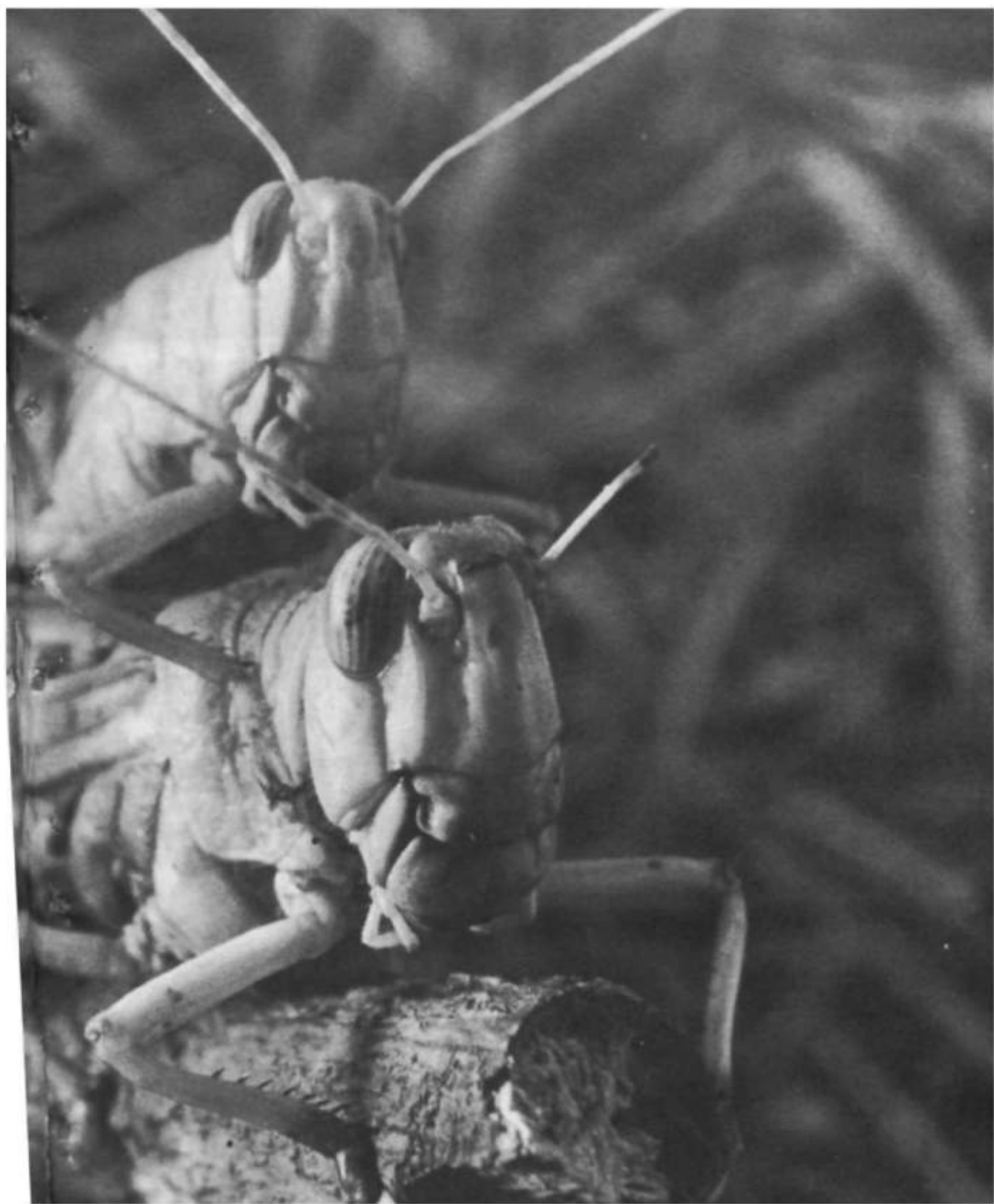
Man against the desert locust: the short, hungry and disastrous life of an ancient pest

These two insects in the act of copulation are making more than adequate provision for the continuance of their kind. During her four to six months of life the female may lay from three to four hundred eggs in various locations.

In addition to its marvellous fecundity, the desert locust also has a terrifying appetite. One locust eats its own weight each day and a swarm one square mile in size will often weigh from two to three tons. To satisfy such appetites locusts must travel on a scale equal to their breeding and feeding habits. Great swarms routinely cross continents and seas with the assistance of the winds. *The teeth of the wind* they are called in the Koran.

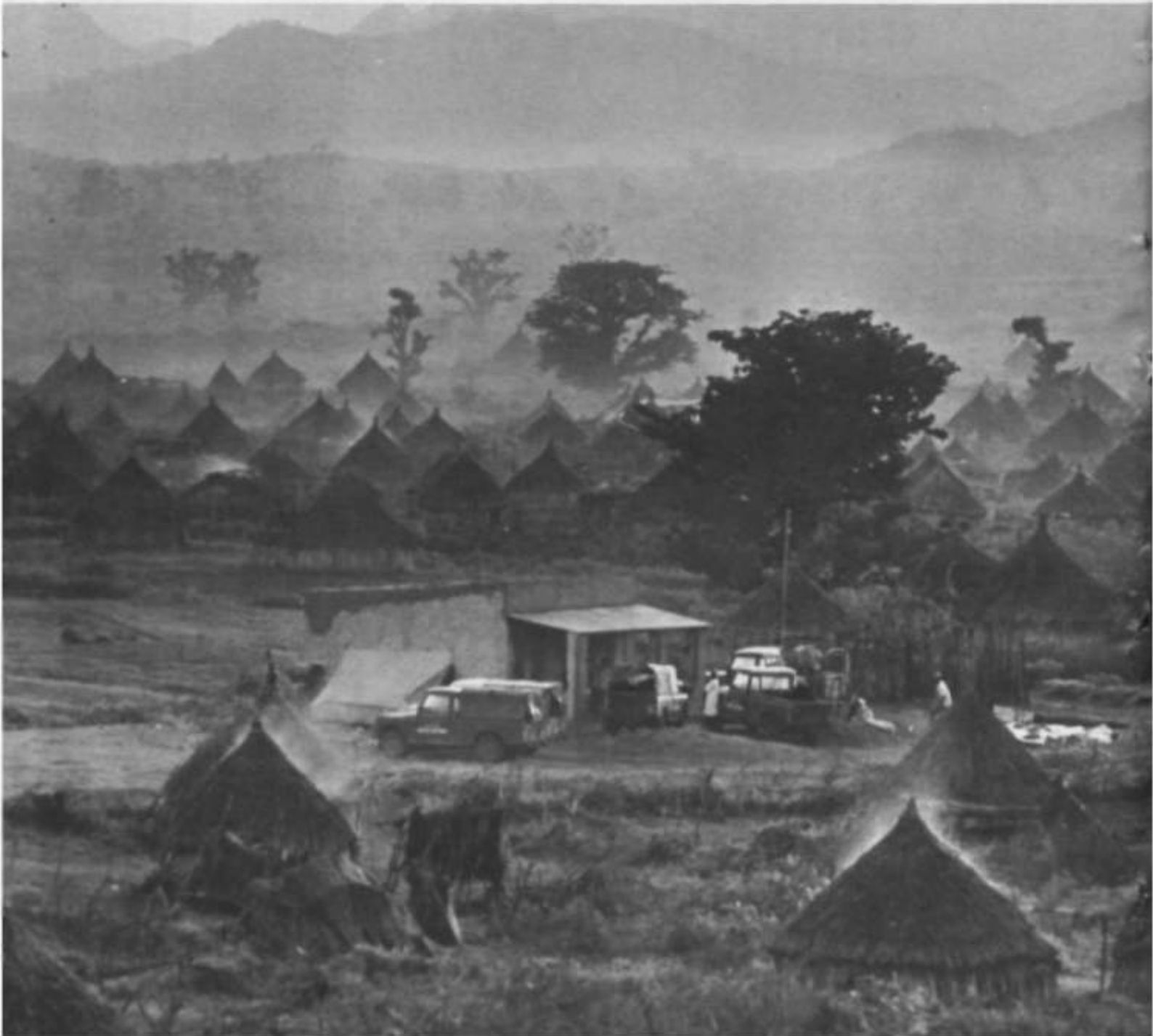
What chance does man have against this ancient and long victorious enemy of the green land? For thousands of years he has lost and the locust has won. But man's efforts, unlike the locusts, were never united and usually inhibited by national boundaries.

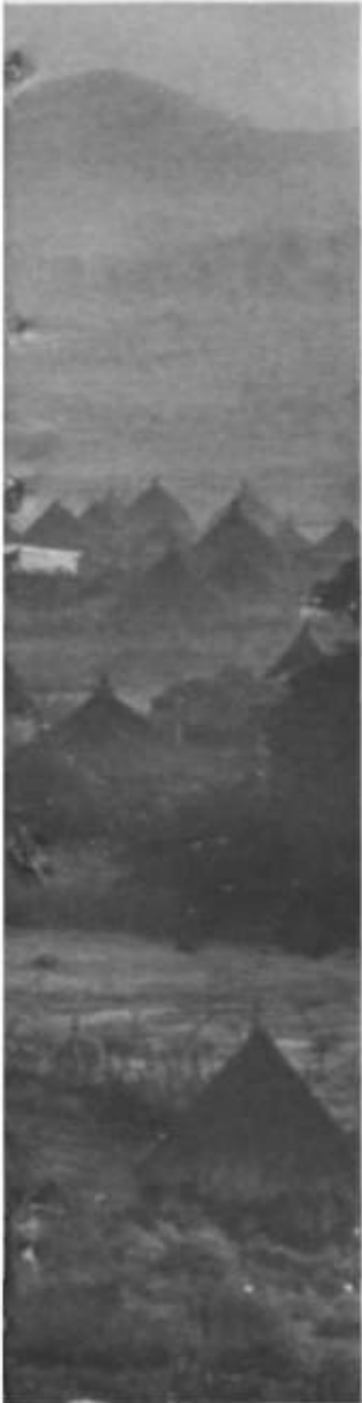
Perhaps this is changing now. If so, man can probably defeat the locust. If not, the locust will go on winning as it has from ancient times, breeding and eating from country to country.



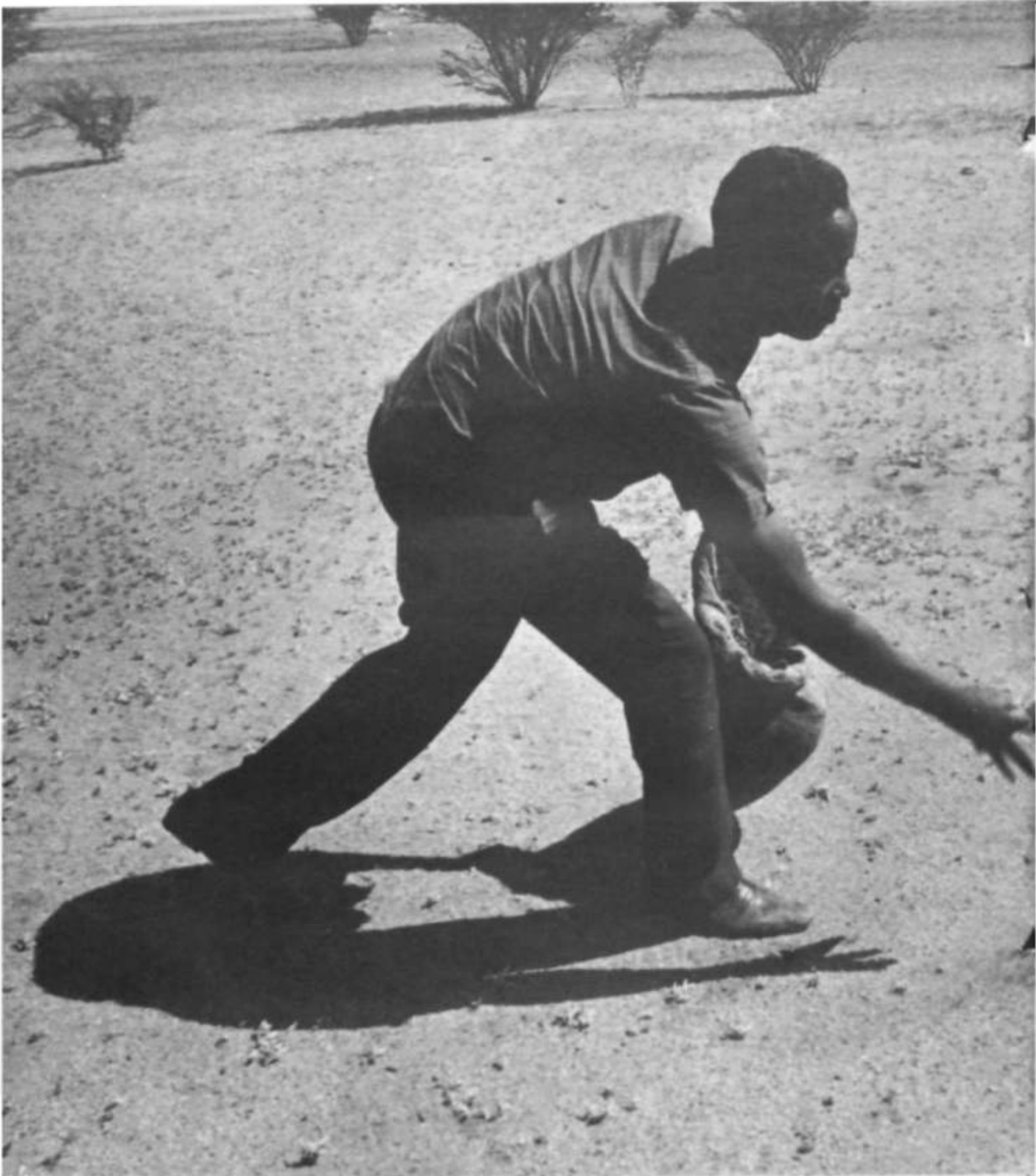


In Asmara, John Sayer (right), chief locust control scientist in east Africa, decides where to send spray planes after talking to far distant camps in the field, such as this one (below) at Gogni, Ethiopia

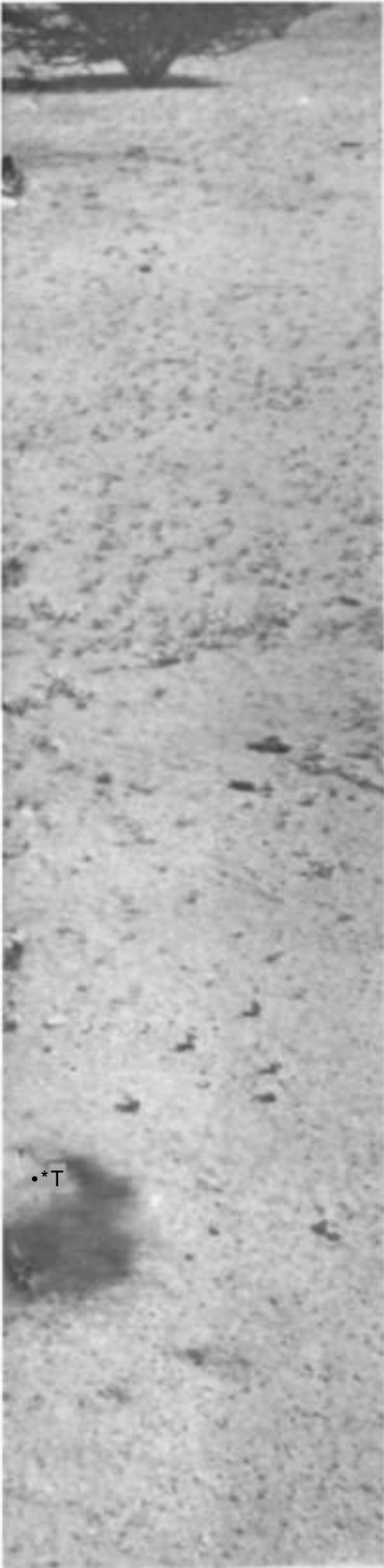




An immature desert locust climbs out of its shell for the lith and last time. From now on it will become increasingly destructive. Its appetite is at its most voracious. It feels impelled to join a large swarm — tts new wings will keep it Ny.ng over great distances.



It is easier and cheaper to destroy locust hoppers on the ground than to kill them after they have been taken to the air. Spraying bait made from crushed groundnut husks mixed with poison in Khartoum Province, Sudan.



After a rainfall the Sudanese desert is spotted with vegetation. Young locusts gather among the new green plants. Portable powered dusters are effective weapons against the hoppers and hatchlings

At a locust control camp near Agorda, Ethiopia camels are loaded with sacks of insecticide for a day-long trip to a wadi where hundreds of thousands of hoppers have been discovered.



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The locust control programme, like the locusts, needs wings
A spray plane loads with insecticide at an Asmara air strip

Thailand breaks the monocrop barrier

A dangerous dependence upon rice for export earnings is being balanced by the dramatic rise of non-rice crops

by JOHN STIRLING

In the 13th century A.D., King Ram Khamhaeng defined the wealth of his realm in these words: "In the waters are fish, in the fields rice. . . coconut, jackfruit, mango and tamarind abound in this land. Whoever plants them, unto him they shall belong. . ."

Seven centuries later, the same fecundity of soil and water underlies the prosperity of what is now Thailand. The country is the largest exporter of rice in southeast Asia, exporting rice worth 10 billion dollars, former granaries of the region. In the Mekong basin, *Tilapia* fish contribute protein to the diet of the village dwellers. Other kinds of fish are netted in vast quantities from the canals and rivers, and from the seas around Thailand.

Nature has been generous to this country. Yet the same bounty has been conferred on adjacent states such as Burma and Viet-Nam which, today, are in economic distress. Natural factors, clearly, are not the only ones to have shaped the Thai economy.

Since world war II, a high and ever quickening rate of economic growth has been maintained by state planning. Despite four coup d'états since 1947, the impact of economic plans has not been hampered by political instability.

Even in the days of royal despotism, the country was fortunate to have had a succession of forward-looking kings. King Mongkut, who ruled from 1851 to 1868, opened up the country to foreign trade, built roads and canals, and issued the first modern currency. His successor, King Chulalongkorn in 1893 abolished slavery, reorganized the ministries

and ordered the building of the first railway line. King Vajiravudh (1910-1925) made education compulsory and established the first secular university.

The *royal government* has traditionally taken an important role in regulating the economy, particularly in stabilizing the export price of rice. Some industries — such as the distillation of alcohol, the manufacture of sugar and tobacco and pork production — have been state monopolies for years. But economic planning in the modern sense began in 1961 with the six-year development plan.

This plan took into account the special characteristics of the Thai economy in which 25% of the total working force is employed in the agricultural sector and 70% of the gross domestic product is derived from agriculture.

The emphasis in this first phase of development was on irrigation. Large multi-purpose projects were undertaken for the benefit of both industrial and agricultural sectors. The most important was the Bhumiphol dam on the Ping river, the western tributary of the Chao Phraya. Completed in 1964, the dam rises 160 feet above the bed of the river and provides a reservoir with a capacity of 1.5 billion cubic meters of water. It provides hydroelectric power, flood control, and permits the storage of 100 million gallons of water. The two 70,000 kilowatt generators installed at Bhumiphol, and the reserve capacity of six more units, have been an important factor in meeting the increased demand for power from the expanding industrial sector.

The figures published by Thailand's National Economic Development Board on the results of the six-year plan reveal

John F. Stirling, former staff writer for The New York Times, is a frequent contributor to the Bangkok World.

that the annual **growth** rate of manufacturing was 14% per year, electricity and water supply 19% and trade 10%. The growth rate of the gross national product was 7.2% per year, surpassing the annual target rate of 6% envisaged in the plan.

Tim. *rvbb+r and mmizm*

The first plan gave increased confidence to the planners and taught them many valuable lessons. The second development plan (1967-71), launched last October, has more ambitious objectives and requires a greater mobilization of national resources. It aims at an annual growth rate of 8.5% with a 516% increase in per capita income. The total investment required is \$2,100 million compared with \$1,600 million for the first plan. Three quarters of this amount will come from domestic financial resources.

These figures are an assurance that, unless war or natural disasters intervene, Thailand's economy should continue to expand rapidly — welcome news for the food deficit countries of Asia. There will be greater emphasis on agriculture in the new plan: 20% of the total investment will be devoted to farming. This, in turn, will mean a larger surplus of food crops for export.

Rice is the most important of Thailand's exports, and will remain so in the foreseeable future. Last year, rice earned some \$223,330,000 in foreign exchange. This was almost the same amount earned collectively by the three next most valuable exports — tin, rubber and maize. Domestically and in external trade, the economy is almost dangerously dependent on one crop.

1967 was a bleak year for all crops because of severe drought. Thai farmers produced an estimated 11 million tons of rice, compared with nearly 12 million tons the previous year.

Cultivation still depends largely upon rain as the main source of water for the crops. Since only 20% of the total area under rice is irrigated, drought and floods can destroy substantial amounts of the crop. As in the rest of Asia, rice cultivation in Thailand remains largely a gamble on the rain.

However, the long-term trend for production, area and yield to follow a rising curve. Production increased rapidly after world war II, mainly through

the extension of the rice area. Increases in production since the early 1950s have been due largely to higher yields. The harvested area has increased by 13% in the last eighteen years, and the yield per acre has risen by 19%.

The most rapid increase in production has been in northern Thailand where output has risen by more than 60%. In the waterless northeast, the average yield is the lowest in the country and production has increased only sluggishly. Even so, dramatic increases were reported in the northeast on irrigated land; unfortunately, irrigated land is such a small proportion of the total area — 4% in the



northeast, compared with 6% in the central plain — that this increase has had a relatively small impact on the average yield for the whole region.

However, the irrigation picture is constantly changing. The Bhumiphol dam is the most spectacular of a congeries of projects. In the northeast, two important multi-purpose dams, on the Nam Pong and Nam Fung rivers, are being supplemented by purely irrigation projects at Lam Pao, Praplerng and Lam Tukong. Together, they will bring another 200,000 acres under irrigation. The need for controlled water in the northeast is underlined by the fact that the per capita income is the lowest in Thailand.

In the north, the effort is directed towards the improvement of the existing

network of canals, many of them more than a century old. Stone weirs are being built to store water from the Ping river (north of the Bhumiphol dam) and to distribute it through the canals. Extensive drilling of artesian wells is being carried out to supplement the weirs and canals. Officials in this region point out that the problem is not to expand the acreage for agriculture, in a region which is already overcrowded, but to raise the yield per acre by improved irrigation.

In the centre, watered abundantly by the Chao Phya river and by innumerable canals, the need for development is less obvious than in other parts of the country. However, the central plain accounts for nearly 80% of the country's total cultivated land and it has received at least as much attention as other regions. One of the first loans made in Southeast Asia by the World Bank was to finance the construction of the Chainat diversion dam on the southern Chao Phya river and the installation of a system of main canals. The current phase of the international programme to harness the Chao Phya began in 1962 with the construction of a series of dikes, canals, drains and roads. This phase will be completed by 1970 and it will bring almost two million acres under intensive cultivation.

National measures to increase the irrigated area are fundamental to the economy and trade expansion.

A Thai economist recently noted that in the last six years non-rice crops have shown spectacular increases. He pointed out: "This increase and diversification is the result of the ability of the Thai farmer to adapt to changing world demand... but it would not have happened if the government had not provided the infrastructure, especially irrigation projects, to the value of about \$200 million."

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However, the announcement that Thailand this year will export not more than a million tons of rice (compared with 13 million tons in 1967) strikes an ominous note. It reveals that some fundamental problems have not been resolved. Thailand's planners are well aware of what these are. The National Economic Development Board summarized the problem as follows: "The rapid rate of population growth, the danger of uncom-

from the few birth control centres and from shops selling contraceptives reveal that some 300,000 women are practising family planning. Experts point out that this is only 10% of married women in the reproductive years. But (here is strong evidence that a much higher proportion would practise birth control if the techniques were more widely known and available.

Mobile birth control clinics have met with overwhelming response. Those in charge of a pilot project in Potharam district carried out a survey of married women between 20 and 45 years of age which revealed that though less than one in a hundred had even the vaguest idea of **COOtiactptioa**, 70% wished either to



Rice is the main crop of more than 90% of the people and is the major export earner for Thailand. Here, replanting rice in Bangkok.

practise birth control or to learn all about it.

In this country there are no religious or social barriers to birth control. Family planning is limited only by the scarcity of clinics and contraceptives. In the climate of Thai opinion, the 1.4% annual growth rate of population can be held constant or even reduced if the government were wholeheartedly to a nation-wide policy of population control.

Diversification of agriculture in Thailand has already upset the hoary theory that the Asian peasant is incurably conservative. In the last decade, new cash crops were developed at an astonishing rate. Since 1950, exports of maize have trebled, while jute and kenaf exports

doubled. Last year, maize was the fourth most valuable export (having dropped from third place due to drought), earning about 564,320,000.

Individually the new crops do not challenge the pre-eminent role of rice but, collectively, they earn more on the world market. Rubber, formerly the second most valuable export, has now yielded that place to (in. Earnings from rubber have fallen sharply over the last two years with the decline in world prices.

However, planting and production continue to rise. Last year's yield of 228,000 metric tons was an increase of 8,000 metric tons over 1966. Output would have been higher but for low world prices. Smallholders, who react sharply to

market conditions. Rubber is up 90% of the rubber industry. In Thailand, a replanting scheme has been in operation since 1951, and has replaced old trees with high-yield clones on about 6% of the planted area. The admittedly sluggish programme has been intensified this year, but the results have not yet been published by the Ministry of Agriculture. The benefits of replanting will not, in any case, be apparent until most of the new clones come into production five to seven years after germination.

Diversification and modernization are among the most encouraging aspects of Thai agriculture. Paradoxically, the impetus to switch to other crops may be given by the very prosperity of the rice

sector. Dr. T.H. Silcock, of the Australian National University, has produced cogent arguments that the rice export tax has indirectly subsidized other farming and economic activities. The tax — which is about 35% of the f.o.b. value of rice shipments, and which provides over 10% of the government's total revenues — weighs most heavily on the farmers who grow rice exclusively. In effect, the rice premium transfers about 5% of rice-growers' income to other rural producers, mainly in the form of development projects.

Laosomy structured mobility

Another, more obvious, influence has been the price incentives in foreign markets. The enormous increase in the output of kenaf in 1967 was the result of crop failures in Pakistan, and consequent high world prices. Maize expansion is partly due to the rapid growth of the Japanese market. Rubber responded, after some delay, to the high prices prevailing during the Korean war. Other factors which have benefited both the new and the old crops are increased irrigation, more and better roads, improved plant varieties and increased use of fertilizer.

These are the secular influences on Thai agriculture. Behind all of them lies the attitude of mind of the Thai farmer; a factor too rarely considered by economists. A sociologist with a profound knowledge of Thai village society describes it as "loosely structured." Individuals move freely from tillage to village, to the towns and back again. Land is regarded as a commodity, not as a status symbol. The **BMJOfif** of the farmers are Theravada Buddhism. They are tolerant and pragmatic. Village communities are not rigidly stratified, nor are they shackled by caste.

Movement from occupation to occupation, up and down the hierarchy was not and is not hindered by birth and other factors. Mobility is sanctioned in the Buddhist system of values, by which status derives from religious merit, acquired in previous lives. Social mobility is thought to be quite natural.

The Thai farmer feels that he lives in a stable, comparatively prosperous society, and that he is free to experiment, to travel and to take risks. It is this which lies at the heart of Thailand's economic strength.

ployment, low agricultural and industrial productivity, high cost of capital, and the growing need for **conserving** the natural resources. . . , (the uncertainty of foreign markets for major exports, the **imperfections** of the marketing and transportation systems, the low level of savings, the lack of skilled manpower and an anachronistic civil service system."

(population growth) rate of over 3% per ; inuain continues, the present population of 30 million will have reached a figure of about 50 million by 1982. . . This rapid increase in population would naturally aggravate the existing basic problem i. making it a more exacting task. Lo raise the standard of living in the years ahead."

birth rate and the trend towards diversification of food crops.

There are several reasons to dispute the M:il[husi;in attitude. The irrigation programme is only one part of the development plan for agriculture. In the first stage of the plan, being implemented this year, (the distribution of improved seeds is being expanded by contracts with se-



Waier for new areas of Irrigation i/t Thailand. Here, a large upsuetm conduit undei construction some years ago as part of the Marty Kiactiar* dam complex on tn\$ Petchbun River tinancett by a \$3.4 million loan from the World Bank.

In short, Thailand has the same general economic profile as other developing nations. At the hc;irt of the interlocking problems is the " MullhuMun squeeze." Again quoting the National Economic Development Board: "If the current

A western economist predicts that the local consumption of rice will rise to meet the production curve and will intersect it between 1973 and 1980. Admittedly, this forecast is hascd on **variable!** such as the growth rate of production, the

lectcd farmers, the agricultural credit system is being revised and improved and agricultural pricing and marketing policies are being reorganized to offer stronger incentives to farmers,

On the subject of the birth rate, figures

We must export

says a leading economist

from the third world:

It is in the long-term interest

of the developed countries

that we export not just raw materials

but, increasingly,

manufactured goods

by **MMLAM DATTA**

International cooperation for economic development comprises three different but interrelated activities. It involves aid in the form of capital from the developed in the underdeveloped countries; a changed pattern of international trade; and transfer of knowledge, which is a somewhat wider term than technical assistance.

It is now recognized by most economists that there is no question as to whether agriculture or industry should come first in the process of economic development. What is necessary is to maintain a certain proportion between these two sectors, a proportion which itself changes in the course of development.

If we want to put our idea in somewhat more precise form, it can only be done under **Warranted** assumptions. If a country does not depend upon imported foodstuffs to a significant degree, the rate of growth of the marketable surplus of food within that country will determine the permissible rate of growth of its industrial sector. Whichever sector develops at less than this warranted rate

of growth will be a candidate for **priority** attention. Strictly speaking, it is not so much a question of priority as of correct proportion.

In developing countries with a high density of population, there is a special reason for expecting agriculture to lag behind and thus become an obstacle to the overall growth of the economy. Economic development involves, among other things, a process of transformation of the technological basis of society. But new knowledge and new techniques of production do not penetrate all sectors of the economy with equal ease. Experience in the developing countries shows that the introduction of advanced techniques is easier in the organized sectors of industry and transport than it is in agriculture and allied household activities. Where this is so, the comparatively slow rate of growth of agriculture, particularly of food production, acts as a serious constraint on the attainable rate of growth for the economy as a whole.

The experience of India illustrates the point. In all such cases, agriculture calls for special attention if growth is to be achieved without crisis.

The argument so far is independent of whether the developing countries can depend on primary products for increasing

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their exports sufficiently rapidly. It is well known that the growth of demand in the developed countries for primary products (exclusive of **petroleum**) is slowing down. This is due to certain characteristics of the income elasticity of demand for food at existing levels of per capita income in these countries, new possibilities of achieving economy in the use of raw materials and more extended use of synthetics.

But before going further into the question of trade with developed countries, we must consider the question of trade with the developing countries themselves.

Double dependence on the USA

In the trade between the developing countries as a whole and the United States of America, the first among developed

of America for food and manufactured goods creates a special problem for their balance of payments and, ultimately, for their overall rate of growth.

The problem may be relieved, to some extent, by more trade among the developing regions themselves. Some developing countries have a surplus of food and raw materials needed for industrial realization. The case of Thailand has already been mentioned, and it would be easy to multiply instances. Side by side, there are other developing countries which are in a position to export an increasing range of manufactured goods. India is a case in point.

Among the developing regions, however, it should be possible to arrange an extended exchange of surpluses of food, raw materials and manufactured articles. Regional economic cooperation and bilateral agreements across regions may help achieve this. It is a task awaiting fulfillment, which must receive a great deal more attention in the coming decade.

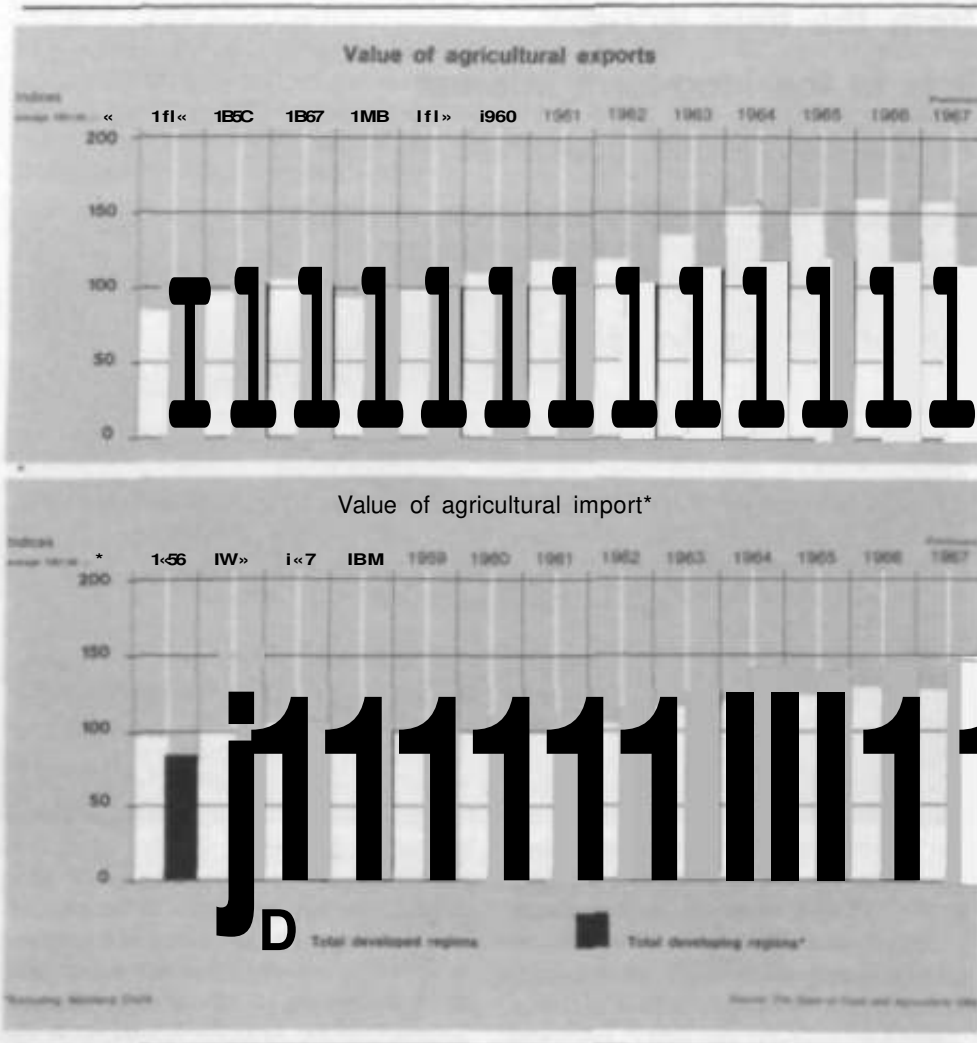
Returning to the question of trade between the developing and the developed countries, there is a general feeling in many developed countries that the third world should specialize in primary production and very little sympathy for the idea that they should try to develop their industry too.

This attitude is perhaps not quite so prevalent as it was; but it persists, even if in a less emphatic form, and it manifests itself in the tariff policy of the developed countries when they let raw materials from Africa, Asia and Latin America come in freely, but impose import duties and other restrictions on manufactured goods from these same regions.

It is well known that when such discrimination is practised the effective rate of many import duties is considerably higher than the nominal rate. For instance, if the value added at the manufacturing stage is 25% of the value of the final product, and if the nominal rate of import duty is 12%, the effective protection enjoyed by manufacturers in the importing country is more like 50%.

Long-term interests of both

That the developed countries can practise such protectionism against the developing countries — a reversal of the original idea — that they can do this



Individual developing countries still rely on primary products and are increasing their exports fairly rapidly, as in the case of Thailand, not to mention those countries which make a fortune out of petroleum. But if the developing regions, as a whole, are to increase their export earnings from the developed countries to pay for their necessary imports of capital goods and other essential commodities, they will have to depend increasingly on the export of a variety of manufactured and semi-manufactured goods.

countries in the world today, there is one special feature that needs to be noted: the underdeveloped world is dependent on the U.S.A. for food as well as industrial goods. This is in sharp contrast with the situation before world war when Britain, the most developed country of that earlier period, supplied manufactured articles to the developing regions but depended on them for food and raw materials.

The double dependence of the developing countries today on the United States

apparently with a good conscience, is only explicable in terms of an economic philosophy which is not very sympathetic to the whole process of industrialization of the underdeveloped countries.

Uui this is a wrong philosophy, It would be in the long-term interest of both halves of the world if the developing countries could expand their exports of manufactured goods.

Mark**a needed to pay off mid

Capital and technical assistance front the developed countries should flow into the export industries of the developing countries so as to secure higher labour productivity and necessary market connections.

This may seem like demanding too much of the developed countries. If the developing countries succeed in increasing their sales of manufactured articles (like textiles, motor cars and products of light engineering industries) in the markets of the developed countries, this may create temporary unemployment in the importing countries and call for a structural reorganisation of the labour force, which is never a painless process.

It may be too much to expect the developed countries to assist in this process. Yet, in the long run, all countries stand to gain. Structural transformation is taking place all the time within any dynamic economy. If this is true of national economics, it must also be true for the world economy.

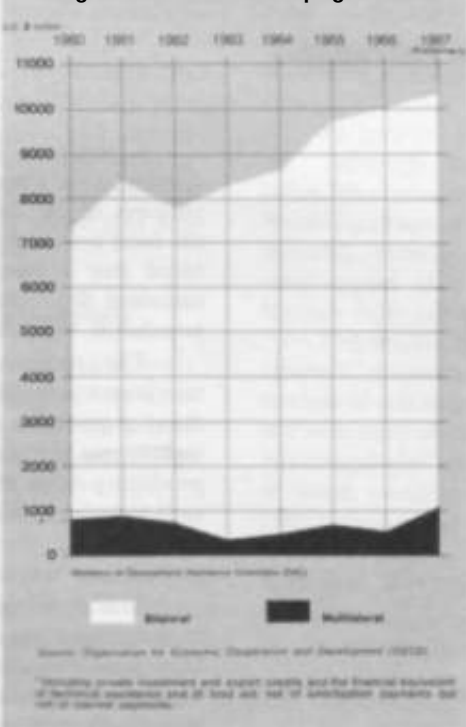
Within the national economy, new techniques and new commodities render old industries obsolete. The consequent readjustment is accepted as it is seen to be necessary for growth. In the world economy, development in one part calls for readjustment in another. If the developed countries show reluctance to accept this, the underdeveloped countries will still develop but the process will be more painful. The developing countries will, in that case, incline towards the direction of autarchy and dictatorship and the pattern of world economic exchange will be distorted. In the long run, all countries will lose.

Those who pretend to be positively interested in world economic development should also be ready to pay the price of development. The developed countries show themselves ready, some more than others, to pay this price in the

form of aid and loans to the developing countries. But it is not logical to agree to aid and yet remain hostile to the reopening of world trade that development requires.

Unless the developing countries can strengthen their export industries and steadily increase their exports to the developed countries, aid can never be repaid. This impulse to aid itself is bound to weaken, and other complications are bound to arise, unless aid is combined with a process of change in the structure of the world economy, making it possible

Foreign aid to developing countries



sufficient aid to be repaid and, eventually, to cease.

There is also a basic difficulty of the process of international transfer of knowledge which has to be laid bare before cooperation in this field can show maximum results. Some people in the developed countries and in the poorer countries are to apply this knowledge to the problems of the poorer countries. But this is a wrong idea. Knowledge is universal in a certain sense; but there is a true and a false conception of the universality of knowledge as an instrument of practical change. In agricul-

ture, seeds, fertilizers and other inputs have to be adjusted to the nature of the soil and the climate.

In a wider sense, this is true of economic life as a whole. The knowledge that exists in the developed countries has grown in response to, and in adjustment with, the material endowments, social requirements and the cultural climate of those countries.

In the developing countries, where social requirements and the cultural climate are different, the knowledge needed for development is also different.

The pressure of population and the extent of underemployment in some of the developing countries are significantly greater today than they were in the western countries on the eve of the industrial revolution.

There are also fewer outlets for surplus population. This changed situation cannot be met adequately on the basis of existing technology. It is not enough simply to transfer knowledge to the poorer regions of the world as though knowledge were like minted coins.

Scientific self-reliance

The developing countries can, of course, learn from the more advanced countries. Yet what is basically required is that people in the less developed countries develop habits of scientific self-reliance, of facing their own peculiar problems with the confidence that science can help, and of competence in applying the methods of science.

Probably nothing else is more important (or sustained economic development than the development of international technical education and other educational programs should be judged by this standard.

In other words, they should be judged and assessed not so much in terms of how they have solved some specific problem in a backward country, or helped to implement some particular project, as in the extent to which they have created a tradition-bound people.

If transformation of the technological basis of society is a primary physical requirement in the less developed countries, then the creation of its psychological counterpart in the minds of men is equally essential.

Today's sophisticated technology is using petroleum as a base for protein. Can the tables be turned to produce new industrial products from agricultural raw materials?

Can rice replace petroleum?

by P. A. FQRTHOMML



Agriculture, long treated as the scullery maid, has been restored to a place at the banquet table by the leaders and planners of the developing countries, at least in the case of the food producing sector. Indeed, it is now generally recognized that a country cannot expect to achieve rapid and sustained development unless it is largely able to feed its own population from its own crop production.

This renewal of interest in farm produce is reflected in current activities of the international organizations and those of governments and private associations. Unfortunately, it does not yet extend to that part of the agricultural sector producing crops other than food. This activity is still considered inferior to the industrial goods and services sectors. We still think that it is a misfortune for a country to have an economy based on crop cultivation and animal husbandry.

This is a regrettable state of affairs, especially when it occurs in the less advanced countries. Although such countries may, one day, be able to reach the level of the more developed nations, at present they cannot hope to achieve industrialization on the scale required to allow them to live on the production and trade of manufactured goods.

While the possibilities of establishing various industries in such areas should not be neglected, we should also consider the prospects open to agricultural products if suitable policies were applied.

A rapid growth in food needs is expected in the developing countries, due both to population increases and to the demand for quantitative and qualitative improvements in nutrition. This has led to a searching examination of the various ways of increasing food production.

One form of diversification suggested for countries with a single cash crop is its partial replacement by various food crops. For other plant produce, and even for some food commodities such as sugar and coffee, the future must be viewed in terms of production surpluses, income-earning capacity, fluctuating and unprofitable prices, competition from the developed countries and the long-term trend inward substitute products, particularly synthetics.

P.A. FQRTHOMML, formerly Director-General for Technical Assistance, is currently Director-General for Economic and Social Development.

The paradoxical situation is that, basically, there is no over-production in the world, only underconsumption. All such problems result from the inadequacy of present markets because the overwhelming majority of mankind has not yet reached an acceptable standard of living. Therefore it can be assumed that economic development will lead to increased consumption, a reduction of surpluses and, eventually, to a balanced supply-and-demand.

In fact, as various development plans are put into effect, measures should be taken to ensure that newly-established processing facilities do not lack raw materials. Production statistics show that — apart from food, for which there are already almost no remaining surpluses — a 10 to 25% increase in consumption for most other basic products would create problems of shortages.

If the two billion inhabitants of the developing countries were to attain a standard of living only half as high as that of the 800 million "developed" peoples, the world's consumption of goods would be at least doubled.

The plans and policies of both the industrial and the developing countries should take into account the fact that the demand for food and other raw materials will rapidly increase as recent development efforts begin to produce results. And, despite the possible short-term advantages offered by competing mineral-based products, it is agriculture that will be increasingly called upon to fill this need.

Increasing world demand for raw materials

Agricultural production can act as an accelerator of overall development as it increases, provided appropriate policies are applied. Such policies should be aimed at increasing both the producing and purchasing power of the farm masses so that they create sizable **markets** for local industries.

Some of the methods for achieving these goals are of a national character, others lie in the sphere of international relations. National measures, varying from one country to another, may involve: land reform; financing of farm enterprises; agricultural credit; farmers' cooperatives; organization of transport; marketing and distribution to consumers; vocational and occupational training; agricultural production requisites; and experimental research. The development of agro-allied industries will also be needed and can provide a reasonable way for many countries to begin industrialization.

Two types of action will be needed at the level of international relations. Firstly, the third world must be offered support and assistance by the developed countries, consisting of easier access to their markets, financial aid, and technical and material assistance. Secondly, a new form of international trade must be created among the developing countries themselves.

It is often said that these developing nations are not mutually complementary in their various natural products but are, rather, natural rivals. This statement is too general, and is becoming less valid as such countries emerge from a primitive living standard. There are wide disparities between the degrees of progress reached by the various developing countries today, over and above differences due to climate and natural resources. It is precisely these differences that must be used to their best advantage.

It is up to the more advanced of the developing countries to take the lead. This means improving their industrial production and prices so that they can offer capital goods, implements and commodities to their neighbors under advantageous conditions.

Steps must be taken to lower frequently excessive tariff and customs barriers between developing countries. Such countries should also inaugurate policies aimed at creating reciprocal purchasing power through regular surveys of export/import possibilities between the developing countries.

Such policies would enable the semi-industrialized countries to become important clients and suppliers, buying more primary products and supplying more finished goods of all types every year. It would also speed up agricultural expansion and development as a whole, possibly beyond all growth predictions.

If we look further ahead to a more distant future we must assign even greater importance to the expansion and improvement of agricultural production. We can expect an increasing world demand for raw materials, especially chemicals.

At present, synthetic products are mainly derived from oil. Although the known and estimated reserves are enormous, this resource is nevertheless not renewable and will become exhausted at an increasing rate as overall production demands increase. Coal could replace it, but the same argument applies while costs are high. Conditions are favourable, for raw materials of plant origin to come into their own.

The decline of such materials before the onslaught of synthetic products in recent years is due to the enormous amount of scientific and technical research that has been carried out to ensure the fullest utilization of petroleum by-products. No comparable effort has been made for plant products, most of which continue to be used without undergoing any significant **metamorphosis**. The few exceptions, such as cellulose, or soya casein in the manufacture of plastics, have had only a modest development compared with competing synthetic products.

National and international plant research

International organizations, national governments and private enterprise should agree to launch a research effort comparable to the one which has so favoured the development of petrochemicals.

Such international endeavour would aim at the introduction of new processing methods for the utilization of plant materials, either without basic changes in their physiological structure, or with profound modifications which could turn them into basic stock for new synthetic products.

This type of research would create vast new outlets for traditional production and would break the ground for the introduction of new raw materials to supply leading chemical industries.

The benefits of such a venture would not be confined to farmers alone. It would assure a continuity of development and the probability of new raw materials, natural or synthetic, when those now employed become exhausted. It is by no means too soon to begin organizing this common effort in the interests of all.

JORDAN

• New irrigation possibilities in Jordan uncovered

The search for underground water in Jordan, being carried out as a UN Development Programme project by a joint FAO/Jordanian team, has resulted in major finds of water for industrial and agricultural uses, as well as drinking water for both animals and humans.

The project, which began in late 1967, has been extended twice at government request. The second amend-

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ment asks the team to help in developing pilot irrigated agriculture using these new groundwater resources over a 2,500 acre area. To date, 78 wells have been completed under the project and six more are now being drilled.

The latest findings of underground water have aroused the interest of several bilateral aid organizations and have led to West German aid and a UK financial assistance in locating areas of soils suitable for irrigation develop-

ment in the Karak-Maan area, toward the fabled city of Petra,

FRANCE

• Man's inhumanity to man

Scientists from over 50 countries met at Unesco headquarters in Paris in September to search for ways of protecting the earth's fast-disappearing natural environment.

The intergovernmental conference of experts met to suggest a scientific basis for rational use and conservation of the resources of the biosphere (the sphere of living organisms inhabiting the earth, the aqueous vapour which envelops the earth, and the atmosphere itself). Discussion focused on broad problems including the threat to the planet's resources posed by population growth.

Food production in the poorer countries can grow faster than their populations if the necessary efforts are made, said A.H. Boerma, FAO's director-general in his Conference address. But growing numbers of people would mean more unemployed drifting from the farms to the cities. Progress in some other economic sectors might well have to be given a lower priority than the need to produce food.

"Current demographic trends seem destined to lead to the memorable growth of... marginal populations," he

said. "I believe that this is the gravest problem facing the world of today and tomorrow."

Among the suggestions offered at the conference was the need to preserve natural areas as a 'gene pool' or 'gene fund'. It is these areas that provide the raw materials for breeding domesticated species: it is here that the search is carried on for medicinal drugs or chemicals to control weeds and pests. When a new disease attacks wheat or rice or cattle, the scientist tries to breed a new resistant strain. To do this, he must go back to the wild representatives of the species.

A strong case is made in another paper for game-farming and game-ranching in Africa and Australia to supplement and even substitute for the age-old tendency to destroy wildlife and replace it with domestic livestock. Experience has shown that, under certain conditions, wild animals make much better use of available plant resources and can yield more meat per acre than 'traditional' species introduced into game-lands.

A paper on pollution prepared by WHO states "Human infestations with worms, transmitted mainly by polluted soil, are so massive that over half the food produced and consumed is metabolized by the parasitic worm population infesting man. Half the work of the sick peasantry goes in the cultivation of food for the worms that make them sick."

The conference's underlying purpose was to bring both scientists and governments closer to the biosphere by creating a climate of 'ecological thinking'. For the scientists, this implies a breakdown of barriers between disciplines, for governments, it means moral and financial backing for conservation programmes and biological research to put the environment to more efficient use.



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GUYANA

Greenheart exports being pushed

Guyana is the only source of greenheart — a very durable hardwood used particularly for marine piling and port decking — in the world. Guyana's exports of greenheart have slumped recently due to strong competition from other woods and this has, in turn, led to price-cutting among the exporters.

FAO forest products marketing officers, working with a UNDP forest industries development survey team have helped to set up an exporting consortium to stop this price decline and to boost exports. An agreement has been reached on prices and production quotas and an attempt is being made to standardize lumber grading.

Members of the team have also helped to interest a North American plywood and manufacturing company in a proposed joint venture with a Guyanese logging and sawmilling company; and in boosting chip exports to Japan.

THAILAND

Freshwater fish production to be expanded

The Thai Department of Fisheries is undertaking three projects to promote the freshwater fishing industry in the northeastern part of the country. Eight new inland training stations will be opened to promote and expand spawning. In addition the fishing industry in the Ubol Ratana Dam area is to be developed. The present catch at this reservoir amounts to about 1,000 tons annually but it is hoped to increase the catch fourfold.

More crabs and mud crabs

Two locust specialists are being sent to Thailand under the auspices of the UN Development Programme to study the effectiveness of various



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One of the main aims is to interest the children of farm families in agriculture and to encourage them to take up a farming career. Young farm people must have their parents' permission to participate in the programme. SMC* J964 membership has risen to 13,000, with 530 societies and 1.0BQ voluntary teters.

insecticides and to improve survey and control measures as well as to investigate the behaviour and ecology of the Bombay locust, now widely spread in Southeast Asia. The locust has caused yearly infestations in Thailand since 1962.

Because the locust is so remote and difficult to locate, and because the development of control measures undertaken so far is not adequate to suppress outbreaks of locusts in the desert (this is a major issue).

UNITED KINGDOM

Royalty introduced for H*mr plant variolimm

Following the National Institute of Agricultural Botany, farmers in Great Britain are using Joss Cambier, a new winter wheat originally developed in France, which gives a 10% higher yield and greater disease

resistance than Capote, the farmers' favourite for the past decade.

Last year, payment of royalties to UK plant breeders was introduced; with an exceptionally popular variety a breeder can now look forward to substantial sums of money for his efforts.

One of the private breeders in the UK is that the future lies with dwarf wheat varieties which are able to stand up to heavy fertilizer applications and with far better resistance to the plagues of blotch, rusts and mildews which are present in the soil of something like a quarter of the total yield.

Big avian with pathicide

Several specific instances where plant protection has brought about substantial increases were quoted at the 1st International Plant Pathology Congress, held in London in July.

Banana growers in Mexico are saving \$100,000 a year through improved spraying methods recommended by an FAO expert in Guinea, a replanting programme has saved the coffee-growing industry which was being depleted by quick-spreading fungus. By 1970, Guinea is expected to be producing 50,000 tons of coffee worth \$18 million annually. The banana export trade in Taiwan is expected to achieve savings of up to \$9 million a year because of experimental work conducted by another FAO expert on the use of a new fungicide to control post-harvest decay.

MALAWI

Crash programme to increase sugar output

Although 4,500 acres of bush have been cleared, irrigated and put under sugar cane, Malawi's sugar consumption is still outpacing production. The Sugar Corporation of Malawi has therefore decided on a crash programme to bring a further 2,000 acres under cultivation in time for the 1969 harvest. This will increase the estimated annual yield from 24,000 tons in 1968 to 35,000 tons in 1969.

ITALY

World's finest breed for cattle production

A practical plan by Hereford cattle breeders in 18 countries to help bridge the production gap to the developed countries by creating a beef economy was completed in August at FAO's Home headquarters.

The 17 member countries at the World Hereford Council have agreed to donate doses of semen to large numbers of indigenous cattle in parts of Africa, Asia and Latin America can be artificially inseminated. FAO has agreed to distribute semen to countries requesting it,

and to help in training personnel from developing nations.

More than 100,000 doses have already been promised, but the countries with the largest herds — UK USA and the USSR (an associate member) — have yet to decide the size of their donations.

AUSTRALIA

• Firm look at new world soil map

The first draft & a new world soil map showing the distribution and quality of 79 major soils in more than 50 countries was presented to the 9th International Congress of Soil Science held in Adelaide during August.

The new map a product of the joint FAO Unesco world soil map project has taken eight years to produce. The map uses an internationally-agreed language of soil nomenclature and soil deli-

COINS FOR DEVELOPMENT



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So far uvn X countries have staled that they will take part in fAOt com plan by bringing out cams which will increase public m world food and agricultural development.

Thfough It* agms coins /rave shown SCGtes O/ sowing, ptough-hv*m*tmg attc tuning. but this is the first time that nations mdID cooperate in using lr>e:r carnage as an educational tool for agricultural development.

U.S.A.

• Man mgainmt nature

The Ford Foundation recently made grants of about \$4 million to eight universities to finance programmes in ecology. Ecological research has been given impetus by an ever-growing volume of documentation on the way in which man threatens the balance of nature. "Our one-problem, one-solution approach," said Gordon Harrison of the Ford Foundation recently, "inevitably courts disaster because the environment is so complex."

Biologist Paul Ehrlich and



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What's new in science and technology

CZECHOSLOVAKIA: Scientists at the Prague Institute of Entomology have established that male insects doped with a chemical which resembles juvenile hormone transfer enough of the substance during mating to sterilize the insects which hatch from eggs laid by the female. The synthetic substance also causes permanent sterility in the female when applied to the body surface in quantities of less than a millionth of a gramme. They also found that up to 5% of the chemical applied to the male is transferred to the female during mating which can be sufficient to render her permanently sterile.

BRAZIL: A new bread, made of a mixture of wheat flour and local maize starch, supplemented with milk powder and local soybean flour, has been successfully produced by the Tropical Center for Food Research and Technology.

UNITED KINGDOM: Plaice, sole, oysters, clams and prawns are being artificially reared at the Lowestoft fishery research laboratory; the problem is the high cost of feed for the fish. Herbivorous fish — such as the grey mullet which feeds mainly on algal slimes — has been suggested as a way of avoiding high costs.

CUBA: Sugar is being used to an increasing extent as a major source of food energy in cattle production. Cuban researchers are using final molasses for 73% of the dry matter in Zebu-cattle diet with daily gains averaging 0.78 kg. and carcass yields at 57% of live weight.

INDIA: Synthetic lysine, one of the protein-building amino-acids, has been shipped from a 300-ton per year factory in the Netherlands to India in the form of lysine-enriched wheat flour.

ISRAEL: A pilot plant to extract protein from cotton seed for human use is to be built at the Technion Institute, Haifa. Already, cotton seed is being used to feed cattle; but cattle are not affected by gossypol — a toxic anti-metabolic factor of the resultant protein — which will have to be eliminated for human consumption.

NEW ZEALAND: Laboratory experiments have shown that rats can survive more than a month on a diet constituted of chemically-treated wool as the only source of protein. Wool contains 60% protein and the 11 essential amino-acids but the problem so far has been to process the wool into an edible form.

HONG KONG: New beverages using cheap protein sources provide one avenue to better diets. Monsanto Company is planning to manufacture and sell throughout Asia a highly popular Hong Kong soybean drink with a satisfactory amino-acid balance. Meanwhile, Coca Cola has launched a high-protein beverage in Brazil which is chocolate-flavoured and soybean-based, containing both vitamins and protein. In El Salvador, Pillsbury Company has just completed consumer testing of a new high-protein soft drink made from corn meal, cottonseed and nut meal.

UNITED STATES: Bacteria contains a high proportion of protein (dried cells contain 78%). Two U.S. researchers have been feeding bacteria to rats and have found that it is an adequate source of protein for extended periods when at low concentrations in the diet.

LEBANON: A six-year trial of a new protein-rich powdered food — made of chick peas and wheat, with supplementary skim milk and bone ash — developed at the American University of Beirut, has just been successfully completed and has entered the distribution stage.

JAPAN: 4,000 tons of seaweed is grown and eaten as human food in Japan each year. Considerable research on the more refined processing of algae is being carried out in Japan and Czechoslovakia to see whether this relatively unexploited source of food can be put into greater use.

NETHERLANDS: An insulated plastic, developed by the Delft plastics laboratory of Royal Dutch Shell, which is brilliantly white in daytime and completely black in terms of night-time wavelengths, is performing as a very efficient dew-collector for small-scale irrigation purposes.

HAWAII: An infra-red radiometer is being used by the Geological Survey Section of the US Department of the Interior to locate underground reserves of water in the Hawaiian Islands.

CANADA: Scientists at the Halifax fisheries research laboratory have found that lobster can be treated with irradiation to keep it fresh on ice for almost twice as long as normal.

• The often-repeated tale that music can help plants to grow has been proved right by a University of Ottawa experiment. It was found that wheat seedlings exposed to 5,000 cycle sound tripled in weight and developed four times as many shoots as normal.

SOUTH AFRICA: Open storage water reservoirs in arid areas can lose 94% of their water by evaporation over a three-year period. The National Mechanical Engineering Institute is investigating a technique of packing the reservoirs with coarse sand to slow down the rate of evaporation.

U.S.S.R.; Various zoo-geographic studies have been carried out recently aimed at transplanting fish species into a particular environment. Having transferred hump-backed salmon from the Pacific to the Atlantic, and flounders from the Baltic to the Caspian, it is now suggested that herring should be introduced into the Antarctic Ocean and that the milk fish, *Chanos chanos*, should be brought from the west to the east coast of Mexico.

AUSTRALIA: The effective protein intake of sheep is sharply reduced by the degradation of protein by rumen microbes. It was found some years ago that injection of protein directly into the sheep's stomach resulted in a 200% increase in wool growth compared with a 15% increase when the same amount of protein was eaten by the sheep in the normal way. Experiments are under way to protect the protein against the microbes and some success has been reached using casein and other protein-rich foodstuffs treated with formalin.

• Pale green loaves of bread enriched with protein from crushed grass — developed by the Australian government's research centre at Buba — are being used to raise the nutritional standards of the inhabitants of Papua and New Guinea.

• A quick method of making hay has been perfected in which the grass is sprayed with paraquat, a bipyridyl chemical, which rapidly desiccates the green plant tissue and immobilizes the nutrients. High-quality grass can thus be stored as standing hay.

ARGENTINA: A killer-weed, *Solarium malocoxylon*, has been identified by the Instituto Nacional de Tecnología Agro-Pecuario as the cause of a disease which has been killing cattle along the Argentine coast for many years.

VIRGIN ISLANDS: Scientists from the Lamont Geological Observatory have suggested a method of condensing moisture from the winds. They have designed an installation for the island of St Croix in the Virgin Islands in which cold ocean water is pumped through a condenser 600 feet long and 30 feet high. It interrupts the onshore winds and turns the moisture into drinking water.

ITALY: Research has shown that the foot-and-mouth virus in tissues of experimentally-infected animals can be inactivated by a sterilizing dose of radiation: products successfully treated include meat, bones, glands, hair and hides. This technique has also been successfully employed in Austria to eliminate anthrax from baled goats hides.

AUSTRIA: Tomatoes are being grown in a wholly-controlled self-regulating environment that automatically provides the plants with optimum growing conditions. Information stored in computers is used to guide the plants in their successive stages through a series of tower glasshouses.

WEST GERMANY: A new process for dehydrating solutions, emulsions and pastes has been developed at the University of Bonn. It is known as diffusion drying and operates by blowing tiny bubbles of dry gas through a wet mixture, drawing out the water vapour and leaving a dry porous mass.

psychology Jonathan Freedman (both of Stanford University. California) have been granted \$470,000 to study the effects of overcrowding in cities. "We're really very good at sustaining human life," Freedman says, "and so the population continues to grow. The question is: How much farther can we go?"

• Fish protein concentrate coming into market

Fish protein concentrate is being mass-produced by a new plant in the fishing port of New Bedford, Mass., and being shipped overseas, chiefly to South America, for animal consumption. The plant will also produce a concentrate approved for human consumption overseas.

James S. Tolin, the firm's president, has said: "Dog food, which already is being used as human food in poverty areas in the United States, has 90% water content and is not a good buy. But by mixing one part fish concentrate with 16 parts of rice, you have the protein equivalent

of a pound of beef steak. The mixture is Odourless and colourless and can be mixed with wheat, corn, tortillas, soybean flours, soups, sauces and so on.

The U.S. Food and Drug Administration, conceding that its reluctance to give full approval to fishmeal for human consumption is based on aesthetic objections, ruled earlier this year that the concentrate might be marketed in packages no larger than one pound and marked 'for household use only.'

• Conference on dryland farming

A worldwide conference on techniques for wresting more food from the vast areas of the world where rainfall is so scarce or erratic that soils are classified as 'dryland' will be held in Minors and Montana, United States from 17-23 August 1969.

The international conference on mechanized dryland farming is to be sponsored by Deere and Co., and will be held under the auspices

of FAO's Freedom from Hunger Campaign. Montana was chosen for the field demonstrations because its climatic conditions closely approximate those found in dryland areas and because in various parts of that state in August it is possible to see tillage, seeding and harvesting being carried out.

CAMEROON

• Stopping use of raw material

One of the examples of senseless trade patterns which Rene Dumont cites in his *L'Afrique est ma patrie*, is that of the west African country which exports high-quality hardwood in unfinished form and imports prefabricated houses made from the same wood.

In Cameroon, two young carpenters have started their own personal crusade against this sort of waste. Several years ago, fresh from technical training, they pooled their resources and set up

the Modern Furniture Company under a tree with only a few crude tools at their disposal. They built up a steady business and, with the help of a \$7,000 loan from the West Cameroon Development Agency, moved into rented premises.

This year, Fonds national pour la coopération au développement (Belgium) has given them \$5,200 to buy tools and woodworking machines and to help pay new workers being trained in the workshops. There are now 34 workers on the labour force and the company has moved into a new building.

SENEGAL

• More feed for cattle

Senegal is, above all, a pastoral and agricultural country. Two thirds of the livestock population are found in northern Senegal where harsh ecological conditions and traditional systems of cattle husbandry have pre-

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vented the local population from rising above subsistences level.

The government has established a network of deep boreholes. Simply providing mom water for the cattle, however, did not markedly improve the situation: the dry season lasts nine months and the scarce vegetation around the water holes is quickly consumed. There is also a marked deficiency of minerals in the grasses during the dry season.

An FAO pasture and forage expert has been working in this region since the early 1960s conducting forage trials and encouraging the pastoralists to grow a hay crop for feed during the dry season.

The original FFHC forage improvement project was adopted by Entraide et Fraternités (\$5,200) and an attended project has recently been adopted by Misereor (\$21,500). Two pilot centres will be established so that local personnel can be trained in haymaking and cattle feeding and in the use of mineral supplements. A workshop will be established at each centre to instruct pastoralists in the maintenance and repair of animal draft equipment.

LESOTHO

• *ViUaQB water mupphnt* built by mmlt'hvln*

Some 5,000 inhabitants of twelve villages situated in the heart of the mountainous area of Lesotho now have a modern water-supply system which they installed themselves. This system has provided the villages with fresh water throughout the year even during recent droughts. It has relieved the womenfolk from the burden of drawing water from far-off springs for household purposes as well as helping agriculture.

Eight additional villages are completing similar water systems and eight further villages will soon begin work.

When the entire project is completed, twenty-eight villages will have new water systems supplying over 10,000 people. The cost is being met on a pound for pound basis by the Catholic Relief Services.

CANADA

• *Food and p&mce dec* Imrmtlan*

The Agricultural Institute of Canada now affiliated with the Canadian Hunger Foundation recently adopted &



Dr. Howard L. Trueman

policy declaration on 'Food and Peace' which calls on the Canadian government to strengthen its aid programme, particularly through multilateral sources.

The declaration lists some basic prerequisites for development emphasizing, in particular, the importance of clearly-defined goals. It recommends more effective use of known pest control and preservation techniques and greater use of fruit and vegetable production for home and local consumption.

The declaration is, in large part, due to the efforts of Dr. Howard L. Trueman who recently retired after seven years as executive director of the Canadian Hunger Foundation. In December 1967 Dr. Trueman was awarded the Canada Centennial Medal for 'distinguished service to the nation.'

Desert + Nuclear Power + Sea

Nuclear power, empty desert land and desalted water extracted from the sea may combine to become one of the great agricultural techniques that will help feed the world of tomorrow.

As an indication of the importance of this futuristic process, the director of the Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Dr. Alvin M. Weinberg, when he appeared before the U.S. Senate Foreign Affairs Committee last year, said that one nuclear powered, agro-industrial complex producing 610 million gallons of desalinated water a day and linked to a farming area of 180,000 acres, could feed three million people.

These figures were reached following a special Oak Ridge study on the technical and economic feasibility of these complexes to provide power and food. The team had particularly studied the possible use of nuclear reactors in the empty, dry coastal areas of Baja California, Gujarat, Peru, Australia and the Sinai-Neev region, all of which have at their disposal lots of desert and sea-water and little else.

Dr. Weinberg revealed some other interesting figures in his testimony to the Senate. For every million gallons of water pumped out through the complex, the plants would turn out 2.0 megawatts of electricity as a by-product of the water. While the desalinated water was used to irrigate the land, the electricity could in its turn be harnessed to set off an immense variety of industrial processes.

For instance, through the electrolysis of water to produce hydrogen, the large-scale manufacturing of primary metals and fertilizers could be launched. A large nuclear complex could manufacture enough ammonia fertilizer to help feed 20 million people. Another use for the hydrogen would be to replace coke in the manufacture of iron from iron ore.

A more direct use of the electricity would be to convert phosphate rock, which is very abundant in some parts of the Near East, into the more transportable phosphorous. Or where bauxite is available electricity could be used to convert it into aluminium.

However, the major obstacle to the use of desalinated sea water in agriculture, although it has come down from five per thousand gallons three years ago to an estimated 30 cents today, it is hoped to reduce it still further within the next 10 years to 10 cents. In the near future, it is estimated that 200 g*Horo would be required to produce one man's daily ration of 2,400 calories. The cost is 3 cents per day.

Although the strata on the peaceful use of the atom has largely been on sea desalination, another American researcher—Professor Perry Stout, who has described how a nuclear complex could tap the underground water resources of the Ganges Plain in India for agriculture and industry. Since in this case the water is already fresh there would be no need for desalting it. Here the power of the atom would be harnessed to supply the electricity to operate thousands of well-tube pumps to bring up the water from underground and bring prosperity to an unprivileged land.

WRIGHT RAIN KNOW HOW TO MAKE THE BEST USE OF LIMITED WATER SUPPLIES that's why the World depends on Wright Rain irrigation systems & equipment.

Wherever food is grown, Wright Rain sprinkler irrigation systems and equipment can help grow more of it, more economically, without relying on natural rainfall. Wright Rain sprinkler irrigation is currently being used in over 70 of the world's food producing countries—proof enough that Wright Rain's internationally experienced design team is capable of producing systems and equipment to meet local demands—making the best use of precious water supplies.

Wright Rain design and manufacture self-contained irrigation systems especially for (the small farmer in developing countries. Simple to set up and operate, these Wright Rain systems can easily be handled by one man.

Wright Rain's design team can provide complete schemes for the irrigation of individual farms however large. Depending on the circumstances and crops to be grown, each Wright Rain system provides the exact amount of water required to achieve maximum economic yields.

Wright Rain specialise in supplying large quantities of aluminium pipelines, sprinklers, pumps etc. to fulfill the needs of Government Departments of Agriculture ensuring that the right equipment is delivered at the right time and at the right price!

Wright Rain not only produce portable sprinkler irrigation schemes, they are capable of developing whole areas on a 'turnkey project' basis. Field teams make initial surveys and all subsequent work including civil engineering is planned and carried out by their specialists. Supervision continues until the complete irrigation project is operational.



For full information write to:
Wright Rain Limited
Ringwood Hampshire England

AID Off A PERSON At BASIS

The joint Unesco/FFHC gift coupon project has, in its five years existence, distributed \$200,000 to some 78 projects designed to assist rural development and food production in 39 countries.

The programme allows private individuals and groups, especially schools in the developed countries, the chance to contribute directly to small self-help projects such as improved water supplies, nutrition education, rural literacy, improved seeds and equipment for school gardens and so on.



This **East** Pakistan farmer is using a Japanese semi-turning plough purchased with UNESCO gift coupons under an FFHC-financed programme to introduce improved farm implements. **These** are imported from abroad and then used as prototypes for local manufacture.

This year, the gift coupon programme contributed to help 10 of the villagers of Dassa-Zoume, in Dahomey, to help them construct a concrete dam which will provide water to the village during the dry season. The dam, built with both bilateral and multilateral money, means that the villagers will be able to develop vegetable gardens and raise livestock.

In Western Samoa, badly-needed text books are to be provided by the gift coupon programme to the Regional College of Tropical Agriculture. The college, built with the help of funds from the New Zealand FFHC Committee, provides a three year course in general sciences, animal and crop husbandry, agricultural economics and marketing and extension methods.

In Gabon, the programme provides vegetable and fruit seeds to schools and farmers in twelve regions. Local diets are being improved and choice of food crops expanded. More than 2,000 women and girls in the Kingoussou region of the Upper Voie have been taught how to sew by the government workers in the Service d'Éducation Professionnelle féminine, thanks to a gift coupon donation which enabled them to buy cloth.

Indian Agriculture

Studies in Indian
agriculture:
the art of the possible

by H. K. Mahalingam

What is now being increasingly realized by the leading experts of the developing countries are as eager, if not more so, as government officials and the experts to increase productivity. *Studies in Indian Agriculture* is, perhaps, the first book which tries to allocate the responsibility for the lack of adequate progress between the experts, the state, the administration, the social organization, the land tenure system and the farmer himself.

Mr. Mahalingam proceeds systematically, on the basis of first-hand field observations, to explode several myths, about the farmers of the developing countries. Realizing the futility of studying rural areas through living visits, he studied in detail a few villages from different regions of India. He examined the varied aspects of the farmers' universe from the viewpoint of technicians, ministers, economists and planners. The result is this authentic book, full of acute observations. Some of them merit special mention for their purpose of dispelling prejudices about the farmers;

...On extension — "Often, the farmers know more about agriculture than the instructors."

...On fertilisers — "Chemical fertilisers are the most effective, provided there is adequate irrigation. The farmers mortgaged the problem, and it is not generally because of ignorance that they refrain from using chemicals on plots; they are not sure of the water."

...On water — "Influential persons and well-to-do farmers can usually get by without paying, but the poorer peasants are obliged to suffer under the system... Instead of using it all for irrigation for the canals, he (irrigation contractor) withholds

part of it to sell on the black market; as a result, many field channels are defective because too much sand was mixed in with the cement."

...On agricultural administration — "The main handicap is that the team of administrators... is all but swamped by the daily burden of paper work... The problem is not (emphasis ours) that of propagating new methods (extension), of demonstrating the advantages of green manure and superphosphates, and encouraging the peasants with fine words. Rather, the public services deal with such practical matters as irrigation, credit, cement and fertilizers should be made to operate with greater speed and efficiency."

The author concludes that the farmer's protests against inefficiency are fruitless, and states "The farmers are well aware that their protests will seldom come to anything. 'No one listens to us' they say when we ask them why they tolerate such a situation. This should be adequate proof, if it is indeed required, of the fact that increases in productivity can only be achieved through multidimensional efforts by government, technicians and farmers."

While he has been successful in understanding the problems of the farmers of Khandoi — a village in one of the northern states, where he evidently spent a considerable part of his total period of 10 years in India — he appears to have been less successful in this task in other regions, perhaps because he could not spare adequate time for these villages. If he had, he would have been able to make as penetrating a study of cooperatives and land reforms in the southern villages as he has done of the administrative structure of the northern villages.

But the most noteworthy feature, in spite of this minor limitation, is that he has employed a method of enquiry for the sifting and winnowing of data which has to precede action at the field level.

His observations and assessment of the relative importance of technical knowledge, extension methods, supply of inputs, rural institutional framework, and administrative organization in the agricultural planning process are also worthy of note. They are shared by the technocrats who are obsessed with neo-Malthusian theories, and by the visionaries who envisage a bright future in the near future.

At the close, he correctly assesses the

problem in these words: "A close look at the facts leads us to less pessimistic, and also less definite, conclusions, bringing to mind the old alchemists' formula 'Solve et coagula*.'" Is this not refreshing in these days of a plethora of publications and reports giving ready-made and uniform solutions for other peoples' problems?"

S.G. Madhavan

Stadia in Indian Agriculture: The Art of the Possible by Gilbert K. Mahalingam. Published by California Press, Berkeley, California. Pp. 160. \$4.95 (hbk), \$1.95 (pbk). (New edition.)

Projects and Their Appraisal

Two studies of the World Bank

by V.O. Ilir^hman and J..V Kiny Jr.

As experience in the preparation and implementation of development projects* fo^ae* ahead, lac nljcd lino of aktiv) am "u ds foi :hi-uj:ti! are emerging u-hicti are of great :. . . ." "i !^T^NC concerned with development planning.

One is the 'project appraisal' technique furthered especially by the development financing institutions as a tool to select those development initiatives which have the highest qualified risks for, and priority claims to, capital assistance.

The other is the penetration around, beyond and within the project in order to determine its relationship with the country's long-term economic development processes; to discover its own unknown territories: amJ to observe its behaviour during and after the implementation period.

The two lines of activity are, of course, part of one larger evaluation process, some aspects of which have progressed further than others. The 1*0 books provide some insight into the present state of the art and Blake it clear that my much work will still have to be done before the world can be sure that selected development projects represent the best use of resources.

King's book is dedicated exclusively to case studies of World Bank projects in electric power generation, transport and industry.

The work can be classified as a useful, but limited, source of background information for development activities in which the Bank has been particularly active.

Quite a different, and a more exciting, approach is followed by Professor Hirschman. This author likewise uses selected World Bank projects as his basic material, but he crosses project limits and

takes a stance away from particular details in order to analyze project phenomena in a more general way.

While King writes about known aspects of development projects, Hirschman makes it clear that, in fact, very much remains unknown. In his original and highly readable JMC manner, Hirschman outlines a number of important common trends and uncertainties and /ones of ignorance of his country projects.

If one did not know, one would seem difficult to believe that the two books are based on one and the same body of bank experience of the Bank. As it is. Hirschman's thoughtful analysis qualifies the two. implicitly supported by King. The two projects have already been read in conjunction. The two works do identify, as it were, a gap between conventional and new frontier development thinking.

With King's book providing specific details about individual projects and Hirschman outlining the uncertainties and the unknowns, burning questions arise in regard to present development and appraisal techniques, such as: What is a project's role in the perspective of a country's long-term economic development effort? Is the rate of return truly indicative of a project's contribution? Why is it that projects develop so differently, and often more slowly, than foreseen by the best informed people? Can it be expected that the mere multiplication of projects as we know them today will result in generalized economic growth in the countries concerned? How will new approaches be required? What is the exact meaning and scope of such terms as project appraisal, project evaluation, feasibility study, and, in fact, project itself?

[It seems to me that in developing countries such issues begin to get the attention they deserve.

From the point of view of an FAD observer, it is, of course, regrettable that none or so little attention is paid to the problems posed by agricultural development projects. As King points out in his preface, "More than two thirds of the money lent by the Bank has been for projects in the fields of electric power and transport" and "The limited number of projects in the field of agriculture, education, or water supply and sanitation, sectors in which the Bank is currently active, partly because the Bank

has accumulated less experience in these fields."

Hirschman, on his part, does cite agricultural experiences, but in his case four of the five agricultural projects selected involve irrigation developments. It can only be hoped that, in the not too distant future, somebody will venture into the so far virtually unexplored territory of agricultural project evaluation. Let us hope that the author will cover all the more relevant phases and aspects of agricultural development, including the experience obtained by institutions other than the World Bank.

The rapidly-increasing interest of the Bank in agriculture is a relatively new development. It is covered by these books. For this reason, the inadequate coverage of agriculture constitutes no criticism of the authors, King's omission of an analysis of agricultural aspects of electric power or transport projects does, however, seem questionable. As an example, although his review of the (Inn. a Valley of Colombia) power dam development makes a passing reference to, supposedly project-related, activities of flood control, land reclamation, etc., this theme is not developed. Thus, the reader is left uninformed about the agricultural implications of the project. It is at least possible that the analysis would have come out differently if agricultural possibilities had been more fully considered and perhaps included in the project.

Similar problems arise in connection with several of the Ecuador highways, Mexico tollroads and Ethiopia's highway programme. One would have expected to find adequate reference somewhere to the difficulties of appraising the (often largely agricultural) benefits derived from road construction projects. The omission of such analyses additionally limits the usefulness of King's book.

The merit of Hirschman's approach is that he spotlights aspects of development project planning and implementation which still need improvement. In discussing the state of appraisal techniques, he rightfully points out that "a very large portion of the decision-making process" in the development projects surveyed was, in fact, based on "feel, instinct, 'seat-of-the-pants' judgement and the like." Hirschman feels that his book should be regarded "as an attempt to reclaim"

least part of **this** vast domain of intuitive discretion for the usual processes of the *rat'soti raisormant*."

While few people will deny the value of the development project appraisal experience already obtained by the World Bank, Hirschman competently argues *flu* story does not end with *ih* *rience*. Although he does not vindicate **out** for particular **criticism** the rate of return calculation, commended by the **B**, it is quite clear from (the analyst that the heroic **compression** of financial data into a single figure." as he **C** can only be one approximate measure of a project's merits. The rate can be influenced in many different ways in the process of its calculation, only to result quite differently in the implementation period. At the present state of knowledge and experience, one might therefore be able to distinguish projects yielding rates of return in the order of 30% from those producing 5%. but it would be very difficult to differentiate between projects, say, in the zone of 10 to 20% return, which is where many of them fall.

Many of the reasons for the obviously large margin of error or deviation from the expected rate of return figure, are explained refreshingly and in straightforward language by Hirschman.

The latitude for action in the **developing** countries is very large, as this author stresses, and depends upon numerous factors, few of which are as yet quantifiable. Development projects are in fact "voyages of technological and administrative discovery" — that is, after all appraisal work in the current sense of the term **been completed**, and after the financial resources have been committed.

In conclusion, both works should be read by development **students**, but Professor Hirschman's book is much to be preferred to Mr. King's. Indeed, some care should be taken lest the reading, in isolation, of King's book give the reader a false sense of security regarding the **choice** of present project selection and appraisal techniques.

Onno van Trueman

Development Practice Observed. by Albert O. Hirschman.

The Hirschman Imagination, Washington, DC. Oct 1967, 119? p.

Fourteen Drifters and Their Affairs, by John A. King, Jr. (Hirshman's *Writings*), M. J. C. Land, fnf *the* *Development* in *Latin America* of the *IB*, *1967*. *IHO* p.,

Economic Development in Latin America

by Felipe Herrera

The issues of economic development and integration are interdependent for Latin America and constitute the major themes of this collection of public statements.

The speeches, lectures and reports, in whole or in part, by the author Felipe Herrera, the dynamic president of the Inter-American Development Bank, cover the seven years from 1960 to 1966. Herrera presents a chronicle of the economic development of Latin America and of its financing during this period, taken from his annual reports to IDB's governing assembly.

It is a book aimed at selling the bank of which he is president. It stresses the need for accelerating economic and social development in Latin America through adequate schemes of regional integration and international financing if that region is to attain its full **potential** in the future.

He succeeds in giving a forceful and comprehensive picture of the situation, the problems encountered, the possibilities and **achievements** attained during the 1960's when the area first realized the **realization** of the need for its own integration and development.

If he had been able to include his 1967 report to the IDB's ninth governing assembly, delivered in Bogota in April 1968, this book would be a great deal more complete. This was **undoubtedly** an excellent presentation of a proposed **global** strategy to solve Latin American development problems and of **inn** **activities** which, during 1967, lent over **MM** third of the \$7,000 million made available to the area for economic and social development by all external financing **agencies**.

He carefully examines the neg-

ative conditions which threaten future financing for development, contributing in balance-of-payments difficulties to a **new trend** towards trilateral rather than multilateral aid. He analyzes the weaknesses of international trade which tend to a debilitation of the developing countries.

Felipe Herrera's book provides a worthwhile service for Spanish-speaking students of economic development by bringing together widely scattered, but valuable documents on a subject of primary importance. This topic is daily gaining more and more popular interest in Latin America, where some 210 million people are becoming familiar with such terms as economic integration, **Latin-American** free trade association, inter-American common market, regional development and, above all, social change.

Antonio I. Posada

Felipe Herrera for America Latina y el Caribe, by Felipe Herrera. **Guayaquil**, **Banco** **Argentino** **de** **Comercio** **Exterior**, 1967. 170M Argentine peso*, in English (London, etc.).

Agricultural Development and Economic Growth

Edited by
S. J. Johnston and John H. Johnston

At first glance this book appears to be a collection of essays and criticism which add up to something and nothing. The editors have collected together an impressive range of eighteen authors to contribute chapters on various aspects of agricultural development, and then invited an equally distinguished army of twenty-five critics to shoot down the arguments that have been advanced.

Presumably every reader will find something to his liking, but to use this argument would be unfair and would seriously devalue its volume. Paradoxically, the strength of this massive collection lies in just the approach that the editors have taken. For often, single author development economics serve us a vehicle for the not-at-all conventional ideas of the authors. They are, of course, none the worse for that but the danger is that they tend to be accepted by eager student and embryo experts the world over as if they had been offered up with the infallibility of papal dogma in a way in which the author himself would have wished. For students of agricultural development, and indeed practitioners, there is considerable value in having a variety of texts and criticisms bound together in the same volume.

The introduction, contributed by the editor, sets out the theme; behind the volume and its particular emphasis on the fact that industrial and agricultural development are not viable alternatives, for effective development plans must embrace both goals. That such interdependence is necessary, say the editors, is a premise of the book. Its subject is agricultural development, but viewed in the context of overall economic growth.

If this may be commonplace then one only recently fully understood in developing countries, if economists from the United States and other developed countries (raised at Chicago) are to understand it. The government and politicians of developing nations frequently do not and still too often as yet treat agriculture and industry as **worlds** on their own.

The point is made frequently in the famous *JBL*, for example when Earl O. Hejdv commenting on the chapter on the economic of farm UK writes "The structure of the technology **is** structure on the *specU* only if we consider a model of the total economy. With appropriate specialisation of production functions, factor supply, commodity and commodity demand from the *ecU* (Turk) F. Kellogg points it out more strongly in his comment on the chapter on development in the tropics when he writes "Although the authors chose models or their examples from the farming sector of agriculture, comparable ones could have been chosen from the industrial and service sectors. Now in the United States two thirds of the full-time labour in agriculture produces machines, chemicals, electric power, oil and other production goods for farmers."

It is difficult, if not impossible, to do adequate justice in a short review to a book of this size ranging over many subjects but attention should be drawn to four further points which continually shine out from its pages.

The first is the competence of the problems of agricultural development which the book illustrates eloquently by the varied approaches to the range of topics. The contribution, between them, of experience in many different countries and, in the tropics and development work and working relationships, rarely close enough.

Secondly, given the normal problems of implementing agricultural development programmes, there is the added one to be faced in so many developing countries that effective progress is impossible without a high and progress-oriented government.

Thirdly, and the book itself is standing advocate for this, progress is also impossible without **total** collaboration between economists, scientists and all those involved in development work and working relationships are rarely enough.

Fourthly, and it is encouraging to note how many writers realise this, one of the greatest obstacles to progress is the lack of adequate and realistic rural education programmes. We may argue whether tradition or ignorance is the impediment to progress, but proper education still holds the key to progress. The experts may know the solutions but unless they cannot be explained to the man in the plough.

It is not possible to mention by name the contributor and their subjects. However, a posthumous essay on 'Traditional Social Structures as Barriers to Change' by John V. Brewster, to whose memory the book is dedicated, is one of the main chapters on farm income, and programming and a number of others are among the critics. A simple of other contributors, includes Ruj Krishna of the University of Rajasthan, Philip M. Baup of the University of Minnesota, R. I. of the London School of Economics, Kenneth H. Parson of the University of Wisconsin and Theodore W. Schultz of the University of Chicago. Any apparent weighting of academics does not mean that the book is purely theoretical, for many of the contributors have spent much of their time in the field in various parts of the world. The result of a blend of theory with practice helps to give the work a down-to-earth flavour.

It is a book to which all concerned with agricultural development should have access. For it is both useful and stimulating, it will not, however, provide an answer; as Solon I. Barraclough writes in his comment: "To discuss the advantages of big and linked farms in abstract like talk in general about preference (or needs or benefits) all depends — upon the goal, the time and the place."

The comprehensive references to each chapter will prove a boon to many. One thanks it; due to the editor for having given to the whole a cohesion which might well have lacked.

John H. Johnston

Agricultural Development and Economic Growth
Orr W. Burtch and M. B. Burtch
Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York
1967

EAST ASIA

Economic development
in East Asia
by I. Si mm kirln

basis, cannot be described by statistics alone. One cannot, for example, find in this book any reason why the per acre yield of main cereals has not increased with the pace of population in the region? (Questions like these cannot be answered by the content of this book.

In order to provide some kind of answer to such questions, the book must develop the interpretation of economic history in either of two directions: to include the institutional characteristics (the BCD* .inn. which are not always quantifiable in statistics; or to process the raw materials into some form which provides answers to the questions. Many attempts have already been made along the narrow line of approach but few of these are logical sequences to the approach adopted in this book.

It is unfortunate to go into the field of quantitative interpretation of history, but so-called economic indicators, because the statistics are not adequate for more reference; in fact, the rise in developed countries. Yet, a very brief statistical analysis would tell us, for example, that the change in cereal production over the period 1952-1963 in Asia and the Far East region, has been sustained on an average by area increases and yield increases, each amounting to about 36% and 46% respectively to the total production increase. The type of technology prevailing in the region is quite different from that prevailing in the developed regions, where yield increases and land saving technology have dominated production. Then, one can search for reasons why a particular production technology has been adopted in the region.

Needless to say, such type of statistical analysis does not provide the complete answer. But it does provide the question to be asked in order to find the answer. This book hardly poses questions, explicitly at least, aiming at its intended display of statistics; it does not ask why the countries in the region remain as poor as their statistical figures indicate. Probably it is left to the readers to pose and answer such questions themselves.

Regardless of what is asked for, the book is of outstanding value as a concise general survey of economic development in the region, encompassing industrialization but with substantial emphasis on economic development. Those who are specialists should get much out of the

book in the way of general perspective, those who are generalists should benefit by the way in which it quantifies the magnitude of the problems involved.

A four-volume series, *Industrial Development in Asia and the Pacific*, published by the United Nations, is a voluminous report with 500 pages per volume, including more on industrial development and on country statistics. The Kirin book, however, is a complementary volume to the voluminous (4% of the population, particularly) became at the occasional references comparing Mainland China with other countries of the region.

One last remark, many of the book include Japan in the regional totals. If the region had been known to include Japan, its economic characteristics are quite different from the rest of the region like the KAPI report. The overall picture of the developing countries in the region would have been much clearer and more impressive.

Shohei Kawakatsu

Economic Development in East Asia by E. S. Lu and Kirin Georgi Allen and Unwin, London, 1968 (153 p.).

The author has done a creditable job in collecting the available statistics covering such a wide field of economic development, ranging from population, food, foreign trade, raw materials, industrialization, transport and communications, national budgets, economic planning and international relations. The period for each country and the region as a whole, and compared with world totals, sometimes with the developed countries, for the period of postwar reconstruction (1945-53) and the following decade (1953-63). The selection (if available) is not always consistent, apparently due to unavailability of data.

History, however, even Economic history evolved surprisingly on a rational

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FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS

LETTERS

The dialogue on different aspects of development in the third world, started in *Ceres*, could be greatly helped by the active participation of our readers. The editors invite letters from all those who wish to express their opinions, comments and suggestions.

What can the individual do?

Dear Editor,

There is a massive and growing degree of concern by individuals in developed western countries about our responsibilities in this generation and our frequent failure to meet them. At the same time there arises a feeling of helplessness — can we, as persons, do anything genuinely effective? *Ceres* is helping to stimulate this concern — can it also turn it to useful ends?

Would it be possible for *Ceres* to deal with ways in which individuals can make a contribution? Articles might include details of specialist skills which are in short supply, a discussion of career possibilities and perhaps an appointments column.

Opportunities for qualified personnel, for short-term secondment to specific projects, might also be featured, as well as details of the means that are now available within the developed world for contributing to the many voluntary bodies that are committed to the third world's problems.

Graham Owens

Talybont, Cardiganshire, U.K.

Kanyam coffee crop

Dear Editor,

I was most concerned to read in your May/June issue of *Ceres* an erroneous report on the Kenya coffee crop (page 19). I would be most grateful if you would publish the true facts which are presented below:

The Kenya coffee crop was estimated for the quota year ending 30 September 1966 at 39,141 tons and the final deliveries received for this pool which closed on 7th September 1966 amounted to 18,605 tons. The export value of which is estimated at £17,511,750. These figures compare with that of the same period of the 1966/67 crop of 44,100 tons valued at £15,469,314. The potential crop from the bearing acreage is around 60,000 tons, the export value of which is estimated at £21,000,000.

Although coffee berry disease accounted for a large percentage of the loss of crop for the past year and is regarded as being very serious, it must be pointed out that adverse weather conditions also contributed to the short-fall. Scientists, responsible for investigations into the control of coffee berry disease, are now satisfied that a great measure of control can be obtained by spraying the trees with 'Difolatan'. If the scientists' recommendations are efficiently carried out, and this involves many sprayings throughout the year, there is no reason why individual producers should not adequately protect the crop and any loss should only be very small. Therefore, whilst it is obvious that a very large measure of control can be obtained, the cost is very high and further research which includes the necessity to reduce costs is now being undertaken.

In some high altitude districts where coffee is planted, the altitude makes the incidence of coffee berry disease greater due to the relatively damp cold conditions which generally prevail and which are more suitable for leaf production. It is therefore true to state that a very limited

acreage of planted coffee has been replaced with tea, but most of the land and the necessary altitude for coffee growing is unsuitable for the growing of tea.

Bruce McKenzie.

Minister of Agriculture, Kenya.

Word as important as deeds

Dear Editor,

In answer to your appeal in the 'Letter to the Reader' of *Ceres* No. 2 I would like to comment on some aspects of development in the third world.

I am afraid that I must disagree with the opinion of Mr. S.O. Adebó, director of the U.N. Institute for Training and Research, who was quoted in *Ceres* No. 2 as saying, in effect, that there has been too much talk and not enough action on aid.

If one considers the reality of our independence — the economic sacrifices, the scourge of illiteracy which devastates the third world — one can understand the imperative need to plan our economy and our acceptance of the sacrifices and the inconveniences which are necessary to bring about economic development. All this must be explained to our populations through words...

We must improve our ways of doing things and to bring this about we need trained people. Our students, once their European studies have finished, often do not want to return home. Their studies have been paid for by taxes imposed on poor peasants but they think that the salaries they will earn in their own countries will not be enough to bring them the luxuries they tasted in Europe...

Words — we have not had enough of them. Words are the medium of expression of the rural extension leaders who are helping our farmers to gradually abandon their traditional habits and to improve their productivity...

In this letter I am simply saying that 'too many words, not enough action' does not always apply to the developing countries who have so much need of helpful advice, both from their own people and from visiting experts.

I am a student in tropical agriculture in my third year at the Agricultural Faculty in Prague, a Togolese citizen and a subscriber to *Ores*.

Claude A. Tovor.
Prague

Education for an illto

Dear Editor,

Mr. Balogh's article on education in developing countries (*Ceres* No. 2) raises a universal issue. Of course the problems of agriculture and food production are paramount, but the development of these countries is hampered also by the current conceptions and practices in other fields.

Being an architect and town planner, I can voice my support of Mr. Balogh's views and extend his criticism of the present practice and education to the realm of my profession...

There are, nevertheless, many attempts to break with the obsolete and traditional ways of

thinking and acting. There is a new way of considering housing and squatters' settlement? as expressed by John Turner and supported by an excellent group in M.F.T. There is the remarkable work done by some teams of Mexican architects who produced easy, do-it-yourself methods for building village schools and hospitals. There is the humble but enthusiastic work of a group of architects in Recife (Brazil) and in Uruguay who designed very cheap building construction methods, using local materials and the unskilled labour of the people settled...

To conclude I want to stress the need to change the technical and the general education not only in the developing countries, in fact, it is an immediate and vital issue, but also in the rich countries...

The widespread students' revolts in countries of different regimes, indicate, as Sartre pointed out, a revolt against the dehumanized modern civilization, in which the individual is viewed mainly as producer and a statistical figure. We have much to learn from traditional societies: about the relations of the individual and the group and the possible composition of large societies without the destruction of intermediate groups which give the individual a feeling of life, a sense of belonging, and a judgment in moral feeling and behavior.

Michael Kuhn
Tel Aviv, Israel

Manchata and Pilkhi again

Dear Editor,

In your No. 4, July-August 1966 issue, you were kind enough to publish my article on Indian agriculture. I am afraid that some of your comments introducing my article may be misinterpreted: It is only in certain cases and areas that socio-cultural obstacles to new methods are really retarding progress. As we know social and agrarian structures, they are not doubt far from perfect, but they are not a major obstacle to agricultural development.

Gilbert Eiden
Geneva

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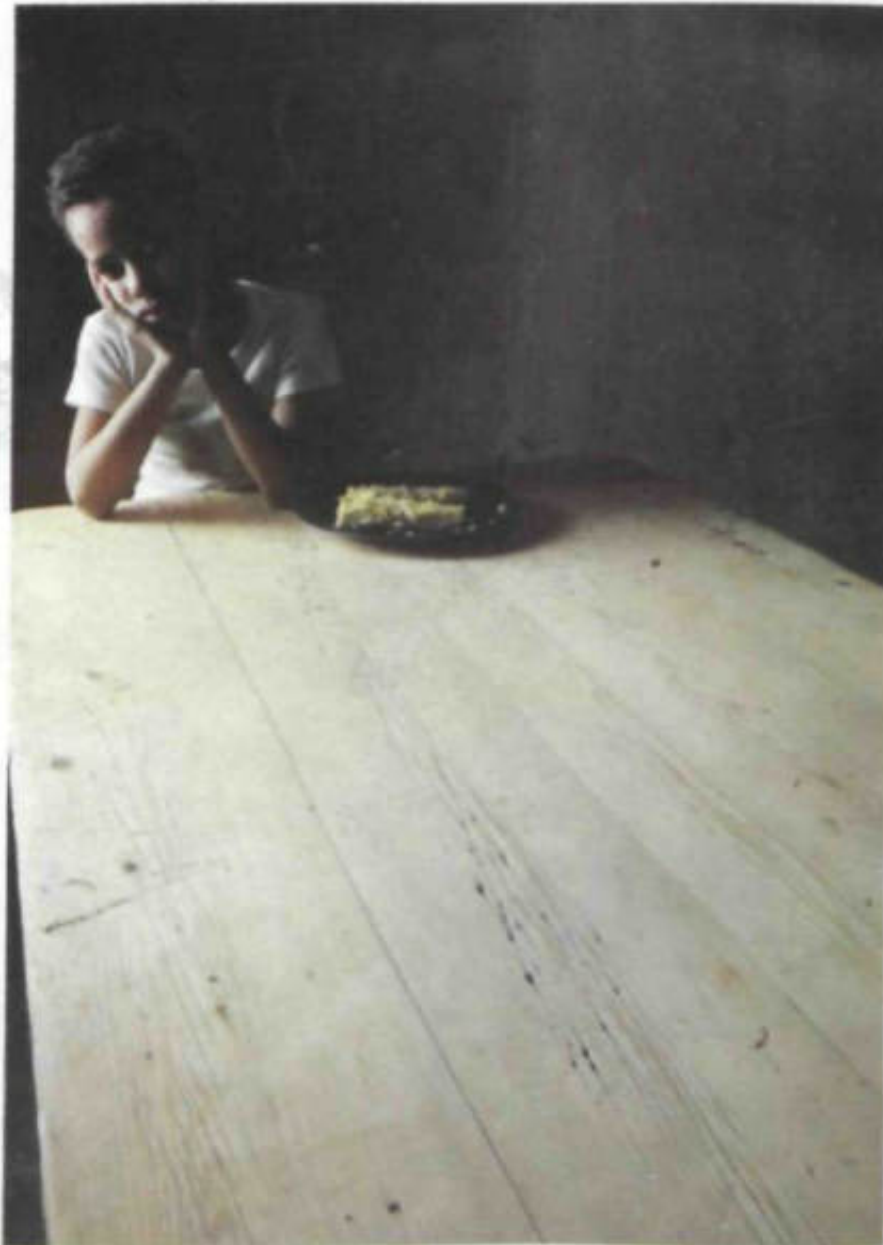
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